

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

*Commitment and Organisational Citizenship Behaviours in the
Libyan Banking Sector: Insights from Managerial and Non-
Managerial Employees – An Interpretivist Exploration.*

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By

NABIL M. ELJAAIDI

Bachelor in Business Administration, Nasser University, Libya 1999

Master of Management and Organisation, Academy of Graduate Studies, Libya, 2004

Postgraduate Diploma in Research Training, University of Hull, UK, 2011

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ABSTRACT

This study explores empirically insights into two organisational phenomena; commitment and Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs). This exploration includes identifying interpretations of them, perceptions of their antecedents, views of management attitudes towards them and awareness of connections between them and individual performance. This study argues that individual experience, perceptions and views construct various meanings of concepts. Thus, it explores how employees in the Libyan banking sector make sense of the meanings of both concepts. Accordingly, taking a subjective qualitative research approach, this study offers empirical insights of 20 managerial and 20 non-managerial employees in the workplace at the banking sector in Libya. Data was collected through semi-structured interviews, and thematic analysis was applied to construct networks of themes, sub-categories and categories.

Commitment is interpreted as a performance-related concept, which represents both attitudinal and behavioural aspects. It refers to having positive emotions, feelings and values attached to the organisation as well as practising positive behaviours, such as adhering to work regulations, obeying orders, and being punctual. However, OCBs are interpreted as social collaborative, intangibly rewarded, two-edged and mutable behaviours. These behaviours could be seen as in-role or extra-role behaviours based on the perceptions, experiences and views of the individuals.

This study contributes to theory and practice of both phenomena by highlighting characteristics of commitment and OCBs in the Libyan cultural context. Theoretically, it provides a different understanding from the mainstream conceptualisations of both phenomena, as similarities and differences were highlighted. It contributes to the theory by reaffirming the debate that commitment is an attitudinal-behavioural concept. Interestingly, this study gives evidence that commitment is directed towards performance, not just directed towards maintaining membership with the organisation.

With regard to OCBs, this study supports the claim that such behaviours are social, collaborative interactional behaviours, which spontaneously occur among employees. It reaffirms the debate that OCBs are voluntary, discretionary and individual-related behaviours. Moreover, this study adds to the theory by highlighting that participants interpret OCBs as intangibly rewarded and two-edged behaviours, which could be

directed towards the interest of organisation or towards the interest of individuals. However, these understandings of commitment and OCBs are deeply rooted in the social, cultural and organisational aspects of participants, which reaffirm the debate that different individuals, institutions and contexts interact differently and then produce and construct different meanings and different interpretations of phenomena. Further, this study provides details for researchers who are interested in refining measurements of commitment and OCBs in cross-cultural contexts by highlighting similarities and differences among different meanings of those phenomena.

On the other hand, in practice, this study provides details for influencing the overall organisational performance of local, private and foreign investors in the banking sector in Libya. Accordingly, this study provides guidelines for increasing organisational performance through in-role and extra-role performance. It highlights different organisational antecedents, management attitudes and connections with individual performance, which could be used to increase both commitment and OCBs, as both are seen as performance-related phenomena. Thus, it provides guidance for better management of human resources of those banks, which supports the privatisation strategy introduced in 2005 by the Libyan government in order to increase productivity of the banking sector. This in general will help in improving the current situation in the banking sector, consistent with the recent political and social change in the country.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract	i
Acknowledgments.....	iii
Table of Contents.....	iv
List of Figures	xii
List of Tables.....	xiv
Chapter 1: The Research Overview.....	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Reflections of my Personal Position	2
1.3 Research Background.....	4
1.3.1 Phenomena of research	4
1.3.2 Context of the study	4
1.4 Research Objectives.....	7
1.5 Research Questions	8
1.6 Research Importance.....	9
1.7 Research Approach	11
1.8 Contribution of the Study.....	11
1.9 Structure of the Thesis	13
Chapter 2: Conceptualisations of Commitment in The Literature.....	16
2.1 Introduction	16
2.2 Commitment in the Workplace.....	17
2.2.1 Conceptualisations of commitment.....	17
2.2.2 Types of commitment.....	25
2.2.3 Commitment foci	31
2.3 Commitment in cross-cultural management research.....	31
2.4 Antecedents and Outcomes of Commitment.....	33
2.4.1 Antecedents of commitment	33
2.4.2 Outcomes of commitment.....	37

2.5	Criticism of Commitment Theory	39
2.6	Conclusion	40
Chapter 3: Conceptualisations of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours in The Literature		42
3.1	Introduction	42
3.2	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	42
3.2.1	Theoretical frameworks of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	42
3.2.2	Cross-cultural research of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	55
3.2.3	Recent conceptualisation of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours.....	58
3.3	Antecedents of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	58
3.3.1	Individual-related antecedents	60
3.3.2	Social-related antecedents	61
3.3.3	Organisational-related antecedents.....	62
3.4	Outcomes of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours at workplace.....	68
3.5	Criticism of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours theory	71
3.6	Conclusion	73
Chapter 4: The Research Context		75
4.1	Introduction	75
4.2	An Overview of Libya.....	75
4.3	Banking sector in Libya	78
4.3.1	An overview.....	78
4.3.2	Brief Outline of Working Banks in Libya	80
4.3.3	Foreign Investments in the Banking Sector	82
4.4	Management practices and Employees' Characteristics in the Context	84
4.4.1	Management practices	85
4.4.2	Cultural and societal characteristics of Libyan employees	89
4.5	Conclusion	92
Chapter 5: The Research Methodology.....		95
5.1	Introduction	95
5.2	Reflections of my Personal Position	95

5.3	Methodological Evaluation of the Literature	97
5.4	Phenomenological Research Design.....	101
5.4.1	Background of Phenomenology.....	101
5.4.2	Transcendental phenomenology	103
5.4.3	Interpretative phenomenology	106
5.4.4	Interpretivist epistemological position.....	115
5.4.5	Subjectivist ontological position.....	117
5.4.6	Position of the researcher	118
5.4.7	Justifications for adopting an interpretative phenomenological research design	119
5.4.8	Research fit into the phenomenological paradigm	121
5.5	Inductive vs. Deductive Approaches.....	123
5.5.1	Deductive reasoning.....	123
5.5.2	Inductive reasoning	124
5.5.3	Justifications for applying the inductive approach	128
5.6	Research Method and Technique.....	130
5.6.1	Snowball sampling.....	130
5.6.2	Semi-structured interviews	137
5.6.3	Field work procedures	138
5.6.4	Thematic Data Analysis	139
5.7	Assessing Research Quality in Interpretative Paradigm	146
5.7.1	Research trustworthiness.....	147
5.7.2	Research authenticity	148
5.7.3	Quality of this study	149
5.8	Ethical Considerations	152
5.9	Conclusion	153
	Chapter 6: Empirical Exploration & Construction of Insights of Commitment	155
6.1	Introduction	155
6.2	Reflections of my Personal Position	155
6.3	Interpretations of Commitment at the Workplace	156

6.3.1	Non-Managerial participants' interpretations of commitment	156
6.3.2	Non-managerial participants' interpretations and demographic data	160
6.3.3	Discussion	163
6.3.4	Managerial participants' interpretations of commitment.....	165
6.3.5	Managerial participants' interpretations and demographic data.....	171
6.3.6	Discussion	172
6.3.7	Comparison of interpretations of commitment by non-managerial and managerial participants	174
6.4	Perceptions of Antecedents of Commitment in the Libyan Banking Sector	175
6.4.1	Non-managerial participants' perceptions of antecedents of commitment	175
6.4.2	Non-managerial participants' Perceptions of antecedents of commitment and demographic data.....	178
6.4.3	Discussion	179
6.4.4	Managerial participants' perceptions of antecedents of commitment.....	181
6.4.5	Managerial participants' perceptions of antecedents of commitment and demographic data.....	184
6.4.6	Discussion	185
6.4.7	Comparison of perceptions of commitment antecedents between non-managerial and managerial participants	187
6.5	Views of Management Attitudes toward Commitment	190
6.5.1	Management attitudes towards commitment as seen by non-managerial participants.....	191
6.5.2	Non-managerial participants' views of management attitudes and demographic data.....	194
6.5.3	Discussion	195
6.5.4	Management attitudes towards commitment as seen by managerial participants.....	196
6.5.5	Managerial participants' views of management attitudes towards commitment and demographic data.....	199
6.5.6	Discussion	201
6.5.7	Comparison between views of non-managerial and managerial participants regarding management attitudes to commitment.....	202
6.6	Awareness of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance	205

6.6.1	Non-managerial participants' awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance	205
6.6.2	Non-managerial participants' awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance and demographic data	208
6.6.3	Discussion	209
6.6.4	Managerial participants' awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance	210
6.6.5	Managerial participants' awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance and Demographic data	212
6.6.6	Discussion	214
6.6.7	Comparing non-managerial and managerial participants' awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance.....	214
6.7	Conclusion	215
Chapter 7: Empirical Exploration and construction of insights into OCBs.....		220
7.1	Introduction	220
7.2	Reflections of my Personal Position	220
7.3	Interpretations of OCBs in the Libyan Banking Sector.....	221
7.3.1	Interpretations of OCBs by non-managerial participants.....	221
7.3.2	Dimensions of OCBs.....	227
7.3.3	Demographic data and interpretations of non-managerial participants	228
7.3.4	Discussion	230
7.3.5	Interpretations of OCBs by managerial participants	233
7.3.6	Dimensions	239
7.3.7	Demographic data and interpretations of OCBs by managerial participants	242
7.3.8	Discussion	244
7.3.9	Comparison of interpretations of OCBs by non-managerial and managerial participants	246
7.3.10	Discussion	246
7.4	Perceptions of Antecedents of OCBs.....	248
7.4.1	Non-managerial participants' perceptions of antecedents of OCBs	248

7.4.2	Demographic data and perceptions of antecedents of OCBs by non-managerial participants	251
7.4.3	Discussion	252
7.4.4	Perceptions of antecedents of OCBs by managerial participants.....	253
7.4.5	Demographic data and perceptions of antecedents of OCBs by managerial participants	256
7.4.6	Discussion	257
7.4.7	Comparison of perceptions of antecedents by non-managerial and managerial participants	259
7.5	Views of Management Attitudes towards OCBs	260
7.5.1	Views of management attitudes of OCBs as seen by non-managerial participants	260
7.5.2	Demographic data and views of management attitudes of OCBs of non-managerial participants	263
7.5.3	Discussion	265
7.5.4	Views of management attitudes towards OCBs as seen by managerial participants...	266
7.5.5	Demographic data and management attitudes of OCBs by managerial participants .	269
7.5.6	Discussion	271
7.5.7	Comparison of views of management attitudes towards OCBs by non-managerial and managerial participants	272
7.5.8	Discussion	272
7.6	Awareness of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance	274
7.6.1	Awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance as seen by non-managerial participants	274
7.6.2	Demographic data and awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance by non-managerial participants.....	278
7.6.3	Discussion	279
7.7	Awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance by managerial participants	281
7.7.2	Demographic data and managers' awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance.....	283
7.7.3	Discussion	285

7.7.4	Comparison of awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance as seen by non-managerial and managerial participants	287
7.8	Conclusion	287
Chapter 8: Discussion and Revisiting the Literature		292
8.1	Introduction	292
8.2	Commitment	292
8.2.1	Characteristics of commitment in the banking sector in Libya	292
8.2.2	Revisiting the literature of commitment	295
8.3	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	308
8.3.1	Characteristics of OCBs in the banking sector in Libya	308
8.3.2	Revisiting the Literature of OCBs	319
8.4	Commitment and OCBs; Are they different Concepts?	327
8.5	Conclusion	330
Chapter 9: Research Implications and Conclusion		332
9.1	Introduction	332
9.2	Implications for Theories of Commitment and OCBs	332
9.2.1	Implications for theory of commitment	332
9.2.2	Implications for theory of OCBs	334
9.2.3	Implications for cross-culture and contextual theory	336
9.3	Implications for Practice in the Libyan Banking Sector	338
9.3.1	Individual-related and valued concepts	338
9.3.2	Attitudinal-behavioural concepts	339
9.3.3	Social interaction and cultural influence	339
9.3.4	Organisational performance- related concepts	340
9.3.5	Individually-directed and organisationally-controllable concepts	340
9.3.6	Possibility of misuse of both concepts	341
9.3.7	Organisational culture and job descriptions	342
9.3.8	Recent situation in Libya	342
9.4	Limitations and Future Research	343

9.4.1	Study limitations	343
9.4.2	Future research.....	344
9.5	The Research Conclusion	345
References		350
Appendix 1- Interview structure.....		365

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Research Structure.....	15
Figure 2: Antecedents of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	59
Figure 3: Husserl’s philosophical assumptions of Transcendental Phenomenology	104
Figure 4: Heidegger’s philosophy of interpretative phenomenology	112
Figure 5: Relationships between research and theory in deductive and inductive approaches.....	125
Figure 6: Strategies of inductive reasoning	126
Figure 7: Research’s inductive processes.....	127
Figure 8: Major differences between deductive and inductive approaches to research	128
Figure 9: Snowball Sampling & Banks in Misurata City	136
Figure 10: Snowball Sampling & Banks in Sirte City	137
Figure 11: Illustrations of the Data Display in the Data Analysis Chapters.....	144
Figure 12: Thematic Network shows how Sub-categories and Themes are Liked to one Category ...	145
Figure 13: Summary of the Research Methodology	153
Figure 14: Thematic and Subcategories network of Interpretations of Commitment as Seen by Non- Managerial Participants	160
Figure 15: Thematic and Subcategories network of Interpretations of Commitment by Managerial Participants.....	170
Figure 16: Thematic network of themes and Subcategories of Perceptions of Antecedents of Commitment as Seen by Non-Managerial Participants	178
Figure 17: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Perceptions of Antecedents of Commitment as Seen by Managerial Participants.....	183
Figure 18: Classifications of Management Attitudes	191
Figure 19: Thematic network of themes and Subcategories of Views of Management Attitudes as Seen by Non-Managerial Participants.....	193
Figure 20: Thematic network of themes and Subcategories of Views of Management Attitudes towards Commitment as Seen by Managerial Participants.....	199
Figure 21: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Non-Managerial Participants’ Awareness of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance	207

Figure 22: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Managerial Participants' Awareness of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance	212
Figure 23: Network of Categories & Subcategories of Insights of Commitment in the Banking Sector in Libya as Seen by Participants	218
Figure 24: Structure of Categories and Subcategories of Insights into Commitment in the Libyan Banking Sector.....	219
Figure 25: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Interpretations of OCBs by Non-Managerial Participants	226
Figure 26: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Dimensions and Behaviours of OCBs as Seen by Non-Managerial Participants	228
Figure 27: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Interpretations of OCBs by Managerial Participants mutable	238
Figure 28: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Dimensions of OCBs as Seen by Managerial Participants	241
Figure 29: Thematic Network of themes and Subcategories of Perceptions of Antecedents of OCBs by Non-Managerial Participants.....	250
Figure 30: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Perceptions of Antecedents of OCBs as Seen by Managerial Participants	255
Figure 31: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of View of Management Attitudes as Seen by Non-Managerial Participants.....	263
Figure 32: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Views of Management Attitudes towards OCBs as Seen by Managerial Participants.....	269
Figure 33: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Non-Managerial Participants' Awareness of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance.....	277
Figure 34: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Managerial Participants' Awareness of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance.....	283
Figure 35: Network of Categories & Subcategories of Insights into OCBs in the Banking Sector in Libya as Seen by Participants	290
Figure 36: Structure of Categories and Subcategories of Insights into OCBs in the Libyan Banking Sector	291
Figure 37: Interpretations of commitment in the Libyan banking sector	293
Figure 38: linking the philosophical and analysis frameworks with the research claim.....	347
Figure 39: the Research Conclusion.....	349

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Distinguishing Contextual Performance from Task Performance	51
Table 2: Comparing the Mainstream Frameworks of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	54
Table 3: Details of Non-Managerial Participants	132
Table 4: Details of Managerial Participants	134
Table 5: Preparing Interview sets for Data Analysis	143
Table 6: Classification of Components of Commitment Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants	161
Table 7: Classification of Components of Commitment Based on Educational Attainment of Non-Managerial Participants	162
Table 8: Classification of Components of Commitment Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participants	163
Table 9: Classification of Components of Commitment Based on Length of Service of Managerial Participants	171
Table 10: Classification of Components of Commitment Based on Educational Attainment of Managerial Participants	171
Table 11: Classifications of Components of Commitment Based on Age of Managerial Participants	172
Table 12: Classifications of Components of Commitment Based on Position of Managerial Participants	172
Table 13: Components of Commitment by Managerial and Non-Managerial Interviewees	174
Table 14: Classification of Antecedents of Commitment Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants	178
Table 15: Classification of Antecedents of Commitment Based on Educational Attainment of Non-Managerial Participants	179
Table 16: Classification of Antecedents of Commitment Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participants	179
Table 17: Classifications of Antecedents of Commitment Based on Length of Service of Managerial Participants	184
Table 18: Classifications of Antecedents of Commitment Based on Educational Attainment of Managerial Participants	185
Table 19: Classifications of Antecedents of Commitment Based on Age of Managerial Participants	185

Table 20: Classifications of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Position of Managerial Participants	185
Table 21: Subcategories of Antecedents of Commitment as Seen by Non -Managerial and Managerial Participants	187
Table 22: Classifications of Management Attitudes towards Commitment Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants	194
Table 23: Classifications of Management Attitudes towards Commitment Based on Educational Attainments of Non-Managerial Participants	194
Table 24: Classifications of Management Attitudes towards Commitment Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participants	195
Table 25: Classifications of Management Attitudes of Commitment Based on Length of Service of Managerial Participants	200
Table 26: Classifications of Management Attitudes of Commitment Based on Educational Attainment of Managerial Participants.....	200
Table 27: Classifications of Management Attitudes of Commitment Based on Age of Managerial Participants	201
Table 28: Classifications of Management Attitudes of Commitment Based on Position of Managerial Participants	201
Table 29: Classifications of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants	208
Table 30: Classifications of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance by Non-Managerial Participants based on Educational Attainment	208
Table 31: Classifications of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participant	209
Table 32: Classifications of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants Based on Length of Service.....	212
Table 33: Classifications of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants based on Educational Attainment	213
Table 34: Classifications of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants based on Age.....	213
Table 35: Classifications of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants Based on Position	213
Table 36: Classification of Components of OCBs Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants	229

Table 37: Classification of Components of OCBs Based on Educational Attainment of Non-Managerial Participants	230
Table 38: Classification of Components of OCBs Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participants	230
Table 39: Classification of Components of OCBs Based on Length of Service of Managerial Participants	242
Table 40: Classification of Components of OCBs Based on Educational Attainment of Managerial Participants	243
Table 41: Classifications of Components of OCBs Based on Age of Managerial Participants	243
Table 42: Classifications of Components of OCBs Based on Position of Managerial Participants	244
Table 43: Comparison of Interpretations of OCBs by Non-Managerial and Managerial Participants	246
Table 44: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants	251
Table 45: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Educational Attainment of Non-Managerial Participants	251
Table 46: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participants	252
Table 47: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Length of Service of Managerial Participants	256
Table 48: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Educational Attainment of Managerial Participants	256
Table 49: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Age of Managerial Participants	257
Table 50: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Position of Managerial Participants	257
Table 51: Classification of Management Attitudes towards OCBs Based on Length of Service by Non-Managerial Participants	264
Table 52: Classification of Management Attitudes towards OCBs Based on Educational Attainments of Non-Managerial Participants	264
Table 53: Classification of Management Attitudes towards OCBs Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participants	264
Table 54: Classification of Management Attitudes of OCBs Based on Length of Service of Managerial Participants	270
Table 55: Classification of Management Attitudes of OCBs Based on Educational Attainment of Managerial Participants	270

Table 56: Classification of Management Attitudes of OCBs Based on Age of Managerial Participants	271
Table 57: Classification of Management Attitudes of OCBs Based on Position of Managerial Participants	271
Table 58: Comparing Visions of Management Attitudes by Non-Managerial and Managerial Participants	272
Table 59: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants	278
Table 60: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance Based on Educational Attainment of Non-Managerial Participant.....	278
Table 61: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participant	279
Table 62: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants Based on Length of Service	284
Table 63: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants based on Educational Attainment	284
Table 64: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants based on Age	285
Table 65: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants Based Position.....	285
Table 66: Points of Differences between Commitment and OCBs as seen by Participants.....	330

CHAPTER 1: THE RESEARCH OVERVIEW

1.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research is to shed light on different perspectives and meanings of two phenomena; Commitment and Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) at the workplace in the Libyan banking sector. Thus, I aim to explore the insights and understand the interpretations of managerial and non-managerial employees of those phenomena. I argue that imposing one meaning, definition or interpretation across cultural contexts may be misleading for academics and practitioners in organisations. Since meanings of organisational concepts differ among individuals, organisations and contexts. Hence, the most realistic explanations are based on empirical investigation and engagement with those who experienced the studied phenomenon.

Accordingly, this study gives participants the opportunity to articulate what commitment and OCBs mean to them. My experience in management and organisational studies, supports the claim that management and organisational practices are highly rooted in the values, interests and understandings of individuals and what is seen as positive for specific individuals is not necessarily seen in the same ways by others (Parnell and Crandall, 2003). In organisational and cross-cultural studies, researchers have argued that cultural and social contexts influence people's values, views and interpretations of actions and concepts. Thus, I ask in this study what insights employees have in relation to commitment and OCBs, how they interpret them and what they see as roots and attitudes related to them. Since this research considers different individual experiences, understandings and realities in relation to commitment and OCBs, I adopt an interpretivist, subjectivist stance. This, I believe, allows for better positions and deeper understanding of the phenomena of the study.

1.2 Reflections of my Personal Position

In order to give an honest account of qualitative research (QR), scholars have argued that researchers should reflect on their research process. This is usually done by explicitly stating their own and personal values, thoughts and opinions that shaped all the research decisions and process (Symon and Cassell, 2004; Creswell, 2007). Accordingly, in this section of this chapter I will explain my personal position in relation to the research.

I was a lecturer at Misurata University and my interests were in researching and teaching about organisation-related issues. Therefore, when the government declared the possibility of sponsoring PhD researchers, I expressed my interest in studying abroad to improve my research skills and enhance my knowledge of Organisational Behaviour and HRM by studying attitudes and behaviours of employees. This was the next step building on my Masters in Management and Organisation from the Academy of Graduate Studies in Libya. When I came to the UK I first had to study English for one year, starting in September/2006, and then I had to formulate a PhD proposal. Even though my preliminary interest was to study OCBs, the idea of studying commitment was a meeting point between me and Professor Stephen Swailes¹. The interest and help of Professor Swailes inspired me to focus on commitment and QR, as a shared point of interest and in line with our common desire to explore commitment in different cultural contexts, as I wanted to do some research about Libya and he wanted to explore insights into commitment from contexts other than the western context. Moreover, I wanted to do research that would help in improving management in my country, where there are problems of ineffective management and low performance. After spending a year in reviewing the literature, I found solid grounds for this research, as to explore commitment and OCBs in Libya would respond to several of my interests and help to achieve my aims of developing research and knowledge in Organisational Behaviour.

The argument, aims and questions of this research were shaped by my previous experiences, especially in two situations; first, when I met with bank managers who

¹ Professor Stephen Swailes was my first supervisor at Hull University until September/2010

claimed to have different understandings and definitions of concepts from the academic understanding. This attracted my attention to the idea of different understandings of concepts based on culture, position and sectors, as I started to think of multiple realities. The second situation when Professor Swailes and Professor Cunliffe² drew my attention to the possibility of doing subjectivist qualitative research, an approach which appealed to me for several reasons (explained in chapter 5). These “moments” were the most influential moments for shaping this research.

The argument of this research has been presented in two highly prestigious conferences, the 11th IHRM at Aston University and the BAM 2010 conference in Sheffield. In the two conferences I gained invaluable feedback from organisational scholars, which was much appreciated and taken into consideration in this research.

² Professor Ann Cunliffe was a Professor in Organisation Theory at Hull University 2007-2009.

1.3 Research Background

1.3.1 *Phenomena of research*

Commitment and OCBs are widely discussed concepts in organisational behaviour and HRM. Even though commitment is seen as attitudes of individuals and OCBs are seen as behaviours of individuals, the literature has several different conceptualisations of both of constructs, as I will illustrate in chapters two and three. Literature on commitment has indicated several different perspectives. Some referred to commitment as an attitude and others maintained that it is a behaviour. Thus, commitment has been interpreted based on different, sometimes contradictory theoretical positions. Generally commitment refers to three aspects: (1) affective commitment, which refers to the emotional attachment and involvement with specific organisation (Mowday et al., 1979). (2) Continuance commitment refers to staying at the organisation. It points to the awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1997). (3) Normative commitment refers to feeling obligated to continue staying in the organisation (Meyer and Parfyonova, 2010).

OCBs, also, are multi-faceted and known under many other names: organisational spontaneity behaviours, organisational prosocial behaviours, contextual performance and extra-role behaviours. Each of these labels points to a specific theoretical perspective of interpreting and describing behaviours that employees practise at the workplace. These behaviours, to varying degrees, are not described within employees' jobs descriptions and not rewarded (Van Scotter, 2000; Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2011).

1.3.2 *Context of the study*

I assume that not only does each national context have its own characteristics and factors, but so do each sector and organisation. Thus, I challenge the argument that what is appropriate and successful for one organisation is successful and appropriate for others. Therefore, this study explores commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector, aiming to highlight how employees interpret these phenomena and how their interpretations are different from the mainstream conceptualisations of them.

The banking sector in Libya is on the verge of very important reforms and response to the diversification strategy adopted by the government to reduce dependence on oil as a source of revenues for the country. Parallel with the political, social and economic

reforms in Libya, the banking sector is following in the privatisation strategy started in 2005 by the previous regime. This sector has been through a series of changes in the last 10 years. While some banks have been entered into participation with foreign partners, others were merged or privatised (Shnibish, 2008). Therefore, there are now three kinds of ownership of banks in Libya: shared ownership with foreign partners, shared ownership with stockholders and private banks owned by individuals and institutions. This sector is described as having a mechanical static organisational structure, with precisely defined jobs, central decision on appointing new candidates, high accountability and regulated work procedures and inflexible work systems. Most employees are male Libyans, and there are no part-time jobs. Pressure and bottlenecks are often reported, especially at the beginning of each month. Nevertheless, the demand for investing in the sector is high, as foreign, Arab and European banks have declared their interest (The Banker, 2007). Accordingly, to improve the situation and secure better training for Libyan employees, the Libyan government has introduced Libyanization legislations, which forces foreign investors to employ Libyan employees.

Managers believe that banking needs highly committed employees, due to the confidentiality and sensitivity of dealings with customers. However, several negative characteristics affect levels of commitment and OCBs: lack of participation in decision making and inflexibility. Furthermore, bureaucracy in the banking sector has led to lack of trust, and might be thought to create a culture that restricts practice of OCBs. The high use of laws and regulations in the sector has also restricted development of a supportive environment for practising OCBs. On the other hand, working in this sector has several advantages; wide network relationships with other people in different organisations, positive self-image and recently high salaries and incentives.

When foreign banks started working in the banking sector, it was reported that better work conditions and improvements were seen in local banks. For example, employees received higher salaries, more effective training and more advantages such as cars and medical services. Accordingly, more engagement with positive behaviours at work, such as being more committed employees and more engagement in OCBs, are expected due to the norms of reciprocity. However, this is not to say that employees get engaged with such positive behaviours only because of exchange relationships. Rather, it is to say that employees have another reason to engage more in positive behaviours, added to the impact of collectivist culture and social interaction.

Based on the current situation, I think the strategy of liberalising the economy will be maintained. This could lead to the establishing of free-market strategies and applications, which could provide more space for the private sector to engage in providing services and goods in Libya. This, in turn, would lead to a more competitive environment, where having a stable, loyal and highly performing workforce will be a source of advantage. Banks are not excluded from this equation. A more competitive environment in the banking sector is highly expected³. Therefore, having employees who exert extra efforts beyond their jobs would increase the efficiency of local and foreign banks through increasing cohesiveness among groups and group members, effective social interaction and feelings of self-value at work. All of these factors will be conducive to achieving the organisational goals of banks and individuals.

I have chosen to investigate commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector for the following reasons:

- (1) Both commitment and OCBs are performance-related concepts. This would put more weight on them as aspects of increasing organisational performance. Thus, I will study them in order to gain better understanding of how to manage organisational performance. Recently, it is argued that performance consists of two types of behaviours (Tremblay et al., 2010); (a) In-role behaviours (IRBs), which refer to the main activities of jobs, represented in this study by commitment, and (b) Extra-role behaviours (ERBs), which refer to activities beyond job requirements, represented by OCBs.
- (2) Another reason for choosing commitment and OCBs is the need for more explorations of them in different cultural contexts, as this recently has provided organisational researchers with better understanding of them in cross-culture management (Wasti, 2008; Farh et al., 2008).
- (3) As we will see later in the literature review, commitment and OCBs are more appreciated in the service sector than other sectors. Therefore, choosing the banking sector would help to improve understanding of both phenomena. Furthermore, the banking sector in Libya is a well organised and well managed sector to which access for research could be guaranteed.

³ Interview with Saddeq Omar Elkaber the governor of the Libyan Central Bank, Reuters, available at: Arab News.com website, published on: Feb 26, 2012 at 22:45.

- (4) Another issue is the lack of previous research about both phenomena in the Libyan context. Exploring them would help local and foreign banks to improve their performance management by designing more employee-relevant HR and work policies especially in the light of the “Libyanization” law.
- (5) On reviewing the literature regarding OCBs, I found that there is a need for research about them in new cultural contexts in order to; (a) identify new forms of OCBs; (b) ascertain to what extent employees engage in them; (c) explore links between antecedents and outcomes of OCBs; (d) understand how they are practised and linked with organisational performance (Organ et al., 2006).
- (6) Commitment and OCBs are strongly related to individual, cultural and social characteristics of the people who apply them. Therefore, such association between these phenomena and contextual characteristics of employees would help the foreign and local banks work in Libya to find alternative policies, implications and work systems that come from social, cultural and institutional resources that already exist in the real workplaces.

1.4 Research Objectives

The main aim of this research is to exhibit deep understanding of how managerial and non-managerial employees interpret commitment and OCBs in the banking sector. Thus, I aim to explore how participants interpret both phenomena, and what antecedents, attitudes and performance-connections they attach to them. To do so, the following objectives are pursued:

- (1) To explore new and different insights of participants into commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector.
- (2) To provide detailed, empirically-based descriptions of real-life perceptions of antecedents of commitment and OCBs in order to understand the roots behind participant’ insights.
- (3) To investigate how employees and managers value commitment and OCBs at the workplace in the Libyan banking sector.

- (4) To identify empirically how employees and managers' insights differ from traditional mainstream conceptualisations of commitment and OCBs.
- (5) To develop understanding and practice of commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector, as individual experiences are invaluable sources for policy makers.

1.5 Research Questions

Based on the research argument and objectives, several questions were formed in order to achieve those aims. This research will be guided by the research questions in all of its chapters. By doing this, I will be aware of the limits and boundaries of the study, as in many processes of QR, it is not very clear where and when to stop (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Accordingly, this research aims to answer two general questions: (1) What insights do Libyan employees have in relation to commitment and OCBs? (2) How do their insights differ from the traditional mainstream conceptualisations of commitment and OCBs? These questions are represented by questions as follows;

In order to explore insights of participants, the first research question is about meanings that managerial and non-managerial employees give to commitment and OCBs at the workplace:

(RQ-1) How do managerial and non-managerial employees interpret commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector?

To have a deep understanding of participants' insights into commitment and OCBs, it was vital to explore the motivators that push participants to be committed and exert effort beyond their job duties. Accordingly, the second research question is:

(RQ-2) What antecedents are perceived by managerial and non-managerial participants of commitment and OCBs in work in the Libyan banking sector?

To explore insights of both of research phenomena, it is important to understand what attitudes managers have towards them, as this would highlight the values and appreciation attached to commitment and OCBs in the sector. Thus, the third research question is:

(RQ-3) What views do managerial and non-managerial participants have regarding management attitudes towards commitment and OCBs at the workplace in the Libyan banking sector?

The relationship between commitment and OCBs, on one hand, and individual performance, on the other hand, has been little researched (Bush and Jiao, 2011; Tan and Lim, 2012). Therefore, the fourth question is concerned to explore possible connections between each phenomenon and individual performance, as follows:

(RQ-4) What connections are managerial and non-managerial participants aware of between commitment and OCBs on one hand and individual performance, on the other hand, in the Libyan banking sector?

The last research question is intended to highlight differences and similarities between participants' insights of commitment and OCBs and traditional conceptualisations of them in the literature, as this would increase our understanding of participants' insights of both phenomena. Thus, this question is:

(RQ-5) How do managerial and non-managerial participants' insights differ from the traditional mainstream theories of commitment and OCBs?

1.6 Research Importance

This research studies commitment and OCBs in a very different cultural context from their original context. As we saw earlier, I aim to explore the interpretations and insights of participants from the banking sector. Thus, the importance of this research is due to its possible contribution to better understanding of both phenomena and better management in the research context, as shown below:

First, this research will empirically enlighten our understanding of theories of commitment and OCBs. As seen above, the research questions are all about exploring different perspectives and interpretations of participants, which means that the focus here is on highlighting possible different meanings. For example, this study is important because it will explore different antecedents of commitment, an issue on which the

literature is insufficient (Organ et al., 2006; Luchak and Gellatly, 2007). This study also derives importance due the lack of comprehensive theory on commitment in cultural management research (Wasti, 2008). Therefore, this study will contribute in filling the gap by exploring and broadening our understanding of commitment in the Libyan context.

Furthermore, building on the recent argument that OCBs are interpreted differently among cultural contexts (Farh et al., 2008), this study is important because of the scarcity of research exploring how participants make sense of this concept in their workplace life. Thus, it will provide insights into how Libyan employees in the banking sector perceive this phenomenon, which will help towards better knowledge and practice of OCBs. In addition, literature of OCBs has highlighted that there is an ambiguity in conceptualisations of OCBs and their forms (Mayfield and Taber, 2010; Spence et al., 2011). Therefore, studying them qualitatively in a new and different context will add new insights through considering different contextual factors, which will enrich theory of OCBs.

Second, this research is also important due to its potential value in improving management of the banking sector in Libya. Understanding insights of participants will lead to improvements in management strategies and organisational design. Thus, banks will become more effective and can help individuals to improve their skills and competences at work. Furthermore, this study is distinguished by empirically driven insights and explores a non-traditional context for the first time. Therefore, it will help banks in getting stronger and more competitive positions in the sector. This, I believe, will support the local and foreign banks and subsequently will give support to the diversification strategy adopted by the Libyan government to reform the Libyan economy.

Moreover, providing banks with insights into commitment and OCBs will help them to improve their services, which is necessary in line with the current changes in the political, economic and social systems. Therefore, the importance of this study will be highlighted through its possible impact on better performance to meet the high expectations of people for a better life through effective services, workplaces and management. In particular since the revolution, Libyans have more positive expectations of changing the poor performance of their institutions all around the country, aiming for better conditions of life. Thus, this study will shed light on possible ways of increasing the performance of

one of the most influential sectors in the country. Overall, this study is important because it will contribute to better management and success of banks.

1.7 Research Approach

Even though qualitative research in general has been challenged by traditional researchers, I believe that each research methodology has its own strengths and weaknesses. Thus, the research aims and questions play an important role in determining the success of a certain research method. Accordingly, in this research I adopted an interpretivist phenomenological approach with the aim of better understanding the research questions and aims. Using this approach helped in providing different insights and alternative lenses to explore individual experiences and meanings attached to commitment and OCBs. Therefore, this research was conducted based on an interpretivist subjectivist philosophical position and a qualitative phenomenological research design. Data were collected by interviewing participants, who were chosen by snowball sampling, and were analysed by thematic analysis. The quality of this research was evaluated based on criteria suitable for the research's theoretical positions, such as trustworthiness and authenticity (*for more details, see chapter 5*).

I believe that this approach is consistent with the research aims and reflects my honest views. It helps to provide a deep understanding of the subjective meanings of individuals, and allows for a variety of interpretations and views, as well as accepting different perspectives of participants.

1.8 Contribution of the Study

Research has pointed out that the contribution of qualitative research is not easily achieved, as findings cannot be generalized to a broader scope. For this research, the contribution will be highlighted through comparing and contrasting the insights of participants with theories of commitment and OCBs. Thus, providing different ways of interpreting those phenomena is the main contribution as well as providing practical guidelines for better management of HR in the sector. The contribution includes; (1) Theoretical contributions; (a) This research will contribute by offering enlightening insights of commitment and OCBs, which will lead to better understanding of both of them. (b) It will contribute in filling the gap in organisational and management research in

the Middle East, as it will provide insights of employees representing that context, which will also enhance our understanding of their thoughts, perceptions and interpretations of commitment and OCBs. In other words, this study will provide empirical data on a country (Libya) that has not been well researched but which promises potential for international business, showing similarities and differences in insights of commitment and OCBs with mainstream conceptualisations. This in turn will contribute to better understanding and development of theory of the two phenomena. (c) This study will contribute by clarifying the concepts and consolidating the existing conceptualization of them, as it will explore commitment and OCBs in a different culture and find out how they are similar to or different with other cultures, which is considered as useful contribution towards better understanding of these concepts. (2) Practical contributions are also expected from this research, as it will help practitioners, managers, HR managers and policy makers to have good understanding of how to manage their workforce. Thus, it will offer managers in private and state-owned local banks as well as managers in foreign banks detailed descriptions of accounts of how Libyan employees interpret commitment and OCBs, which will help them to improve performance management, and subsequently, will help in improving the performance of banks and employees.

In brief, this study will improve both understanding and management of commitment and OCBs, which will serve: (1) organisational researchers, by providing data about two organisational concepts for future research, (2) employees and banks in Libya, by providing practical guidance for better human resource management.

1.9 Structure of the Thesis

To give a balanced and clear account of this research, I have divided it into 9 chapters.

The first chapter gives an overview of the research, including the research background, in which I explain the multi-faceted nature of commitment and OCBs and why these concepts have been chosen for this research. I provide a brief picture of the Libyan banking sector and argue why the voice of its employees should be heard. As an introduction to this research, this chapter sets out the research objectives and questions and highlights its importance. I also outline how this research was conducted and how it contributes to the stock of knowledge.

The second and the third chapters review the literature on commitment and OCBs, highlighting the mainstream conceptualisations and theoretical frameworks, in order to see how commitment and OCBs have been interpreted by previous researchers.

In order to justify the need for this research, the fourth chapter focuses on the Libyan contexts in general and the banking sector in particular. I explain the recent reform and transactions in the country and give thick description of the management, social and cultural characteristics of Libyan employees.

The fifth chapter clarifies methodological issues. I explain and justify my epistemological and ontological positions. Due to the uniqueness of subjectivist qualitative research (QR), I elaborate on various related tools that have been used in the research. For example, I highlight the phenomenological research design, snowball sampling, semi-structured interviews as well as trustworthiness, authenticity and ethical considerations of this research.

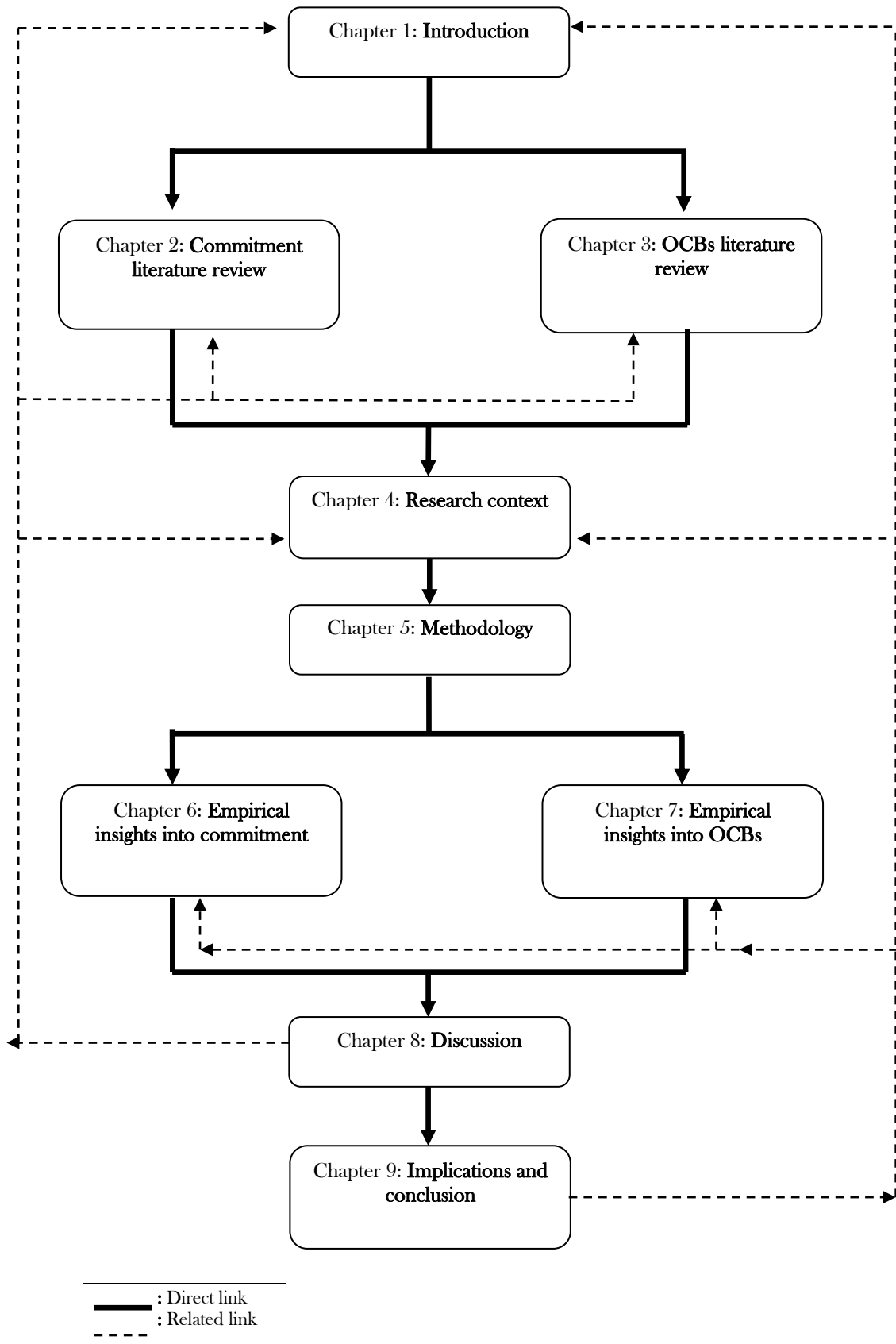
The sixth and seventh chapters offer clear and thick descriptions of the insights of participants into both commitment and OCBs. Each chapter includes a construction of themes, sub-categories and categories, which represent the insights of participants and my own interpretations of them. I also compare and contrast the viewpoints of managerial and non-managerial participants regarding each category in order to get deeper understanding of their insights into commitment and OCBs.

The eighth chapter will discuss similarities and differences between participants' interpretations and the mainstream conceptualisations of the study concepts, in order to highlight the contribution of this research.

Finally, the last chapter explains the implications of this research for both theory and practice. I draw conclusions and summarise the research limitations and possible thoughts for future research.

This research will be structured as shown in figure 1 which shows direct and indirect links between aspects of the research, which contribute to fulfil its aims and answer the research questions.

Figure 1: Research Structure



CHAPTER 2: CONCEPTUALISATIONS OF COMMITMENT IN THE LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This research explores commitment and OCBs in the Libyan context by focusing on the Libyan banking sector. Therefore, it is important to explore and identify key points in the literature of both concepts. However, based on the fact that these concepts were originally introduced and generated in Western managerial contexts and they represent the values, interpretations and perspectives of such contexts, in this chapter I present core meanings and definitions of commitment, taking into account subjective interpretations of commitment in a cross-cultural management context.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a foundation for this study by representing up-to-date conceptualisation, perspectives and main thoughts as well as criticism of commitment. Previous researchers have argued that commitment still needs more studies to clarify meanings and interpretations by different people, under different values, assumptions and cultural perspectives. Hence, in this chapter, theoretical and empirical work on commitment is reviewed aiming to identify key issues related to commitment.

The reviewed literature is that published in English language in a variety of management and organisation journals. Previous published research was searched in the following databases; ABI/INFORM Global (Business and Management), Business Source Premier, Emerald Management 175, Emerald Management First, JSTOR Arts and Sciences, ScienceDirect Business, SAGE Publications, Wiley-Blackwell Journals, SpringerLINK Archive, Taylor & Francis and SwetsWise Online Content.

Most of the read and summarised articles were found in various organisational and managerial journals, such as Human Resource Management Review, Human Resources Management Journal, Journal of International Human Resource Management, Human Relations, Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, Applied Psychology, Personnel Review, Organisational Behaviour Journal, Journal of Managerial Psychology, Academy of Management Journal and Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology.

This chapter sheds the light on different perspectives and conceptualisations of commitment. Therefore, it includes; 1- conceptualisations of commitment; 2- types of commitment; 3- commitment in cross-culture management research; 4- antecedents and outcomes of commitment; 5- criticism of commitment theory. However, I conclude by addressing several issues related to the research questions, aims and importance.

2.2 Commitment in the Workplace

2.2.1 Conceptualisations of commitment

To begin with, it is important to note that interpretations of commitment vary from attitudinal to behavioural conceptualisations, and this variety produces different definitions and perspectives of commitment. While in this study commitment is the core focus of research, as the literature includes different forms of commitment, such as commitment to profession, commitment to supervisor, and commitment to union (Meyer and Allen, 1991, 1997; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Fiorito et al., 2007). Thus, the following are the mainstream conceptualisations of the commitment, classified chronologically.

2.2.1.1 Becker's (1960) Side-Bets Model

This model was built upon the side-bet theory, as Becker (1960) proposed that employees will be committed to a consistent line of activities because they have different side-bets that constrain their ability to change to another line of activity. He argued that *"Commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity"* (p.32). Moreover, he proposed that even though some of these bets could be unrelated to the line of activity, they affect the employee's choice of such activity. Furthermore, previous actions of people, general cultural expectations and individual adjustments to social positions are key points in determining employees' ability to maintain a consistent line of activity. Therefore, committed employees are committed because they have investments in staying in a certain organisation. Becker conceptualized commitment as a one-dimensional concept, focused on maintaining membership in the organisation. As well as being one of the first attempts to explain commitment, it is also the first discussion of commitment as maintaining membership in the organisation, which later came to be called Continuance Commitment.

2.2.1.2 Mowday, Steers & Porter (1979) Model

These authors adopted a purely attitudinal approach to commitment, shifting from the side-bet conceptualisation of commitment to the notion of psychological attachment, stressing identity, goal congruence and individual attachment to organisation. They defined commitment as “*the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation*” (Mowday et al., 1979: p.226). In this regard, they started to explain commitment using the exchange theory, as more exchange means more commitment. They conceptualized commitment as one dimension “emotional attachment”. Their Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) contained 15 items, representing a combination of belief in organisation goals and values, willingness to exert efforts for the interest of the organisation and desire to stay in the organisation.

2.2.1.3 O’Reilly and Chatman’s (1986) Model

O’Reilly and Chatman define commitment as “*the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organisation; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics of perspective of the organisation*” (O’Reilly and Chatman, 1986: p.493). To explore and investigate what makes employees develop psychological attachment to the organisation, they adopted Kelman’s (1958) taxonomy. Their conceptualisation of commitment includes three aspects: Compliance, when attitudes and behaviours are adopted to gain certain advantages; Identification, which refers to accepting relationship with the organisation and respecting its values; and Internalization, which refers to value congruence between individuals and the organisation. However, these aspects have different levels of effect over commitment. While compliance was seen to represent shallower attachment to the organisation, identification and internalisation were seen to entail psychological attachment to the organisation. Furthermore, one of O’Reilly and Chatman’s main contributions to commitment was to highlight different outcomes of commitment by mentioning the possibility of OCBs, whereas previous research focused mainly on turnover. Two propositions were raised; (1) commitment should be considered as attitudinal to avoid overlapping between its components, and (2) outcomes of commitment extend beyond turnover; it could influence OCBs as well.

2.2.1.4 Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997) the Three-Component Model

Meyer and Allen incorporated attitudinal and behavioural approaches into a holistic definition of commitment. They conceptualised commitment as a psychological state

restricted, not by value congruence only, but rather by a desire, a need and/or an obligation to maintain membership in the organisation. Their model is considered as the first to view commitment as multidimensional. Based on previous research, they proposed three aspects of commitment. Affective commitment (AC) refers to emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation; it affects employees through their desire/want to stay in the organisation. Further, they identified that affective commitment could be influenced by different antecedents such as; personal characteristics, organisational structure and work experience. Continuance commitment (CC) refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. It affects employees through their feeling of needing to stay in the organisation. This component of commitment is suggested to develop through individual investments (accumulation of side-bets) and availability of alternative employment opportunity. Normative commitment (NC) refers to feeling obligated to continue staying in the organisation through feelings that one ought to stay in the organisation. This component is more related to social pressure through familial or cultural and organisational socialization. Meyer and Allen (1997) suggested that the psychological state could include all three aspects of commitment to varying degrees. They also predicted that commitment has several outcomes of organisational effectiveness, such as less turnover, higher attendance, higher individual or group performance, and other positive work-related behaviours.

2.2.1.5 Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) Commitment Profiles Model

So far we have seen how previous models conceptualised commitment from management's view, but Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) for the first time introduced commitment from the individual's view. Aiming to develop a general model of workplace commitment, they investigated what makes employees committed and how different mind sets constitute what they called a commitment profile. Therefore, they concluded that commitment is seen as (1) a stabilizing or obliging force, (2) that gives direction to behaviour, and thus, is defined as "*a mind-set that can take different forms and binds an individual to a course of action that is of relevance to a particular target*" (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001: p.301). This definition represents an important change in conceptualising commitment, from seeing commitment as an attitudinal to a motivational force. The authors explained that this force is experienced as a mind set, which characterise commitment and develops commitment profiles in individuals. They proposed that the mind set of desire, mind set of perceived cost and mind set of

obligation are the main mind sets which constitute the commitment profile, although individuals could experience more than one of them at the same time. Therefore, there will be pure mind sets such as those mentioned above, and combined mind sets, such as desire-obligation, desire-perceived cost, obligation- perceived cost. In this regard, they proposed that pure mind sets such as affective, normative and continuance commitment lead to varying degrees of focal and discretionary behaviour, as affective mind set is more related and has stronger effect.

2.2.1.6 Cohen's (2007) Four-Component Model

To avoid the confusion of attitudinal and behavioural commitment, this model was built on the Reasoned Action Theory, which proposes that individual attitude, social influence and behaviour intention are predictors of any behaviour. This model argued that commitment is a two-dimensional concept: (1) the timing of commitment, which refers to commitment propensities, which develop before entering the organisation and commitment attitudes, which develop after entering the organisation; (2) the bases of commitment, which refers to instrumental attachment and psychological attachment. Thus, four forms of commitment were introduced. The first two were Instrumental Commitment Propensity, which refers to individual expectations of the quality of exchange with the organisation, and Normative Commitment Propensity, which refers to general moral obligation to the organisation. Second are those commitment attitudes develop after starting the job: Instrumental Commitment, which refers to actual perception of quality of exchange with the organisation, and Affective Commitment, which refers to a feeling of identification with, involvement and sense of belonging to the organisation. Cohen signified that the pre-entry propensities are important for after-entry actual commitments. He claimed that this model will help to clear some of the ambiguity of the three-component model by; (1) redefining NC as propensity, which makes an explicit distinction between normative and affective, (2) redefining CC as perceptions of benefits of staying in the organisation instead of considering costs of leaving. Furthermore, Cohen (2007) based his model on previous research of commitment, which showed that work experience played a significant role in determining commitment. Therefore, he argued that commitment before gaining that experience is somewhat like an inclination or propensity formulated from individuals' thoughts, opinions and expectations. On the other hand, actual commitment will be formulated as an accumulation of work

experience and previous propensities which employees had before entering the organisation.

2.2.1.7 Bar-Haim's (2007) Behavioural Organisational Commitment

Based on the assumption that commitment is an invalid and irrelevant concept for the current business environment, this model proposed a pure behavioural conceptualisation of commitment. The interpretation of commitment as staying in the organisation was developed in a very different business environment, in which organisations were looking for long-term contracts and more stable workforce. Therefore, commitment in this model was seen not as a “state of mind”, but as a behaviour of choice. From this perspective, Bar-Haim defined commitment as “*an unequivocal behaviour of being obligated by performing or not performing certain activities that signify commitment, particularly in the worst conditions, when organisations are unable to reward it*” (p.205). According to this definition, commitment is not an attitude or internal force, such as motivation. Rather, separating the behavioural aspect from the attitudinal aspect of commitment helps in understanding commitment, not in the light of exchange, but in the light of commercial, technological and occupational aspects. Thus, commitment is a complete behavioural phenomenon that could result from moral, calculative and affective reasons. Bar-Haim proposed that perceived organisational power, formal and informal, and perceived employment alternatives are two main determinants of commitment. This model challenged the notion that commitment could result from the exchange process between employees and employers. Rather, feeling of self-worth, empowerment and usefulness are important reasons for commitment. Thus, commitment stems from perceived power at the organisation and perceived work alternatives in the environment. In this sense, commitment is not just mutual relationships between employees and employers, i.e. employees stay for work security and reward. It is found that committed employees may stay and continue contributing to the organisation, not because they have investments in the organisations, but, because of a moral conviction that they should stay in the organisation. Therefore, the crucial reason for commitment is cultural values and feelings of duty and loyalty to the employer. Bar-Haim argued that using Albert Hirschman's (1970) model and later research, which includes Exit, Voice and Loyalty. This model suggested various forms of behavioural commitment. For example, there is active negative commitment behaviour such as exiting, passive negative commitment behaviour such as neglecting, active positive commitment behaviour such as voice and passive positive

commitment behaviour such as loyalty and there is passive neutral commitment behaviour, such as silence.

2.2.1.8 Solinger et al's (2008) Attitude-Behaviour Model

Based on the disadvantages of the three-component model, this model is built upon Standard Attitude Theory, and the authors used the attitude-behaviour model by Eagly and Chaiken (1993) to explain that the three-component model combines different attitudinal phenomena. The attitude-behaviour model shows how attitudes toward targets and habits constitute attitudes toward behaviours. Therefore, Solinger and his colleagues argued that AC is an attitude towards the target “organisation”, whilst NC and CC are attitudes towards behaviour “staying”. They, therefore, called for the three-component model to be abandoned due to basic shortcoming in its conceptualisation. Instead, they proposed to return to conceptualising commitment as affective attachment to the organisation and to consider the NC and CC as antecedents of AC. Therefore, they defined commitment as “*an attitude of an employee vis-à-vis the organisation reflecting a combination of affective (emotional attachment, identification) cognition (identification and internalization of its goals, norms, and values), and action readiness (a generalized behavioural pledge to serve and enhance the organisation's interest)*” (Solinger et al., 2008: p.80). Further, they proposed that continuance and normative are not forms of commitment. Rather, they are antecedents of attitudes towards behaviour. Their conceptualisations supported previous perspectives that interpreted commitment as an attitudinal concept. They supported different outcomes and classified them into two main categories; constructive passive/active behaviours, and deconstructive passive/active behaviours. They maintained that committed employees could express many positive active or passive behaviours. Thus, commitment could predict different employee behaviour. Although they argued that commitment should be interpreted as an attitude towards a target and they defined it as affective, they called for more cognitive and behavioural interpretations of commitment.

2.2.1.9 Attitudinal approach

The attitudinal approach refers to commitment as pure attitude towards behaviours or a target. This approach usually deals with commitment as emotional attachment to the organisation. It includes identification with, involvement in, value congruence and internalization in the organisation. For example, Buchanan (1974) defined commitment

as “a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organisation, to one’s role in relations to the goals and values, and to the organisation for its own sake” (p.533). It represents a process of relationship with the organisation. The attitudinal commitment results from work experience, perceptions of the individual and organisational characteristics, which leads to positive feeling and then commitment. Positive attitudes cause individuals to be committed as they behave according to exchange theory, so attitude leads to behaviour (Mowday et al., 1979; O’Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Brown, 1996; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Cohen, 2007; Solinger et al., 2008). In addition to the affective attachment aspect, through identifications and involvement, researchers have identified other aspects. For example, individual perception was mentioned when defining that commitment “focuses on employees’ perceptions of their alignment with or attachment to their entire organisation” (Fedor et al., 2006: p.4). It is also defined as a psychological link: “a psychological link between the employee and the organisation that makes it less likely the employee will voluntarily leave the organisation” (Abbott et al., 2005: p.532). Another aspect is value congruence, as commitment is defined as a common belief and agreement on organisational goals and the enthusiasm to do extra actions to highly participate in achieving and developing the organisational objectives and values, as well as keeping high motivation to continue with the company (Dale and Fox, 2008).

2.2.1.10 Behavioural approach

In contrast, early research about commitment was based on the behavioural approach. This approach refers to commitment as behaving and exerting efforts for the sake of the organisation, such as maintaining membership in the organisation. Research focused on repeated actions of individuals and their effect on formulating commitment, suggesting that behaviours lead to attitudes (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Brown, 1996). Commitment was seen as course or line of actions. It is also defined as behaviours that exceed formal and/or normative expectations (Mowday et al., 1979). This approach was characterised by research between the 60s and 80s, such as O’Reilly & Caldwell (1981), Salancik (1977), Becker (1960) and Pfeffer & Lawler (1980) and more recently by Bar-Haim(2007). Finally, there is some research combining both approaches, such as Meyer & Allen (1991, 1997), who introduced the three-component model, as seen above. Based on this perspective, previous studies pointed out that commitment has been generally defined as a power that impels employees to perform actions. It was believed that commitment, like

other behavioural actions in the organisation, could be constituted from an employee's experienced mindset (Luchak and Gellatly, 2007). Therefore, some researchers defined commitment as "*a state of being, in which individuals become bound by their actions and the willingness of social actors to give energy and loyalty to social systems, an awareness of the impossibility of choosing a different social identity or of rejecting a particular expectation, under force of penalty, or an affective attachment to an organisation apart from the purely instrumental worth of the relationship*" (Kim and Rowley, 2005: p.107). Other researchers argued that commitment is a behaviour of choice, as it could be affected by perceived organisational power and perceived employment alternatives. The core of commitment is the act of obligation to organisation in the future. Thus, commitment should be identified and defined for its own properties and could be constituted by attributes of duty, obligation and responsibility.

In addition to the classification into attitudinal and behavioural approaches, conceptualisations of commitment could also be classified into two categories according to dimensionality (Wasti, 2008). Earlier conceptualisation were one-dimensional, referring to commitment as one concept such as affective attachment or a line of consistent actions such as Becker (1960), Modway et al, (1979) and O'Reilly and Chatman (1986). By contrast, later research has identified commitment as a multidimensional concept, so that conceptualisations of commitment refer to different components: affective, continuance, normative, instrumental, commitment profile and commitment propensities. This category is supported by research such as Meyer and Allen(1991), Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) Cohen (2007) and Solinger et al (2008).

To sum up, as we have seen from the discussion above, there are several conceptualisations and two main approaches to understand commitment. This highlights the variety of different meanings and perspectives proposed so far to reach a general theory of commitment. The literature shows that study of commitment is underpinned by four main theories. First, Social Exchange Theory refers to commitment as a result of dealings between an employee and an organisation in a rational mutual manner. This theory reflects two main points about commitment: the notion of psychological contract, and the mechanism of reciprocation (Fiorito et al., 2007). Second, Perceived Organisational Support refers to the appreciation of the employer towards employees' contribution in the organisation. This theory explains that commitment depends on the perception of individuals of the support that they obtain from the organisation; the more

support and value they perceive from the organisation, the more they will be committed (McKenna, 2005; Aggarwal-Gupta et al., 2010). Third, Role Conflict Theory refers to the idea that an organisation is constituted of sub-organisations, in which employees are expected to play various roles, and are highly likely to engage in role conflict. Employees are expected to adjust their roles to overcome the conflict by Role Congruence. The level of role congruence is seen as a significant predictor of commitment. Fourth, commitment could be seen as an attitude that influences behaviour, which is the viewpoint of Organisational Behaviour Theory, or it could be seen that committed behaviour influences attitude. Subsequently, researchers agreed that both perspectives are important to a holistic understanding of commitment and encourage the implicit interrelation between the two perspectives (Kim and Rowley, 2005; Solinger et al., 2008).

As we have seen above, commitment is conceptualised and interpreted in different ways. It could be argued that such conceptualisations were proposed with the aim of establishing one conceptualisation of commitment that could be used in different contexts. This study calls into question such a notion. Indeed, new trends in management research support the argument that conceptualisations differ according to context.

2.2.2 Types of commitment

2.2.2.1 Affective commitment (AC)

AC is the most studied type of commitment, as the early research interpreted commitment as affective attachment to the organisation. Almost all previous and recent conceptualisations of commitment included this type, as some researchers claimed that this type is the core definition of commitment (Riketta, 2002; Ali and Al-Owaihan, 2008). It is believed that AC includes strong belief in the values and objectives of an organisation, intention to perform extra-role activities and desire to stay within the organisation. Moreover, AC is seen as willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and having a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Cohen, 2007). It depends highly on tangible exchange relationship with the organisation. Therefore, it is explained through expectancy and equity theory, person-environment fit and social exchange theory (Mowday et al., 1979; Meyer and Allen, 1991, 1997; Solinger et al., 2008). AC has been defined as a psychological state towards a specific organisation, which binds towards a course of action and desire to follow a course of action. It is

summarised to include identification, involvement, value congruence and identification with the organisation (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

Later research has re-defined AC and proposed that it develops from a mindset of desire, as employees feel that they *want to* follow a course of action relevant to a target. It is also proposed that this mindset could be combined with two other mindsets that motivate the individual to engage in committed behaviours. It could be combined with the mindset of perceived cost to formulate the AC/CC profile, and could be combined with the mindset of perceived obligation to formulate the AC/NC profile. AC is found to be related to various organisational aspects, such as perceived organisational support. It is also correlated with core and extra-role job behaviours, as well as many positive behaviours at the workplace (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

However, as we have seen above, while Cohn (2007) interpreted AC as the actual commitment, which is formulated after entering the job and is influenced by instrumental and normative propensities, González & Guillén (2008) reaffirmed that AC is “*an emotional attachment, as a feeling, impulse or desire that leads employees to want to stay in an organization as the result of this desire*” (p.407). They maintained that previous research had mistakenly mixed two different aspects of AC when it was defined as a mixture of emotional and moral concepts. Therefore, they suggested future conceptualisations of AC should consider it within the sphere of emotion or affective tendencies, distinct from the moral rational aspect of NC

2.2.2.2 Continuanace commitment (CC)

CC denotes that an employee considers the cost of leaving the organisation. It develops through behaviour-employment link (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Therefore, it is seen to have a different mindset from AC. Employees usually consider the cost of leaving the organisation and the personal sacrifices instead of the intrinsic motivation which is associated with the AC. Therefore, employees with a high level of CC normally stay with the company, not because they like it, but because they need to decrease the risk of personal loss and they might have no choice. CC is the lowest level of commitment, which refers to an employee's balancing between the costs and benefits of staying or leaving (McKenna, 2005). CC is defined based on the idea that employees have (side bets) or investments in the organisation, which they will lose if they change to another organisation. Lack of alternatives has also been seen to increase CC, because employees

will show such commitment when they perceive that they do not have the option of finding another place to work for (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Jaros et al., 1993; Dunham et al., 1994; González and Guillén, 2008). Recent research, based on the commitment profiles, argued that employees can be committed to a certain course of action out of their perceived cost mindset. This mindset is the force that increases behaviours of CC and could be associated with other mindsets such as AC or NC to formulate the commitment profile of an individual (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

This type of commitment is criticized based on low scale reliability and questionable construct validity. Researchers have argued that CC is developed out of a transactional psychological contract (González and Guillén, 2008). Even though CC has been found to be associated with low turnover intention, long tenure and managerial appreciation of bottom-line issues and perceived organisational support, it is found to be negatively associated with positive organisational activities, AC, organisational values, organisational vision and OCB (Ali and Al-Owaihan, 2008)

Research regarding commitment found that CC and AC were negatively related in a communication agency, and they were unrelated in a welfare organisation. In contrast, CC and NC commitments were positively associated in the welfare organisation and unrelated in the communication agency (Abbott et al., 2005).

2.2.2.3 Normative commitment (NC)

Even though NC has been identified as one of the components of commitment, until recently, little research has been conducted to explore its nature and how it might affect organisational commitment in general. NC is seen as normative pressure, which is constituted by social actors and influenced by beliefs, attitudes and values in the individual's surrounding social environment. Based on the idea of exchange, NC is explained in terms of a relational psychological contract, and used to be called moral commitment, defined as "*the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through internalization of its goals, values and missions*" (Jaros et al., 1993: p.955). Another definition is "*employees' feeling of obligation to remain with the organisation; employees... feel they ought to remain with the organisation*" (Meyer and Allen, 1997: p.11).

First, rooted in Becker's (1960) conceptualisation of commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) interpreted NC as "an employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the

organisation” (Becker, 1960: p.60). It refers to the perception that staying with the organisation is moral and right. In this sense, NC is seen to develop in individuals from early socialisation through family, culture and social values, and later socialisation with organisation, colleagues and work experience. Thus, socialisation before and after entering the organisations is seen to develop such feelings of obligations. Organisations affect this type of commitment in employees through engaging with them in a process of reciprocation, which makes them feel that they cannot reciprocate unless they maintain membership in the organisation. Therefore, two main motivators for NC are proposed; a set of norms regarding best how to behave, and benefits that encourage employees to reciprocate. These aspects were explained through a variety of theories, such as social exchange theory, social learning theory and group socialisation theory (Meyer and Allen, 1991, 1997; Foley et al., 2006).

Second, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) defined NC as “*the mindset that one has an obligation to pursue a course of action of relevance to a target*” (p.316). Thus, it develops from the mind set of obligation. However, employees could have more than one mind set, so the mind sets of desire/obligation (AC/NC) or obligation/cost (NC/CC) could be combined. NC is proposed to have an impact on focal and extra-role behaviours of the job. Adding to previous interpretations of NC, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) proposed that the mind set of obligation develops through (a) socialisation, (b) benefits that encourage reciprocation, and (3) psychological contract.

Third, as we have seen above Cohen (2007) introduced a different perspective of interpreting commitment, as he added time. He conceptualised NC not as an actual commitment, but as a propensity. NC propensity is defined as “*a general moral obligation towards the organisation that reflects the likelihood of becoming committed to it*” (2007: p.345). It develops prior to entering the organisation and is defined as a propensity that explains individual differences, which could be identified before entering the organisation. Defining NC as a propensity is proposed to solve the problem of mixing affective and normative commitments. This general propensity is influenced by individual beliefs, values and expectations of the job as well as early socialisation through family and culture. Cohen did not support the expected influence of organisational experience suggested in the previous model. Rather, he saw little influence of organisational experience on NC, since, being a general propensity, it does not relate to a specific organisation. Thus, NC is

seen as a belief of the employees that it is a moral obligation to show loyalty and duty in any social scene.

Fourth, based on the criticism of the three-component model of commitment put forward by Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997), González and Guillén (2008) introduced a more developed conceptualisation of what they called “*moral commitment*”. Their view was built upon an Aristotelian philosophical framework of human goods. They argued that normative commitment is best described in Aristotle’s model as a moral good, which includes; desirable traits of character and intellect, and moral virtue. They view morality as rational judgment which includes moral virtues, such as fairness, responsibility and loyalty. It also includes moral habits or “practice”, such as tolerance, enthusiasm and humility. Furthermore, moral commitment is considered as moral judgement, “norms”, and moral practice, “virtue”, as both represent relational tendencies. Interestingly, they added a valuable contribution by emphasizing the role of explicitly considering the human will when defining commitment. They highlighted that the core essence of commitment is the completely voluntary choice to be committed. Thus, they redefined organisational commitment as “*an attachment or bond that is a personal voluntary decision based on calculated rationality, affective tendency and moral judgement, which leads to a higher or lower degree of identification with, and involvement in, a particular organisation; and that is observable in the free effort extended in accomplishing organisational goals*” (González and Guillén, 2008: p.412). Overall, they based their model of commitment on the assumption that the three-component model of commitment has agreement from other researchers, which is incorrect, as it has been questioned in earlier and recent research. They also did not base their model of moral commitment on empirical work. Rather, they conducted a theoretical study, which needs to be empirically tested.

Last, advancing the notion of commitment profile proposed by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) reconceptualised NC to be two-faceted. They explained that there is a mindset of moral duty when the NC/AC profile is formulated. This mind set is defined as “*a strong sense of desire to pursue a course of action of benefit to a target*” (p.287). This facet of NC combination is seen to have (1) positive beliefs, such as inherent goodness and meaningfulness, (2) positive affect, such as optimism and inspiration. Employees who have such a profile of commitment are expected to achieve valued goals and self-expression when they engage in relevant activities of their commitment target. Based on this mindset, the authors proposed that

employees who perceive organisational support, have value congruence with the organisation, relational psychological contract and transformational, charismatic and authentic leadership styles are more expected to formulate NC/AC profile, which is expected to be developed more by people from collectivist contexts. AC and NC are considered to be positively related to each other, and both are shown to be correlated to various organisational activities, for instance, job performance, satisfaction, tenure and attendance, values of humanity of the organisation and job characteristics. However, when personal and organisational values are aligned, AC is noted to be high (Abbott et al., 2005).

On the other hand, NC will be seen as a mindset of indebted obligation when the NC/CC profiles exist. This mindset is defined as *“a sense of having to pursue a course of action of benefit to a target to avoid the social costs of failing to do so”* (Meyer and Parfyonova, 2010: p.287). It is also seen to be associated with less positive beliefs, such as indebtedness and inconvenience, and negative affect, such as guilt and frustration. Employees who have this mindset are expected to attain externally controlled rewards or avoid punishment as well as meeting their own or other’s expectations to avoid shame. Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) proposed that employees who experience transactional leadership, controlled regulations and perceive transactional psychological contract are more expected to formulate the NC/CC profile. Each of these profiles could lead to different behaviours at work. They called for more studies that deal with normative commitment as dual in nature, whereby it might be studied as unique concept, but when it is combined with another form of commitment it will have different conceptualizations and then different outcomes.

Overall, even though research shows the overlapping and mixed natures of AC and NC, recent research has distinguished between them; (1) AC is seen as actual commitment, which is formulated after starting the job via work experience, while NC is seen as a propensity of commitment, which develops before starting the job via socialization. (2) AC is seen to develop out of an emotional bond through feelings and emotions towards the organisation, while NC is seen to develop out of a relational bond through individual moral judgement, i.e. norms and virtues (Cohen, 2007; González and Guillén, 2008).

2.2.3 *Commitment foci*

There is a question of whether commitment is directed towards an entity (attitude-entity) or behaviour (attitude-behaviour). It is a well-established argument that commitment could be directed towards a target and/or behaviour (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). For example, commitment could be towards a target, such as an organisation, supervisors, colleagues, unions and professions. Nevertheless, it could also be directed towards a behaviour (course of action), such as staying in a specific organisation, performing certain duties and implementation of policies (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Bar-Haim, 2007). However, employees could also be committed to both an entity and behaviour, such as maintaining membership (action) in relation to an organisation or profession (entity) (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Solinger et al., 2008). Answering the question of (committing to what?), research has shown that commitment could be divided into many forms, based on its foci, such as commitment to work groups, management, occupation, supervisors, organisational change, colleagues, unions and job duties (Meyer et al., 1993; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002). Overall, commitment is seen as directed, explicitly or implicitly, towards a specific target, no matter whether it is an organisation or behaviour.

2.3 Commitment in cross-cultural management research

Based on the fact that individuals' attitudes and perceptions of various work elements are affected by their cultural and individual values, this argument places importance on the role of such values in determining and shaping interpretations of various organisational concepts. Such values are believed to influence how individuals perceive certain situations and their importance, as well as to determine the extent of employee-organisation relationship, and hence fit (Liu and Cohen, 2010). Thus, different interpretations are believed to be significant for anticipating, and hence, designing and implementing effective work strategies and policies (Foley et al., 2006; Williamson et al., 2009). Researchers argue that social obligations are experienced differently across cultural contexts, as individuals from collectivist contexts are more likely to want to do what they perceive they should do (Bontempo et al., 1990). Furthermore, collectivist values are seen to produce a complex view of commitment influenced by norms, groups, social punishments, family and society as well as intimate relationships with supervisors and organisation. Employees who adopt collectivist values are more expected to focus on how

to be good member, then being committed is a tool to achieve that goal, whilst individualistic values lead to favouring of freedom, autonomy, independence from in-group, individual achievement and how to be good leader (Liu and Cohen, 2010).

Although previous researchers argue that the concepts and models of commitment introduced in North America could be applied in different contexts, results from cross-culture research have shown that models of commitment differ across national contexts (Al-Esmeal, 2007). National culture is seen as an important factor to understand organisational culture, leadership styles, managerial strategies and organisational and individual behaviour. Similarly, commitment has different meanings and interpretations across cultural contexts. For example, Cheng and Stockdale (2003) in China, Gautam et al (2001) in Nepal, Ko et al (1997) in Korea and Wang (2004) in China found different interpretations of commitment from the most used conceptualisation of commitment by Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997), whereas Wasti (2003) in Turkey, and Lee et al (2001) in South Korea affirmed the applicability of that model. Such results call for more re-conceptualisations of commitment across cultural contexts (Meyer et al., 2007; Wasti, 2008). For example, Malaysians interpreted commitment as affective, harmonious and non abusive behaviours, for Canadians it refers to loyalty and devotion, for Americans it refers to freedom, for Japanese commitment refers to seniority and in the Middle East it is perceived as a one-dimension concept, as affective attachment (Al-Esmeal, 2007; Behery, 2009).

The differences in interpretations of commitment among different cultural contexts is also highlighted by Glazer et al (2004), who confirmed that in individualist cultures commitment refers to freedom and achievement, whereas in collectivists contexts commitment meant respect, tradition and seniority. Thus, recent research concluded that different cultural contexts lead to different understandings of commitment and its antecedents (Bhatnagar, 2007). In this sense, research also maintained that employees who come from collectivist contexts are more expected to experience commitment out of desire and a sense of obligation, in particular, when referring to performing social obligation (Meyer et al., 2007)

The recent research in non-Western contexts has helped greatly in understanding how AC is different from NC, as it was not clear when studies were repeated in Western cultural contexts, due to similar cultural values. NC and CC are found to be more related

outside the Western contexts, especially in those contexts which are characterized by highly collectivist values. Contexts with high power distance and collectivist values showed higher levels of NC and CC (Meyer and Parfyonova, 2010). For example, even though CC is seen as irrelevant and less valued in Western contexts, recently, Liu and Cohen (2010) found that CC is important and strongly related to collectivist values in a study on values.

Recent cross cultural management research introduced very different interpretations of commitment; it is defined as “*an obligation to stay and continue doing something that is not necessary agreeable, gainful or desirable*” (Bar-Haim, 2007: p.213). This definition refers to a very different conceptualisation of commitment and strongly supports the value of cross culture research on commitment.

Furthermore, in a study of the effects of participative decision making on commitment, Elele and Fields (2010) found that Nigerian respondents’ interpretations of AC differ from those of American respondents, as Nigerians placed greater emphasis on feeling part of a family at work, emotional attachment, personal meaning and sense of belonging, while American respondents’ views of NC was more focused on the moral rightness of staying and whether the organisation deserves more loyalty or not.

2.4 Antecedents and Outcomes of Commitment

Even though there is great disagreement about how commitment should be conceptualised, as many theoretical propositions still need empirical research, research, mainly quantitative, has been done about what creates and develops commitment in employees. Therefore, the literature of organisational commitment has explored and tested several antecedents and outcomes of commitment in order to predict and control this phenomenon.

2.4.1 Antecedents of commitment

2.4.1.1 Personal Antecedents

This group of antecedents represents the individual and person-related predictors of commitment. It includes antecedents such as age, tenure, personality, individual perception, desire to achievement and organisational position. For instance, research ascertained that age, tenure and career stage are positively associated with commitment

(Kaur and Sandhu, 2010). Others added perceptions of self-worth and well-being (Aggarwal-Gupta et al., 2010), personality and experience (Lok et al., 2005), determination (Li et al., 2010) and age, sex, education, material state, individual competence, openness to change, self enhancement (Wasti, 2008) and psychological contract (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Wasti, 2008). Moreover, self perceptions of personal competence and achievement as well as self-importance are also identified as personal antecedents of commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Swailes, 2002).

2.4.1.2 Job-related antecedents

Despite the fact that personal antecedents are seen as important antecedents of commitment, most research was conducted to test the effect of many organisational variables on commitment. These antecedents were mostly seen by those who conceptualised commitment based on the attitudinal approach, i.e. affective attachment (Brown, 1996). In this regard, previous research tested various antecedents that have relation to the job and organisation. Research ascertained that positive employee-organisation relationship is influential for commitment as providing trust, value congruence, manager-employee relationship, harmony and collective relationships leads to positive attitudes then high commitment (Behery, 2009; McInnis et al., 2009; Landry et al., 2010).

Furthermore, research identified that organisational culture has an effect on employees via goal setting, role performance, resource allocation, and how employees think, make decisions, feel and act. This effect also reaches employees' values and beliefs. Therefore, organisational culture is considered one of the main antecedents of commitment (Lok and Crawford, 2001, 2004; Fiorito et al., 2007). Although supportive and innovative organisational cultures are seen to have strong relationships with commitment in the Western contexts, research has not proved the same connection in Eastern contexts. By contrast, research argued that organisational sub-culture has a stronger relation with commitment than organisational culture. For instance, an innovative sub-culture is highly and positively related to organisational commitment, whereas a bureaucratic sub-culture associated negatively with commitment (Lok and Crawford, 2004).

Commitment literature indicated that managerial strategies and levels of participation are important antecedents of commitment. It is also believed that the relation between commitment and some of its antecedents is mediated by job satisfaction. For example,

employment prospects, job attributes and perceived leadership style influence commitment via the role of job satisfaction (Abu Elanain, 2010). Furthermore, recent research has found an association between organisational support and high levels of commitment. For instance research reported high links between participative management, employee support, trust, organisation justice and external and internal equity on the one hand, and commitment on the other hand (Landry et al., 2010; Elele and Fields, 2010; Khalifa and Truong, 2011).

Emphasising the role of HRM practices, various studies focused on the effect of such practices on commitment, and it is found that practices such as decentralisation, participation, employment security, social interaction, employee involvement, are important to develop commitment (Kazlauskaite et al., 2006). Research has also been conducted to examine the roles of other HRM practices, such as leadership, empowerment and autonomy. For example, studies asserted that leadership style, such as initiating structure and supervisory consideration, have a considerable influence on employees' attitudes. Consequently, when employees expect high levels of supervision support and encouragement for teamwork, they will identify with organisational goals and then levels of commitment will rise. However, whilst leader initiating structure is found to be related to commitment through role conflict and role ambiguity, leader consideration is found to be directly related to commitment as well as supportive, interaction and considered leadership styles (Swales, 2002; Lok et al., 2005; Dale and Fox, 2008). Furthermore, it is shown that transformational, transactional and consideration leadership characteristics, such as empowerment, are related to employees' commitment (Lok and Crawford, 2004). Despite a shortage of research about the relationship between commitment and empowerment, employee empowerment is expected to strongly affect levels of commitment, as relationships between commitment and empowerment were confirmed in the service sector (Lok and Crawford, 2001). Moreover, research identified the relationship between psychological empowerment and commitment on the team level, whereas, the relationship between organisational empowerment and commitment still needs much work (Kazlauskaite et al., 2006).

Research has been also done to examine the relationship between job-related practices and commitment. Many factors have been found related to commitment, such as career mobility, job level, role conflict and job challenge. These factors were confirmed to be related to commitment, as the more positive they are, the higher the commitment

(Kazlauskaite et al., 2006). Furthermore, job nature, enforcement of rules and procedures, role clarity, job scope, job security, job involvement and grievance resolution procedures have been identified to influence commitment in the workplace (Lok et al., 2005; Al-Esmeal, 2007; Fiorito et al., 2007). Other job-related aspects also examined include co-workers, team work, fair performance appraisal, adequate information and good training opportunities (McElroy, 2001; Al-Esmeal, 2007). Research on job-related factors found that issues such as rewards and recognition, effective communication and work-life balance are linked with being committed at work (Wasti, 2003; Meyer et al., 2007). Studies show that organisational actions, that assist subordinates to make a balance between work and home increase employees' commitment. Commitment is related to practices such as openness, communication, being recognised by performance and not having to make too many sacrifices (Kinnie et al., 2005). Autonomy is one of the job-related antecedents of commitment, as employees with more autonomy, such as white-collar employees, show higher levels of commitment than blue-collar employees. Thus, it was explained that more responsibilities and high levels of management, lead to more engagement in commitment (Riketta, 2002; Lok et al., 2005; Fiorito et al., 2007)

2.4.1.3 Non-organisational antecedents

Antecedents of commitment are seen to include various other antecedents, which are not personal or organisational. These antecedents are mostly related to the culture and the wider environment of individuals and their organisations. For example research highlighted that commitment is influenced by social activities, which differ among organisations and countries (Smeenk et al., 2006). Commitment is also seen to be affected by employment choices in the business environment, as fewer opportunities could lead to high commitment (Kazlauskaite et al., 2006). Furthermore, as seen above, cultural values also are expected to influence organisational commitment. For instance, collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, conservative values and power distance are argued to influence the wider perceptions of individuals, then and hence organisational commitment (Wasti, 2008). Moreover, values and beliefs of families, family upbringing and culture are perceived to have an influence on commitment, in particular the normative component of commitment. Such factors are, to a great degree, influential on perceiving commitment as an obligation or a value in individuals (Foley et al., 2006; Luchak and Gellatly, 2007).

2.4.2 Outcomes of commitment

To highlight the value of organisational commitment, this section presents previous research about how commitment influences performance, productivity and effectiveness of organisations (Dale and Fox, 2008). Commitment is thought to be critical for practitioners in organisations, because developing employees' commitment is seen to offer advantages to all sorts of organisations (Lok and Crawford, 2001). As we saw earlier when addressing conceptualisations of commitment, there are several different interpretations of the concept, which are believed to lead to different outcomes. However, it is well established that commitment increases organisational performance and effectiveness (Lok and Crawford, 2004; Abbott et al., 2005). Even though little research has been conducted to examine the outcomes of each component separately, many studies indicated that AC is the most studied variable because of its impact on the outcomes of organisations. AC is seen to be the most effective and wanted type, because it influences organisational performance and employee innovation more than the other types (Jafri, 2010).

Research showed that higher levels of employee commitment lead to higher job performance, as it stems from actual desire to be engaged in the organisation (Fiorito et al., 2007; Dale and Fox, 2008). The link between commitment and job performance is seen through performing in-role duties, as it was proven that commitment leads to higher in-role performance in white-collar employees (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Riketta, 2002), achieving goals in high levels (Abbott et al., 2005), and quality improvement (Kazlauskaite et al., 2006). Even though few studies examined the relationship between commitment and individual performance, research propose a positive link between them (Meyer and Allen, 1997). On the other hand, since the study of O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) another facet of linking commitment with performance is through extra-role behaviours. Recent research reaffirmed strong and positive relationship between commitment and OCB (Dale and Fox, 2008; Van Steenbergen and Ellemers, 2009).

The outcomes of commitment are also seen via the exerting of several positive behaviours at work. For instance, research confirmed that commitment leads to high levels of attendance, low turnover rate, fast completion of work duties and more engagement in problem-solving (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002; Abbott et al., 2005; Kazlauskaite et al., 2006; Van Steenbergen and Ellemers, 2009). Furthermore,

committed employees are expected to engage in various constructive, active and passive, behaviours. For example, anticipated active behaviours such as championing, showing quality concern, ambassadorship, personal deprivation and constructive voice are positive behavioural outcomes of commitment. Furthermore, commitment is proposed to lead to different passive behaviours such as being patient, abiding by organisational norms and engaging in positive gossip (Solinger et al., 2008). A committed workforce means staff stability, and hence more chances for organisational development (Kazlauskaite et al., 2006), engaging in pro-social behaviours (Fedor et al., 2006) and preventing adverse behaviours such as employees looking for other jobs outside and inside the organisation (Fiorito et al., 2007).

Another aspect of outcomes of commitment is motivation. Research showed that commitment works as an internal power to increase levels of employees' motivation towards performing their duties. For instance, it was confirmed that commitment leads to more satisfaction at work and higher work motivation (Dale and Fox, 2008). Researchers who interpreted commitment as an attitude proposed that commitment leads to self-motivation of individuals and autonomous and high ability to achieve objectives (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Abbott et al., 2005).

Recently, researchers confirmed another positive outcome of commitment. Many researchers have demonstrated that the process and outcomes of organisational change have a big effect on staff's reaction to organisational events. For example, it is found that organisational change at the unit level influences levels of commitment (Fedor et al., 2006). Moreover, recent studies found that being committed at work leads to higher acceptance of organisational change (Meyer et al., 2007; Al-Esmeal, 2007; Peccei et al., 2011).

Organisational benefits of commitment could be presented in a broad sense in achieving organisational effectiveness and efficiency. This achievement is highlighted via many advantages for the organisation. For example, it is proved that commitment leads to more involvement in discretionary behaviours, high performance and employee attendance (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002; Gellatly et al., 2006; Van Steenbergen and Ellemers, 2009). Commitment also leads to minimizing employee turnover, cooperation between employees, more working hours, information sharing, quality concern and supervisors'

performance evaluation (Solinger et al., 2008), downsizing, reengineering, merger and acquisition (Meyer et al., 2007), and employee innovation (Jafri, 2010)

Although commitment is highly appreciated for managers, its importance for employees or society is still unexplored area. However, a few studies have shown that commitment minimizes employees' job stress and so improves their health and well-being, as well as decreasing the conflict between work and family. At the societal level, commitment is seen to decrease job movement, and to increase national productivity and quality of work (Wasti, 2005; Su et al., 2009). Therefore, outcomes of commitment move beyond organisational benefits to more individual and societal benefits.

2.5 Criticism of Commitment Theory

Even though many conceptualisations of commitment were introduced in the last two decades, the three-component model was the most studied theoretical framework of commitment. Despite the dominance of this model, it has been strongly criticised and often re-conceptualised. For example, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) attempted to offer a better explanation of the three-component model. They noticed that research on commitment is unsystematic and lacks consensus in conceptualisation. They also highlighted its failure to consider how commitment develops and disagreement about whether CC is based on fear of losing investments or lacking alternatives.

Later Cohen (2007) criticized the three-component model of commitment by highlighting; (1) ambiguity of CC, whether it depends on costs or opportunities, (2) overlapping between AC and NC, as many researchers could not distinguish between the two components, (3) neglecting the role of time, as previous research highlighted that commitment develops through family and social values, thus, commitment before entering the organisation is different from commitment after entry.

Further criticism was based on the modern business environments, as new changes such as technologization and globalisation have raised issues such as downsizing, outsourcing labour activities, part-time jobs, flexible jobs and avoiding long term employees. Such trends made commitment in terms of staying in the organisation less important (Bar-Haim, 2007). Hence, it is argued that commitment, by old definitions, is not suitable for organisations these days. Bar-Haim (2007) raised the following points about the recent concept of commitment; (1) ambiguity of bases, consequences and behaviours of

commitment; (2) invalid assumption that commitment is based on exchange theory, as in reality commitment is more important when organisations cannot engage in exchange with employees; (3) invalidity of the old definition of commitment in the current business environment and in non-Western contexts of work, as new characteristics of organisations, such as short-lived ad hoc and inability to offer long-term jobs lead employers to attach less value to staying in the organisation. On the other hand, many characteristics of the business environment, such as high-demand labour market and lots of temptations to move to other companies from the 1950s onward, this would explain why commitment was strongly linked with turnover rate. (4) The current definition of commitment does not add any value beyond other well established concepts such as work motivation and job satisfaction. Such criticism was also supported by more recent research by Liu and Cohen (2010), who called for better understanding of the conceptualisation of commitment in order to use it effectively in the interest of both individuals and organisations.

Additionally, Solinger et al. (2008) expressed strong criticism of the three-component model, calling for it to be abandoned. They argued that the three components are different, as AC is an attitude towards target, while NC and CC are attitudes towards behaviour, thus, these components cannot be considered as components of one concept. They built their criticism upon: (1) inconsistency of empirical research, due to problems of conceptualising commitment. Thus, combining target attitudes and behavioural attitudes is misleading and incorrect, (2) difficulties of separating NC from AC. In this sense, NC could be an extra part of commitment which is not wanted any more. They concluded that the problem with the three-component model is conceptual rather than empirical in nature. Furthermore, Solinger et al. (2008) also criticised Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) model of commitment, as they argued that this model suffers from a variety of pitfalls. They highlighted that (a binding force) or (a course of actions) are general definitions, which could be used to define any sort of motivation or behaviour at work.

2.6 Conclusion

We have seen how previous work has conceptualised commitment, which is divided into two different approaches: attitudinal and behavioural. Additionally, we have identified key points among models of commitment in both Western and non-Western contexts, and criticisms of such models. From this review, it is possible to infer some connotations for

research dealing with this concept. (1) There are two main approaches to study commitment, attitudinal and behavioural; each has a different basis and contributes to a different understanding of commitment. (2) There is wide scope for more developed definitions and different interpretations of commitment. (3) There is a debate as to whether commitment is a dimensional or multidimensional concept. (4) Findings are mixed on the influence of different antecedent of commitment, as some antecedents were found to be influential in certain studies, but not in others. (5) There are strong links between individuals' cultural and social values and their interpretations of commitment. (6) There is doubt about the importance and appreciation of commitment among practitioners, as some research claims it is invalid in the current business environment.

CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUALISATIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOURS IN THE LITERATURE

3.1 Introduction

Similar to the previous chapter of literature review about commitment, this chapter aims to answer the following questions in order to highlight the theoretical value and need for this research: what conceptualisations of this phenomenon are presented in the literature? Are OCBs different across cultures? What motivates employees to engage in such behaviours? What outcomes are seen to result from such behaviours? How has previous research criticized this concept? Answering such questions will highlight the value of this research by revealing gaps in the literature, to support the contribution of this study. The chapter begins with theoretical frameworks about OCBs and how they differ across culture, presents debate about OCBs antecedents and outcomes and ends with criticism of OCBs in the literature.

3.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

Research on organisational citizenship behaviour (OCBs) and other related research, i.e. contextual performance, extra role behaviours and prosocial organisational behaviours, started in the earlier 1980s, when Smith et al. (1983) first used OCBs as a construct in their study. The concept of “*willingness to cooperate*” by Barnard (1938) and “*innovative and spontaneous behaviours*” by Katz (1964) led to the formalization of OCB by Smith and others (1979). Since the 1990s and the 2000s, much research has been done on OCBs. OCBs make benefits for organisations without being rewarded, or employees being forced or expected to practise them, because they are beyond job requirements (LePine et al., 2002).

3.2.1 *Theoretical frameworks of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours*

3.2.1.1 *OCB framework*

Many developments of this model have occurred since 1979, and the definition of OCB has changed many times. Based on ideas of Barnard (1938) and Katz (1964), Smith et al. (1983) conceptualised OCB as behaviours which are practised by employees at work, but are neither required formally by job descriptions nor formally rewarded. According to this

framework, OCBs are beyond job requirements, employees cannot be punished for not engaging in them, and they are not covered by the incentive system, because they are difficult to measure and could influence the performance of others, not just the individual who practises them (Smith et al., 1983). However, these behaviours affect opinions of performance evaluators because they notice such behaviours. Bateman and Organ (1983) were the first to label such behaviours with the name organisational citizenship behaviour “OCB”. They described them based on three aspects; (a) those behaviours which do not exist in job descriptions, (b) facilitate social treatment and (c) are outside task performance. Therefore, an explicit definition of what OCB is was introduced in 1988: *“behaviour [s] of a discretionary nature, that are not part of employees’ formal [role] requirements, but nevertheless promote the effective functions of the organization”* (Organ, 1988: p.4). This definition comprises three main aspects of OCB; 1- discretionary, as employees decide when and how to apply this behaviour, 2- not required by jobs, as this behaviour is not stated a job requirement, and 3- important for enhancing organisational performance.

Employees might see some behaviour as OCBs while supervisors might see the same behaviours as part of their jobs. OCBs depend on how an employee considers his/her job responsibilities (job breadth). Broad job responsibilities might include much behaviour and OCBs might be part of them. On the other hand, narrow job responsibilities will not include OCBs. Thus, research suggests that boundaries between in-role and extra-role activities are not clearly defined. Therefore, OCB is *“a function of how employees define in-role and extra-role job behaviour”* (Morrison, 1994: p.1562).

Aiming for a clearer definition, Organ (1997) redefined OCB as *“behaviours [that] do not support the technical core itself so much as they support the broader organisational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function”* (Organ, 1997: p.90). This definition is built on the framework of contextual performance. Thus, OCB was reinterpreted as maintaining and improving the social and psychological settings at the workplace in order to enhance organisational performance.

Morrison and Phelps (1999) broadened the definition of OCB by providing a holistic view of outcomes of OCBs at work. They argued that OCB is more than just helping and cooperating with others; rather, it involves making changes in the policies and procedures of the organisation. From this perspective, OCBs are the preserve of managerial

employees, because changing work policies and procedures is not possible for non-managerial employees. This view of OCBs reflects behaviours on the organisational level, not group or individual levels. It represents a situational and holistic behaviour for the sake of changing the current situation for the better. Such a view encouraged other researchers to consider OCBs on three different levels; individual, group and organisational (Paine and Organ, 2000). According to recent research, studies in the retrospective literature attempted to investigate OCBs at two levels: individual-level and unit-level of analysis, but agree that OCBs occurs outside the boundaries of job requirements and are not rewarded at either level (Ehrhart and Naumann, 2004).

A recent common view of OCBs sees them as individual contributions to the organisation. For example, Organ et al. (2006: p.3) defined OCB as “*individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation*”. This definition contains three main points: unrewarded behaviours, behaviours not included in job description and stream of contribution. Furthermore, they distinguished OCB from in-role behaviours (IRBs), as not included in job design or technology, not related to the abilities of individuals and out of managers’ orders. They believed that OCBs are beyond scope of job, they are not related to specific jobs and they could be noticed formally or informally. But why do managers not reward such behaviours directly? Organ et al. (2006) explained that direct rewarding of OCBs would pose two problems: (1) some managers could see them as IRBs, so they do not reward them; (2) employees could refrain from engaging in behaviours that cannot be noted, such as altruism, courtesy and cheering behaviours; (3) if rewarded, practice of OCBs will be extrinsically motivated, as rewards will be the main reason for engaging in them. This means that employees will not practise them unless they get rewards. Even though this could reduce engagement in OCBs, it will also eliminate intrinsic motivators such as desire and concern.

Since the first published paper about OCB, research has identified many forms of OCBs based on conceptualisations of the OCB framework. In 1988 Organ explained that such behaviours are practised in different forms; 1- Altruism. 2- Conscientiousness points to activities that are considered as extra-role in regard to attendance, obedience and resting. 3- Civic virtue includes participation and engagement in organisation affairs, for example, concern with organisational issues and participation in informal meetings, so it is directed towards the organisation (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004). 4- Sportsmanship is about tolerance

without complaining or grieving over the organisational issues. It is defined as “*a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and imposition of work without complaining*” (Podsakoff et al., 2000: p.517). Such behaviours include maintaining positive attitudes towards the organisation, not getting upset when suggestions are ignored, not taking matters personally. 5- Courtesy refers to avoiding work problems when interacting with others (Organ, 1988; Morrison, 1994).

In 1991 Williams and Anderson adopted the same conceptualisation of OCB framework and reclassified forms of OCB into two sorts: (a) behaviours which are directed to serve the interest of the organisation “OCB-O”, which focus on the organisation and overlap with Organ’s (1988) sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness; (b) behaviours directed towards other individuals, “OCB-I”, which focus on employees and are similar to Organ’s altruism and courtesy. They argued that OCB-O are motivated by extrinsic motivators, such as getting rewards, avoiding punishment and avoiding negative evaluation from managers. However, OCB-I are motivated by intrinsic forces that guide employees to be helpful to others (Williams and Anderson, 1991; Marinova et al., 2010). Furthermore, they distinguished three sorts of performance; task performance, citizenship behaviours towards other individuals and citizenship behaviours towards the organisation. This argument supports a complete separation between OCB-I and OCB-O. This study was the first to consider OCBs as multidimensional concept. Later, Organ considered both altruism and courtesy to reflect an organisational level “OCB-O”, whereas, conscientiousness represents an individual dimension “OCB-I” (Organ, 1997). Moreover, Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1994) reclassified forms of OCB, into three categories; (a) helping behaviours, including altruism, courtesy, peacemaking and cheering; (b) civic virtue; and (c) sportsmanship.

Podsakoff et al. (2000) proposed a more detailed typology of OCB: (a) Helping behaviours, such as volunteering to help others in order to prevent work problems, are the most highlighted forms of OCBs. Helping behaviours are defined as “*voluntarily helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of, work-related problems*” (Podsakoff et al., 2000: p.516). (b) Sportsmanship. (c) Loyalty boosterism; refers to those behaviours aimed at enhancing the organisation’s image for the public, defending it and supporting its goals; (d) Organisational compliance; (e) Civic virtue; (f) Individual initiative, including behaviours not required by task performance, such as innovative ideas about the work or the organisation, extra-role activities, taking extra responsibilities and encouraging others

to do so. This form of OCB is difficult to separate from in-role activities, because this form could be considered as task performance, not ERBs; (g) Self development, which refers to voluntary work that increases knowledge, skills and competences of individuals. It includes activities such as learning how to do another job when one is free and keeping up to date in the field of specialisation in order to get more training sessions (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ et al., 2006).

Recent research reclassified forms of ERBs to include: (a) Target of behaviour, i.e. individuals (interpersonal) and organisation (organisational). (b) Direction of behaviour, referring to why employees engage in OCBs, divided into promotive and protective behaviours. These two bases of classification resulted in four forms of OCBs. (a) Helping behaviour, which is interpersonal promotive behaviour (Stamper and Van Dyne, 2003; Organ et al., 2006); (b) Morale, which targets individuals and is for protecting employees; (c) Compliance, directed towards the organisation and used for promotive aims (Smith et al., 1983; Podsakoff et al., 2000); and (d) Taking charge, referring to behaviours directed towards the organisation for protective reasons (Morrison and Phelps, 1999; Marinova et al., 2010).

3.2.1.2 Prosocial Organisational Behaviours (POBs)

As a development of the ideas of Katz (1964) and Smith et al. (1983), this framework illustrates the phenomenon of ERBs or POBs by considering them as prosocial behaviours of employees who work together. This framework focuses more on behaviours of employees when they interact at the workplace. It also pays attention to the differences between interaction of employees among each other and their interaction with the organisation. Therefore, it considers POBs as both positive and negative behaviours at the workplace (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986).

From a broader view, these behaviours represent a spectrum of helping behaviours including OCB. Therefore, proponents of this framework argues that the OCB framework focuses only on the positive side of such behaviours, and called for general framework including all OCB-like behaviours (Moorman and Blakely, 1995). Accordingly, POBs are defined as “*Behaviour which is: (a) performed by a member of an organisation, (b) directed towards an individual, group or organisation, with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organisational role, and (c) performed with*

intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organisation towards which is directed" (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986: p.711)

These behaviours comprise a variety of behaviours such as punctuality, not wasting time, helping, innovating and counter-role behaviours such as expressing displeasure, arguing, complaining and finding fault with others (Turnipseed and Murkison, 2000). Furthermore, POBs are seen to reflect behaviours those are practised at work in order to promote the well-being of individual or groups to whom such behaviours are directed. Thus, these behaviours could be either IRBs or ERBs (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997).

POBs are defined as positive behaviours directed towards well-being of others. These behaviours are beyond job requirements, voluntary, spontaneous behaviours and serve the interest of the organisation. They include cooperation, protection, suggesting, self-development, participation and talking positively with others about the organisation. Such behaviours are practised out of intrinsic motivation, voluntarily and without social or financial rewards. According to this framework, POBs are described in terms of three components: (1) Functionality, this component refers to two sorts of behaviours; (a) functional behaviours refer to those positive behaviours aimed at achieving organisational goals such as effective job performance, developing communications, satisfaction and moral, increasing efficiency in general; (b) dysfunctional behaviours point to negative behaviours which do not serve organisational goals, such as ineffective job performance, poor personal decisions and organisational inefficiency. (2) Job scope, this component refers to IRBs/ERBs, as these behaviours can be within or outside the scope of job duties. However, while the former are seen as functional behaviours, the later may be either functional or dysfunctional. (3) Behaviour goal, this component refers to the goal of the behaviours, as it could be the organisation or individuals. POBs directed towards the organisation are usually seen as functional and those directed towards individuals could be seen as dysfunctional. However, these dimensions not always clear and separated, as what is positive for an individual could also be positive for the organisation (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986).

Forms of such behaviours are classified in four categories: (1) Helping behaviours have two ways to go; a- helping a colleague in job-related issues is seen as functional, b- helping in personal-related issues could be seen as dysfunctional if it is not for the sake of the organisation. (2) Leniency in personal decisions, e.g. selection, performance evaluation or

compensation, which could be seen as dysfunctional. (3) Providing goods or services, which could be seen as functional IRBs/ERBs when goods and services are introduced in a stable organised way. However, when they are introduced in an unstable way such as different prices or less encouragement to buy goods, these behaviours are seen as dysfunctional. (4) helping customers in personal issues not related to goods or services of the organisation, which could be seen as ERBs that might be functional or dysfunctional (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986). Other forms of POBs such as compliance with regulations, making constructive suggestions, challenging poor practice and putting forth extra effort on the job are seen as functional IRBs /ERBs. Some other functional IRBs /ERBs are volunteering for more activities, staying in the organisation in difficult times and representing the organisation to outsiders.

A criticism of this framework is that functionality is difficult to assess, as in some cases of employees' intent to serve the organisation but the results are adverse. Moreover, perceptions of whether certain behaviour is good or bad differ among individuals (Graham, 1991).

3.2.1.3 Organisational Spontaneity Behaviours (OSBs)

Even though this framework has not been widely used, it contributes towards explaining the phenomenon of OCBs. George and Brief (1992) introduced this framework based on the argument that both OCB and POBs frameworks merely identify sorts of organisational spontaneity, based upon Katz's (1964) description of such behaviours as spontaneous behaviours, and neither framework clearly describe what these behaviours mean. Therefore, they suggested what they called organisational spontaneity behaviours, ERBs that employees perform voluntarily in order to contribute towards organisational effectiveness. They also highlighted five forms of organisational spontaneity: (1) Helping colleagues; such behaviours are seen as daily, voluntary and not in job descriptions, e.g. informing others of possible risk, sharing resources and offering help to others. (2) Protecting the organisation, e.g. taking action against vandalism, stealing or accidents. (3) Making constructive suggestions, that increase organisational performance. (4) Self-development. (5) Spreading goodwill, e.g. telling others how good their management is or advertising new products.

This framework is different from the OCB framework, as it considers OSBs as rewarded behaviours and it does not include conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic

virtue as forms of such behaviours. However, both frameworks are similar in seeing these behaviours as voluntary and extra-role, for the sake of the organisation. Compared with the POBs framework, OSBs differs in seeing spontaneity behaviours as ERBs for the sake of the organisation, while POBs are seen as IRBs /ERBs for the sake of individuals and organisations. One of the main contributions of OSBs is highlighting the individual level of ERBs, that are positive for the organisation and could be directly rewarded by the formal system (Moorman and Blakely, 1995).

3.2.1.4 Political-based citizenship

Based on Graham's study (1991) regarding a political philosophy perspective of OCBs, Van Dyne et al. (1994) argued that studying OCBs from this perspective leads to a variety of anticipated behaviours, and building network with concepts out of the organisational behaviour field would enhance the richness of OCBs. Graham (1991) argued that narrow definitions of OCBs lead to neglecting several important behaviours. She claimed that citizenship rights are (1) organisational civil rights, "fair treatment"; (2) political rights, "participation"; and (3) social rights, "economic benefits".

According to this framework OCBs are multidimensional and include several behaviours. Which are related but differ in their antecedents and outcomes. They are based on a mutual contract that the organisation will serve individuals, and individuals should do their best for the organisation. Individuals practise such behaviours out of intrinsic forces, aiming for a happy outcome for them and their organisations (Van Dyne et al., 1994). In this sense, both parties of the contractual relationship consider the collective identity more than their own identity. Hence, they do not allow conflict to threaten this relationship, as individuals do not favour legal procedures to solve work problems. Such relationships have affective and normative foundations, not just social or economic exchange as seen in other frameworks. Furthermore, they are subjective, unwritten and beyond benefit exchange (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Based on the argument above, OCBs are divided into three forms: (1) Organisational compliance. This dimension is based on an assumption that employees accept rules and regulations that are rational and sensible because they want and need such regulations to help them do their jobs and maintain their relationships (Graham, 1991). (2) Organisational loyalty refers to congruence with organisation, departments and managers. According to this form, employees defend their organisation, promote its reputation and

cooperate with others for the sake of the organisation. (3) Organisational participation points to concern with organisational issues, keeping informed of what is happening and participating in management of the organisation (Bienstock et al., 2003; Organ et al., 2006).

However, this framework is criticised for its assumption that it is easy to separate between IRBs and ERBs. For example, oral orders of managers, which employees should obey, could contradict job description, so, it is not easy to separate IRBs from ERBs. This framework is different from POBs framework in that OCBs are seen as directed towards the organisation, so they are positive behaviours (Graham, 1991). Furthermore, criticism of this framework was centred on the idea that what is suitable for social and political life is not necessarily suitable for organisational life. For example, participation in organisational events is higher than participation in political or social life. Moreover, even though helping behaviours were central to previous frameworks, this framework did not consider them as a major element of OCBs.

3.2.1.5 Contextual Performance Behaviours (CPBs)

Feeling that OCBs had not been sufficiently studied for conceptualisation and based on previous frameworks, Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) introduced a framework based on the argument that performance has two facets: task performance and contextual performance. They defined contextual performance as “*behaviours that do not support the technical core itself as much as they support the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function*”(Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994: p.476).

Later research interpreted CPBs as a broad concept with two dimensions: an interpersonal dimension, which is important for maintaining good relationships and helping others, and a volitional dimension, referring to voluntary behaviours such as promotions. Thus, CPBs are seen as “*a set of interpersonal and volitional behaviours that support the social and motivational context in which organisational work is accomplished*”(Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996: p.525). Furthermore, research distinguished between performing and behaving, as the former refers to a behaviour that includes evaluation, either positive or negative for individuals or organisations, while the latter refers to various actions practised by employees inside the organisation. Therefore, performance was seen as (1) contrasting of various behaviours; (2) episodic, behaviours

have a beginning and end, (3) evaluative, effective or not; (4) multidimensional, directed towards organisation or others (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Accordingly, performance is viewed as a cumulative contribution, whilst task performance refers to activities transforming or facilitating the technical core of the organisation. CPBs refer to various behaviours that do not serve the technical core of the organisation, but maintain the broader organisational, social and psychological environments surrounding the technical core of the organisation. Such behaviours are not within the scope of the job and are voluntary. The two sorts of performance have different antecedents. For example, personality traits and contextual knowledge, skills and habits are the main antecedents of contextual performance.

Table 1: Distinguishing Contextual Performance from Task Performance

Task performance	Contextual performance
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Different among jobs - Specified in job description - Practised because of cognitive abilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Similar behaviours among jobs - Unspecified - Practised because of personality traits

SOURCES: (BORMAN AND MOTOWIDLO, 1997)

Table 1 shows three different points distinguishing task and contextual performance from each other. For example, while task performance includes different duties and abilities, as described in the job description, contextual performance has similar and unspecified behaviours among jobs. These behaviours are thought to stem from the personal traits of those who practise them.

This framework is distinguished by combining both OCB and POBs frameworks. Thus, it provided better understanding and broad interpretations of OCBs. However, the CPBs framework is different from the OCB framework in two points: (1) OCBs are discretionary behaviours, while contextual performance could not be discretionary; (2) OCBs are unrewarded behaviours, while contextual performance may be rewarded. They are similar in that both describe only positive behaviours (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Werner, 2000; Organ et al., 2006).

Forms of CPBs are classified into two facets; (1) Interpersonal facilitation, which is individual behaviour directed towards relationships with others, including raising morale and cooperation, helping others and solving constraints on high performance. Such behaviours are thought to be important for supporting the social context of performance. They stem from agreeableness, social confidence, extroversion and positive affectivity. (2)

Job dedication represents the motivation form of OCBs. It represents self-discipline behaviours such as obeying instructions and regulations, hard working and solving work problems. While this category is similar to conscientiousness and general compliance in previous research, it includes behaviours directed towards the interest of the organisation. Further, job dedication is more related to task performance and so excluded from contextual performance. Thus, Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) concluded that interpersonal facilitation better represents CPBs, because it includes skills and motivations for the interaction between individuals, which establishes a better environment for doing job duties.

Later research added some different forms of CPBs to include (1) enthusiasm and double efforts in task performance; (2) voluntary activities outside the job; (3) following managerial instructions; (4) support and concern for the organisation and its goals; (5) helping and cooperation (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). Similarly, based on the idea of different performance facets, Coleman & Borman (2000) reclassified CPBs forms as (1) Interpersonal Citizen Performance, which benefits other organisational members, and has to the same meaning as Organ's (1988) altruism and courtesy and William & Anderson's (1991) OCBI; (2) Organisational Citizen Performance, which benefits the organisation and has the same meanings as sportsmanship, civic virtue and courtesy (Organ, 1988); (3) Job-Task Citizenship Performance, which refers to extra effort for the job with more desire for high performance. This dimension is similar to functional participation (Van Dyne et al., 1994) and job dedication (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996)

3.2.1.6 Extra-Role Behaviours framework (ERBs)

This framework was introduced to emphasise behaviour as beyond job requirements or description. Based on distinguishing IRBs from ERBs, Van Dyne et al (1995) redefined previous conceptualisations of OCBs and called for a new framework, labelled ERBs. These are behaviours that go beyond the expected behaviours of the job, such as whistle-blowing and principled organisational dissent. This framework is different from the OCB framework in that it refers to negative behaviours as well as positive behaviours (Organ et al., 2006).

ERBs are discretionary, positive, unrewarded, not included in job descriptions and employees will not be punished if they do not engage in them (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998). The authors reclassified ERBs into four categories based on affect and

relationships; (1) Affect includes; (a) Promotive behaviours; which are proactive in nature and described as developing and encouraging behaviours. (b) Prohibitive behaviours, referring to behaviours which are protective and preventive behaviours, such as supporting rights or stopping oppression or unethical actions. (2) Relationships refer to; (c) Affiliative behaviours practised among employees such as helping and cooperating in order to maintain and strengthen relationships among employees. Affiliative behaviours are thought to have positive outcomes on organisations such as increasing trust, group cohesiveness, morality and feeling of belonging. Specifically affiliation-oriented behaviours strengthen network relationships among group members, which leads to effective information sharing, better organisational learning, better performance and more engagement in challenge-oriented behaviours. (d) Challenging behaviours refers to behaviours related to work strategies and aimed towards changing the current status of the organisation. Such behaviours are thought to weaken relationships among employees. Challenging behaviours lead to healthy debate, which in turn leads to creative thinking, effectiveness and higher equality decisions. These behaviours are seen as positive if they are at a low level, because they lead to more practice of affiliation-oriented behaviours, better task performance and higher profitability and sales. However, when challenging behaviours are high, their disadvantages may outweigh their advantages. Therefore, researchers have highlighted the importance of trust among employees, which determines which challenging behaviours produce negative outcomes. Trust reduces misunderstanding and conflict. Furthermore, managers have an influence on employees' engagement in both affiliative and challenging behaviours. For instance, refraining from delegating authority, feeling of superiority over subordinates and feeling of threat of employees are unsupportive towards OCBs (Raub and Robert, 2010; Mackenzie et al., 2011).

Examples of ERB are; Voice (challenging and promotive behaviour), Helping behaviours (affiliative and promotive behaviour), Whistle-blowing (challenging and promotive behaviour), and Stewardship (Affiliative and prohibitive behaviour) (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998).

To conclude, all of the above frameworks described OCBs in accordance with four different points, demonstrated in table 2.

Table 2: Comparing the Mainstream Frameworks of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

<i>Frameworks</i> <i>Components</i>	<i>OCB</i>	<i>POBs</i>	<i>OSBs</i>	<i>Political-based OCB</i>	<i>CPBs</i>	<i>ERBs</i>
<i>Role behaviours</i>	ERBs	ERBs/IRBs	ERBs	ERBs/IRBs	ERBs	ERBs
<i>Rewards</i>	Unrewarded	Rewarded/ Unrewarded	Rewarded	Unrewarded	Rewarded/ Rewarded	Unrewarded
<i>Outcomes</i>	Positive	functional/ dysfunctional	Positive	Positive	Positive	Positive/ negative
<i>Target</i>	Organisations	Organisations/ individuals	Organisations	Organisations	Organisations/ individuals	Organisations

3.2.2 Cross-cultural research of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

Even though most research about OCBs has been conducted in North America and Europe, recent research indicates that cultural context has an impact on how the concept is interpreted. Specifically, there are relationships between collectivism-individualism and power distance on one hand and the practice of OCBs on the other hand. Thus, recent research on OCBs called for more consideration of national culture when studying OCBs (Paine and Organ, 2000; Farh et al., 2008). People from collectivist cultures usually expect to engage in behaviours which are seen as beneficial for the group, which means high engagement in OCBs. Furthermore, they usually attach importance to interaction and exchange behaviours. Thus, they may consider OCBs as IRBs rather ERBs (Organ et al., 2006). While people from individualist cultures interpret conscientiousness as ERBs, people from collectivist cultures usually interpret conscientiousness as a part of task performance. OCBs are more related to values of collectivist cultures, because people from such cultures are concern for the well-being and interest of the group as a whole. Moreover, they usually practise OCBs because they interpret them as within their job duties. Research has found that some forms of OCBs, such as interpersonal helping, individual initiative and loyal boosterism, are strongly associated with collectivist cultures (Moorman and Blakely, 1995).

Employees in collectivist cultures usually have trust in their managers because managers usually are seen as in-group members who seek the well-being of their groups. Furthermore, collectivist employees have more cohesive work groups because of value congruence among group members. Such characteristics are important for engaging in OCBs (Organ et al., 2006). By contrast, in individualistic cultures employees practise OCBs in order to influence the opinion of the evaluator and get high performance ratings. However, in collectivist cultures OCBs are practised in order to serve in-group members and enhancing and strengthening group cohesiveness (Paine and Organ, 2000). Research also argued that in societies that appreciate moral behaviours and give a role to self-moral choices, OCBs are seen higher than societies those do not appreciate such behaviours. Furthermore, in societies which have advanced social systems and competitive economies, OCBs are expected to be high due to considerations of ethics and efficiency (Turnipseed and Murkison, 2000).

Another cultural aspect linked with OCBs is power distance, as higher power distance leads to continuous desire to practise OCBs, while, lower power distance leads to refraining from practising OCBs when employees perceive unfairness in the organisation (Organ et al., 2006). This argument reaffirms the role of cultural characteristics in changing all the well-known relationships among antecedents and outcomes of OCBs. In societies that have lower power distance and participative leadership styles, employees tend to exhibit OCBs in the form of individual initiatives. Furthermore, people from low power distance cultures tend to depend on feeling of justice in order to practice OCBs, as the greater the feeling of justice, the more engagement in OCBs. On the other hand, high power distance cultures usually look at individual initiatives as challenging managers, so employees might refrain from practising such behaviours. By contrast to low power distance cultures, employees from high power distance cultures usually practise OCBs even when they perceive injustice (Paine and Organ, 2000). In societies that have less power distance employees feel more responsible for the outcomes of their work because they have the sense of sharing authority with their managers. However, in societies characterised by high power distance, employees feel less responsible because of their belief that authority is in the hands of their managers. This argument suggests that engagement in OCBs could be higher in organisations where employees have less feeling of power distance. In this regard, forms of OCBs such as civic virtue, individual initiative and self-development are usually less in cultures distinguished by high power distance, because such behaviours could be interpreted as a challenge for managers (Organ et al., 2006). It is difficult to convince people who have high power distance of empowerment, because they believe that higher positions should have higher authority. People whose power values are high usually engage in challenging ERBs because they see such behaviours as opportunities to promote their position, dominance and power in organisations (Raub and Robert, 2010).

In relation to different national contexts, research in France found four forms of OCBs; altruism, morale, civic virtue and helping behaviours (Paillé, 2009). In Taiwan, it is found that OCBs lead to more knowledge sharing. Additionally, in Turkey, while transformational leadership led to more practice of OCBs by blue-collar employees, justice perceptions led to more practice of OCBs by white-collar employees. In Ireland, perceptions of role independence among blue-collar employees is positively related with more prosocial behaviours (Cem Ersoy et al., 2011). In Japan and Hong Kong, research

found that participants considered sportsmanship and courtesy as requirements of their jobs, “IRBs”(Organ et al., 2006). In particular, in Japan, company size and ownership and sector type have different impact on the practice of OCBs. Moreover, in Cuba the political position was one of the main deterrents of the practice of OCBs. In addition, in Italy research found that private companies reward OCBs, while state companies do not. However, in Romania the economic factor is more important than cultural or political factors, as research highlighted that the Romanian economy depends heavily on the government, which leads to less engagement in OCBs. Furthermore, in the Korean, Taiwanese and Hong Kong societies, commitment was high towards relatives; therefore, employees are expected to engage in OCBs directed towards other employees who have family relationships with them(Paine and Organ, 2000).

Farh et al (1997) explored whether forms of OCBs in China would be similar to the previous research on OCBs. They found similar forms of OCBs such as identification with the company, conscientiousness and altruism, which are similar to Organ’s et al (1988) perspective. However, they found two extra forms which had not been identified before: interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources. Interpersonal harmony refers to refraining from using power or behaving in harmful ways. Protecting company resources refers to discretionary behaviour to avoid any negative behaviour that damages the organisation, its policies and resources. Employees reported participating in social welfare and cohesiveness among colleagues as distinctive behaviours related to Chinese culture. The study also highlighted that Chinese managers interpreted OCB as a sort of cohesiveness that thoroughly supports the work environment. Thus, loyalty to supervisor leads to more engagement in OCB (Organ et al., 2006; Cem Ersoy et al., 2011).

Previous research argued that when cultural values, social structure and egalitarianism do not exist, the role of perceived justice becomes more important for the practice of OCBs. In more modern societies, perceived organisational justice leads to engagement in OCBs. However, in more traditional societies, perceived organisational justice is not necessary to lead to higher engagement in OCBs, because social ties, supervisor behaviour and role identity effects the practice of OCBs through creating covenantal relationships among people. Family orientation and in-group collectivism, “familistic collectivism”, usually guide Chinese employees to value such forms of OCBs (Farh et al., 1997; Farh et al., 2008).

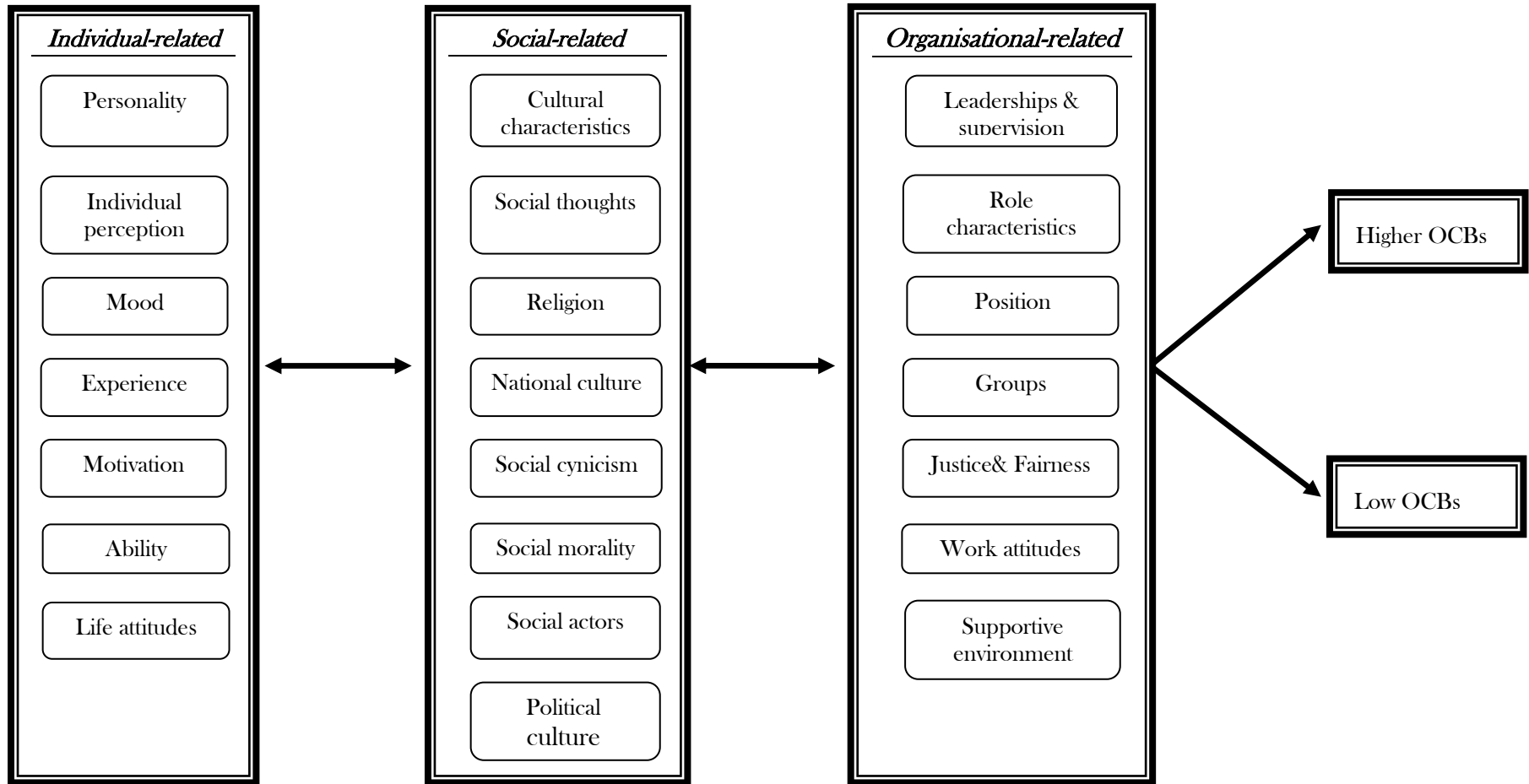
3.2.3 *Recent conceptualisation of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours*

Describing OCBs as a situation-dependent concept, recent research argued that OCBs are practised daily and are different according to situational factors. Additionally, OCBs are described as episodic, as each individual could practise them to various degrees at different times (Marinova et al., 2010; Mayfield and Taber, 2010). Hence, recent studies have moved away from social exchange explanation of OCBs towards self-relevant motivational process, effective influence and social comparisons. For example, Spence et al. (2011) used social comparisons theory to identify why employees engage in OCBs. They explained that when employees compare themselves with other higher or lower employees, they get information on whether they should engage in OCBs or not. Therefore, new definition of OCBs has been introduced “*dynamic behaviour that varies considerably from one time to another*” (Spence et al., 2011: p.562). This study posed the question “In which situations do people practise OCBs?” instead of “Who practices OCBs?” Thus, some of the recent research about OCBs considered them as positive behaviours for the organisation, unless they are misused by individuals for their interests, when they become negative behaviours at the workplace (Raub and Robert, 2010; Mackenzie et al., 2011; Stoner et al., 2011). In general, theoretical frameworks of OCBs have become more holistic to include different positive and negative behaviours and cultural aspects. They also consider the social interaction among employees. Furthermore, these behaviours could be seen as IRBs and ERBs and then could be rewarded.

3.3 Antecedents of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

Numerous antecedents for OCBs have been mentioned in the literature. These antecedents are different but related, as research produced various mixed classifications of antecedents, including those from personal, social and organisational sources. The importance of these antecedents is less in their profound effect on engagement with OCBs. Figure 2 highlights the main antecedents of OCBs found in the literature.

Figure 2: Antecedents of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours



3.3.1 *Individual-related antecedents*

This group includes various individual characteristics, which determine to a great extent the practice of OCBs at work. Researchers argue that engaging in OCBs is related to the nature of employees and their individual traits. For instance, morale factors such as commitment, satisfaction and individual perceptions of justice and support at work and individual differences are proven to be influential for engaging with OCBs (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Borman et al., 2001). Furthermore, when there is no motivator, threat, work stress or clear vision of what to do, behaviour usually reflects personal traits. Research has explained that there are four personal dispositions that affect engagement in OCBs. (1) Agreeableness refers to friendship, comfortableness with others and desire to deal with others. This trait is expected to affect helping behaviours, courtesy and sportsmanship because it reflects the need for others. (2) Conscientiousness refers to dependability, self discipline and planning and perseverance. It is usually noticed through punctuality, attendance and obeying orders, behaviours thought to effect civic virtue and compliance forms of OCBs. (3) Emotional stability is salient, as those who are not emotionally stable are less likely to engage in OCBs. (4) Extraversion; even though little research has been done on this trait, it is expected that extraversion may affect engagement in OCBs (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ et al., 2006). Other personality-related characteristics such as achievement, dependability, adjustment, locus of control, cooperativeness, achievement motivation, sense of competence and empathy are highly expected to influence adoption of ERBs (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; Borman and Motowidlo, 1997).

Research shows out that mood could be one of the main antecedents of OCBs. It is argued that work-related and non work-related activities are responsible for positive and negative moods of employees. While positive mood is expected to positively influence different forms of OCBs, negative moods are expected to negatively influence them. In addition, previous work and social experience are also expected to affect engagement more in OCBs (Messer and White, 2006).

Dispositional factors have huge effect on practising OCBs. For example, two factors were studied in the literature; (1) Motivation refers to how hard an employee will engage in OCBs. This includes why employees want to engage in OCBs; for their own sake, i.e. to enhance self-esteem or receive recognition, for the sake of others, i.e. helping, or for the

sake of their organisation, i.e. to improve organisational performance. Motivation also includes feelings, such as feeling obligated to engage in OCBs, because of personal responsibilities, moral obligation or personal goals (McBain, 2004; Raub and Robert, 2010). (2) Ability refers to whether an employee can engage in such behaviours, as individual competences are thought to be important for the practice of OCBs (Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Organ et al., 2006).

Early research focused on work-related individual characteristics. For example, it is argued that accepting authority, habits and attitudes in life cause employees to accept authority of work rules and congruence with system norms. Instrumental system and individual rewards, satisfaction, accepting organisational values and group relationships are identified antecedents of OCBs (Katz, 1964). While early research on the antecedents of OCBs focused on personal characteristics, stating that “*any dispositions that can be confidently and empirically tied to characteristic level of morale in the workplace*” (Organ, 1997: p.94), by contrast, recent research has highlighted the role of individual capabilities in order to engage with OCBs. For example, personal characteristics such as personality, skills, experience, attitude towards reward, need for independence and hard work are considered as important characteristics for engaging in OCBs (Mayfield and Taber, 2010; Cem Ersoy et al., 2011).

3.3.2 Social-related antecedents

Even though few studies have been done on the social antecedents of OCBs, this group refers to the effect of social norms and actors in determining engagement in OCBs. In this regard, recent studies argued that the dominating social and cultural characteristics of a specific context influence how employees interpret certain concepts such as OCBs (Rego and Cunha, 2010). Supporting the importance role of social antecedents, research argues that OCBs, in many respects, consider the behaviours of others. In this sense OCBs could not be an individual behaviour, but is affected by interpersonal relations (Koster and Sanders, 2006; Mayfield and Taber, 2010). The recent classification of forms of OCBs as affiliative and challenging behaviours has brought to light different antecedents for each group. Affiliative behaviours are expected to come from introjected motivations such as social norms of how good relationships should be maintained, as these motivations refer to social considerations of what is accepted as good behaviour (Raub and Robert, 2010). This argument supports early research about OCBs, where

family ties, social exchange, prosocial behaviours and social morality were seen as determinants of engagement in OCBs (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Graham, 1991). Furthermore, supporting the role of social factors, recent research highlighted that whilst people who have high social cynicism see OCBs as ERBs, religious people see them as IRBs. People who have high religiosity usually have high levels of job dedication and organisation support. Thus, social ideologies support individual behaviours at work (Cem Ersoy et al., 2011). From a broader perspective, some research proposed that national and political culture, common thoughts among employees and kind of political system (democratic or dictatorial) are important antecedents of OCBs (Graham, 1991).

3.3.3 Organisational-related antecedents

Most research regarding antecedents of OCBs paid attention to organisation-related antecedents, leading to huge spectrum of ideas on how managers could enhance the practice of OCBs at their organisations. Research suggests that organisation, management, groups, jobs and work attitudes are important antecedents of OCBs. Specifically, Organ (1997) indicated that antecedents of OCBs are “*attitudes indicative of or derived from a general state of morale in the workplace*” (p.94).

Work attitudes were among those antecedents which have been highlighted as important for engaging in OCBs. Two of the most studied attitudes are job satisfaction and commitment (Mayfield and Taber, 2010). For example, early research considered job satisfaction among the antecedents of OCBs, as stronger relationships were found between job satisfaction and OCBs than task performance. Job satisfaction was seen as a positive mood towards work (Farh et al., 1997; Messer and White, 2006). This has been found important to OCBs than personality, although recent research suggests that personality traits affect practice of OCBs indirectly through their effect on job attitudes (Organ et al., 2006). Similarly, commitment levels are seen to have an effect on the practice of OCBs because commitment is an attitude influenced by individual and organisational characteristics. Research supports the relationship between mutual commitment and OCBs, and suggests that it directly influences OCBs and influences how employees think of the activities of their jobs. Thus, associations between OCBs and commitment were found (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Chang and Cheung, 2010). Moreover, work attitudes are seen to emerge from shared values between organisations

and employees; the greater the value congruence, the more positive work attitudes and hence the more engagement in OCBs at the workplace (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Job characteristics including task feedback, task routinization, intrinsically satisfying tasks, role clarification, role ambiguity, role conflict and role characteristics all contribute in enhancing the practice of OCBs at workplaces (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Mayfield and Taber, 2010). Task autonomy is also thought to have positive impact on practising OCBs through feelings of responsibility, ownership and satisfaction. Task identity is also seen as an antecedent of OCBs. It refers to variety and significance of the job, which increase engagement in OCBs through feeling the value and meaning of the job (Organ et al., 2006). OCBs are seen to be higher in jobs those depend on cooperation of several employees and using shared resources, as such jobs provide good opportunities for interaction and engaging in OCBs. Task interdependence improves feelings of responsibility towards group members and then practising OCBs. Job feedback also is linked with more engagement in OCBs (Smith et al., 1983; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Organ et al., 2006).

Many research studies of OCBs assert that OCBs and performance are highly associated with role characteristics given by social actors. Hence, an employee's engagement in OCBs depends on how social actors see his/her behaviours in his/her position. Therefore, if social actors see OCBs in a position, consequently, an employee who takes that position will engage in OCBs (Lamertz, 2005). Furthermore, a higher position at workplace, more responsibilities and more influence on decisions in the organisation mean more effectiveness, autonomy and social pressure, and hence more engagement in OCBs (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Accepting the idea that OCBs occur between individuals who work together at the workplace, effects of others at work have been linked to engaging with OCBs. Thus, group-related factors such as reciprocity norms, group cohesiveness and group characteristics are seen as determining engagement in OCBs (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; Mayfield and Taber, 2010). OCBs are identified as a distinction variable that improves team effectiveness, coordination and flexibility. Therefore, research has explained that OCBs depend on the degree and sort of intra-team interdependence (McBain, 2004). Moreover, group cohesiveness is a motivator of engagement of OCBs. It refers to strong relationships among group members, desire to stay a member in the

group and sense of group identity, which promote high morale and group loyalty. Furthermore, strong relationships and trust among group members, perceptions of success of group and perceived support from group members towards each other enhance group cohesiveness (Organ et al., 2006).

Recently, research has highlighted the role of organisational justice and fairness in affecting, not only OCBs, but all organisational concepts. Employees who feel that they are treated fairly, might have more favourable attitudes toward their jobs and their organisation, and so be more willing to engage in OCBs (Werner, 2000; Messer and White, 2006). Furthermore, employees usually respond to manager's fairness by trust and engaging with OCBs. The role of justice in affecting OCBs depends, however, on several individual and situational factors. For instance, distributive justice is built upon equity norms, which influence individuals' perceptions of fairness. Economic relationships could be changed to relational agreement when trust is present. Procedural justice affects trust in organisations, which in turn affects OCBs. Therefore, justice has strong roles in creating effective work environments and covenantal relationships between organisations and employees, and hence, engagement in OCBs (Farh et al., 1997; Rego and Cunha, 2010). Stressing the role of procedural, distributive and interactional justice, research argued that subordinates might adjust their behaviours according to their feelings of fair or unfair treatment. However, a second perspective looks at organisational support as the main predictor of OCBs. In this regard, employees' engagement in OCBs depends on how they feel that they have been dealt with in the organisation. These two perspectives introduce OCBs as outcomes of the relationships between employees and organisations. This relationship has dominated the literature of OCBs. Also OCBs are seen as reciprocal, in that employees do OCBs and expect their organisations to treat them fairly and positively. Additionally, research on procedural and interactional justice supports their effect on OCBs via employees' mutual commitment (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004).

In line with the recent importance given to leadership in organisation, leadership is seen as an antecedent of OCBs. In many cases, the practice of OCBs is explained as a form of social exchange between employees and their managers, colleagues and organisation. Therefore, leader behaviours are considered as important organisational antecedents at the workplace (Messer and White, 2006; Mayfield and Taber, 2010). Research concerned with the mutual relation between leaders behaviours and subordinates behaviours maintains that employees will engage in OCBs if they receive high degrees of

mutual relationships with their managers (Ilies et al., 2007). Supportive leader behaviours are perceived by employees as a sort of personal help, which makes them feel a moral obligation to exhibit OCBs. However, even though both instrumental and supportive leader behaviours are thought to be linked with courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship, supportive leader behaviours are thought to have stronger links with OCBs (Smith et al., 1983; Organ et al., 2006). While leader reward positively influences the practice of OCBs, leader punishment has negative effects on engaging in such behaviours. Furthermore, transformational leadership encourage employees to exert more than their jobs require, which could influence OCBs directly or with the mediating effect of trust. This relationship is explained through exchange relationships (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ et al., 2006). In this sense, research also highlighted that empowerment is seen as an antecedent of IRBs, and affiliative and challenging behaviours. More empowerment and participation means more responsibilities and then more feelings of the need to engage with OCBs (Raub and Robert, 2010).

It is also added that the supervisor-employee relationship is critical for understanding the relation between leadership and OCBs (Ilies et al., 2007). Some research found that solidarity toward supervisors has an effect on generalized compliance and solidarity toward co-workers is associated with altruism (Koster and Sanders, 2006). Relational identification with supervisors leads to higher practice of interpersonal facilitation and organisation support (Cem Ersoy et al., 2011).

One of the highly expected organisational antecedents of OCBs is the surrounding work environment. Research shows that this has an impact on OCBs through organisational culture, employee-organisation relationship, perceived support and organisational constraints (Farh et al., 1997). For example, a relation is found between organisational culture and OCBs. Employees in a highly bureaucratic culture are less involved in OCBs, as rules and routine are the main features of this culture and employees have little scope for OCBs (Stamper and Van Dyne, 2003). Thus, the dominating rules, norms and thoughts in a certain work setting are highly influential on engagement in OCBs (Graham, 1991; Mayfield and Taber, 2010). Furthermore, OCBs are also seen to be influenced by group cultural norms, work goals and organisational hierarchies. For example, work goals which are accurately described do not allow for more practise of OCBs and mechanical organisational structures reduce spontaneous ERBs at work (Paine and Organ, 2000).

However, value congruence is a reason for engaging with OCBs, as the better the fit between the organisation and the individual, the more engagement in OCBs. Thus, more feelings of identification with the organisation lead to more practice of OCBs (Organ et al., 2006; Mayfield and Taber, 2010).

Furthermore, perceived organisational support (POS) is important to enhance employees' engagement in OCBs because such support could create a feeling of obligation to reciprocate by practising OCBs. POS refers to concern about well being of employees, rewarding all behaviours, accepting employees' values and goals at work and providing them with respected status in their societies. Such support is thought to increase satisfaction and provide a positive psychological state for employees and improve commitment and organisation performance. POS is used highly in management literature as a framework to enhance trust, sense of obligations, desire to reciprocate and fulfilling social needs and identity (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ et al., 2006). Moreover, employees who have been trained to practise OCBs achieve higher job performance. Thus, employee development is perceived as organisational support, which needs to be appreciated by exhibiting OCBs (Werner, 2000). When employees feel that their organisation is concerned about their well being, they more likely to engage in such behaviours. Morale is also thought to be influential for job satisfaction, fairness, commitment and leadership consideration. Considering the well being of employees is perceived by employees as valuing their efforts and caring about them, which enhance their engagement in OCBs (Organ et al., 2006). Managers are thought to have higher levels of OCBs than non managerial employees because they usually have deeper sense of responsibility and strong need for achievement. However, they could play an important role in encouraging OCBs at work through setting positive examples (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Organ et al., 2006). Moreover, lack of rewards could also lead to one of these behaviours. Low colleague performance also could lead either to exerting extra efforts to cover that lack or to resentment at work (Spector and Fox, 2010). Furthermore, when job performance is low, managers do not consider the practice of OCBs when they evaluate their employees. Thus, levels of job performance are seen as antecedents of OCBs (Werner, 2000). Similarly, research highlighted that engagement in OCBs would be reduced by several factors: lack of equipment, lack of facilitation, lack of resources, lack of training, lack of help and time and work stressors (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; Organ et al., 2006) .

To conclude, even though research has pointed out various classifications of OCBs, all of such classifications are important for the practice of OCBs. Moreover, stable antecedents and situational antecedents can be found in the literature. For example, personality traits are seen as stable antecedents of OCBs, whilst treatment of colleagues, managers and customers could depend on the situation, i.e. need for practising OCBs at certain times (Spector and Fox, 2010). Furthermore, situational antecedents could be explained by highlighting the role of individual perceptions, for example, how individuals perceive and interpret work-related activities, policies and relationships with others (Moorman and Blakely, 1995). Similarly, opportunity is also seen as a sort of situational antecedent, so in some cases providing opportunities is important for engagement in OCBs (Organ et al., 2006).

3.4 Outcomes of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours at workplace

This section reflects on the value of OCBs at work. In other words, why should practitioners be concerned about OCBs? What outcomes do they lead to? Are both managerial and non-managerial employees interested in engaging in them?

So first let us see why managers could be interested in OCBs? To answer this question, it is clearly seen that managers usually consider engaging in OCBs when they evaluate the performance of subordinates, because; (1) they believe in the importance of OCBs. (2) Such behaviours are not easily forgettable. (3) They are expected by managers of good employees. (4) They are thought to be linked to high performance. (5) They reflect commitment. (6) They reflect social norms and exchange. (7) To enhance relationships with those who practise them. (8) Managers feel that giving higher grades of performance appraisal for those who engage in OCBs shows of fairness at work (Organ et al., 2006). Managers also welcome OCBs because they facilitate their jobs by allowing more time to deal with complicated issues (Bateman and Organ, 1983). Employees' engagement in OCBs increases their managers' performance through providing ideas for developing work and facilitating quick response to environmental changes. Furthermore, engagement in OCBs helps managers to avoid wasting time solving problems and allows more delegation of their authorities. It is also believed that engaging with OCBs helps with maintaining good employees at work and creating cohesive work groups (Marinova et al., 2010). Moreover, research suggests that managers prefer employees who make extra efforts, and do not just adhere to the job requirements (Morrison, 1994). It is asserted that OCBs influence managers' perceptions of the overall performance and turnover of subordinates (Ehrhart and Naumann, 2004). Thus, because OCBs influence opinions of evaluators, through norms of reciprocity, managers believe that practising OCBs is a sort of excellence work and reflects the concept of good employees. However, it is reported that both civic virtue and sportsmanship lead to higher performance ratings, while helping behaviours do not (Podsakoff and Mackenzie, 1994).

Turning now to the expected outcomes of OCBs, there were three levels of influence highlighted in the literature: organisational, group and individual. First, at organisational level, it is affirmed that OCBs lead to high overall performance, operating efficiency, customer satisfaction, high managerial productivity, effective performance evaluation and higher task productivity (Bergeron, 2007; Mayfield and Taber, 2010; Sevi, 2010). Organ

(1988) explained that OCBs could lead to positive outcomes such as transformation, innovation and adaptability. Furthermore, research argued that practising OCBs provides appropriate conditions for an ethical environment, which leads to higher organisation productivity. OCBs result in better communications, cooperation and offering beyond what is required, help to reduce friction between departments, enhance cooperation among colleagues and are a good way to deal with performance problems (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996). OCBs' importance for organisations could be seen in the new trend in selecting job candidates, where the inclination for practising OCBs is among the list of examined tendencies of new candidates. Such appreciation is built upon assumptions that people who have tendencies to practise OCBs usually are more effective and high performing. Hence, they may be given more weight than job performance when selecting new candidates (Podsakoff et al., 2011). Other research suggests that OCBs are promising behaviours to motivate employees in the service companies, because they help to retain and attract new customers, help employees to provide high quality services and ultimately benefit the organisation. Evidence shows that the greater the OCBs, and the greater compliance to organisational rules, the greater the service quality perception of customers (Bienstock et al., 2003). In this sense, OCBs are important in the service sector, because they depend highly on behaviours of employees to satisfy customers and maintain good relations with them. Their importance is clearly shown in providing high quality service interaction with customers, which is critical for organisations in the service sector (Stamper and Van Dyne, 2003). On the other hand, some researchers doubt the value of OCBs at the service sector, because this sector is distinguished by high employee turnover rates: since employees do not stay for a long times at the organisation, this could limit full engagement in OCBs and hence their positive outcomes (Podsakoff and Mackenzie, 1994).

However, to emphasize the value of OCBs for organisations, research has also investigated the relationship between OCBs and organisational solidarity, and found it positive (Koster and Sanders, 2006). The majority of research confirmed that engaging with OCBs influences organisational performance through raising productivity of managers, colleagues and groups (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; McBain, 2004). It is added that both task performance and OCBs are related to the efficiency of the organisation, OCBs being to group and organisational efficiency, while task performance is more related to individual efficiency (Bergeron, 2007).

Second, even though few studies paid attention to the outcomes of OCBs at group or unit level, OCBs are seen as positively associated with high productivity, high quality and quantity, group efficiency and effectiveness and high group performance (Bergeron, 2007). OCBs are thought to have an influential impact on levels of effort exerted among group members, and hence to group effectiveness and high group performance (Sevi, 2010). OCBs are important in helping organisations in adapting a team-based strategy, which increases organisational performance in general (Podsakoff et al., 2011). Research reported that unit-level OCBs are directly related to unit outcomes (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Ehrhart et al., 2006) .

Third, outcomes of OCBs for individuals are the least highlighted group of outcomes in the literature. On the individual level, both OCBs and task performance are considered to be related to performance evaluation and reward recommendations, but task performance was higher than OCBs and rewarded more than OCBs. However, the self-development form of OCBs is seen to have positive influence on employees, as it makes them more productive in their jobs (Sabiote and Roma`n, 2005). Moreover, although leader-member exchange has a stronger relation with individual-level OCBs than the organisational level, it is suggested that both sorts of behaviours are important when studying the relationship between leadership and any organisational variable (Ilies et al., 2007). On the other hand, although OCBs are interpreted as beneficial behaviours for the organisations, there is no clear evidence that they would benefit the individuals at the workplace (Sabiote and Roma`n, 2005; Bergeron, 2007)

In relation to links between forms of OCBs and outcomes, it is found that conscientiousness and civic virtue are important for knowledge sharing among group members (Lin, 2008). Thus, conscientiousness is the most used form to anticipate the inclination to practise OCBs, because it reflects reliability, self-discipline and perseverance (Tan and Tan, 2008). Furthermore, whilst challenging and affiliative forms of OCBs are considered as motivators for higher group task performance and higher group efficiency (Mackenzie et al., 2011), voice is found to have an influence on selection decisions because managers believe that voice has a huge effect on the efficiency of organisations (Podsakoff et al., 2011).

3.5 Criticism of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours theory

Although OCBs have received high attention in recent organisational research, this concept has also faced criticism, mostly because of the ambiguity about the nature and forms of OCBs and how they should be measured (LePine et al., 2002).

Based on the notion that OCBs are a two- fold concept; OCBs towards individuals and OCBs towards the organisation, some researchers argue that combining them into one concept is invalid, both sorts of OCBs are different and cannot be dealt with as components of one concept (Williams and Anderson, 1991). Methodologically, the current concept of OCB leads to a problem because it measures factors out of the definition; the recent way of measuring OCB by focusing on its dimensions is considered as using several measurements for the same phenomenon (LePine et al., 2002). There is a lack of consensus about one effective instrument to measure OCBs (Turnipseed and Murkison, 2000)

Research has pointed out that focusing on viewing OCBs as helping behaviours is not appropriate and leads to negative perceptions of them, as helping others could lead to misunderstanding when wrong information is transmitted and helping could lead to laziness at work. For example, employees may always seek help from their colleagues when facing problems, which may limit their problem-solving skills (Podsakoff and Mackenzie, 1994). Moreover, some ERBs such as challenge-oriented behaviours could lead to higher negative emotions and increased ambiguity, infighting and bickering. Such outcomes may reduce sales rate and profits and increase turnover (Mackenzie et al., 2011). Other research has pointed out that some forms of OCBs already exist in different job descriptions and organisational regulations. Further, employees could be rewarded for engaging OCBs. For example, while civic virtue could be found in job regulations and then considered as IRBs. In contrast, sportsmanship is not a form itself, rather, it reflects not complaining or resentment (George and Brief, 1992). Besides, research added that there is a lack of consensus about the multidimensionality of OCBs, and there is scarcity of cross-culture studies about OCBs (Rego and Cunha, 2010).

In relation to gender, research argued that some of the dimensions of OCBs are more appropriate for men than women. For instance, courtesy and altruism are associated more with the role of women and the other dimensions implicitly include characteristics associated with masculinity. It is asserted that OCBs cannot always be a gender-neutral

and positive concept. Interestingly, research maintained that OCBs as ERBs might reflect the dark face of organisations, as extra-role could mean exploitation of employees, without paying. Therefore, more studies are needed to take into account the negative role of OCBs on employees rather than viewing OCBs as solely positive (Kark and Manor, 2005). A few studies found positive relationships between OCBs and counterproductive work behaviours, and negative impact on organisations (Spector and Fox, 2010). For example, some research found that engaging in OCBs reduces performing job duties, reduces the amount of sales for an insurance agency and reduces voice and suggestion, and hence performance (Podsakoff and Mackenzie, 1994; Bolino et al., 2004; Choi, 2007).

Other criticism is based on the resource allocation perspective. Spending time on task performance means more rewards, while spending time on OCBs does not guarantee any reward, and could lead to losing rewards. When employees allocate more time to practise OCBs, in fact, they allocate that time for the least valuable factor, which means increasing the cost for the employees. In this sense, high job performance and high engagement in OCBs cannot be combined at the same time. Therefore, the resource allocation perspective suggests that OCBs constrain positive individual outcomes due to trade-off between task performance and OCBs. Subsequently, practising OCBs is beneficial for organisations and groups but not for individuals, as they discourage career advancement for employees. However, it is obvious that such research interpreted OCBs as unrewarded positive behaviours for organisations (Organ, 1988; Organ, 1997; Organ et al., 2006; Bergeron, 2007). Even though OCBs lead to high performance, when high efforts from members are exerted, they lead to losing effectiveness when efforts exerted by members are low. Accordingly, some research argued that groups that highly engage in OCBs are those which are serious about refraining from performing their work (Sevi, 2010).

Furthermore, researchers maintained that the earlier definition of OCBs as discretionary is not appropriate for groups. Some have argued that OCBs change from discretionary behaviour to necessary behaviour via group norms, because unit-level OCBs are important to the success of the group and positions of the members of the group. Hence, group norms will make OCBs compulsory and expected as in-role activities (Ehrhart et al., 2006). Similarly, other studies argued that subordinates' behaviours depend on their supervisors and fellows' behaviours. Subsequently, OCBs as an extra-role behaviour will

depend on the behaviours of others. Thus, the in-role/extra-role approach might not be appropriate for investigating OCBs. Rather, it might be suitable to focus on some behaviour that contributes to the organisation's efficiency. Therefore, OCBs will be expected in the long term rather than the short term of interpersonal relationships. However, vertical and horizontal relationships should be considered when OCBs are studied (Koster and Sanders, 2006). In addition, other research criticised OCBs by shedding light on some pitfalls of OCBs stating that OCBs might lead to politicisation of the section in the organisation. In some circumstances OCBs are performed at the expense of the main role behaviours that an employee should carry out. Thus, OCBs might modify the competition among the employees. Consequently, employees' relationships might be affected (McBain, 2004).

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to review discussion about OCBs and explore points such as conceptualisations of OCBs, the role of culture in determining their meanings and interpretations, the importance and applicability of OCBs and criticism applied to them.

Although the OCB framework is the most widespread framework for conceptualising OCBs, other conceptualisations were introduced, i.e. OCB, POBs, ERBs and CPBs. The majority of these frameworks described OCBs as ERBs; these go beyond job descriptions and are not rewarded. Theoretical frameworks of OCBs offer mixed views in regard to whether they are positive only for organisations or could be beneficial for individuals as well. There is also an argument that OCBs could be harmful for organisation and employees, as criticism of them focuses on the dark side. Therefore, some researchers perceived OCBs as just a different way of exploiting employees by seeking unrewarded efforts from them. Furthermore, literature highlights that interpreting OCBs as IRBs or ERBs depends on individuals; thus, some employees will interpret them as rewarded behaviours, especially when they see them as IRBs. Interpretations of OCBs also depend on job type, sector, groups and cultures. Employees who work in the service sector, middle managers and collectivist employees are more likely to interpret OCBs as IRBs. Moreover, levels of OCBs are also seen to be different, as there are individual, group and organisational levels of OCBs; a recent research focus has been group-level OCBs. Recent research about OCBs has adopted mixed theoretical frameworks such as OCB and CPBs and ERBs. Even though OCBs were described as positive behaviours for the

organisation, other research has identified a dark side of OCBs. However, the time and context of practising OCBs could lead to different outcomes. Moreover, less is known about how OCBs could be beneficial for individuals.

Research shows that different forms of OCBs could have different antecedents and outcomes. Moreover, there are strong relations among OCBs dimensions; thus, some researchers linked predictors to overall OCBs and others linked predictors to particular dimensions. However, there is a lack of consensus regarding the dimensions of OCBs, which overlap each other. Four perspectives were mentioned: the employee's perspective, supervisor's perspective, co-worker perspective and customer's perspective. Although different dimensions have been highlighted, later research argued that even though forms of OCBs are seen to be relational, each of them is a distinct form of OCBs. This argument shows that there are similarities and differences between forms of OCBs. Research has highlighted that dimensions of OCB are highly associated with each other and they do not differ in their antecedents

This chapter also addressed the argument that OCBs are different across cultures. Therefore, individuals' perceptions, values and beliefs are vital when interpreting the meaning and practice of OCBs. Accordingly, research across cultures highlighted different forms and meanings of OCBs in different cultural contexts. This suggests that exploring them in different cultural contexts would produce other ways of understanding OCBs.

Even though literature has highlighted many individual, social and job-related antecedents of OCBs, it is still unclear what motivates individuals to engage in OCBs, and how management could control OCBs for better outcomes. The wide spectrum of antecedents refers to the multi-source nature of OCBs, as individual perception, social values and management could have an effect on engagement in OCBs. This suggests that certain antecedents of OCBs could be related to particular interpretations of them.

Lastly, although many researchers gave evidence that OCBs are positive for organisational performance, others argued that practising OCBs could lead to negative outcomes due to their very subjective nature; over-practising of them leads to adverse results, and it is unclear whether they are IRBs or ERBs and whether practising them benefits the organisation or individuals.

CHAPTER 4: THE RESEARCH CONTEXT

4.1 Introduction

Since this research is about exploring insights of managerial and non-managerial employees in the banking sector in Libya, it is crucial to understand what is happening in this sector and what distinguishes it from other sectors and national contexts. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to highlight the importance and need for this study. It aims to shed the light on features of the banking sector and describe management practices and employees' cultural and social characteristics, which are important to understand the background of participating employees. Accordingly, this chapter will be structured as follows;

- I. An overview of Libya.
- II. Banking sector in Libya, local and foreign banks.
- III. Management practices and employees' characteristics in the context.

Finally, the main challenges for local and foreign bank managements and the reasons for choosing this sector are discussed.

4.2 An Overview of Libya

Libya is located in the north of Africa on the southern coast of the Mediterranean Sea. It has borders with Egypt from the east, Tunisia and Algeria from the west and Niger, Chad and Sudan from the south. As an independent country, Libya was established in 1952 by the United Nations after years of Othman (1551-1911), Italian (1911-1945) and British-French control; the UK controlled Cyrenaica (eastern Libya) and Tripolitania (western Libya), and France controlled Fezzan (Southern Libya) between 1945-1952 (Waniss and Karlberg, 2007). Although Libya has a long coast on the Mediterranean around 1,200km, the majority of the 1,757,000 km² area is desert. The population has increased rapidly since oil discovery, from about 1, 435, 596 in 1955 to 6, 597, 960 in 2011 (The world fact book, 2012), making it among of the fastest growing populations in the region (Waniss and Karlberg, 2007). Politically, even though Libya is located in the North of Africa, it is included in the broad Middle East area. Due to language, culture, religion and social norms and life style, Libya is also considered as a country of the Arab world (Moran et al., 2010).

The discovery of oil has led to huge developments in various sectors such as education, banking, agriculture, industry and, of course, petroleum industry. Subsequently, during the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s the government adopted socio-economic policies, taking responsibility for managing, controlling and planning all aspects of the economy, industry, education and health. A socialist economy and nationalisation of most of private sector were introduced since 1970 (Thorne, 2010). However, this led to several problems due to low diversification in economic activities, as Libya is the least diverse economy in the region. The Libyan economy depends on oil as the main source of revenues, representing about 72% of the GDP and 97% of exports. Furthermore, agriculture is limited and the industry structure is weak (Böhmer, 2008). The nationalisation strategy included all sectors in the economy, so the public sector has become huge with substantial staffing (Waniss and Karlberg, 2007). Moreover, Libya has suffered from ineffective decision making and a dependency economy, as people were allocated jobs by the government (Porter, 2007). However, one advantage of having a closed economy is that it was not affected by the recent financial crises, since local banks have few ties with the outside financial system and foreign reserves are held in safe assets (African Press Organisation, 2010). With regard to the performance of the government, it is reported that there is a problem of getting reliable information, people moving from towns to cities and overblown bureaucracy (Waniss and Karlberg, 2007). In the last 40 years the political regime has made many changes, known among Libyans as the game of disassembly and installation, causing Libyans to become wary of the reliability of the government, mistrustful of the authorities and fearful of expropriation. This reduced interest in investing privately, as they sought to minimise the risk of loss (Luxford, 2005a).

Because of these disadvantages, the Libyan government introduced a plan to move toward more market-based economy in order to increase its substantial public sector efficiency. Therefore, new reforms such as privatisation policies and foreign investments were introduced in the beginning of the 2000s (African Press Organisation, 2010). Similarly to others in the area, the Libyan government believed that participation with foreign investors would make the economy more diverse. Hence, this strategy came out of the desire to develop other sectors in the country, to reduce dependency on oil. However, food products and transportations are still closed to foreign investments (Böhmer, 2008). Privatisation has been undertaken with the aim of improving organisational efficiency and hence performance of the national economy and then

standards of living (Waniss and Karlberg, 2007). The policy of inviting the foreign investments began in 1997; it aimed at transferring modern technology, diversifying revenues for the country and developing the local industries. In 2000 the value of foreign investments in Libya reached LD⁴189.150 m, in 2005 it reached LD 521.333 m, a growth rate of 143.9 (Masoud, 2009). Even though Libya's GDP is the highest among the North African countries (Timewell, 2009), it ranked 173 in the Economic Freedom Index in 2010 (Ripard, 2010). However, recently the government has realised that the privatisation strategy could lead to put numerous Libyans out of work. Even though there are about 1400 foreign companies seeking to invest in Libya, high corruption could be one of constraints facing investing in Libya (Waniss and Karlberg, 2007). Even though the government has taken some shy steps towards improving the recent situation in Libya, there is still weak infrastructure, scarcity of water resources, and weak housing, education and health services. What is more important is the high unemployment rate and over-staffing in the public sector, as well as illegal immigration to the country, which exacerbate the unemployment rate. Unemployment rate was about 13.2% in 2005 and now it is one of highest in the area, as it reached about 25% in 2006. Unemployment is likely to worsen in the coming years, due to the large output of the educational system; as yearly large numbers of graduates enter the work market, which now includes about 1.8 million Libya employees (Waniss and Karlberg, 2007). In terms of transparency, Libya is one of the most corrupt countries in the world; from 2007 to 2011 Libya scores were; 2.5, 2.6, 2.5, 2.2, and 2 out of 10, ranking it in second cluster from the bottom (Corruption Perceptions Index, 2011).

Even though a strong dictatorship was one and most important constraints facing the desired economic changes in Libya, most of the outlined problems above have prevented the government of making any important changes for economic growth, which was necessary in order for the political regime to survive. The conflict between the economic reform and political regime has been described as "*putting the mechanisms of a functioning capitalist economy inside a socialist system*" (Thorne, 2010: p.2)

⁴ Libyan Dinars.

4.3 Banking sector in Libya

4.3.1 *An overview*

Banks are considered as the main sources of finance in the developing countries. Most of the North African countries have adopted a privatisation strategy in order to reform their economies (Kumati, 2008).

Historically, the first bank established in Libya was the Agriculture Bank in 1906 during the Othman era. Following, two branches of Othman Bank were established, one in Tripoli (1906- 1913) and the other in Benghazi (1911- 1912). Both branches stopped working after the Italian occupation of Libya. The Central Libyan Bank was established in 1951 when Libya was announced as independent country, but before that an authority called the “Monetary Authority” was acting as a central bank in Libya. However, it is reported that in 50s and 60s the banking sector was mostly private and reported efficient ways of providing services (Masoud, 2009). As we will see later, until 1987 there were just five commercial banks working in Libya. However, the Libyan government encountered the establishment of more local banks, until by the end of 2005 there were about 44 local banks, 6 commercial banks and 4 specialist banks (Waniss and Karlberg, 2007). These banks had assets of LD17.6 billion in 2005 (Luxford, 2005a).

In line with the economic problems of the country, this sector has been influenced by many work conditions of the public sector. For instance, work in public banks has been described as characterised by strict work conditions, lack of flexibility in work methods, low pay and reward, and promotions and mobility restricted by laws and work regulations, depending on experience and seniority more than efficacy. Furthermore, it has been reported that the few and inefficient training programmes cannot provide the required skills for staff (Waniss and Karlberg, 2007). Moreover, even though a few private banks have recently entered the market, a shortage of credit cards and cash machines is highlighted by customers, as banks provide very basic services for citizens. On the other hand, in the private sector, it has been reported that training is much more appreciated and efficient work conditions are more flexible, and rewards and salaries are better. Local banks are not mature enough to serve demands of new entrepreneurs (Thorne, 2010). Moreover, before 2007 the banking sector had suffered from many weaknesses such as low competition, as the government owned about 94% of local banks in Libya (The Banker, 2007).

Due to the sector's poor performance and shortage of services and in line with its diversification strategy, the government decided to open the banking sector for foreign investors, aiming to increase the efficiency of this sector (Shnibish, 2008). Therefore, in 2005 the government gave the authority for the Libyan Central Bank to give permission for foreign banks to invest in Libya. As of 2011, there are 16 banks working in Libya, of which six have foreign partnership (Ripard, 2010). The 2005 banking law required each investor should invest at least \$50 million in the sector (Thorne, 2010). It gave local banks more opportunities to invest locally and internationally and to offer more products and services (Luxford, 2005b). The strategy of privatisation of banks was introduced to improve productivity, enhance the competitiveness of Libyan banks and creating more jobs (Luxford, 2005a). Outcomes of this strategy have been appreciated, as non-oil economic growth has increased by about 9% since the announcing of 2005 banking law (Ripard, 2010). At the same time, the reluctance to privatise the whole banking sector seems to be one of the reasons for not being affected by the recent financial crisis.

One of the common managerial practices among the Middle Eastern countries regarding HR is localisations of the workforce; for example, Oman, UAE, Saudi Arabia and others, have attempted to replace foreign workers with local citizens (Rees et al., 2007). Libya has adopted similar strategy. The aim of "Libyanisation" is to help with reducing the unemployment rate and develop Libyan employees to meet expected competition with foreign employees (Almahdi and Nyambegera, 2004). In regard to the banking sector, the Libyan Central Bank (LCB) made Libyanisation a condition of accepting foreign investments in the country. For example, according to Decree no 38, foreign investors should draw about 90% of their workforce from Libyans; they cannot decrease this percentage before completing 5 years of investing in Libyans. Moreover, the deputy managers of all departments must be Libyans (Bank of Commerce and Development, 2009).

4.3.2 *Brief Outline of Working Banks in Libya*

Since announcing Libya as a country in 1952, there have been many national banks in the country. Banks could be classified into three types: public, private and mixed-ownership banks.

4.3.2.1 *Public banks*

1) Gumhouria Bank (GB)

This bank was established in 1943 as Barclays Bank when Libya was a UK protectorate, then nationalised in 1971 under its current name (Luxford, 2005a). The government merged the Gumhouria Bank with Umma Bank (formerly the Banco di Rome before nationalization in 1970) in one bank called Gumhouria Bank in 2007 (The Banker, 2007). This made GB the biggest in Libya with 146 branches, capital of LD 8 billion and about 5.600 employees. Even though the government is planning to sell some of its shares to local citizens, this bank is completely managed by public management (Gumhouria Bank, 2012).

2) National Commercial Bank (NCB)

Established in 1970, it has a capital of LD500 million, about 66 branches and 2300 employees (Kumati, 2008). Managed by Libyan management, NCB focuses on small and medium enterprises. Profits were LD 47 million in 2007, increased to LD83 million in 2008 and rose to LD 118m in 2009 (National Commercial Bank, 2009). NCB is looking to introduce Islamic financial banking in two years. Further, about 15% of its shares will be announced for private sector (Timewell, 2009).

3) Specialist Banks

Adding to the state-owned banks, there are three specialist banks that provide banking services in special fields such as: (1) Agriculture Bank. Based on the idea of the Othman Agriculture Banks in 1901(Masoud, 2009), this bank was re-established in 1957 in order to increase the productivity of the agricultural sector, it aims to provide loans without interest for farmers, help farmers buy machines and give finance to agriculture projects. (2) Development Bank. Established in 1981, with about 535 employees working in 27 branches, it aims to support a variety of small and medium size projects financially by loans (Union of Arab Banks, 2012). (3) Real Estate and Savings Bank. Similarly to the

above banks, this has been established in order to provide interest-free loans for housing and buying land. It has about 1124 employees working in 27 branches in Libya (Union of Arab Banks, 2012)

4) Libyan Foreign Bank (LFB)

Established in 1972 with \$1 billion, this bank is completely owned by the Central Libyan Bank. It is mainly intended to provide services for external financial activities such as foreign currency transactions and international functions. This bank has about 30% stake in the Arab Banking Corporation in Bahrain, 25% in British Arab Commercial bank based in London, 15% in Jordan Housing Bank for Trade and Finance and about 20% in Suez Canal Bank (Luxford, 2005a). This is the only Libyan bank that has been affected by the financial crisis, due to its investments internationally. For instance, net income decreased from \$321m in 2007 to \$184m in 2008 (Timewell, 2009). This bank has about 35 branches in about 20 countries (Waniss and Karlberg, 2007). In 2010 its declared capital was \$8.7 billion (Libyan Foreign Bank, 2012).

4.3.2.2 Private-owned Banks

Since 1990s there have been a growing number of private banks in Libya. During the 1990s there were about three private banks, while in the 2000s there are four banks: (A) Commerce & Development Bank (CDB): based on a real need for better banking services, this bank was established based on the 1993 banking law and started working as the only private bank in Libya in 1996, with capital of 40 million Libyan dinars (Timewell, 2009). Management of CDB has been described as flexible, non-bureaucratic and modernised, as it provides different services from the weak public banks, such as credit cards and Western Union transactions (Thorne, 2010). This bank has about 787 employees working in 10 branches and 20 agencies all around the country. In 2008 salaries have been increased to around extra 60%, putting CDB among the highest paid salaries in the country. Furthermore, it gave about LD 12.000 to its employees as interest-free loans for cars and LD100.000 in mortgages. In its 2009 report, CDB declared its shortage of professional experienced employees. Therefore, it adopted a strategy of developing its staff; as 295 employees received training in that year (Bank of Commerce and Development, 2009). Aiming to increase its market share and increase its profits, which were about LD 40m in 2008, CDB started partnership in 2010 by selling 49% of its shares to Qatar National Bank. Although regulations have approved this transformation

and highlighted that management should be undertaken by the foreign partner, so far this partnership has not come into effect (Commerce and Development Bank, 2012). (B) Mediterranean Bank: This bank was established in 1997 under the name of Benghazi Local Bank, with a capital of LD 900.000. However, in 2005 it was changed into the Mediterranean bank with a capital of LD 3.000.000 (The Mediterranean bank, 2012). (C) North Africa Bank: This bank was established in 2006 by merger of about 42 local banks. The new bank was named North Africa Bank instead of the National Banking Corporation. Its capital reached about LD 350m. It had about 350 employees working in 40 branches and 8 agencies in 2012 (North Africa Bank, 2012). (D) United Bank: Another new bank was established in 2007 by the merger of a group of local banks. It has about 10 branches and capital of around LD 33m. This bank provides retail, corporate and Islamic banking (United Bank, 2012).

4.3.3 Foreign Investments in the Banking Sector

After the government in Libya considered diversification strategy through privatisation, the banking sector was opened in 2005 to foreign investors. Privatisation and foreign investments aimed for a more transparent sector in order to reduce the high levels of corruption in the sector (The Banker, 2007). Furthermore, the government aimed also to lower the unemployment rate, by offering more jobs and reducing the cost of training and developing Libyan employees (Waniss and Karlberg, 2007). In addition, foreign investors would bring know-how and technology, which were important for developing the sector (The Banker, 2007). The Libyan government announced two ways of starting foreign investments in the banking sector; the first was selling shares of local banks to foreign investors, and the second was to allow foreign investors to open their own branches in Libya. However, considering the situation of local banks, it was decided primarily to sell shares to investors (Luxford, 2005a).

Many foreign banks expressed interest in working in the sector. Libyan bankers described this sector as attractive for many foreign investors (Shnibish, 2008), judging by the huge variety of investors who sought permission to start working in Libya. For example, Bank of Valletta (Malta), UBI (Italy), Bawag (Austria), British Arab Commercial Bank, Housing Bank of Trade and Finance and Suez Canal Bank and ABC all looked for the opportunity to invest in Libya in 2005 (Luxford, 2005a). Other interested banks applied to buy shares when the Libyan government announced the sale of Al-Wahda Bank, including Intesa Sanpaolo (Italy), Bahrain's Arab Banking Corporation, and Societe

Generale (France) (Timewell, 2009). Moreover, other banks from the region also expressed their interest in investing in the Libyan banking sector. These were Mashreq Bank (Dubai), Emirates NBD (Dubai), Attijari Wafa Bank (Morocco), National Bank of Abu Dhabi, Masraf Al Rayan (Qatar) and recently Qatar National Bank (Thorne, 2010). Reasons for the interest of foreign investors can be indicated by following quotations. For instance, Sahara's chief executive, Claude Rufin said, "*There are a lot of opportunities, the global financial crisis has not hit Libya so there is money to pay for projects*" (Timewell, 2009: p.2). Similarly, John Hamilton, a British risk analysis firm, said "*it's huge fresh market.... there is a lot of money in Libya, and the economy is opening up in dramatic ways*" (Thorne, 2010: p.1). In this line, the chief executive of the First Gulf Libyan Bank also stated "*It is good time to be here*" (Timewell, 2009: p.3). In this regard, attention might be drawn to the following points: (1) the end of the economic sanctions on the country; (2) weak services provided by the local and public Libyan banks; (3) huge governmental spending on rebuilding the country, especially, in projects such as oil, housing and infrastructure; (4) the substantial need of customers for faster and better services; (5) the need of companies in other sectors such as oil and building for advanced banking services. Thus, there was huge demand, not met by sufficient supply. Foreign banks that entered into partnership with Libyan private and public banks were;

1) Sahara Bank (SB)

SB was established with shared ownership between Bank of Amerce 29%, the Libyan government 51% and Banco di Sicilia 20% in 1964. After nationalization in 1970, it became fully owned by the Libyan government. It is now one of the biggest banks in Libya, as it has around 1500 employees working in 48 branches across Libya. It provides institutional, retail and Islamic banking (Sahara Bank, 2012). SB was the first Libyan bank to be privatised in 2007, when the French BNP PARIBAS bought about 19% of its shares, investing about €145 m (EIU ViewsWire, 2007). Based on the banking law and the agreement, BNP PARIBAS was given the right to manage the bank, making this the first time the bank has been managed by non-Libyan management since nationalisation started in the 1970s. However, there are only about 20 expatriates and other employees are all Libyans (Timewell, 2009).

2) Wahda Bank (WB)

WB was established in 1970. In 2008 the Jordan- located Arab Bank bought about 19% of its shares, investing about €210 million. It has about 3000 employees working in 75 branches. Its profits reached about LD 29 million in 2008, and in the first half of 2009 its profits were about LD 27million (Timewell, 2009).

3) Aman Bank

This bank was established in Tripoli in 1991. It has about 7 branches, and it provides retail and corporate banking (Union of Arab Banks, 2012). Recently, this bank entered a partnership with the Portuguese Banco Espirito Santo, which bought about 40% of its shares in 2010 (Alshames, 2010).

4) UniCredit Bank

This bank was the only bank that was given permission in 2010 to establish a shared bank in Libya with local participation (Thorne, 2010). This action supports the previous plan of privatisation strategy and reflects the success of partnership with foreign banks since 2005. Although the bank stopped working during the revolution in Libya last year, it announced that its branch in Libya had reopened again in January 2012 (UniCredit Bank, 2012)

4.4 Management practices and Employees' Characteristics in the Context

There is great need for research in the Middle East in general and Libya in particular. Little research has been done to explore management practices in Libya⁵. Recently, however, a growing number of Libyan students have been doing PhDs studies abroad, as the government in 2005 adopted a wide strategy of sponsoring students to develop their skills, particularly in research. Nonetheless, so far few researches have been published internationally. The lack of management research is highlighted in all Arab countries, as attitudes towards research are reported to be negative (Ali, 1995) and research practice, skills and rigorous are also described as weak (Al-Hamadi et al., 2007; Mellahi et al., 2011).

⁵ Interview number; 21 with Ahmed Ghomati, the deputy manager of NCB branch, Sirte, 04/04/2009 at 09:42.

This scarcity has led to lack of data about how organisations are managed in Libya. The banking sector is no exception, as a search in the literature for studies about management practices in the banking sector in Libyan revealed just one available PhD study that explored some issues such as recruitment and training in the banking sector (Kumati, 2008). Even though much cross-culture research has been done in many national contexts, the Middles East is still in great need of more studies (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006; Mellahi et al., 2011). In this regard, only one study, as far as I know, has explored the cultural dimensions of Libyan employees (Aghila, 2000). However, in the upcoming pages a discussion of management practices and cultural traits of Libya employees will be presented. Such issues are discussed just to give brief idea of how the previous research described the management and culture in Libya, not to assume any objectivist stance.

4.4.1 Management practices

Due to the shortage of research about management practices in Libya, I am introducing this section with general thoughts on management in the Middle Eastern countries. Research on management practices across the Arab countries describes employer-employee relations as based on a group of attributes, such as unity, balance or equilibrium and trust through family networks. Furthermore, management in the Middle East is said to be highly embedded in social relations, dominated by male family and decision making. It is noted that employees in the Middle Eastern countries still have the lowest rate of employee participation in the world. Work structures and employment relations are highly dependent on family networks and social relations (Metcalf, 2007). In this context, job responsibilities are less defined, managers prefer training to be job specific, career planning and development is limited, and there is a focus on moralism rather than materialism when measuring individual achievement (Leat and El-Kot, 2007). It is also mentioned that many organisations have no job descriptions and there is a lack career planning for subordinates. A skill shortage among employees is also noted (Aycan et al., 2007). Interestingly, Arab employees get rewards or punishment without being told the reasons for these actions (Suliman, 2003). It is reported that nepotism is the main mechanism for appointment for high level managers, whereas qualifications could be the main bases of appointment for managers lower in the hierarchy. A one-way system of communication, top-bottom, is wide spread, and there is a scarcity of information; if there is any, it is usually incomplete (Suliman and Abdulla, 2005). With regard to performance appraisal, it is reported that managers try to avoid negative judgements and they prefer

conformity against creativity (Mostafa and El-Masry, 2008). One last characteristic is that management applications and practices in the Middle East are greatly associated with the political powers in their countries, which is seen as a major constraint on efficient management practices and theory development (Ali, 1995).

As noted earlier, management in Libya has been described as suffering from a lack of transparency, unreliable statistics, disrespect for international agreements and unclear responsibility for decision making in the government (Luxford, 2005a). Moreover, bureaucracy in Libya has led to opaque, complex and inefficient managerial practices, as political influence has huge impact on such practices (Ripard, 2010). With regard to the banking sector, as it is difficult to obtain up to date information about each individual bank, and local banks have failed to launch efficient websites (The Banker, 2007). Accordingly, this sector has been described as “*the most archaic banking sector in the Middle East*” (Luxford, 2005a: p.1). Bureaucracy and excess staffing are the main signs of inefficiency of the sector. In this regard, the chief executive of Sahara bank, the first bank to enter as foreign investor in the sector, said, “*Libya’s biggest challenge is human resources*” (Timewell, 2009: p.2). This statement refers to lack of effective management, skilled personnel and, subsequently, high performance. For instance, even though English language is important for bank employees, there is an obvious shortage of managers and employees proficient in English⁶. Furthermore, there is a shortage of skilled and professional managers in the banking sector. Must managers believe that they should apply a strict managing style in order to guarantee commitment from staff and better service to customers. On the other hand, managements of banks in Libya has been characterised by customer respect and integrity of staff. This has become a stereotype of bank employees. Additionally, due to the emotional management, relationships between employees and their managers become more personalised. Thus, there is less dependence on work regulations and rules. This sector suffers from over staffing. Thus, there is disguised unemployment among employees in most of the Libyan banks (Kumati, 2008).

Similar to other sectors in Libya, there is a lack of effective chief executives in relation to banking work. This is believed to be related to appointment of unqualified managers from outside the sector. This deficiency is seen through (a) weak communications

⁶ Interview number: 28 with Nori Amir, the deputy manager of Sahara Bank branch on The Libyan Iron and Steel Company, Misurata, 23/02/2009 at 10:20.

between branches and headquarters, as misunderstanding is a common problem⁷, (b) more concern with their reputation than their performance⁸, and (c) more concern with the materialistic side of work⁹. Furthermore, lack of delegation and a personal managing style have been reported. This is due to the lack of consistent rules to control how managers should behave¹⁰. Even though lack of job description has been reported, the foreign management at SB is working to apply job descriptions at work¹¹. Reaffirming the conflict between managers and employees, it has been highlighted that some managers do not appreciate or respect the efforts of their subordinates. Subsequently, enhancing employees' individual initiatives becomes difficult due to managers' fear of such initiatives. Therefore, lack of support and trust of employees were highlighted in management practices in the banking sector in Libya¹². What is more, managers usually attempt to hide work regulations, by not displaying them clearly for employees. Furthermore, others described managers in the sector as reluctant to apply punishments because of social relationships¹³. On the other hand, some good points were made about management practices. For instance, the management of CDB is reported to have a monthly meeting with employees with the aim of developing the bank and addressing work problems¹⁴. Furthermore, SB's foreign management is reported to adopt more practical steps towards developing its managers, as deputy managers usually are sent to manage other branches in different cities as a way of developing them for future¹⁵.

As pointed out earlier, the only study that elaborated on the management practices in the Libyan banking sector is one by Kumati (2008). She mentioned three aspects; employee appointment, training and social responsibility of banks. She concluded that there are three different bases of appointment in the sector: 1- Selecting those who have experience, qualifications and knowledge in banking work. Here, experience is preferred more than qualification because the banking law encourages selection of those with experience. 2- Selecting those who are more trusted than others, such as friends and relatives, without considering their qualifications or experience. 3- Selecting those who have relations with

⁷ Interview number; 21.

⁸ Interview number: 28.

⁹ Interview number; 20 with Abdullateef Amer, the manager of Africa Market branch, Misurata, 22/02/2009 at 10: 25.

¹⁰ Interview number; 29 with Ali Aiada, the manager of CDB branch, Sirte, 04/04/2009 at 11: 19.

¹¹ Interview number: 28.

¹² Interview number: 20.

¹³ Interview number: 28.

¹⁴ Interview number: 20.

¹⁵ Interview number: 28.

people in the government; such employees usually get recommended by people with higher power in the state: “*get appointed, be appointed*”. Further, she stated that training is seen as a cost not an investment. However, with regard to non-managerial employees, it is reported that new selected employees usually stay under observation and assessment for 6 months before they can be appointed, as their managers make several reports about their abilities and performance. These reports usually are sent to headquarters for a final decision¹⁶.

It has been reported that training is not appreciated at work, so there is a shortage of skilled employees, and there is no second line of managers to takeover in urgent situations. Good and experienced managers can usually get better jobs in the private sector, so they leave to the private banks, putting more pressure on the public banks (Kumati, 2008). Even though training often goes to those who do not need it, and employees are not equal in opportunity for training¹⁷, there is a growing concern among Libyan managers with training abroad¹⁸.

With regard to social responsibility, Kumati (2008) indicated that there is a lack of regulations about this issue for banks. Thus, managers are not aware of this concept. She also reported that in public banks work conditions are not appropriate to the nature of the work. Banks lack marketing departments; at best, this function is performed within other departments. There is no advertising of banks’ services; they rely on word of mouth among customers by social relationships such as informal meetings, or on customer inquiries about certain services.

Typically of a collectivist society, Libyan employees do not like to be appraised or evaluated, so performance appraisal is meaningless, because criticism could harm the relationships between the superior and subordinate. Research pointed out that direct performance appraisal disrupts harmony (Hofstede et al., 2010). It is reported that managers usually focus on behaviours more than on performance, which is evaluated once, at the end of each year. The performance criteria include attendance, cooperation and dress¹⁹. While the performance evaluation process is secret in the state-owned banks, in privatised banks such as SB, under the new foreign management, evaluation has

¹⁶ Interview number: 29.

¹⁷ Interview number: 28.

¹⁸ Interview number: 21.

¹⁹ Interview Number: 21.

become open, and employees and managers are encouraged to reach a compromise to satisfy both. When managers are in the workplace or when performance evaluation is due, all employees become committed. This reflects that behaviour, not performance, is the focus of the evaluation process²⁰.

Regarding work times and conditions, even though employees must be at work at 8:00, bank doors usually open for customers at 8:30. The doors usually close at 2:30 and employees go home at 3:00. These opening times are from Sunday to Thursday. However, on Saturdays banks are open from 9:00 to 12:00. Employees report that work conditions are not helpful for work, due to lack of work tools, technologies and maintenance of buildings^{21 2223}.

Although private and foreign banks have given the authority to select their own reward systems, the government in 2006 made huge improvements in the reward systems of state-owned banks to reduce the gap between the two types of banks²⁴. However, even though rewards and salaries were increased in the state-owned banks, it has been reported that rewards are not related to performance, as banks reward everybody with the same rewards, i.e. car loans, festival gifts, mortgages and medical treatment²⁵. In this regard, it is reported that salaries, bonuses, Eid and Ramadan gifts are highly satisfying in the private and partnership-owned banks²⁶. Regarding promotions, it has been reported that promoting employees to a higher grade has to be every 4 years, as each promotion means an increase in salary, usually with the same position. The Committee of Employees' Affairs, based in Headquarters, must approve such promotions, which are often delayed for more than a year²⁷.

4.4.2 *Cultural and societal characteristics of Libyan employees*

During the last three decades, culture has entered the equation of management research, in particular, since the publishing of *Culture's Consequences-international differences in work-related values* by Hofstede in 1980. Therefore, the last decades have witnessed many studies about the impact of culture on the workplace, such as employee attitudes,

²⁰ Interview Number: 28.

²¹ Interview Number: 29.

²² Interview number: 14, with Saad Salheen, the manager of NCB branch, Sirte, 02/04/2009 at 09:09.

²³ Interview Number: 20.

²⁴ Interview number: 14.

²⁵ Interview number: 21.

²⁶ Interview number: 20.

²⁷ Interview number: 28.

motivation and behaviours. However, research exploring such cultural consequences in the Middle East is reported to be infrequent (Aghila, 2000; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006; Mellahi et al., 2011). As noted earlier, specific research on such issues in Libya is also scarce. Therefore, one contribution of this research is to shed the light on the cultural features of Libyan employees, since management and organisational practices in the developing countries will not succeed without considering the cultural and societal aspects of its employees (Aghila, 2000). Moreover, globalisation has highlighted the need for understanding employees' cultures, as working in different national and cultural contexts forces organisations to consider such issues for better performance.

Research based on the cultural dimensions of Hofstede (Hofstede, 1980; 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010) has pointed out that employees in the Arab countries (including Libya) are characterised by high power distance, as they avoid conflicting with their managers and they accept the authoritarian work styles and procedures. This cultural characteristic is supported by acceptance of the power of parents and older brothers in the family. Furthermore, employees are afraid of disagreeing with supervisors, and managers follow an autocratic or paternalistic leadership style. They do not prefer consultative managers. Employees depend on their managers to solve problems. High power distance comes from socialisation through family upbringing, with parent-child inequality, as parents teach children obedience and respect for older relatives, and in schools, which have teacher-student inequality. Employees expect to be told what to do, management is centralised and white-collar jobs are valued more than blue-collar jobs (Hofstede et al., 2010). Libyans have been described as inward-looking, with high job expectations because they depend on the government to offer them jobs (Waniss and Karlberg, 2007). Libyan employees also show high uncertainty avoidance; Libyans do not like engaging in activities that are ambiguous, and are resistant to change. This characteristic confirms that Libyans are inward and do not like unplanned situations. When they are accustomed to certain procedures, programmes or work systems, they prefer to keep the status quo. Supporting this there is a proverb saying "*leave everything in its place*"; they do not like engaging in new uncertain activities (Aghila, 2000). In this regard, Hofstede et al. (2010) described strong uncertainty avoidance at work as reflected in: few changes of employers, longer service, top managers' concern about daily issues and numerous rules to control work. Even though Hofstede described Arabs as in the middle between individualism and collectivism, Aghila (2000) found that Libyans are

more collectivist rather than individualist. This means that Libyans consider themselves as members of groups, i.e. families, tribes, friends, work groups. Thus, they work for the interest and goals of their groups. Collectivism refers to the “*power of the group*”(Hofstede et al., 2010: p.91). Families are big in Libya and the family is usually the first group individuals respect and feel loyal to. Moreover, with regard to Hofstede’s “we” groups and “I” groups, Libyans do not like to talk about themselves individually, there is a proverbial saying, “*May Allah (GOD) protect me from pronouncing the “I”; it is from the evil*”. This highlights that most of Libyans tend to be collectivist “we” groups. Collectivism is one of the many cultural attributes that distinguish the Arab culture. This attribute is expressed in some values such as; cooperation, solidarity, commitment, trust, support, sense of belonging and extended families. The culture is described as masculine, meaning that men play the leading roles in the country and the value of women is not highly appreciated. Although recently more female nurses, teachers and administrative workers have been witnessed, there is still a shortage of female Libyan employees working in public or private sectors. Based on this characteristic of masculinity, workplaces are competitive, with aggressive management, large organisations and money is preferred more than leisure.

It is worth noting that most of the cultural characteristics change with time. For instance, many political, societal and economic factors have huge impact on such cultural features of any society or nation. Even though literature has described the Libyan culture as part of the Middle Eastern culture, it is important to acknowledge that many different and recent changes have been seen in the Libyan society, due to globalisation.

Although debatable, it has been highlighted that Arab culture and Islamic values have a huge impact over people’s individual and group behaviours in Libya. Furthermore, a few researchers have argued that Islamic values and Arab culture might affect social values, thoughts and situations and political and economic systems in Libya (Aghila, 2000). Arab culture is distinguished by dignity, honour and reputation. For example, maintaining the good reputation of the family is seen as a matter of honour for its members in Libya (Moran et al., 2010). They are loyal to their families and generosity is valued. As Arabs, Libyans do not like to lose face or feel ashamed. Families influence members’ behaviours, as families are the basic unit of the social structure in Libya (Aghila, 2000). Families usually determine what acceptable behaviour is. Therefore, most people prefer not to contradict their family norms, because this could bring shame on all the family members,

which Hofstede called “losing face” (Hofstede et al., 2010: p.110). The roles of women are still conservative in Libya, as female employees cannot do certain jobs, not because they are not qualified, but because society does not accept such jobs. The society is male-dominated, and women are seen as in need of protection (Moran et al., 2010).

Even though Islamic rules are seen as determining individual behaviours, I would argue that family norms are more powerful than Islamic rules in Libyan society. However, the role of the family is supported by Islamic rules, as individuals must accept what their families and elders tell them. It is argued that Islam has introduced work attributes such as, honesty, trust, solidarity, loyalty and flexibility. These attributes are seen as effective and helpful towards more efficiency at work (Ali, 1995). Further, Islam shapes the material and spiritual scope for people, and within the organisations it gives the employers certain obligations towards their employees. Simultaneously, it controls the activities and behaviours of the employees (Metcalf, 2007). Despite the fact that Middle Eastern management is influenced greatly by Islamic principles and cultural values, there are many other factors that have a huge and varied influence on management practices, for example, macro factors such as the economic system, the role of the government and the educational system (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2007). From an empirical viewpoint, managers in the Libyan banking sector believe that there are some employees who are not religious but those performance is high, so the role of religion is not explicit and it is difficult to say that religious employees have higher performance²⁸.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to give a clear idea about the context of this study. It shows that a need has been recognised for reforms at a country-level, especially in the economy, in order to develop the country and increase its revenue sources. Therefore, the Libyan government has adopted a strategy of diversification of the economy by opening it to the private sector. The banking sector was among the important sectors to be privatised; foreign banks entered the sector in 2005. However, such banks face huge challenge, which comes from working in a closed culture, being forced to employ Libyans, a high unemployment rate and overstaffing.

²⁸ Interview number: 28.

Based on the points discussed in this chapter, there are many challenges facing the development of the banking sector in Libya. Based on the idea that commitment represents task performance and OCBs represent extra-role performance, the first challenge is how to improve the organisational performance of private, public and foreign banks in the sector. This challenge becomes more important in the presence of; (A) lack of research about management and cultural issues in relation to work, (B) shortage of experienced, skilled and well qualified workforce, especially with Libyanisation of jobs, and (C) overstaffing. The second challenge is how to design and apply context-appropriate work strategies such as HR strategies. This challenge becomes more influential in the case of working in a different cultural context. For example, given the lack of research, foreign investors in the banking sector are more challenged by the different local culture of employees, as effective work strategies must be well designed to be aligned with the local culture of the host national context. A third challenge is the socio-political system in the country. During Gadhafi's regime, there was little real desire for reform and development. However, the new government has not declared explicitly its plans for the future and how it is going about privatisation of the banking sector, so we might witness other nationalisation steps, if history repeats.

Given these challenges, why did I choose this sector? Based on the above presentation of the situation of the Libyan banking sector, I could highlight the following reasons for selecting this sector as the focus of this study; (A) the existence of foreign investments, as banking is the second destination for foreign investors after oil-related activities. (B) high demand from foreign banks to invest in this sector (The Banker, 2007). (C) Banking is one of the main and important sectors of the country after the oil industry. Thus, the success of this sector will help in developing other sectors such as technology, logistics and transportation, as this sector could facilitate many financial activities in order to develop other sectors. (D) This sector is also an appropriate context for research about commitment and OCBs, as both are identified to be more applicable to the services sector than other sectors. Therefore, the contribution of this study would be more appreciated. (E) As we have seen earlier, although this sector suffers from several disadvantages, it is considered as one of the most organised sectors, in terms of daily work, seriousness of employees and management, clear structure and positive attitudes towards research. Moreover, a personal consideration is that I had access to data collection, because employees in banks are used to dealing with researchers.

It can be concluded that the banking sector in Libya is going through important steps of development. Even though these steps are positive on the country level, as the government has opened the doors for foreign banks in order to improve services and provide good financial products, much effort has to be made on the organisational level. Among these efforts is developing the management of banks and improving employees' performance. However, such efforts need more supportive activities, such as rigorous research. This adds to the importance of this study, as successful exploration of commitment and OCBs as perceived by both managers and non-managers employees will facilitate formulation of more appropriate business and HR strategies. Such explorations will also help decision makers of local and foreign banks in setting strategies compatible with the thoughts, beliefs and interpretations of local employees.

CHAPTER 5: THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter I give detailed account of the methodological strategy and procedures, from the underpinning assumptions to the design and field work strategies. I might notice that this methodology has been adopted due to the nature of research questions and aims of exploring insights of commitment and OCBs in the Libyan contexts. I draw on the definition of methodology as to bring epistemology, ontology, methods and analysis together by including research theory and research tools (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006).

There is no single research methodology appropriate for all sorts of research, as each has its own weaknesses and strengths and each could be used in different ways. In this research I adopted an interpretivist subjectivist position, qualitative phenomenological research design, snowball sampling, semi-structured interviews and thematic analysis, which I discuss together with trustworthiness and authenticity of the research and ethical considerations.

5.2 Reflections of my Personal Position

Due to the nature of subjectivist qualitative research, this section reflects my own personal thoughts, interests and values in relation to the content of this chapter; it is about “being honest with yourself” (Saunders et al., 2009: p.118). Due to the value-laden nature of this research, my own bias and values inevitably affected the research methodology. Thus, I present this section to be aware of my interventions in all the research process and choices.

From the outset, I had to highlight my personal interest and values. For instance, the decision to explore the experiences of individuals regarding commitment and OCBs was strongly influenced by my own belief that good knowledge comes out of lived experience. Furthermore, my initial interest in the interpretivist subjectivist paradigm was due my own desire to explore an unknown paradigm of research in Libya. Therefore, I was very interested to discover those different available ways of conducting research. Qualitative phenomenological research designs have little appreciation in Libya, so I was interested in exploring how to apply them in management research. Furthermore, I am fully aware of the influence of Hull

University staff, as both Professor Ann Cunliffe and Professor Stephen Swailes were keen advocates of such an approach. Moreover, other influence came from management practitioners in the banking sector, as in many cases management practitioners argued that their understanding of concepts is completely different from that of academics. This made me interested in conducting research that allows for more appreciation of multiple realities.

Due to my positivist background and great familiarity with quantitative research, I was aware of a shortage of skills to do qualitative subjectivist research. For example, my interviewing skills were limited and I had little experience of qualitative data analysis. Therefore, I made efforts to develop my skills in these areas by attending modules and workshops such as Qualitative Research in Management and Business, The Research Interview and one-day training in Qualitative Data Analysis.

Sampling and getting access for this research was a big challenge. Because I used to work as a lecturer at Misurata University, I knew that in Libya, people are greatly not interested in research and there is suspicion and resistance towards it. In order to succeed in data collection, therefore, I had to choose an appropriate way to convince informants to participate. Thus, snowball sampling was an effective way to get access and gain trust, as using social ties and personal contacts was helpful. Furthermore, I had to be sensitive to power distance when conducting the interviews, as some participants showed a lack of confidence in their opinions and looked at me as a more experienced person. Nevertheless, as a result of the interviews, I made many friendships with the participants, due to the rapport built between us. I also gained deeper understanding of work of the banking sector in Libya, so this was an effective and enjoyable way of learning for me.

Even though collecting data took about four months, as I needed to conduct the interviews and transcribe them and think about possible ideas and themes, starting the data analysis was exciting. When I highlighted the themes and started to give them codes I felt aware of my personal intervention, as I gave them names based on my own understanding, beliefs and comments.

5.3 Methodological Evaluation of the Literature

Before I present details of the methodological issues in my research, in the next few pages I methodologically evaluate the literature review aiming to shed the light on connotations to support my adopted research strategy. To do so, I highlight the argument of this research, and argue that the transferability of meanings of concepts across national, cultural and institutional contexts is doubted in social research. Accordingly, commitment and OCBs have uncovered meanings in the banking sector in Libya. However, the traditional theories, frameworks and meanings of commitment and OCBs in the literature do not represent the real point of view of participants of the research. Therefore, better understanding and alternative explanations of those phenomena could be explored. The two chapters of literature review indicated that most research, theories and frameworks came from a positivist research stance, built upon an objectivist ontological position, which assumes an external reality. Moreover this stance is epistemologically built upon causality and the natural science model. Therefore, my criticism of the literature of commitment and OCBs will target and question the adoption of such a stance, as seeking an external reality means seeking one specific definition and view across cultural, social and institutional contexts. Simultaneously, it calls for focusing on causality and relationships among variables, proven to be parts of the studied phenomenon. However, a quick glance at this argument shows the problematic between my research argument and the objectivist and causal positions of research.

In relation to commitment, it is noticed that most of the research has been positivist and quantitative. From the first published work in (1960) by Becker, much of the published research is described as theoretical; where scholars highlighted different characteristics of commitment claiming them to be the main pillars of one definition of commitment (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; González and Guillén, 2008). Moreover, research is conducted to test the validity and relationship between commitment and other organisational variables in the one hand, and the relationship between different components of commitment itself on the other (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Mehmud et al., 2010). In cross-culture research, many researchers adopted similar approaches and adopted positivist or related paradigms to carry out their research in different cultural contexts (Su et al., 2009; Khalifa and Truong, 2011; Li et al., 2010). Accordingly, evaluation of the literature shows that most research is positivist quantitative and theoretical research, as most studies were about reaching a holistic common definition of

commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Solinger et al., 2008; Meyer and Parfyonova, 2010). This confirms that most of the previous research was objectivist portrayed in positivist-related paradigms. Even though, there have been a considerable number of attitudinal and behavioural conceptualisations, few research has acknowledged that different contexts, cultures and organisation have their own interpretations of commitment.

Similar to the huge volume of research about commitment and other organisational concepts, research on OCBs has been through a long history of positivist and objectivist approaches (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ et al., 2006). However, to evaluate research methodologies about OCBs, it is necessary to summarise how previous research characterised OCBs. This requires addressing the following points: (1) interpretations of OCBs differ according to the person's perception, values, position and beliefs; (2) while some perceive them as rewarded IRBs, others perceive them as unrewarded ERBs; (3) while some individuals view outcomes of OCBs as positive, others could view them as negative; (4) different cultural contexts produce different interpretations, and hence, different antecedents and forms of OCBs; (5) OCBs are controllable and could be managed in organisations through their individual and job-related motivators. These points highlight the individual and cultural influences on interpreting OCBs and reaffirm the multiple realities of OCBs. Therefore, interpreting and defining OCBs depends strongly on the eyes of those who see them, and this makes it difficult to claim that OCBs could be defined as one thing (an external reality of OCBs could not be achieved). This confirms that OCBs are subjective in nature (Paine and Organ, 2000; Rego and Cunha, 2010). Thus, any further research should not ignore this characteristic of OCBs when exploring individual and contextual interpretations of them.

Returning to the literature above, I believe that the literature review highlights the following points in relation to methodologies of commitment and OCBs; (1) many studies adopted objectivist, positivist research paradigms. This is reflected in the search of one agreed definition of commitment and OCBs, although some research called for illuminating different views of them. (2) There is an obvious shortage of subjectivist research, which acknowledges and appreciates multiple perspectives and interpretations of what commitment and OCBs mean (Sevi, 2010; Tan and Tan, 2008; Reyachav and Sharkie, 2010). There is a noted obvious lack of adopting interpretivist, postmodernist and constructionist research paradigms. Such paradigms have proven to produce different

and valuable insights in organisational studies. Therefore, one of the limitations in commitment and OCBs literature is the absence of research from a non-objectivist perspective. Furthermore, little empirical research was conducted to explore alternative interpretations of commitment and OCBs. Even though cross-cultural literature has mentioned different interpretations of commitment and OCBs among different cultural contexts (Wasti, 2008; Williamson et al., 2009; Glazer et al., 2004), a lack of research that appreciates the subjectivity of interpreting commitment is also highlighted. This would, I believe, add to the challenges of conducting interpretivist and subjectivist research and adds to the value of my study. (3) As we have seen above, scholars who proposed certain conceptualisations of commitment and OCBs such as Meyer and Allen (1997), Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), Cohen (2007), Bar-Haim (2007), Solinger et al (2008) and Organ et al., (2006) have theoretically postulated their assumptions and quantitatively tested the causality between their proposed aspects of commitment. This opens the door for non-objectivist and qualitative empirical research designs to be applied.

Based on the above discussion, why are objectivist and positivist research stands problematic for this study? Well, in my view, the problem is that objectivist positivist stands focus on one external reality and assumes one meaning of commitment and one meaning of OCBs should be achieved (Cunliffe, 2011). Claiming the transferability of certain meanings across cultural and national contexts extends the gap between academic researchers and practitioners; positivists support one reality of the meaning of commitment and OCBs, while empirical research in cross-culture contexts give evidence of different meanings of commitment and OCBs. Thus, different conceptualisations of them were highlighted in the literature review chapters. Moreover, this discussion highlights that it is not realistic and appropriate to claim one definition across different cultures, nations and institutions, as the transferability of one meaning across cultures and contexts is not supported in recent organisational research. The positivist paradigm rejects the role of context and seeks generalizations, thereby losing the richness of the interaction between participants and the context. Therefore, the positivist paradigm does not help with understanding commitment and OCBs in the banking sector in Libya, because it based on objectivist knowledge, which is unattainable in organisational research, as highlighted by several interpretivist researchers (Sandberg, 2005).

The positivist approach is usually linked with deductive reasoning, where researchers aim to test theories or to examine them against each other, not to generate them. This sort of

reasoning forces researchers to accept those conceptualisations, that have high scores for generalisability, and then they assume them to be valid in different contexts. However, one of constraints confronting application of this logic in my research is the lack of published research on commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector. Ontologically, the argument of this study is against the objectivist stance, as the existence of one meaning of commitment and OCBs is doubted in this research. According to the positivist stance, researchers could produce objective descriptions of the reality. However, this view has recently been challenged, as it is argued that it is not possible to achieve such knowledge, since our interpretations of what we see as reality are deeply integrated and engaged with our cultural values, social beliefs and linguistic meanings (Sandberg, 2005). I argue that multiple definitions and different insights from different contexts and cultures could assist better understanding of both phenomena. This argument is in line with the recent research, which highlighted that meanings and interpretations of commitment and OCBs are context-specific and determined by cultural, social and linguistic factors. Overall, this discussion gives support to my research argument that insights into commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector are different from the Western traditional conceptualisations, due to the prevailing social norms and cultural values. Therefore, consistent with this argument I believe it is necessary to adopt a subjectivist stance that allows for multiple meanings and engages those meanings with their social, institutional and cultural context.

Therefore, to overcome the problem of objectivism, future research should lead to adopting methodologies those allow and appreciate the contextual, social and cultural influences on the construction of the meaning of commitment and OCBs. First, methodology should appreciate multiple realities of meanings of commitment and OCBs, i.e. it should be subjectivist. Second, empirical research, which collects data direct from individuals based on their lived experiences, should be conducted in order to understand how those individuals interpret and perceive the studied phenomena. Third, I should inductively seek to shed light on some conclusions and find out how participants interpret commitment and OCBs, as applying deductive reasoning is quite inappropriate, as we will see later in this chapter.

To sum up, the literature review confirms a gap in non-objectivist and non-quantitative research on commitment and OCBs. Such a gap could limit our understanding of how people in different cultural and national contexts interpret and view the reality of both

phenomena. This situation would support calls for subjectivist and interpretivist research about commitment and OCBs. However it means that this study faces challenge in that it is adopting an unusual research methodology, aiming for better understanding of the studied phenomena. Methodologically, the literature evaluation supports and justifies the contribution and importance of this study. It also strengthens the rationale for exploring interpretations of commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector in the interest of making theoretical and practical contributions.

5.4 Phenomenological Research Design

5.4.1 *Background of Phenomenology*

Phenomenology was introduced by the German philosopher Edmund Husserl (1859-1938) and developed by other researchers such as Heidegger (1927-1962), Merleau-Ponty (1962), Sartre (1936-1946) and Schutz (1899-1959). This philosophy is usually used in the social and health science such as sociology, psychology, nursing and health and education. It seeks to reach the richness of human experiences and to construct meanings of objects and abstracts. Originally, phenomenology as a philosophy pays more attention to “*the world*” of phenomenon and explains it from the viewpoint of those who witnessed and experienced the phenomenon, and those who have evidence proving a certain meaning of the phenomenon being studied (Creswell, 2007). Accordingly, this approach gives huge attention to the way that humans engage with their “*life world*”, as it believes that human beings are related to their world and they cannot be separated from it. This approach focuses on how an individual “*subjective view*” understands a certain phenomenon’s “*objective reality*” (Moran and Mooney, 2002). Therefore, phenomenology “*then is to be a prior science of the essences of all possible objects and experiences*” (Moran and Mooney, 2002: p.6). According to this philosophy, there is an external world and we as humans trust our subjective experiences to interpret that world, by reflective thinking about our daily experiences (Smith et al., 2009).

Considering the context of the studied phenomenon allows researchers to reach what is significant and valued for participants (Leonard, 1994). Therefore, Phenomenology is used in order to clarify, illuminate or to enlighten our understanding of a certain phenomenon in a way that helps with explaining the phenomenon without focusing on “*causal*” or “*genetic*” relationships. Phenomenology is “*going back to the things themselves*” to understand a certain phenomenon “*in its own right*”. It is used to

subjectively understand the daily experiences, which we live within our world. It is described as the accurate investigation of the human experience. In other words, phenomenology is about understanding meanings, produced by experiences of a phenomenon, which represent “*the essence features of the experience*” (Smith et al., 2009). The aim of phenomenologists is to reach the essence of the individual experience in the lived world through perceptions, expectations and willingness of human beings (Moran and Mooney, 2002). Phenomenology is “*an attempt to describe the basic structure of human experience and understanding from a first person point of view*” (Carman, 2012: p.viii). It is about how human beings lived their experiences of the phenomenon, not about how humans should live their experiences. Phenomenology is an alternative to the movement of natural science. It is a “*way of seeing*” and focuses on the “*how of the research*”. Therefore, it seeks to gain new insight and unexpected views of the phenomenon (Moran and Mooney, 2002). Logically, phenomenology is not a deductive approach, because it does not include hypotheses, analysis or theories out of the borders of the phenomenon. It is basically against empiricism and representationism (Carman, 2012). Phenomenologists argue that generalization in the scientific approach leads to the loss of exploring the interaction between individuals and their world. Moreover, although in the scientific approach researchers could reach the same result, researchers would not be able to capture the interaction and integration that exists between persons and the surrounding world. Thus, what is seen as significant for some individuals could be altered in the same world, and then a different understanding will be produced (Leonard, 1994).

However, before I discuss more on this philosophy further, it is important to highlight that there are two different approaches of phenomenology, namely; Transcendental or (Husserl’s approach) and Interpretative phenomenology (Heidegger’s approach). Whilst both transcendental and interpretative approaches are used to explore lived experience and constitute alternative meanings of a certain phenomenon, they are different in their philosophical assumptions and way of exploring the phenomenon being studied (Creswell, 2007) as shown in the next few pages.

5.4.2 *Transcendental phenomenology*

5.4.2.1 *Background*

Transcendental phenomenology was produced by Edmund Husserl (1859-1938) in his book, “*Crisis of the European Science and Transcendental Phenomenology*” (1936-1970). Husserl criticized the scientific approach in natural sciences and described it as producing “*second-order knowledge*”. This sort of knowledge depends on first-order knowledge, which is “*subjective experience*” (Smith et al., 2009). Husserl believed that the subjective experience is a *conscious experience*, as it represents the source of human activities and thoughts (Benner, 1994). Therefore, the best way of exploring and generating knowledge in social science is to focus on describing the conscious experiences of individuals, not on analysing or explaining them. Thus, transcendental phenomenology “*provides deep understanding of a phenomenon as experienced by several individuals*” (Creswell, 2007: p.62). It is a philosophy that interested in “*unprejudiced descriptive study of whatever appears to consciousness, precisely in the manner in which it so appears*” (Moran and Mooney, 2002: p.1). This approach depends hugely on the human consciousness, as all our experiences exist in it. Therefore, transcendental phenomenology focuses on studying anything that appears to the consciousness, such as thoughts and meanings. Furthermore, this approach focuses on the epistemology of knowledge more than it focuses on the ontology of being. Thus, it assumes knowledge can be generated from the daily conscious experiences of individuals (Hitzler and Eberle, 2004).

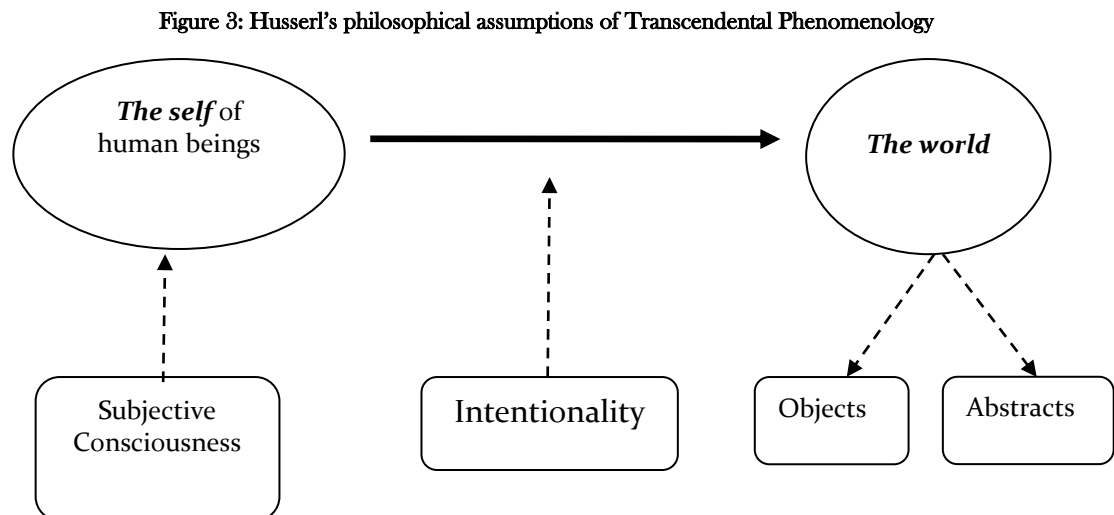
5.4.2.2 *Philosophical assumptions*

Husserl based his philosophy of phenomenology on Cartesian dualism, which refers to the separation between consciousness and body, as phenomenology looks at human beings as a bodily subjective (Benner, 1994). The Cartesian “*dualism*” includes two main parts; subjective experience and objective world (*objectivism-subjectivism*). This means, although we as humans live in the world, we are separated from objects in the world. Thus, when we get in touch with such objects we approach them consciously; therefore, experiences can be told. The subjective way of seeing objects is a core in transcendental phenomenology, as the reality of objects or phenomena is determined by the meanings human being attach to them through their lived experiences (Creswell, 2007). Moreover, it is believed that our senses are coloured by our attitudes and moods. Thus, our opinions and views are linked to our world (Moran and Mooney, 2002). Moreover, Husserl’s

transcendental phenomenology sees our interpretations as outcomes of our subjective consciousness. Consequently, there is no subjectivity outside the consciousness of individuals (Leonard, 1994). Accordingly, human societies are rational and conscious of their experiences with the world.

Furthermore, another main philosophical assumption of transcendental phenomenology is that there are no presuppositions and judgments about the meanings of the phenomenon studied; as Husserl called it, “*Epoche*” (Creswell, 2007). This means that phenomenologists should start from scratch when studying a certain phenomenon. For example, they should not attempt to explain any phenomenon via any previous theory. This is based on the belief that each phenomenon has its own social, historical and contextual characteristics. Transcendental phenomenology pays attention to the “*intentionality of consciousness*”, as the reality of an object depends on the consciousness of individuals. This means that human beings’ conscious experiences of activities are oriented towards a certain object in the external world. Thus, “*intentionality*” is an orientation towards conscious experience such as activity, abstracts and situations in the world (Moran and Mooney, 2002).

The figure 3 summarises Husserl’s philosophy of transcendental phenomenology approach based on the *Dualism* of Descartes.



5.4.2.3 Research process

Transcendental phenomenology focuses on producing “*descriptions*” of individual experiences. These descriptions should be generated from scratch; the researcher should not allow for any contaminations from the previous theories, conceptualisations and frameworks. Thus, researchers should declare their own views and be conscious of their positions as outsiders in a process Husserl called “*bracketing*” (Creswell, 2007). Based on the philosophical assumptions above, transcendental phenomenology is based on the uniqueness of the studied phenomenon. Thus, it does not give any space for previous theories or frameworks in explaining the phenomenon. Therefore, researchers should detach themselves from daily experiences or what is called their “*natural attitude*”. This detachment is crucial for understanding others’ experiences of the phenomenon, as it helps to prevent contamination of their experiences by the researcher’s knowledge, experiences and views regarding the studied phenomenon. Rather, researchers should pay attention to what is included in participants’ intuitions, as researchers do not intervene through their presumptions or hypotheses (Moran and Mooney, 2002).

It is argued that the aim of adopting transcendental phenomenology is to reach shared and common characteristics among those who lived the experience. It is believed that such common characteristics will contribute towards better understanding of knowledge, practices and theories in relation to the phenomenon of the study (Moustakas, 1994). Based on the philosophical assumptions of transcendental phenomenology, researchers have pointed out several processes in order to conduct research under this approach, namely: (1) Understanding the philosophic assumptions of phenomenology such as relationships between the objective reality and subjective experiences of individuals, conscious experiences toward an object, and self-recognition of the researcher’s own meanings before starting the study (*bracketing*). (2) Identifying a certain phenomenon in need of study or more elaboration. This means that phenomenology could be used to study a new phenomenon or it also could be used to explore a new phenomenon or concept. (3) Recognising the “*taken-for-granted*” theories, which are familiar to researchers and which should be bracketed. (4) Collecting empirical qualitative data direct from individuals who lived and who had experience with the studied phenomenon. Phenomenologist researchers usually use in-depth interviewing, observation, music, poetry and open-ended questions. (5) Reducing the data by focusing on meaningful statements and themes that give clear understanding of the lived experience; this is called

“*horizontalization*” or “*eidetic reduction*” (Smith et al., 2009). This process also includes grouping themes together to formulate certain meaning. It refers to going through several stages of reducing data through focusing on important statements and expressions that reflect the subjective meaning of the experience of the phenomenon. Each process has its own lenses, which give deeper understanding of the phenomenon and detach the researcher from her/his beliefs and opinions. (6) Developing descriptions of the essence of the phenomenon based on the shared common views among those individuals. These descriptions are of two kinds; textural and structural descriptions. However, both are essential to cover the essence of the lived experiences of the studied phenomenon in its context (Creswell, 2007).

To sum up, even though transcendental phenomenology has its own way of generating knowledge in social science through lived experience, this approach was challenged because; (1) this approach usually requires a certain type of participants, as the decision of choosing participants usually is not the researcher’s choice; researchers must have some of those who lived the experience and who have certain meaning attached to the studied phenomenon. (2) According to this approach, the researcher should guarantee the separation of his own beliefs, thoughts and opinions from those of participants; however, the ability to do so is doubted in the interpretative approach. Husserl’s approach was criticized as being a more philosophic and theoretical approach, as he did not provide a specific process for doing research based on his theory of phenomenology (Moustakas, 1994; Smith et al., 2009).

5.4.3 *Interpretative phenomenology*

5.4.3.1 *Background and characteristics*

The interpretative phenomenology, also called “*hermeneutic phenomenology*”, is an approach introduced by Heidegger (1927-1962) in his book entitled “*Being and Time*”. This approach includes contributions from different scholars such as Merleau-Ponty (1962) (Benner, 1994). Interpretative phenomenologists seek to understand similarities and differences in habits, skills and meanings of human activities from others, “*participants*”. Therefore, this approach is not about explaining or expecting causal relationships or testing hypotheses, theories and frameworks. Whilst this approach sees understanding of the phenomenon as more powerful than focusing on explanations, natural and positivist sciences focus on common elements of a phenomenon, which could

be applied to all phenomena. This is what scholars called “*rationalism*”, which is about causal relationships and objective external reality. However, the interpretative approach gives importance to the role of human beings and allows their desires, interests, feelings and cultures to dominate in explaining the phenomenon (Benner, 1994). Interpretative phenomenology is a philosophy that is concerned with the question of “*how individuals make sense of the world around them*”. It is a way to get access to people’s ‘*common-sense thinking*’ and then to interpret their actions from their views. It is a kind of interpretivist paradigm (Bryman, 2012).

Phenomenology is a construct of two parts; (1) the Greek word “*phenomenon*”, which means “*show*” or “*appear*”. Appearing to Heidegger is that the phenomenon of study enters a new state and shows itself to individuals, as it was completely or partly hidden. Therefore, appearance indicates that we have specific meaning related to the phenomenon, and the phenomenon might have hidden and unclear meaning. Accordingly, phenomenology is “*a discipline which is concerned with understanding the thing as it shows itself, as it is brought to light*” (Smith et al., 2009: p.24). Therefore, in research, using phenomenology is choosing a hidden or unclear phenomenon when it appears to the view of the researchers especially when huge part of the phenomenon is still unclear and ambiguous. (2) “*Logos*” means “*discourse, reason and judgement*”. In other words, “*logos*” means constituting explanation of what individuals are talking about in their “*discourse*”. Logos helps with capturing the appearance of the phenomenon through the discourse, and then researchers can cast certain meanings of the phenomenon (Smith et al., 2009).

In contrast to the transcendental approach, the interpretative approach is against the “*Cartesian Duality*” (Benner, 1994). Heidegger was the first to call for the rejection of Cartesian Dualism between “*object-subject*”. He moved from focusing on epistemology to focusing on ontology, and subsequently he introduced a different type of phenomenology. The Heideggerian, interpretative, approach does not call for eliminating scientism. Rather, it calls for using it in an appropriate way. Heidegger believed that the natural sciences complicate our understanding of what he called “*human Agency*” and they restrict our abilities of generating questions and answers (Leonard, 1994). Moreover, the interpretative approach has been described as more related to the interpretative paradigm. It moved from the focus on consciousness to the focus on ontology, as it believes in the

subjectivity of human beings and their world. Therefore, Heidegger believed that the hermeneutic research is more appropriate for conducting phenomenological research.

Heidegger explained that such an approach is used when there are meanings in need of disclosure, “buried over phenomenon” or when meanings are partly “uncovered meanings ” (Moran and Mooney, 2002). Similar to Husserl’s approach, this sort of phenomenology focuses on the lived experience of human beings. Nevertheless, it differs from transcendental phenomenology in putting more emphasize on interpretations than descriptions as the product of phenomenological research (Creswell, 2007). Interpretative phenomenology is about the ontology or the existence of the human beings, as it believes that each learning situation has its own world, historical and linguistic background and relationships; thus, understanding its meaning is more effective in social science (Smith et al., 2009). Thus, this approach focuses on meanings of being and interpretations. It aims to understand the practices and experiences of the daily life of individuals through highlighting common elements of the experiences. Furthermore, it is usually used to reach examples and metaphors, which reflect meanings in everyday life without intervening, distortions or detaching the phenomenon from its context. One of its main characteristics is to help with seeking to develop authentic understanding and alternative explanations rooted in contextual meanings and interests. Interpretative phenomenology is used when the researcher aims to focus on the parts and the whole of the meaning (inductive reasoning). For example, it is used when the aim is to highlight shared conclusions agreed by participants, who have interacted together and who constituted their meanings based on similar culture, practices and beliefs (Leonard, 1994).

5.4.3.2 Philosophical assumptions of interpretative phenomenology

Heidegger’s philosophy could be presented in the following points:

Person as Self-interpreting

The concept of “*person*” is important in the philosophy of interpretative phenomenology. This concept means that human beings make sense of objects, activities and abstracts through their hermeneutic understanding. In other words, we constitute our beings via our interpretative understanding (Creswell, 2007). Human beings are self-interpreting, as individual interpretations are linked with the meaning of “*being*”. However, this opens the door for the shared understanding of community members, as the daily experiences and practices exist within the shared understanding, which determines what is consistent and

familiar for individuals. Heidegger asserted that there are shared understandings among those who live, interact and engage together. He called it “*the clearing*”, which refers to the idea that meanings are constituted out of familiar thoughts, beliefs and activities. Thus, individuals make sense of things that they are familiar with. Moreover, the shared understanding is generated through the social interaction among members through language. Thus, self interpretations come before the shared understanding of the community members. This argument reaffirms that human beings live inside a “hermeneutic circle” of understanding (Plager, 1994; Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Heidegger believes that our interpretations are generated out of our subjective consciousness and unconsciousness, not because subjects are linked to objects, but because our interpretations are given in social, linguistic and cultural traditions. Therefore, our interpretations cannot be understood in isolation from such elements. Unlike Husserl, Heidegger believed that not only the consciousness is the motivator of human activities. Rather, the unconsciousness also motivates our daily activities and experiences. Thus, there is knowledge outside our consciousness, which he called “*tacit knowledge*”. This means that, although human behaviours could be unconscious and irrational, they might have meanings (Benner, 1994).

The self and the world

One of the main contributions of the Heideggerian approach of phenomenology is “*having a world*”. The world is defined as “*the meaningful set of relationships, practices, and language that we have by virtue of being born into a culture*” (Benner, 1994: p.46). Thus, the world of persons is better presented by their language, shared skills and practices, as these elements constitute their daily meanings of objects and human activities (Moran and Mooney, 2002). Moreover, there is a mutual interaction and influence between “*the self*” and “*the world*”, as social norms, values, habits and skills, from the world, constitute the “*self*”. Accordingly, persons are always changing with their situations; they alter their human activities to adapt to their historical, cultural and “*familial world*”. Therefore, the world makes our selves (Plager, 1994). Nevertheless, Heidegger believed that the surrounding world is an outcome of our interaction, thoughts, culture and shared language, as these elements formalize what we call our world; therefore, “*we constitute our world*” (Leonard, 1994: p.48). However, this world does not extend to include others, rather, it is just “*our*” world. Thus, objects and subjects cannot be detached from their world and their involvements, as both are parts of the whole picture. Based on this

argument, human beings formalize their own world of significance, values and interests, which are constituted by culture, language and situations. Thus, what seems to be significant for me might be insignificant for others. This means that in order to understand meanings of individuals, it is essential to understand their world, which reflects what is significant and valued for them. This viewpoint came out of the belief of Heidegger that we as human beings cannot separate our “*selves*” from our world. Thus, human beings and their “*world*” are one thing, as we create our world and the world creates us. Heidegger highlighted and appreciated the involvement between human beings and their social, cultural and family contexts. Thus, he supports the notion that better understanding of social and human phenomena should be gained by viewing them within their contexts.

Another phenomenologist philosopher, Merleau-Ponty (1962), argued that while the world exist objectively, “*external there*”, humans can understand that world only through their subjective experiences, “*from here*”. However, this does not mean that we are separated from our world. Rather, we are open to and engaged with our “*world*”, as there is no meaning for our “*bodies*” without the world and the world has no meaning without our bodies. Therefore, our perceptions link together our “*inner subjective experiences*” and “*external objective facts*” (Carman, 2012). Human beings sense when they meet the sensed thing, which exists in human beings’ world. Therefore, phenomena cannot be perceived in isolation from their worlds. Rather, they must be understood in their contexts. Thus, phenomena out of their contexts cannot be perceived or studied. This means that the perceived objects in the world are under humans’ “*perceptual experiences*” of them. Merleau-Ponty supports this notion by using the example of the red patch (the phenomenon) and coloured rug (the world), so if we take the red patch out of the rug it will have no meaning. However, within the rug the patch could complete a part of a nice picture. Merleau-Ponty focuses more than Heidegger on our perceptions of things, as perceived objects depend on our perceptions. He sees more engagement between perception and objects, as perception is not separated from objects or meanings (Merleau-Ponty, 2012). Merleau-Ponty adds to Heidegger’s notion of “*being-in-the-world*” through focusing more on contextualizing the phenomenon of research. Furthermore, Merleau-Ponty focuses on the hermeneutic knowledge of understanding our world. He argued that our relationships are embodied and cannot be detached from the world. Therefore, subjectivity and embodiment were under the focus of his perspective of

phenomenology. Merleau-Ponty also agreed with Husserl that the natural sciences are second-order knowledge that stems from first-order knowledge, which is the experience of individuals. Thus, the human experience depends on the situation embodied in words.

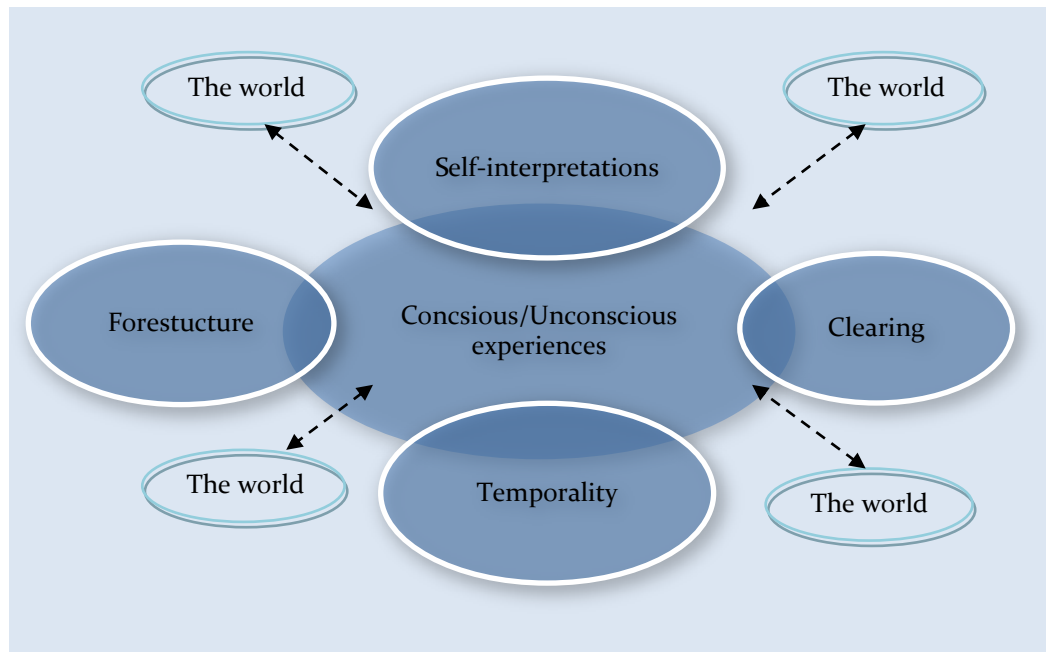
Forestructure

Whereas Husserl argued that researchers must bracket their viewpoints, opinions and thoughts when conducting phenomenological research, Heidegger has a completely different view. He believes that our thoughts, views and opinions, as well as previous research, are part of our understanding of objects and abstracts. Therefore, we cannot separate them or “*bracket*” them. Rather, we could use them effectively to develop a better understanding. Interpretative phenomenology depends on what is called “*forestructure*”. This means that phenomenologists should make sense of all of the past and future theories and link them together with their views and thoughts for the sake of better understanding (Smith et al., 2009). The forestructure is important to determine the relationships of the phenomenon, helps with applying the interpretative approach and helps with having clear insight into the research questions and answers.

Person-in-time

Another characteristic of Heidegger’s philosophy concerns the character of time. The interpretative phenomenology looks at persons as restricted by their time. Therefore, humans’ interpretations are temporary. In his view of “*the person in time*” Heidegger believed that “*temporality is constitutive of being*”. Therefore, temporality is an associated character of human beings, not objects. Accordingly, phenomena are determined by the past and the future, not just the present. Therefore, what has a certain meaning in the past or the present might have another meaning in the future. In other words, knowledge in this approach is temporary and depends on the time of constituting that knowledge (Leonard, 1994). Figure 4 summarises the main pillars of Heidegger’s philosophy of human beings and the world

Figure 4: Heidegger's philosophy of interpretative phenomenology



5.4.3.3 Methodological grounds and research process

It is important to note that Heidegger did not reject natural and science theories. Rather, he distinguished between meanings of unconscious daily experiences and those problematic unfamiliar experiences. He argued that in some situations when we feel an unfamiliar experience or activity of our world, we behave relationally and consciously in a scientific way. However, this does not apply to all of our social and daily experiences. Thus, daily experiences are unconscious, while problematic or unfamiliar experiences are conscious. Furthermore, as we have seen above, this approach does not support Husserl's idea of "*bracketing*" one's own view of the phenomenon. Rather it allows the researcher to explore previous theories, practices and frameworks about the phenomenon. Therefore, the researcher's interpretations of the experiences of the phenomenon are explicit and appreciated (Creswell, 2007). In this sense, Merleau-Ponty claimed that the objectivity of objects is not real, as objects are not separated from our perceptions. He argued that the natural sciences make our perceptions restricted and not "*pure*". They provide us with ideal not natural objects. He adds, phenomena are "*undetermined*" and we should not have "*prejudices*" about them. Therefore, the researcher cannot detach his/her self from the research. According to this approach, the researcher and participants participate in the practices, skills and interpretations of the research, aiming towards

better understanding of the daily life through dialogues, interactions and common culture. Thus, the interpretations of the researcher and participants are reflected in the research (Leonard, 1994). This argument is supported by the view that all human behaviours have motivators such as needs, so mood or significance are important to capture the core meaning of the experience. Moreover, as humans use language and actions to express their interpretations, researchers can capture their meanings through observing and interviewing humans. Further, through interaction with others, humans constitute their meaning and their shared understanding. Therefore, in order to understand a phenomenon, researchers should target those shared understandings of participants. Thus, the interpretative approach focuses on both parts, “individuals” and the whole “shared understanding”(Smith et al., 2009). It is believed that human behaviours have several and incomplete “*orders*” of understandings. Hence, this argument calls for the rejection of the single-factor theories. Taken-for-granted- theories and frameworks mislead researchers by not allowing them to explore different insights, alternative explanations and contextual representations.

Even though the processes of interpretative research are not clearly and commonly agreed, there are some broad principles for applying the interpretative phenomenology; (1) Identifying a certain phenomenon in need of explorations. This could be through exploring uncovered meanings of concepts as well as clarifying ambiguous meanings of certain phenomena. (2) Researchers should declare their thoughts, opinions and beliefs about the studied phenomenon. They should consider themselves as participants of the research, who will influence others and be influenced by other participants (Benmer, 1994). (3) Researchers should also highlight their research objectives and questions. These elements of research should reflect the researchers’ aim to highlight what constitute the lived experiences of individuals regarding the studied phenomenon. However, the phenomenological research should be interested in exploring and highlighting informal conclusions, not theories. (4) Reviewing the related literature of a similar or the same phenomenon of the study. Researchers need to be aware of the theories, frameworks and conceptualisations of the studied phenomenon, “*forestructure of understanding*”, which is important to develop their interpretations of the phenomenon. (5) Data is collected through interviewing, observation and analysing daily behaviours of participants such as unstructured and semi-structured interviewing. (6) Data analysis usually involves highlighting statements, themes and expressions and behaviours related to the meaning of

the phenomenon. Therefore, researchers could apply thematic analysis and analysis of examples. The analysis process usually includes the following procedures; (a) reading and rereading the interview transcripts, (b) recognising the main parts of the topic, “themes”, (c) formalizing groups of themes and casting interpretative units, (d) drawing common conclusions. (7) Writing a description of the phenomenon and its context. These descriptions should clearly reflect interpretations and understandings of the researcher. Thus, the researcher should interpret the lived experiences of the phenomenon under study (Creswell, 2007).

Research in interpretative phenomenology possesses three main characteristics, namely; logical consistency, subjective interpretation and adequacy. Firstly, logical consistency means that interpretative phenomenology is clear and built in a logical way, which could be seen by the reader. This feature could be achieved through designing a clear framework, which should include clear and consistent research argument, questions and objectives. Moreover, this characteristic can also be achieved through an explicit and consistent methodology, which could include research paradigm, research reasoning, data collections and data analysis, as the more appropriate such elements are, the more consistent is the research. Secondly, subjective interpretation means that research findings, insights and interpretations are grounded in the subjective meaning of the researcher and participants. Therefore, interpretative phenomenologists usually highlight this characteristic in the beginning of their researchers. Moreover, they illustrate research findings with direct quotations from the raw data of participants, as participants’ words are used to enhance the credibility and validity of the research. They also make sure that data interpretation remains directly linked to the words of the participants. Thirdly, adequacy refers to the links between the researcher’s interpretations and themes highlighted from the transcriptions of experiences of participants. This characteristic could be achieved through member-check and related audience-check such as conferences, seminars and informal meeting with related researchers, employees or people who are close to the context (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006).

For this research, I adopted many procedures related to this approach. First, I declared my opinions, views and stories, which accompanied me to the end of this research. Therefore, in the first, fifth, sixth, seventh and ninth chapters I reflect on my position as a researcher before I present the data in each of those chapters. Second, acknowledging the role of the reader in understanding my interpretations of meanings of participants, I used

tables, figures and thematic networking diagrams to help with displaying data and interpretations. These display tools helped to show how I moved from the empirical data to the concluded descriptions of the phenomenon. In this regard, I used direct quotations from participants for the sake of giving evidence of the highlighted themes. Third, parallel with the interpretative approach, in this research I adopted other points such as; (1) recognising and appreciating the plurality of different ways of conducting research. (2) Focusing on constructing meanings of commitment and OCBs and highlighting their characteristics in the banking sector in Libya. (3) Using participants' words direct from the interview transcriptions. (4) Providing evidence for each theme and category. (5) Consistency and interconnection of the process of the study in collecting, analysing and presenting information. Fourth, starting from the point that common conclusions are common backgrounds of meanings (Leonard, 1994), I highlighted that my research aims to capture informal conclusions, not theories, which I called insights. Therefore, in each chapter of analysis I started from the transcriptions of the interviews and I ended up with a holistic construction, which reflects common insights on meanings from the participants.

5.4.4 Interpretivist epistemological position

Epistemology refers to the question of how a specific discipline views good knowledge; it is about how to study the social world (Bryman and Bell, 2007). It represents several conscious and unconscious questions, thoughts and assumptions of how to do research and what is researchable (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006). Accordingly, many different positions have been emerged in social science to provide answers to the above questions, such as positivism and postpositivism, realism, constructionism, interpretivism, modernism and postmodernism and feminist. For this study I adopted an interpretivist epistemological position.

The interpretivist stand comes from the idea that social science is different from natural science. It is about understanding and interpreting phenomena under study. This philosophy looks at human actions as meaningful and intentional. Therefore, to understand such actions researchers need to capture their meanings, by interpreting actors' beliefs, thoughts, desires and intentions (Schwandt, 2003). This entails three steps: 1- going inside one's head to understand that what s/he means is doubtable. 2- Understanding meanings from everyday experience of individuals. 3- Extracting meanings from languages (Schwandt, 2003). Interpretivism aims to reconstruct the understanding of a specific phenomenon of those involved in actions related to the phenomenon.

Interpretivist approaches appreciate that there are multiple realities, as individual experiences are interpreted in different ways. Thus, in response to Morgan and Smircich's (1980) question "*Whether or not human beings can achieve any form of knowledge that is independent of their own subjective construction, since they are the agents through which knowledge is perceived or experienced*" (Cunliffe, 2011: p.12), Cunliffe explained that interpretivists answer "no", as researcher's and actor's knowledge is contextual, tacit, practice-related and based on personal interpretations. Interpretivists argue that applying law-like regularities to understand social phenomena underestimates the complexity of such phenomena. They believe that humans give meanings to their roles in their lives as well as give meanings to others' roles in life, and that valuable knowledge is derived by appreciating the diversity of meanings (Saunders et al., 2009).

This paradigm is criticized for not producing "hard" and "scientific" data, as it produces qualitative "soft" outcomes and does not show relational causality between research factors. It is also criticized for not being generalisable and replicable. Qualitative data is constructed and less representative, therefore, it is "less scientific" and "less rigorous" (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006). Furthermore, this perspective has been criticised based on the lack of clear separation between researcher and participants. Another point of criticism is relativism, as there are no clear boundaries between what accounts are true and what accounts are false. In addition, since interpretivist research is out of the scope of objectivism (explained later), agreeing on specific procedural criteria is not possible for this perspective, and there is no common agreement on what is the best judgement in interpretation of specific meanings (Schwandt, 1994).

However, each research perspective has its uniqueness and could be used for different purposes, I chose this perspective not because it is the best among other perspectives, but because I felt that it helps in appreciating different perspectives in doing research. Furthermore, the interpretivist perspective allows interaction between the researcher and research participants, recognising that research is value-laden (Saunders et al., 2009). This perspective helps with focusing on how people create meanings of their interactions in their everyday life, which is the core of my research. It argues that different social actors have different understandings of social phenomenon and then different meanings are constructed (Creswell, 2007). I argue that the experience of Libyan employees in the banking sector is different from that of others; thus, different understanding of commitment and OCBs are expected and highlighting different perspectives in relation to

both concepts would be a useful contribution to organisational research. Indeed, the interpretivist perspective is increasingly used in management, organisation theories and organisational behaviour studies (Saunders et al., 2009; Cunliffe, 2011), because of its proven value in exploring different understandings and meanings of organisational actors. Furthermore, I believe that this position is helpful to understand the mercurial nature of commitment and OCBs, which are both individual related practices, depending on how individuals interpret their roles, jobs and positions at the workplace. Thus, I aimed to construct deep understanding out of individual experience in relation to these concepts.

5.4.5 Subjectivist ontological position

Ontology refers to the questions of the nature of reality and what we can know about it, how things really are and really work (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). There are several views about what is reality. Some researchers see reality as an “external reality” that could be studied and understood; they are described as “objectivists”. Others see reality as “internal reality”, as different researchers have different understandings of the reality of things, actions and concepts. Such researchers are described as “subjectivists” (Cunliffe, 2011). In this research I adopted the subjectivist view of reality, as the reality of commitment and OCBs depend on how social actors see them and interpret them. Thus, different people will have different views of the reality of both concepts. In this regard, researchers argue that the view of reality (theory) related to social science is relational and subjectively produced in the research process. QR uses theory “different realities” to generate theory i.e. models, theories and insights. Subjectivity refers to different meanings across contexts, times and places. It acknowledges many truths, since meanings are relative to time, place and the way of constructing them in daily experience; hence, this view focuses on pluralism (Cunliffe, 2011). Reality is seen as socially and continually constructed between social actors. There is no outside meaning for phenomena; rather, each actor attaches meanings to such social phenomena (Saunders et al., 2009). Practically, this would highlight the importance of studying the context of the phenomenon under investigation (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006).

Taking into consideration both interpretivist and subjectivist positions, subjectivist researchers believe that social reality is a product of individuals, as they give meanings to actions and objects. Thus, knowledge is personal and experiential. Therefore, research methods should explore the personal and subjective understanding of the social world through studying language and interactions (Cunliffe, 2011). However, interpretative

research highlights the importance of consideration of the subjective meanings of actions to reach good understanding of such actions. Thus, individuals not only interact with others, they make sense of actions in their lives with some belief of objectivity or “pluralism” during social interaction (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006)

Based on the discussion of the ontological positions above, I believe that the subjectivist position reflects the argument and the belief of this study. Firstly, it is consistent with the interpretivist epistemological strand, as believing that individual experiences and perspectives of people could be considered as good sources of knowledge implies a belief that reality is internal and multiple. Second, this position supports the claims that different meanings of commitment and OCBs differ among employees, as Libyan employees apply different meanings of commitment and OCBs as a result of their different experiences. Even among participants, each participant has his/her own meaning of commitment and OCBs because they faced different experiences of them. Third, as we have seen in the literature chapters, both commitment and OCBs have been seen from different perspectives, by different researchers, suggesting a need for a nuanced, contextualised view, rather than the assumption of a single “truth”.

5.4.6 *Position of the researcher*

Based on the epistemological and ontological positions, I had certain roles to play as the researcher. The researcher’s role within such positions allows for more engagement, values, attitudes, thoughts and views to be expressed in the research (Creswell, 2007). According to the adopted positions, the researcher is seen as “*active participants, along with research subjects, in building descriptive, exploratory and explanatory knowledge*” (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006: p.15). Thus, researchers interpret data by looking for themes grounded in participants’ words, as they spend time with the text and words of the participants. Researchers seek to construct the original meaning of the action, and they must apply certain methods to ensure full comprehension of actors’ meanings of actions. However, this allows them to make explicit their presence in their research, respond to occurrences, evoke emotions and thoughts (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006; Saunders et al., 2009). Qualitative interpretivist researchers understand that their QR is an interactive process formalised by the personal thoughts, beliefs, gender, history, race and religion of the researcher as well as those who participated in the research. As value-free science does not exist, the interpretative qualitative researcher produces “*a set of fluid, interconnected images and representations*” (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003: p.9).

Overall, I have adapted the above positions due to: (1) the lack of prior knowledge about the two concepts in the Libyan context; (2) weak understanding of how they are interpreted in Libya; (3) my belief that social reality is in the eyes of social actors, so meanings of commitment and OCBs are different among people; (4) my belief that research cannot be done separately from the researcher's values, beliefs and personal views.

5.4.7 Justifications for adopting an interpretative phenomenological research design

Before I give justifications for applying this research approach, I would like to highlight the argument of this research. I argue that commitment and OCBs have different meanings and interpretations from the traditional Western meanings and interpretations. This difference is due to the different contextual, cultural and social backgrounds of participants. Therefore, I argue that the transferability of certain conceptualisations and theories across national and cultural contexts is doubtful, as each cultural and national context has its unique experiences, as individuals constitute their shared knowledge based on their interaction in certain time. As I have illustrated in the few pages above, interpretative phenomenology is a hermeneutic/interpretive theory. This theory targets the subjective experience of individuals out of their daily life. It is built on the position that individuals can make meanings and constitute views of their daily experience of phenomena they encounter in life. This approach is usually used to explore meaning and interpretations in relation to certain phenomenon (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). This exactly corresponds to my research aims and helps with highlighting characteristics of commitment and OCBs drawing on an individual experience of managerial and non-managerial employees in the banking sector in Libya. Thus, the following points justify adopting the interpretative phenomenological research design.

- i. This study is hermeneutic in nature, as I aim toward better understanding of the meanings of commitment and OCBs in the banking sector in Libya as experienced by participants. This study also argues that such meanings could not be understood out of their own cultural, social and national context.
- ii. This approach provides affective research design for conducting research that seeks alternative explanations and insights of phenomena such as commitment and OCBs.

- iii. This study seeks to develop understanding of commitment and OCBs as performance-related concepts. This aim is the reason for focusing on interpretations, perceptions and attitudes of human beings through their daily experiences of commitment and OCBs, which would facilitate more understanding of human and social activities.
- iv. Based on the argument and aims of this study, I do not aim to test any theories of commitment and OCBs against others. Therefore, I refrain from adapting the deductive objectivist approach. Rather, my aim is to shed light on understanding participants' insights into commitment and OCBs in order to develop better understanding of them within their contextual elements.
- v. One of the reasons for adopting the phenomenological approach is the ongoing interest in organisational and managerial research in using this approach, as it helps in getting deeper and better understanding of organisational phenomena. This ongoing interest is also linked to the idea of analysing the data, as data is analysed out of the descriptions of lived experience of participants (The part). Such descriptions end with general interpretations (The whole). This is the core essence of inductive reasoning.
- vi. The phenomenological research design would strengthen the adoption of a qualitative research approach. It also gives practical applications, which are consistent with interpretative, inductive research methodology.
- vii. This philosophy responds to my research claims of subjectivity, as it offers a subjectivist position that appreciates viewpoints of individuals and helps with reaching participants' shared understanding of the phenomena under research. It also helps with exploring components of meanings of commitment and OCBs as identified by participants. Moreover, it provides an effective position for claiming different and alternative subjective explanations of both commitment and OCBs.

5.4.8 *Research fit into the phenomenological paradigm*

According to the given justifications for adopting the interpretive phenomenological paradigm, this research fits into this paradigm in certain ways as discussed in the following points.

First, this research argues that the transferability of meanings of concepts across national, cultural and institutional contexts is doubted in social research. Accordingly, meanings of commitment and OCBs in the banking sector in Libya have been uncovered. These meanings are formulated by interaction and participation of individuals, through their experiences, to make sense and meanings of commitment and OCBs, are related and tied to the context of those individuals. According to this argument and the explanation of the phenomenological framework above, this study fits in the core focus of phenomenology in relation to three points; (1) Individual experience, as this research focuses on exploring interpretations, attitudes and perceptions of individuals based on their experiences of dealing with the phenomena of commitment and OCBs. Thus, exploring the experiences of individuals regarding commitment and OCBs is one characteristic of adopting phenomenology. (2) Another important characteristic of phenomenology is focusing on the everyday world (Denscombe, 2010). This study fits in this paradigm by considering the everyday experience of commitment and OCBs. Thus, the data collection and analysis were built upon descriptions of the everyday life of participants. Participants were asked to reflect on their everyday practices and give live examples in relation to their workplaces; the research is about what they really do rather than what they should do at workplaces. (3) Another important way in which this research fits into phenomenology is its focus on drawing context-specific knowledge, as one of the important contributions of phenomenology is contextualising research and knowledge creation (Moran and Mooney, 2002). Thus, by stressing the role of context in influencing interpretations, perceptions and attitudes toward commitment and OCBs, this research adopts a phenomenological characteristic.

Second, philosophical positions; my research fits into the interpretative phenomenology through rejecting positivist epistemological and ontological positions, as seen above. This study focuses on understanding meanings, interpretations and perceptions of several aspects of commitment and OCBs. It is about inductively exploring and understanding interpretations and attitudes towards commitment and OCBs. It is not by any means

intended to deductively test knowledge or hypotheses. This position fits the hermeneutic phenomenology. On the other hand, ontologically this study adopts subjectivist view of multiple realities, assuming that realities of objects and abstracts are internal. This position is the core of Heidegger's phenomenology, as he based his philosophy on ontological stand more than an epistemological one arguing for subjectivist viewpoints of actors in social science.

Third, research questions and aims; two phenomena are uncovered, that need more exploratory research. Heidegger mentioned that this sort of phenomenology is used to help with exploring a phenomenon for the first time or exploring a partly-uncovered phenomenon. Therefore, my research questions were formulated to explore interpretations, antecedents, management attitudes and associations with individual performance in relation to commitment and OCB in the Libyan context. This is supported by the highlighted lack of knowledge about them in the literature (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006). Thus, my research questions target more explorations, as will be seen in the data analysis chapters. On the other hand, the research aims are also related to the interpretive phenomenology, as they are formulated to reach subjectivist insights into commitment and OCBs as interpreted by participants, as well as highlighting the landscapes of commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector. While Husserl's approach focuses on reaching descriptive textural and structural description of the phenomena of the study (Creswell, 2007), interpretive phenomenology is concerned with reaching more interpretive and subjectivist conclusions of the phenomena of the study. Thus, this study fits in the interpretive phenomenological paradigm through its aims of reaching temporary insights of participants in relation to commitment and OCBs, as they focus on how they interpret commitment and OCBs in relation to their workplace experience.

Fourth, data collection and analysis; this point refers to collecting qualitative data through letting participants discuss what they experienced and interpret as the reality of commitment and OCBs. Therefore, semi-structured interviews were used to collect qualitative raw data, which represents how participants experienced and perceived commitment and OCBs. Thus, method is confirmed as one of the possible tools used in interpretive phenomenology (Denscombe, 2010). On the other hand, in order to reach subjectivist insights of participants, it is vital for researchers to apply a certain way of analysing data in order to reach those aims. Therefore, thematic analysis is used, as it

gives an effective tool to draw interpretive conclusions about insights of participants. As will be discussed later, this tool of data analysis helps with identifying themes, grouping categories and constructing a holistic view of the characteristics of commitment and OCBs, which is the objective of interpretive phenomenology.

Fifth, the reflection points; these points highlighted my own views in relation to the studied phenomena. Thus, I identified and highlighted my own interpretations, views and perceptions of commitment and OCBs. For example, in the beginning of the first chapter I described how I decided to explore commitment and OCBs and how I agreed with Professor Swailes upon the topic and methodology. Further, I also highlighted my own definition and view of commitment and OCBs before I started analysing the data. Such points are used in the phenomenological paradigm to address possible links between data and the researcher's own views and beliefs. According to phenomenology, highlighting such reflective points would help to make explicit the views and influence of the researcher on the interpretations of the research (Finlay, 2008).

5.5 Inductive vs. Deductive Approaches

In social research there are two main reasoning approaches for conducting research and developing knowledge; the deductive and inductive approaches. These approaches view the relationship between theory and research through different logics, as each one has its own characteristics and way of dealing with data and contributes differently to the stock of knowledge. Even though the inductive and deductive approaches are separate, recently, researchers argue that these approaches are not completely separated from each other as each one could have some elements of the other; this view could be seen in the process of iterative weaving between theory and research (Bryman, 2012). Thus in this section I discuss both of these approaches, highlight what each one means and how they are different from each other in essence. I also give justifications for using the inductive approach to achieve my research aims.

5.5.1 Deductive reasoning

This approach refers to logical reasoning in the applied sciences. It is the most used logic in natural science and research. According to this approach, researchers usually aim to test a specific sort of knowledge, e.g. models, theories and frameworks. Researchers start with deducing hypotheses and empirically testing them. They collect and analyse data

according to the postulated hypotheses. This logic is built upon the idea that theories need to be tested in order to be valid. Therefore, any use of this approach has to be done through a rigorous process as follows: (1) formulating hypotheses based on a specific theory, (2) indicating measurements for measuring the research variables, (3) testing hypotheses through collecting quantitative data and statistically analysing them (4) confirming, modifying or rejecting the theory (Saunders et al., 2009). This logic starts from general premises to support conclusions based on those premises. Moreover, these conclusions usually are generalisable and predictable. The deductive approach allows researchers to focus on testing a specific theory, model or framework of the studied phenomenon. Furthermore, objectivist researchers apply this approach to investigate one reality across individuals, cultures and contexts. Therefore, deductive design does not seek alternative understanding and explanations; rather it gives a tight angle to focus on certain claims (Ketokivi and Mantere, 2010).

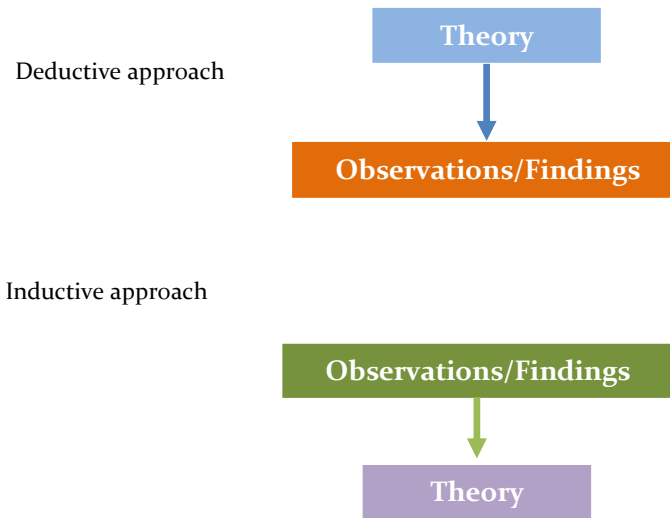
Due to its unique characteristics as an applied science tool of testing theories, the deductive approach is effectively used in the following situations: (1) to explain causal relationships among variables and show how variables are related to each other. (2) To collect quantitative data through questionnaires, experiments and surveys. (3) It is used with structured research paradigms such as positivism and related paradigms. (4) It is mainly used with objectivist qualitative research, where an external reality is claimed to exist. (5) When the research is about measuring a set of variables. (6) It is used when researchers aim to generalise findings, as they choose large samples and apply statistical tools for analysing data (Saunders et al., 2009; Cunliffe, 2011; Heit and Rotello, 2010).

5.5.2 Inductive reasoning

Contrary to the deductive approach, the inductive approach involves drawing generalized inferences out of observation (Bryman, 2012). It starts from observations and ends up with theories, i.e. insights, views or conclusions. Based on the view that the deductive approach does not permit development of alternative explanations of the studied phenomenon, the inductive approach is about understanding the differences and similarities of opinions in relation to what is happening in a certain place. Therefore, it focuses on developing alternative explanations of a certain phenomenon in a specified context (Heit and Rotello, 2010). Unlike the deductive approach, the inductive approach does not seek to test theories; rather it seeks to develop better understanding and alternative explanations. Figure 5 shows that this approach starts by exploring empirical

data and making observations regarding the studied topic and then reaching contextualised explanations or shared conclusions and insights (theories).

Figure 5: Relationships between research and theory in deductive and inductive approaches



SOURCE: BRYMAN (2012)

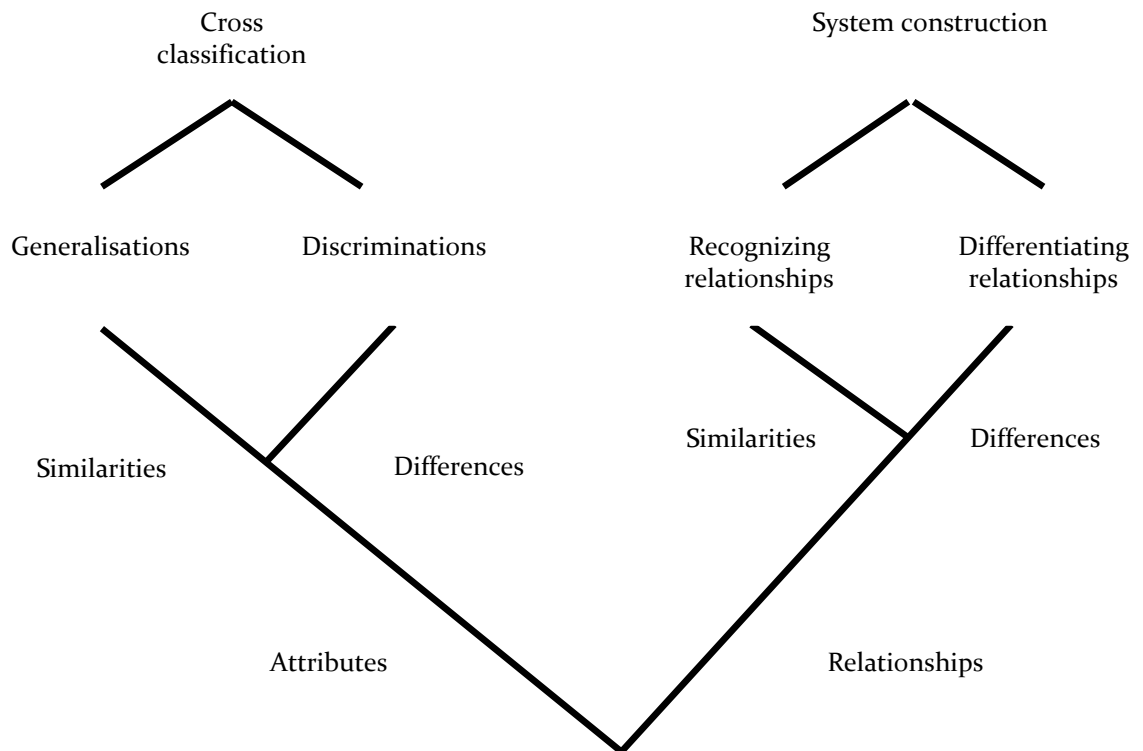
According to this approach, researchers usually proceed from the particular to generalisations using empirical data such as interviews, observations, case studies and focus groups. However, their conclusions usually include explanations/insights not supported by previous theories “premises”. Therefore, such conclusions are described as not generalisable and not predictable (Ketokivi and Mantere, 2010). Practically, the inductive approach gives more space for themes to emerge from the empirical data, which was used to describe the individual experience and construct the meaning of the phenomenon of the study. Findings do not emerge from previous premises. Rather, this approach allows new elements, topics and ideas to emerge based on the views of participants, including all of their contextual characteristics. The research findings arise directly from the raw data, not from a priori models, conceptualisations or explanations (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Thomas, 2006).

This approach is normally used in research in certain situations such as: (1) it is used to collect qualitative empirical data and make sense of them to generate brief conclusions and theories. It leads to a formulation of explicit links between the research aims and conclusions constructed out of raw empirical data. (2) It is used for developing theories, frameworks and insights out of the experiences evident in the empirical data (Thomas, 2006). (3) It is used when a lack of theories or research is highlighted. (4) It is used when researchers seek understanding of the human interpretations of actions. (5) It is used with

small sample size. (6) Focus is given to the context of the research. (7) It uses more than one method of collecting data in order to establish different views of the phenomenon (Saunders et al., 2009; Cunliffe, 2011).

Given those characteristics of the inductive approach, two strategies are applied within this approach; the first is exploring the attributes of an object, concept or phenomenon. Accordingly it focuses on highlighting landscapes/characteristics of a certain concept or object, aiming to capture certain common conclusions and draw a contextualised picture of the studied phenomenon. Therefore, it allows researchers to detect similarities and differences among attributes in order to compare and contrast. While the first strategy is about exploring what characteristics constitute the phenomenon of the study, the second is to explore and construct a network of relationships in relation to the phenomenon. Similar to the previous strategy, this strategy also focuses on highlighting similar and different relationships in order to reach a holistic picture of relationships related to the phenomenon of the study (Klauer and Phye, 2008). Figure 6 summarises these strategies.

Figure 6: Strategies of inductive reasoning

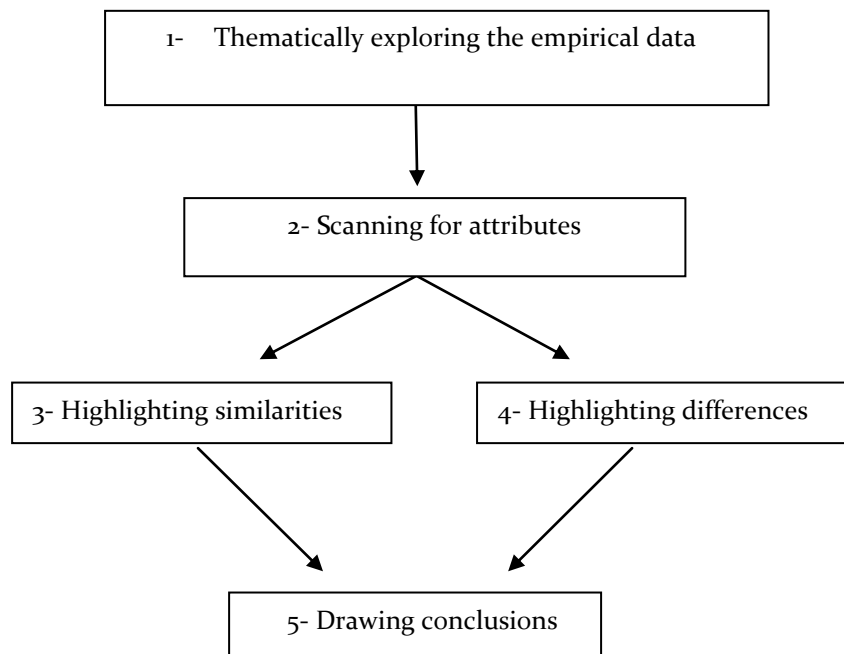


SOURCE: KLAUER AND PHYE (2008)

In relation to my research, I believe that the attribute strategy is the right and more appropriate to achieve my research aims of exploring commitment and OCBs in banking

sector in Libya, as it would help in the following ways: (1) it helps with exploring how participants perceive commitment and OCBs out of their own thoughts and beliefs, without imposing certain theories or definitions on how they should view them. (2) It helps in characterising attributes of commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector by focusing on similarities and differences of participants' views. (3) It is consistent with my research methodology, as the inductive approach is usually used with qualitative subjective research positions. (4) It helps to reach common conclusions and diversities from empirical data (from data to theory) (Klauer and Phye, 2008; Cunliffe, 2011). Therefore, in this research the inductive processes will go through the following steps:

Figure 7: Research's inductive processes



However, in order to apply this strategy the researcher and the reader should have good and specific knowledge of the context being explored. In this respect, application of this strategy could be facilitated for this research through my knowledge and awareness of the banking sector via my relationships with participants, speaking the same language and having the same social norms, values and social judgements (Klauer and Phye, 2008).

5.5.3 *Justifications for applying the inductive approach*

Before I give justifications for using the induction approach, it is worthwhile to compare the unique features of deductive and inductive approaches, which Saunders and colleagues summarised as shown in figure 8.

Figure 8: Major differences between deductive and inductive approaches to research

<i>Deduction emphasises</i>	<i>Induction emphasises</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scientific principles • Moving from theory to data • The need to explain causal relationships between variables • The collection of quantitative data • The application of controls to ensure validity of data • The operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition • A highly structured approach • Researcher independence of what is being researched • The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gaining an understanding of the meanings human attach to events • A close understanding of the research context • The collection of qualitative data • A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses • A realisation that the research is part of the research process • Less concern with the need to generalise

SOURCE: SAUNDERS ET AL., (2009)

This table indicates clearly that the deductive approach is not the appropriate approach to achieve my research aims, as it contradicts my research in different ways, most notably my aim to explore contextual alternative explanations and capture participants' insights into commitment and OCBs without imposing any theories or applies any definition for them. Thus, here I will illustrate how the inductive approach responds better to my research argument, aims and methodology. According to the figure above, inductive reasoning is appropriate and would help with; (1) enabling me to answer my research questions and achieve my aims of doing this research, as this approach helps with generating and highlighting contextual insights of commitment and OCBs without falling into the idea of accepting what commitment and OCBs mean in the traditional theories. Thus, it is used to draw theoretical conclusions from empirical data (Ketokivi and Mantere, 2010). However, what I am aiming for is to highlight the characteristics of commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector based on the argument that it is doubtful whether theories and conceptualisations of commitment and OCBs could be transferred into the Libyan banking sector without exploring how realistic they are. Thus, the inductive

approach provides an effective tool to construct insights out of the empirical data of participants.

(2) Taking into consideration my methodological positions and framework, the inductive approach is consistent with this methodology, as it fits the interpretive phenomenological research. This logic of reasoning fits perfectly with a phenomenological research design and subjectivist ontological research position, so using it supports the consistency of this research (Thomas, 2006; Ketokivi and Mantere, 2010).

(3) Due to the lack of previous research about the phenomena in the Libyan banking sector, the inductive approach is useful for generating participants' understanding of what commitment and OCBs are and how they interpret them in their cultural, social and national contexts. The lack of previous research will limit any use of deductive hypotheses, which usually emerge from well-developed literature about the research subject. Being flexible is another advantage of inductive reasoning, as conclusions depend on the capabilities and relationships of the researcher. This is to say that applying inductive logic could produce different conclusions/attributes from different researchers investigating the same topic (Klauer and Phye, 2008).

Nevertheless, this approach is criticized for being incomplete and its big challenge is how to produce credible and understandable knowledge. Ketokivi (2010) highlighted the problem of incompleteness, which is lack of ability of generalizing findings, as any set of data could produce different and multiple generalizations. However, to overcome this problem, researchers usually apply a contextualization strategy. This strategy gives solid justifications for using the inductive approach through a context-specific process. This means finding the best explanation in light of the contextual factors, which is called *particulization*. This strategy includes; giving more detailed descriptions of the empirical context and more attention is paid to the uniqueness of the context.

5.6 Research Method and Technique

5.6.1 *Snowball sampling*

Sampling was one of the challenges of this research due to resistance to research in the area (Ali, 1995), and reluctance to participate (Adler and Adler, 2003). Therefore, choosing an appropriate manner of selecting participants was crucial. This section explains what snowball sampling is, and why I chose it for my research.

Snowball sampling is a way of approaching possible participants when it is not easy to identify members of the population. It refers to asking informants to help with choosing other informants based on their judgement (Groenewald, 2004). The process of applying this strategy is to (1) start with one participant, (2) ask him/her to identify further possible participants, (3) stop when you reach saturation point or the expected number of participants (Saunders et al., 2009). Snowball sampling is one form of purposive sampling in QR. Purposive sampling means that the researcher is allowed to select research participants and the sites of the study based on their ability to offer good experiences and broad understanding of the phenomenon. It includes several types of qualitative sampling such as opportunistic sampling, stratified sampling, convenience sampling, theoretical sampling and snowball sampling (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006). While snowball sampling is helpful with different levels of sampling, i.e. site, individual, even or process (Creswell, 2007), it is also flexible, as it matches different qualitative research positions such as phenomenology and different subjectivist researches (Groenewald, 2004). On the other hand, this strategy is criticised for bias, as participants take part in selecting other participants, which could lead to selection of those who have similar thoughts and views (Saunders et al., 2009). However, to overcome this problem, I asked about the experience of each recommended participant, to guarantee that s/he met my requirement of experienced participants. Thus, I asked about their experience, tenure, position and qualifications, as I chose to interview different participants based on these points.

I used the snowball sampling technique for the following reasons; (1) it was useful in gaining trust, as each participant knew who I was, what I was doing and how data would be used. (2) It helped with reaching a cohesive group of participants, who had good relationships with each other at least at the same branch, as this avoided me having to deal with conflicting individuals or groups. (3) It was helpful in reaching saturation point quickly; the point where no more ideas come out of interviews (Groenewald, 2004). (4)

Snowball sampling enabled me to get maximum use from the experience of participants in relation to who were best participants for my research, as they participated not only by answering my research interview, but also by choosing other participants. This added to their participation in my research. The only condition was that participants must have at least little experience about commitment and OCBs, so I excluded new employees. My primary focus was on individuals, not their banks, so banks where I interviewed individuals were chosen, not because of my interest in the branch itself but because of my interest in the experiences of individuals working for that branch.

I managed to approach the first participant in each bank by personal contacts and in some cases I was referred to them by friends and relatives or colleagues. Due to the small size of cities and strong social ties among people, contacting participants was not difficult. Nevertheless, one of the disadvantages of making personal relationships when interviewing participants is that trust may be misleading, as participants may adjust their answers to please the researcher and give what they think s/he wants of them (Adler and Adler, 2003). However, this was not an important issue in my research, as trust helped me to gain access. Further, due to the nature of my interview questions, it was unlikely that I would be given misleading data, because most of the questions were about how participants experienced commitment and OCBs and how they interpreted them. Data was collected from two sources, to explore different insights of commitment and OCBs. Therefore, through applying the snowball sampling I interviewed 20 non-managerial employees and 20 managerial employees in different bank branches in two cities (Misurata and Sirte). Banks are; Al-Wahda Bank (WB), Sahara Bank (SB), National Commercial Bank (NCB), Gomhouria Bank (GB), Commerce & Development Bank (CDB) and Central Libyan Bank (CLB). While details of non-managerial and managerial employees are presented in tables 3 and 4, the distribution of participants in the two cities is presented in figures 9 and 10.

Table 3: Details of Non-Managerial Participants

No	Code	Job title	Bank	Age	City	Experience	Qualification
1-	A.11	Accountant	NCB	27	Misurata	10 years	Bachelor in Accountancy
2-	A.12	Auditor	NCB	39	Misurata	17 years	High Diploma in Finance
3-	A.13	Administrative	NCB	35	Misurata	11 years	Bachelor in Statistics
4-	A.15	Administrative	WB	33	Misurata	6 years	Master in Business Administration
5-	A.16	Cashier	WB	35	Misurata	10 years	Bachelor in business administration
6-	A.18	Cashier	CDB	40	Misurata	13 years	Bachelor in Accountancy
7-	B.36	Accountant	NCB	28	Misurata	6 years	Bachelor in Accountancy
8-	B.34	Accountant	NCB	43	Misurata	12 years	Bachelor in Accountancy
9-	B.38	Cashier	SB	46	Misurata	11 years	Intermediate Diploma in Accountancy

10-	B.41	Cashier	SB	41	Misurata	14 years	Bachelor in Economics
11-	B.40	Administrative	NCB	36	Misurata	6years	Bachelor in Accountancy
12-	C.11	Accountant	NCB	39	Sirte	17 years	High Diploma in Accountancy
13-	C.12	Auditor	NCB	43	Sirte	10 years	High Diploma in Accountancy
14-	C.13	Auditor	NCB	49	Misurata	10 years	Bachelor in Economics
15-	C.14	Accountant	NCB	51	Misurata	28 years	High School Certificate
16-	C.15	Cashier	SB	52	Misurata	21 years	Intermediate Diploma in Commerce
17-	C.16	Cashier	GB	27	Misurata	5 years	Bachelor in Accountancy
18-	C.17	Cashier	SB	28	Misurata	6 years	Bachelor in Accountancy
19-	C.18	Accountant	SB	47	Misurata	21 years	Intermediate Diploma in Commerce
20-	C.19	Cashier	GB	44	Misurata	5years	Bachelor in Accountancy

Table 4: Details of Managerial Participants

<i>No</i>	<i>Code</i>	<i>Job title</i>	<i>Bank</i>	<i>City</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Experience</i>	<i>Qualification</i>
1-	A.14	Branch Manager	NCB	Sirte	60	38 years	Certificate of Middle school
2-	A.17	Head of credit department	CDB	Misurata	28	4 years	Bachelor in Accountancy
3-	A.19	Head of auditing department	CDB	Misurata	29	5 years	Bachelor in Accountancy
4-	A.20	Branch manager	CDB	Misurata	53	12 years	Master in Accountancy
5-	A.21	1 st Deputy branch manager	NCB	Sirte	57	22 years	Master in Business Administration
6-	A.22	Head of auditing department	WB	Misurata	43	13 years	Master in Economics
7-	A.23	Head of credit department	WB	Misurata	38	7 years	Bachelor in Economics
8-	A.25	Head of administrative affairs department	GB	Misurata	51	17years	Intermediate Diploma in Commerce
9-	B.26	Head of accountancy department	NCB	Misurata	58	35 years	Intermediate Diploma in Commerce
10-	B.27	Head of accountancy department	WB	Misurata	39	15 years	Intermediate Diploma in Commerce

11-	B.28	Deputy branch manager	SB	Misurata	38	11 years	Master in Management & Organisation
12-	B.29	Branch Manager	CDB	Sirte	55	18 years	Master in Banking and Finance
13	B.30	Deputy Branch manager	NCB	Sirte	47	17 years	Bachelor in Accountancy
14	B.31	Head of administrative affairs department	CLB	Sirte	53	18 years	Bachelor in Business Administration
15-	B.32	Head of treasury department	GB	Misurata	47	26 years	Intermediate Diploma in Accountancy
16-	B.33	Head of credit department	GB	Misurata	40	11 years	Higher diploma in Accountancy
17-	B.35	Head of remittance and transfer department	NCB	Sirte	56	25 years	Certificate in Education
18-	B.37	Head of auditing department	NCB	Sirte	46	20 years	Bachelor in Business Administration
19-	B.39	Head of accountancy department	CLB	Sirte	42	14 years	High Diploma in Commerce
20-	C.10	Deputy branch manager	WB	Sirte	52	16 years	High Diploma in Computer

Figure 9: Snowball Sampling & Banks in Misurata City

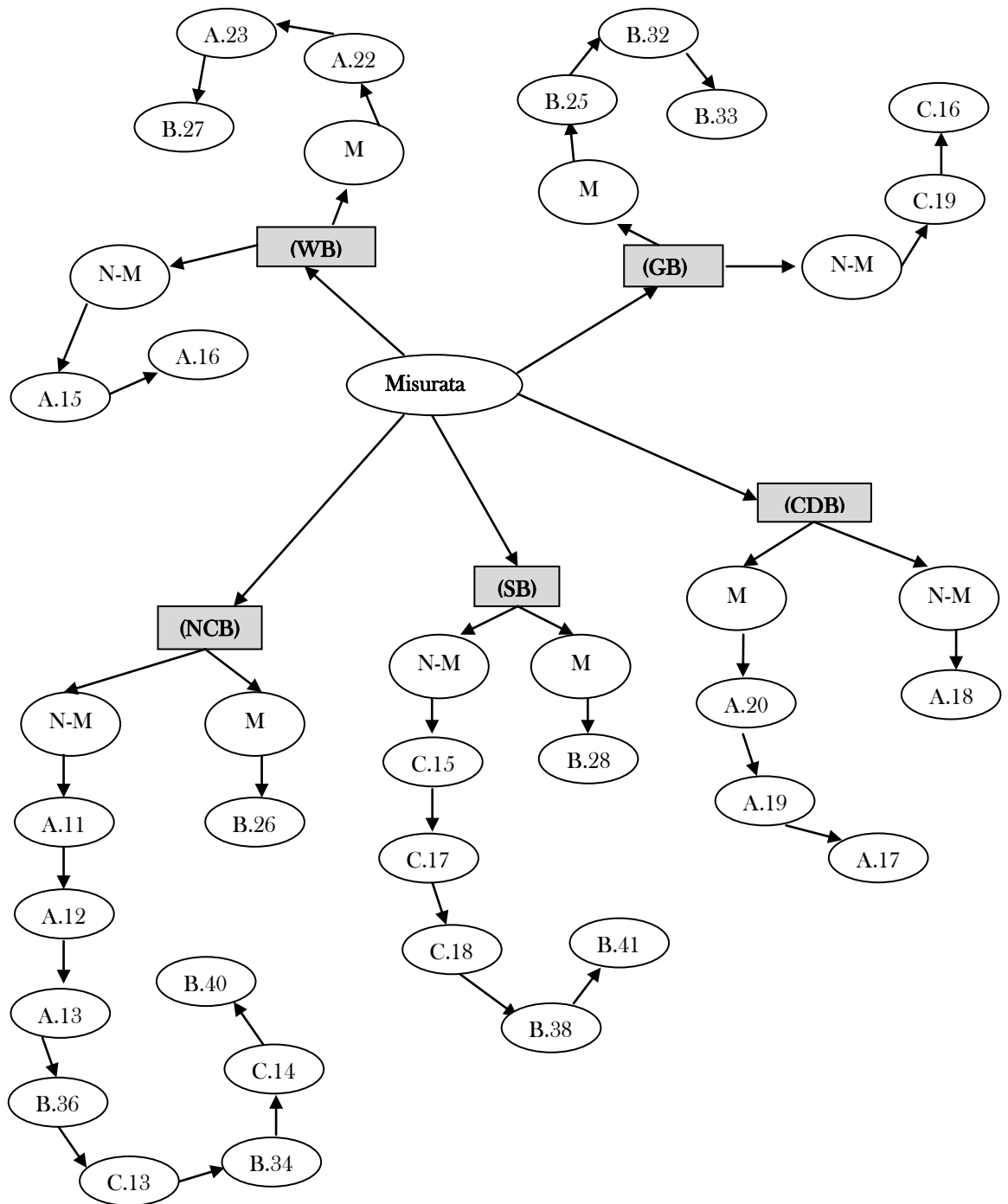
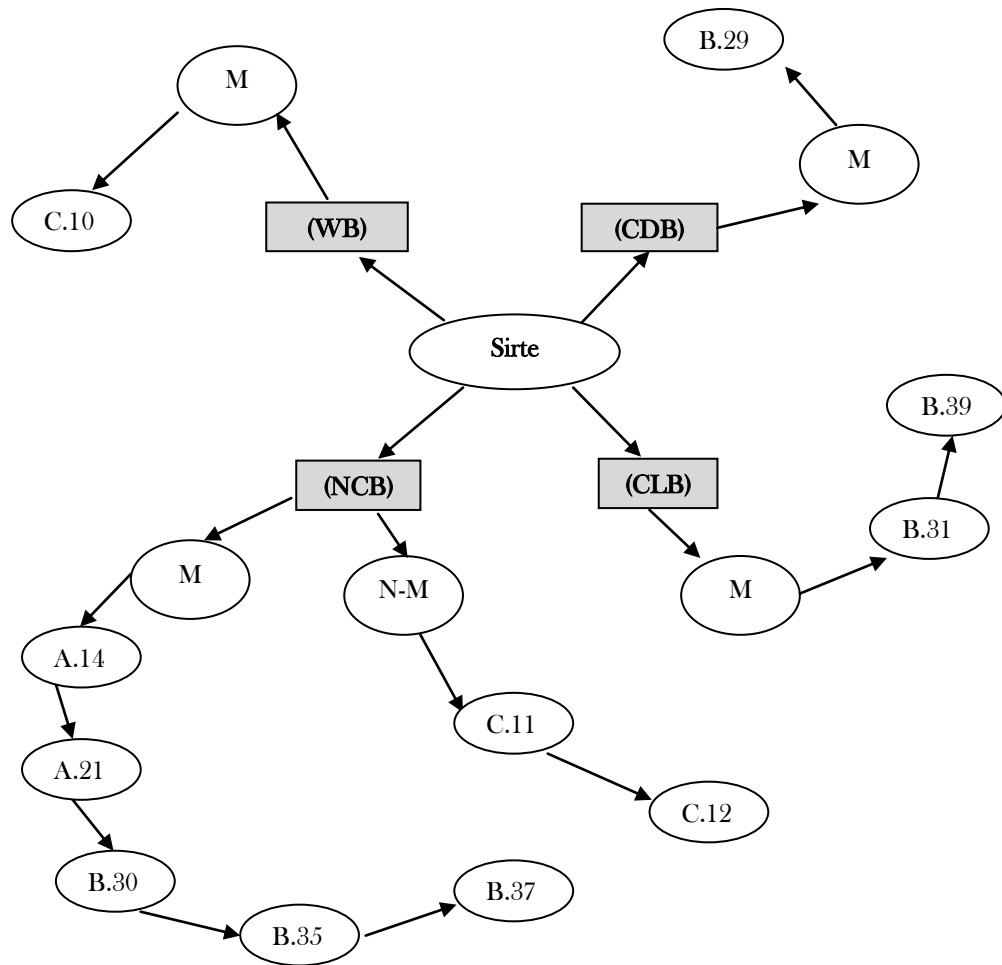


Figure 10: Snowball Sampling & Banks in Sirte City



5.6.2 *Semi-structured interviews*

QR includes various ways of collecting data, such as ethnography, interviewing, focus groups, case study, texts and documents. Among the most used is interviewing (Rubin and Rubin, 2005), which is gathering empirical data by asking people to talk about a specific phenomenon or experience they faced in their real lives. It is a way of producing knowledge, not just a way of collecting data, as interviews are seen as interactional and both parties are involved in knowledge production (Holstein and Gubrium, 2003; Groenewald, 2004). Even though structured and unstructured interviews are also used in social research, semi-structured interviews are the most used. This is because they provide deep data while simultaneously keeping on the topic. Questions can differ from one interview to another, attention is paid to context, and the order of questions also varies among interviewees (Saunders et al., 2009).

Semi-structured interviews are flexible as they can be used within different epistemological and theoretical assumptions. They are consistent with phenomenological, subjectivist and interpretivist positions (Cunliffe, 2011). Interviews in phenomenological research aim to describe the meaning of concepts that individuals share; they focus on the participant's experience and knowledge (Marshall and Rossman, 2011).

As noted above, I adopted this type of interviewing for certain reasons such as; (1) Semi-structured interviews enhance rapport between the researcher and informants (Adler and Adler, 2003), which was necessary for participants of this research. (2) Semi-structured interviews are thought to give flexible balance and freedom to the interviewees to speak up and data usually present high quality (Gillhan, 2005). (3) Semi-structured interviews help in deeply exploring different interpretations, meanings and perspectives, as they target the understanding and meanings of everyday life (Cunliffe, 2011). (4) This type of interview is also suitable for exploratory research and the positions that I have adopted (Saunders et al., 2009).

5.6.3 Field work procedures

Due to the unfamiliarity of participants with interviews, much effort had to be made before, during and after interviewing, as the way of approaching participants is important. In the presence of resistance to research and lack of trust in the intentions of academic researchers (Adler and Adler, 2003), interviewing in the context had to be managed.

As soon as the first participants agreed to participate, I made contact with them, usually by phone introducing myself, and the research topic and aims. I also explained what we were going to talk about, to make them comfortable and familiar with the topics. Based on the argument that interview locations are important (Adler and Adler, 2003), I attempted to interview them at their offices in order to give them more power. However, some of them refused, because their time was quite limited at work and they could not come in the evening, so interviews were conducted in cafes, houses or in private offices. Participants had the opportunity to choose the location of the interviews.

I started the interviewing by thanking them for their participation and expressing appreciation of their contribution to my research. This put them at ease and gave them confidence. Moreover, I assured participants that data would not be seen by any third party, no personal details were required and most importantly no confidential

information was required. Interview questions were not about the personal case of participants, but about individual experiences, descriptions, beliefs and thoughts on commitment and OCBs. Furthermore, I allowed them to ask questions before we started the interview, to increase their trust in me. All of the questions were open-ended, to give participants more scope to express themselves. Interview duration varied; some took about an hour and a half, others around 30 minutes. During the interviewing I noticed many different behaviours of participants. For example, some were shaking when they were speaking to me, so I had to reassure them or give them breaks. Others gave short terse responses. In two cases, individuals agreed to be interviewed but each time we made an appointment they made excuses, so I had to cancel their interviews. I should also highlight that in some interviews I felt no impact over the participants as they were more experienced and more knowledgeable of what was happening at their work places. However, in other interviews the participants were less interested, and I felt my impact is obvious as they accepted whatever I suggested to them. For this reason, when I completed each interview I made few comments about the interview; how I felt about it, how the participant acted, and my general thoughts about the interview.

5.6.4 Thematic Data Analysis

This section represents the procedures of data analysis. It includes steps of reducing the huge volume of data collected from the interviews. Based on thematic analysis, I started by reading and re-reading the interviews, extracting themes and coding them, structuring subcategories and categories, to help in answering research questions and bring out insights of participants in relation to the concepts of the study. I use the term “theme” to represent ideas, examples, opinions, beliefs and values of participants. Sub-categories are units of related themes, and categories are units of meanings that provide a direct answer to each research question. Below, I define thematic analysis and explain it, and how I used it in this study.

Even though research has agreed that there is no one right way of analysing data (Gibbs, 2007), thematic analysis is an efficient tool for inductively analysing qualitative data. The crux of this tool is to support arguments by highlighting evidences through collected data (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Accordingly, related basic themes are classified in meaningful groups, which are reinterpreted and classified in higher level groups, and finally all of these bigger groups gathered together to represent one single conclusion (participants’

insights in this research). Moreover, highlighting themes is the core of all qualitative data analysis techniques. Therefore, thematic analysis is used in qualitative research designs such as grounded theory, discourse analysis, content analysis and narrative analysis. The primary and most common step of these qualitative designs is the process of extracting themes from raw data such as interview transcripts (Braun and Clarke, 2006). It is a flexible tool that could be used cross different epistemological and ontological paradigms. Thus, it is vital to state clearly the research assumptions about how data has been analysed. Thematic analysis is a search for themes that emerge as being important to the description of the phenomenon under study. It starts with identification of themes and ends up with a holistic understandable set of themes and categories, which make sense to answer the research questions. Basically it is pattern recognition within the raw data (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Therefore, these patterns are used to constructing meanings out of the whole themes with direct links to the raw data. Thematic analysis is defined as “*a pattern in the information that at minimum describes and organises the possible observation and at maximum interprets aspects of the phenomenon*” (Boyatzis, 1998: p.4). By this definition, thematic analysis is used to cast an index of recurring themes and subthemes.

This technique is described as a flexible tool, as it is used in order to highlight and generate alternative explanations and conclusions of a certain phenomenon. Moreover, it uses a variety of qualitative data in an organised way that enhances understanding and facilitates interpreting observations about a certain phenomenon. Thematic analysis is used to analyse raw data that come from interviewing, ethnography, case studies and phenomenology. Inductively, thematic analysis enables researchers to reduce the huge descriptions of the experiences of phenomena under inquiry, and then capture concluded insights out of real experience of the phenomenon. In this regard, one of the advantages of applying this technique is that it offers an explicit way of drawing conclusions and explanations in relation to the studied concept. It allows for a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon, as it enables researchers to provide crucial insights to guide theories and practice. Due to its systematic way of analysis, thematic analysis is seen as a tool of facilitating communication with a broader audience, as it provides audiences with clear links between data and conclusions, as well as allowing for various opinions and views of participants to emerge. Thus, it makes the qualitative findings accessible to

audiences of different backgrounds audience, as it allows for a variety of opinions to highlight the scene (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Boyatzis, 1998).

Even though thematic analysis lacks clear and specified procedures (Bryman, 2012), in the phenomenological literature, there are some highlighted processes of using thematic analysis inductively in qualitative research. These are; (1) Familiarising oneself with data; reading, rereading and transcribing data. (2) Generating initial codes, which require an explicit code/label. The code or the label could refer to a certain theme, category or indicator. Themes could be explicitly or implicitly found in interview transcriptions when participants talk about their experiences of the phenomenon of study. Thus, themes are usually extracted inductively from the statements of informants. However, one of the core roles of coding is to draw links between the raw data and the final conclusions about the phenomenon (Boyatzis, 1998). (3) Searching for themes, which could be done through highlighting statements and sentences that provide a clear view of how the participant experienced the phenomenon. (4) Reviewing themes by defining and naming themes. This process includes displaying themes in different classifications such as categories or subthemes, with each theme or subtheme supported by quotations from the transcriptions of the experience of the phenomenon. These quotations should present the language of the participants as it is. (5) Developing categories/clusters of meanings including related themes, as the relationship among those themes should be as clear as possible. (6) Producing the report, which includes a writing of conclusions/descriptions based on themes and categories/clusters (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

Acknowledging the definition, role and process of the thematic analysis, I adopted this technique due to its effectiveness in exploring insights into commitment and OCBs and to highlight characteristics of participants' interpretations of them. This technique allowed me to explore a variety of experiences, views and stories in order to get the essence of them. It helped in inductively identify shared understanding across data without being tied to a certain theoretical framework.

Data analysis was done using the Microsoft Word Processor, to type interviews, organise them and make sub-categories and categories. There are several software programs available for qualitative data analysis, such as NVivo, Atlas and CAQDAS (Lewins et al., 2005), but methodologists warn that such programs can separate researchers from their research, reduce the researchers' thinking role and make QR more similar to quantitative

research (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006). However, I chose to use Microsoft Word because it would not separate me from the research data, I had good skills in using it, it was widely accessible, and gave me flexibility to make tables, diagrams and summaries. Furthermore, I believe that such programs are designed to help with just one step of the analysis, not all steps. They help with data management, but the researcher still has to think, interpret, link and structure data to reach the research goals.

5.6.4.1 Data reduction

This section represents the real procedures of data analysis. Includes steps of reducing the huge data those I collected from the interviews. Based on thematic analysis, I started by reading and re-reading the interviews, extracting themes and coding them, structuring subcategories and categories, to help in answering research questions and bring out insights of participants in relation to the concepts of the study. I use the term “theme” to represent ideas, examples, opinions, beliefs and values of participants. Sub-categories are units of related themes, and categories are units of meanings, as they provide a direct answer to each research question. Accordingly, I started by reading each interview individually and then reading slowly and making notes in the margins. After that, I started highlighting themes and putting them in Microsoft Word processor files. As soon as I picked up all themes of each interview I started to put them under the related subcategories. I did that by guiding questions such as; what themes are similar and can be grouped in one sub-category? What are the relationships between these themes? How I define each subcategory? What are the most expressive statements, sentences and examples that I could present as evidence?

Initially, I started coding when I collected the first three interviews by listening to them and figuring out some themes. One of the issues that faced my analysis was when to stop, in the presence of a huge volume of data about different related topics. Therefore, based on the research questions-driven analysis, when I felt that the analysis answered the research questions I stopped going further. Furthermore, word limitations and limits of research purpose were also considered.

5.6.4.2 Data management

Data management refers to preparing data for the analysis procedures. This step began with transcribing interviews, that is, writing down the talk of each participant. Transcribing was done in Arabic. I gave each interview a number with a code for the interviewee, highlighting the demographic data of each participant. In line with the literature, to ensure high quality of the transcriptions, I followed certain procedures (for example see Holstein and Gubrium, 2003; and Rubin and Rubin, 2005) including; (a) Good recording and ensuring high sound quality i.e. no noise and a clear voice. Thus, I put the recording device in front of the participants. (b) I did all transcribing myself. (c) Each transcript was divided into different parts: opinion, explanation, example, description of others, behaviour or opinion, unrelated talk. (d) To ensure full transcription I listen to recordings and read each transcript in order to make sure that I had missed nothing. (e) I also gave a few transcriptions to a reliable third party, asking them to ensure that transcriptions matched the recordings and cutting personal information from both written and recorded interviews. Another necessary step was saving different electronic and written copies of the interviews. Therefore, I made a few copies in different locations, as well as printing out one written copy of each interview.

After transcribing and saving copies of interviews, I started thinking of which interviews should I begin with and how to choose them for the analysis. Thus, I decided to divide the interviews into three sets; 13, 17, 10 interviews, based on my notes made after each interview evaluating their depth of detail, length and helpfulness. This means that the first set, I believed, was richer in data than the second, and second was richer than the third, as it is shown in table 5.

Table 5: Preparing Interview sets for Data Analysis

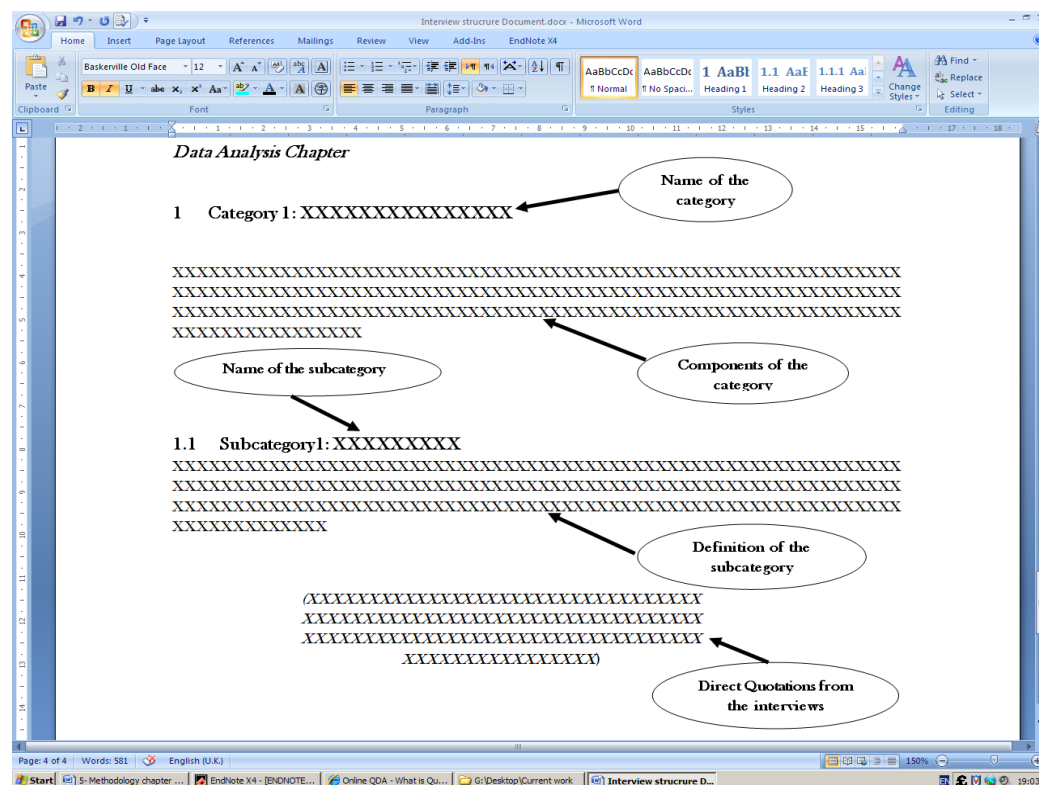
<i>Interview set</i>	<i>Participants</i>		<i>Misurata</i>	<i>Sirte</i>
First: 13 interviews	Managerial	7	5	2
	Non-managerial	6	6	0
Second: 17 interviews	Managerial	12	6	6
	Non-managerial	5	5	0
Third: 10 interviews	Managerial	1	0	1
	Non-managerial	9	7	2

5.6.4.3 Data display

Due to the importance of data analysis, in this section I shed light on how data is presented and to be read. Thus, the structure of the data analysis chapters is explained and justifications given for using the first person.

Data will be presented in two separate chapters; the first is about presenting the explored insights of commitment and the second presents the explored insights of OCBs. Each chapter includes four main categories (research questions), each has a number of subcategories. Each subcategory includes several themes. Each category and subcategory is defined and supported by direct evidences from the interviews (quotations). Based on the necessity of providing sufficient accounts of data, each sub-category has been labelled with a specific title, defined and evidence of themes was extracted from the interviews. Accordingly, the figure 11 illustrates how data will be presented.

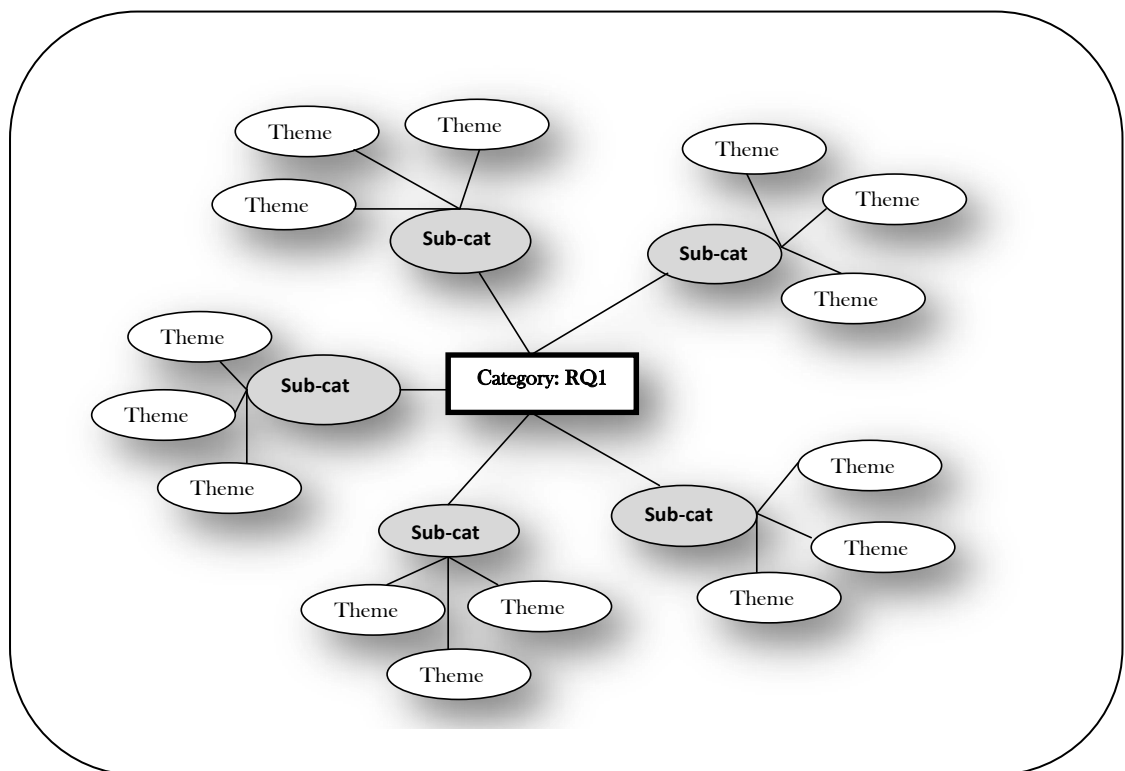
Figure 11: Illustrations of the Data Display in the Data Analysis Chapters



However, based on the suggestions of Miles & Huberman (1994) that qualitative researchers should try to present data in different styles beyond the texts styles, in the content of each data analysis chapter I included networks to summarise themes,

subcategories and categories. Thematic networks are ways of displaying qualitative data in short forms and are thought to be effective ways of summarising and showing links between basic, organised and global groups. The thematic networks are used to exclude the notion of hierarchy and emphasise interconnectivity. They are used to facilitate understanding for the reader, as they help the reader to consolidate the researcher's interpretations (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Thematic networks include a description of how these and subcategories are linked with the main category (RQ) as presented in figure 12 below.

Figure 12: Thematic Network shows how Sub-categories and Themes are Linked to one Category



SOURCE: ATTRIDE-STIRLING (2001)

5.6.4.4 Writing style

One of the issues encountered in subjectivist qualitative research is writing using the self and first person pronouns in the research. This writing style reflects the expressions of the researcher's influence over the research process, where the power and authority of the researcher is expressed. Epistemological position influences the writing style of any research. For example, subjectivist and phenomenological researchers usually use this style to express that no external reality should be described, as each individual has his/her understanding of a social phenomenon. This writing style aims to give opportunity for

participants' voices to be heard. Furthermore, it helps with seeing the researcher as an insider, not outsider (Groenewald, 2004; Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006). Furthermore, interpretivist researchers usually write in indefinite writing styles, highlighting possible meanings and unstable interpretations that may be shared between people. The researcher is seen as another knowledge interpreter, and presents subjective experience and perceptions of actions and stories of participants. Interpretivist researchers act as insiders, as they participate in creating knowledge; thus they use the first person pronoun to express their engagement in the research (Cunliffe, 2011). Based on this argument, I felt I should prepare to express myself in the research. Therefore, in many places in this study I used the first person pronoun to highlight my own options, thought and interpretations of actions.

5.7 Assessing Research Quality in Interpretative Paradigm

In this section I present some issues related to the quality of the research or, as it is commonly known in objectivist research, "*Reliability and Validity*". I believe that any piece of work should have ways of evaluating it, as evaluating works make them strong, convincing and clear. Therefore, I present here several criteria for evaluating interpretivist research, as the epistemological and ontological positions are important issues in determining how research is evaluated. Reliability, validity and generalisability are the dominant aspects of evaluating quantitative and qualitative research in the positivist paradigm; they are described as "*the holy trinity..., worshipped with respect by all true believers in science*" (Marshall and Rossman, 2011: p.39). However, the philosophical assumptions of reliability and validity, in objectivist research, are not parallel with the ontology and epistemology of the interpretivist paradigm, as these positions have their own manner of assessing the quality of qualitative research (Sandberg, 2005).

In contrast to the positivist objectivist approaches, there is no common and agreed criterion for assessing whether research is valid or invalid in the interpretivist phenomenology (Leonard, 1994). However, in the interpretivist paradigm, the applicability of reliability and validity criteria is challenged. Scholars in the interpretivist paradigm therefore suggest different ways of judging the quality of research (Scheurich, 1997; Denzin and Lincoln, 2003; Cho and Trent, 2006). These include pragmatic measures, such as "*whether they are useful, fitting, generative of further inquiry, and so forth*" (Schwandt, 1994: p.130). The recent movement in validity and reliability in QR is

based on ensuring that the research is convincing for the reader by showing that it has been conducted in rigorous and ethical ways (Marshall and Rossman, 2011). Rigour in interpretivist phenomenology is to demonstrate integrity and competence within the study (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Based on this argument, interpretivist researchers have proposed different criteria such as Yardley's (2000) criteria: (1) sensitivity to context; (2) commitment, rigour, transparency and coherence; (3) impact and importance. Furthermore, Sandberg (2005) suggested that to evaluate qualitative phenomenological studies, researchers must show three sorts of validity; (1) communicative validity, which refers to mutual understanding among participants and the researcher, (2) pragmatic validity, which refers to the process of making sure that participants' statements reflect their real behaviours, (3) transgressive validity, which refers to helping researchers to become aware of their "*taken-for-granted*" frameworks. Others propose Lincoln and Guba's (1985) criteria of trustworthiness and authenticity (Bryman and Bell, 2007); the latter criteria have been adopted for this research.

5.7.1 Research trustworthiness

Based on the notion that "*validity is the warrant of trustworthiness*" (Scheurich, 1997: p.81), interpretivist researchers highlighted a different way of judging the quality of their research. Trustworthiness refers to judging the truth of certain findings, the possibility of their being replicated in different contexts and the possibility of being replicated among the same participants. Furthermore, trustworthiness reflects to what extent the findings represent a true account of the participants', not the researcher's experience (Marshall and Rossman, 2011). It refers to how well the research processes and findings have been checked (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006). It could be achieved through focus on the personal perspective of interpreting specific phenomena, recording interviews, transcribing them, member checks and data triangulation (Groenewald, 2004).

Trustworthiness consists of four elements; (1) Credibility; which means that the research is carried out based on good practice. This could be achieved through; (a) Member checks to validate whether the researcher has captured their meanings of the phenomena under exploration, (b) triangulation; collecting data from multiple sources, (c) prolonged engagement, which means staying in the setting for a long time, (d) comparison, which refers to comparing perspectives, meanings and views of participants and between perspectives (Marshall and Rossman, 2011). (2) Transferability: this refers to the ability of

findings to be transferred to different contexts or the same context but at different times. It could be achieved through thick descriptions of the context of the participants and phenomena. (3) Dependability is an “auditing” approach, such as peer reviewing. I used this approach in data analysis only and by checking with my supervisors; also by presenting my work at conferences, as I received invaluable feedback. I also consulted colleagues and scholars. Aiming to increase dependability of this research, I saved records of the whole research process. (4) Confirmability; this refers to reducing the value interventions of the researcher, as researchers should not allow their personal values to control knowledge creation. The evidences used and themes must be traceable (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

5.7.2 *Research authenticity*

Authenticity is about the impact of the research. It refers to how qualitative research helps participants to develop their understanding, work practices and actions regarding the studied phenomena. Authenticity includes; (1) Fairness, which refers to exploring mutable views regarding specific phenomena. (2) Ontological authenticity, which refers to helping participants to enhance their awareness and understanding of the social environment. (3) Educative authenticity, which refers to improving the understanding of different perspectives regarding the phenomenon. (4) Catalytic authenticity, which refers to the acting of the researcher as a motivator for participants to take actions to improve the situation of the studied phenomenon. It is about making real impact on the real situation of participants (Cho and Trent, 2006). This criterion is seen as very different from conventional research in social science; it is about empowering and emancipating the research subjects (Scheurich, 1997). (5) Tactical authenticity refers to the overall impact of the research and empowerment that it gave participants to take further steps towards a better situation (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

In relation to generalisability, qualitative scholars argued that the intent in QR is not to highlight generalisability, but to highlight the “*particulation*” of cases and phenomena (Creswell, 2007). Criteria for assessing QR are based on the philosophical assumptions underpinning the research in a specific paradigm. In this regard, in the interpretivist paradigm, research accounts are embedded in personal experience, which affects observation and interpretations. These accounts do not draw a complete picture because they occur at one time. Thus, qualitative research findings are not replicable or even

generalisable; rather, they offer contextualised understanding of the phenomenon (Cunliffe, 2011). Therefore, the value of QR is in how it increases our understanding of a certain phenomenon or concept (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006).

In a solid critique of the way of judging the quality of research, Scheurich (1997) claimed that validity and trustworthiness are just different faces of the same notion. This notion refers to the traditional way of putting boundaries to what is acceptable or valid/trustworthy and what is unacceptable or not valid/trustworthy. He argued that the so-called validity is an important issue in conventional social science traditions, as it came from the assumption that research is value-free, objective truth. Moreover, the recent concern with validity is just a continuum of the positivist thinking, represented in a different mask. Accordingly, he argued for more engagement of the research participants in judging the quality of research, instead of forcing certain criteria on them.

5.7.3 Quality of this study

Before I start explaining how I used trustworthiness and authenticity in this research, I believe that giving some details of the reliability and consistency of qualitative data would add to the credibility of this research. First, reliability of qualitative data is seen as to finding similar places for similar themes. It is about knowing when and where to fit a code. To achieve this criterion, qualitative researchers usually use several and different interested people to participate in coding, such as participants, other researchers, or research-related audiences (Boyatzis, 1998). Furthermore, to increase the reliability of data, researchers usually look for repeated statements and expressions, as well as highlighting similarities, differences and expressive examples of the themes. Researchers also ask for data and clear links between research questions and themes (Bryman, 2012). Hence, Thomas (2006) highlighted five points that could enhance the reliability of data in qualitative research:

- 1- Read and reread by others to ensure the appropriateness and clearness of coding
- 2- Clear links between raw data and themes and categories by using the same labels from the language of participants
- 3- Highlighting similarities and differences
- 4- Verifications of data
- 5- Data analysis is guided by research aims/questions

Second, consistency refers to collecting themes that have the same essence or meaning. It also refers to consistency of judgements and developing explicit codes, as well as sticking to the raw data when developing themes and codes such as using the same words or similar words of what has been described in the interview transcriptions. Stating the researcher's own values, attitudes and emotions would help with providing transparent data analysis (Boyatzis, 1998). In this sense, consistency of qualitative data refers to the clarity of using codes. Thomas (2006) has pointed out that consistency of qualitative data could be achieved through; (1) *Independent parallel coding*, which refers to conducting coding by other independent people and then comparing their codes to the researcher's. I applied this with two PhD students, interested researchers and some participants in order to check the clarity of the codes and make sure that they represent clearly the ideas stated by the participants. I asked them to give clear codes to a variety of statements extracted from the raw data. The majority were similar to those I developed by myself and some were discussed, as more elaboration was required. (2) *Check on the clarity of categories*; this process assesses how clear and comprehensive is a group of themes; it is not about the theme itself. Rather it is about making clear and understandable the meaning of a group of themes together. Therefore, at this stage of my research each group of themes was given a label "code", definition, table of themes and sources and all of the themes were displayed in the thematic network in English. Thus, I asked two other researchers to read each category and explain what each one of them meant. They were also asked to explain why themes were grouped under that category. This process took the form of an informal discussion. (3) The last process is *member check*; it refers to testing whether the research conclusions mean what they were intended to mean by participants, so it helps with increasing the credibility of conclusions. It is about allowing more participation from the research participants to contribute to the shaping and drawing of the conclusions. I asked some participants, albeit few, to read the final conclusions drawn by me. I also asked them to comment on the whole pictures of commitment and OCBs and each component of them. It was vital for me to assess whether they felt that those conclusions represented their opinions, feelings and experiences in relation to commitment and OCBs. Most of the results met with participants' approval.

In relation to this research, trustworthiness and authenticity were considered by applying several procedures.

- (1) Consistent research process and research methodology. This means that all research components are compatible with the philosophical assumptions (Sandberg, 2005). For example, an interpretivist subjectivist research position is compatible with the qualitative phenomenological design and semi-structured interview is compatible with thematic inductive analysis. Thus, all of these aspects work for the research questions and purposes.
- (2) I provided participants with a brief description of the interview questions to increase the “*credibility of the data*”, as they would be aware of the topics and points of the discussion in the interview.
- (3) I discussed participants’ views and challenged them by asking for examples, stories and conclusions. Moreover, I concluded their views by repeating them and explaining their views in front of them, to enhance and verify my understanding of their meanings and interpretations of commitment and OCBs.
- (4) Data were collected from both managerial and non-managerial participants to provide “data triangulation”.
- (5) All interviews were recorded, transcribed and the place, time and date of interviews were documented to give “dependability”.
- (6) If something was unclear, I contacted participants to clarify issues or unconvincing meanings, for the purpose of better understanding and higher credibility of data.
- (7) Some interview transcripts were given to some participants to check whether they represented their viewpoints, i.e. had “credibility”. Even though I tried to encourage more involvement of participants to take part in reading their transcribed interview, the majority of them said that there was no need as they trusted me. Others frankly said that they did not have time and others just took them and did not return them. I felt that it would be intrusive to try to force them to read the transcripts, especially when I felt that they did not want to do so.
- (8) I consulted the literature to highlight what is different and what is similar and so establish “communicative validity”.

- (9) I believe that the findings of this study respond to all of authenticity issues. The views of policy makers and senior managers in the Libyan banking sector are the main determinants of the authenticity of this research, because they represent the beneficiaries of such study. It depends on whether they could use this study to improve situation for the banks and employees in the sector to achieve “catalytic authenticity”.
- (10) I explored the viewpoints of employees, heads of departments and heads of branches in order to provide balanced account of views ensuing “fairness”.
- (11) Participants’ social economic and managerial setting was described to facilitate judgement on whether such insights could be transferred to other contexts (transferability).

5.8 Ethical Considerations

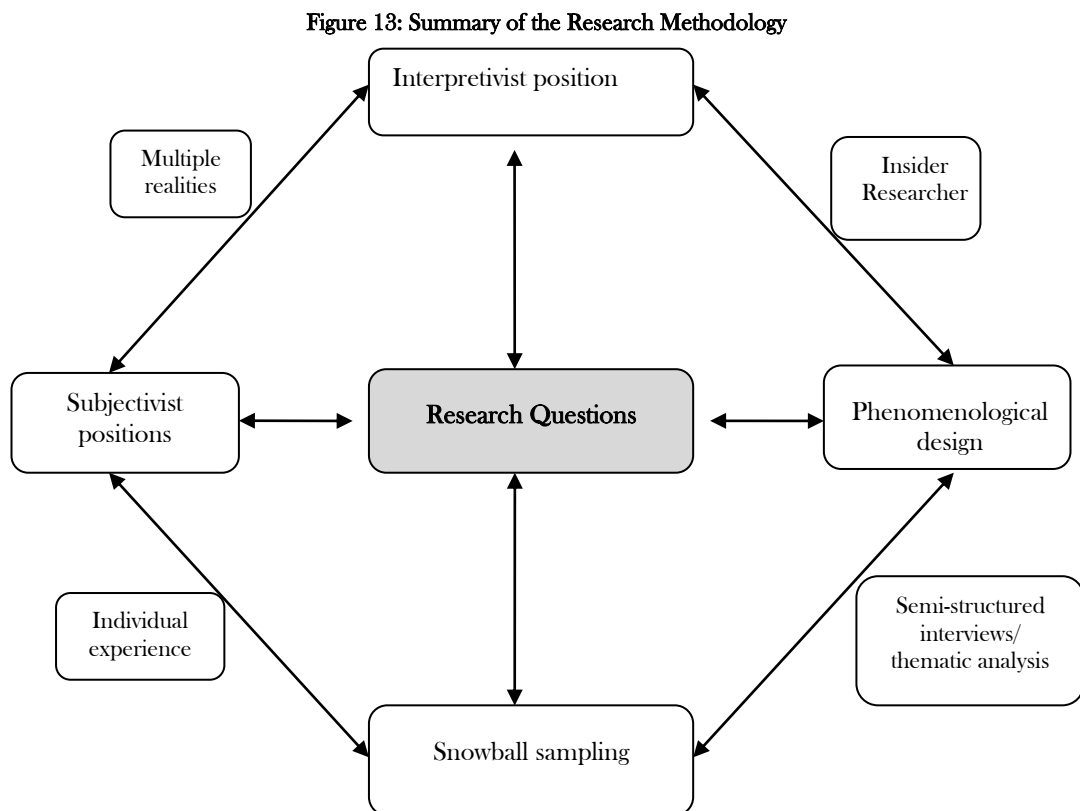
Since the research is relational, ethical considerations are important. They could be used as tools of increasing the trustworthiness of QR (Marshall and Rossman, 2011). Ethical considerations include four important principles: (1) Researchers must not bring any sort of harm to participants. (2) Researchers must protect participants from invasion of privacy. (3) Researchers must conduct their studies without any sort of deception. (4) Researchers must protect data of participants (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Accordingly, this research has been approved by the Hull University Business School and its measures and regulations for ethical research were followed.

- (1) I explained to the participants that they had the right to agree or disagree to be interviewed or to withdraw from the interview at any time.
- (2) To avoid deception, I fully explained to them what I was exploring by this research, the research purposes and what data I wanted from them. Snowball sampling was helpful in this regard.
- (3) Although participants refused to give written consent, all of them agreed to be interviewed and have their interviews recorded, as I explained how helpful this would be to my research.
- (4) Participants’ data was protected by maintaining anonymity and confidentiality of data. Thus, I changed their names in to codes and all transcripts and recordings were saved in digital files and secured by passwords.

- (5) I made sure that these interviews would not cause any harm to participants, as no confidential data or personal and work-related information was required in the interview.
- (6) Privacy of participants' information was maintained, so nobody else could recognise participants or data sources.

5.9 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to highlight how this research was conducted and why it was done in this way. Therefore, it included several aspects of the research methodology explaining the journey that this research went through. The research methodology is summarised in the figure 13 below.



Based on the research argument that individual experiences and perspectives produce different meanings and interpretations, the research methodology included specific positions and perspectives. It adopted an interpretivist subjectivist position, assuming that humans produce meaningful actions and subjectivist understandings, as individuals perceive reality through their own eyes. Therefore, subjectivity and multiple realities are

claimed. My choice of snowball sampling was also affected by the subjectivist position, as I included in the sample those who had been involved as having individual experience of commitment and OCBs, with a subjective view of both concepts. Accordingly, data was collected by interviewing individuals asking them to talk about their experiences. Thus, I designed this research to focus on exploring the individual experiences of those who have agreed to be interviewed, who were recommended by their colleagues. Lastly, the focus on the individual experience of participants did not mean that I was “outside” the research. Rather, I was involved in the research process and outcomes. Thus, my values, interests and views were expressed and highlighted.

In conclusion, I would highlight that the above choices of the research methodology were guided by two criteria; (1) the research questions and purposes, as any choice was taken based on whether it was helpful to answer the research questions and achieve the research purposes. (2) Consistency in research, as in all of my choices I strove to ensure that there are no contradictions among all of the mentioned aspects above.

CHAPTER 6: EMPIRICAL EXPLORATION & CONSTRUCTION OF INSIGHTS OF COMMITMENT

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the data analysis on the commitment of non-managerial and managerial participants. In order to get a holistic understanding of commitment, the body of this chapter is organised to reflect upon four research questions:

- (1) How managerial and non-managerial employees interpret commitment in the Libyan banking sector?
- (2) What antecedents are perceived by managerial and non-managerial participants of commitment at the work in the Libyan banking sector?
- (3) What views do managerial and non-managerial participants have regarding management attitudes towards commitment at the workplace in the Libyan banking sector?
- (4) What connections managerial and non-managerial participants are aware of between commitment and individual performance in the Libyan banking sector?

The chapter is accordingly divided into four main sections addressing each question in turn. At this stage we still do not know how participants see commitment and what insights could be obtained regarding commitment in the Libyan banking sector. Therefore, with the research questions in mind, I aim to deeply explore and understand what commitment means, how it could be created and developed in the eyes of employees and managers and how they view its relevance to their workplace. As explained in the methodology chapter, the data is presented in several steps: exploring themes, coding and categorising, interpreting, reflecting and comparing meanings of both data sources.

6.2 Reflections of my Personal Position

Before I present the data analysis regarding commitment, it would be appropriate to state my own view of what commitment means to me. I believe that such a statement may help in highlighting what I brought to the data analysis. Based on my own experience of work as a secondary school teacher, as a demonstrator and lastly as a lecturer at Misurata University, I believe that being committed means adhering

to work regulations, and maintaining and serving the broader goals of the organisation for which one works. Being committed means exerting every possible effort to do one's job perfectly. It is also about being proactive and participating in higher performance of the organisation. It is not ever just about being committed to time-keeping or a certain set of tasks. Even though I believe that this is a personal trait, I also believe that this trait could be managed at work by using both rewards and punishments. However, this view, I believe, comes from my work values, as I see work as a way of proving one's self-efficacy, being proactive and being productive and alive in life.

6.3 Interpretations of Commitment at the Workplace

This section presents the first component of the data analysis about commitment. It aims to answer the first research question, which is; *how do employees and managers interpret commitment in the Libyan banking sector?* In more detail, in this section I ask sub questions such as: what components construct the concept of commitment? Do demographic factors influence the adoption of specific components of the concept? What are the differences and similarities, if any, between of employees' and managers' interpretations of the concept?

6.3.1 Non-Managerial participants' interpretations of commitment

Commitment was seen by non-managerial interviewees as a positive and valuable element in organisations, and they believe it to be a one of the most needed attributes at work. Commitment was defined in different ways. Thus, four perspectives will be addressed to capture what commitment was seen to include. These were developed through linking similar themes together under one subcategory as follows; individual sentiments, personal attribute, positive behaviours and positive desirable values. These aspects are illustrated below.

6.3.1.1 Individual sentiments

This subcategory points to the psychological state of the employee, where being committed refers to positive and healthy feelings regarding the job and organisation in general. It refers to self-role recognition, psychologically readiness to perform the job, job loyalty, ease and satisfaction at work. An experienced employee at the NCB stated:

“Commitment is self-role recognition..... psychologically readiness to perform any job..... Good appearance” (A.13)

Stressing the role of love for the job and affiliation, an employee at the NCB bank also addressed the significance of feeling towards the job:

“A committed employee sees his job as his private interest, you find he cares and maintains it, and he loves his job And he feels that he is affiliated to it”
(B.36)

6.3.1.2 Personal attributes

Participating employees saw commitment as a personal characteristic, which represents different attributes of the employee's self. Thus, these responses point to the self-role of the employee, where being committed is linked to various personal characteristics, such as developing knowledge, improving understanding, being cooperative, well educated and civilized, ambitious and self-dependent. For instance, an administrative employee at the WB stated:

“Commitment refers to self-dependence..... Individual desire for achievement”
(A.15)

Another participant, from the NCB, mentioned different desirable attributes of the employee to represent what commitment meant to him, saying:

“A committed person is that one who is cooperative..... Well educated..... Civilized.... Commitment is developing knowledge....Improving understanding”
(C.13)

6.3.1.3 Positive individual behaviours

From this perspective, interviewees linked commitment to various constructive behaviours in the organisational setting, and relied on the practice of such behaviours to define what commitment means. The behaviours mentioned could be classified into two main groups; first, those behaviours that are positive but not highly important, such as time-keeping and good appearance, good treatment of customers, applying systems and regulations and performing job duties and responsibilities. Second are those behaviours, where employees show more care and engagement with their organisation. These are adherence to organisational goals, defending the organisation, caring about the

organisation's interests and the reputation and behaviour leading to organisation improvement. Supporting these behaviours, an employee at SB, who had worked there for 21 years said:

“Commitment has different faces, such as, commitment to the job appearance, time, and job requirement, being committed is the best way to have your rights..... Commitment is to perform and to fulfil your duties in order to get your rights”
(C.15)

Moreover, other interviewees stressed other different positive organisational behaviours. For example an employee at the NCB stated:

“Commitment is adherence to job timetable.....complying with job dressing..... Performing all job duties..... showing care for the bank's interest..... building a good picture of the bank..... representing the bank..... Excellent job performance”
(C.11)

Supporting the broad meaning of commitment, another employee maintained:

“Committed employees adhere to organisational goals, defend the organisation and care about its reputation” (B.40)

6.3.1.4 Values Related to Commitment

Adding to the above elements of what commitment may involve, and supporting the positive nature of commitment, interviewees linked commitment to different values, which they considered equivalent in meaning to commitment. Thus, commitment was thought to be related to the following values:

- (1) Honesty.
- (2) Trust.
- (3) Credibility.
- (4) Perfection.
- (5) Loyalty.

The non-managerial interviewees believed that commitment is a constructive concept, which, they linked with various values. One employee stated:

“Commitment means trust, credibility.....education, civilisation.....perfection”
(A.16)

Another employee stressed that the nature of the banking work requires certain positive characteristics. Thus, he pointed out;

“Because of the uniqueness of the banking work not anyone could be accepted to work here, because you need an honest and faithful employee to keep the secrets of our customers” (B.34)

On the other hand participants also defined commitment with reference to negative characteristics. They pointed out that commitment cannot be;

A- Uncooperative behaviours: committed employees avoid disrespect to colleagues & customers, recklessness, poor treatment of others, laziness and absenteeism.

B- Counterproductive behaviours: negligence about work routines and standards, malingering, poor time-keeping, neglect of duties and damage to possessions.

The majority of participating employees mentioned such characteristics of uncommitted people. For instance, stressing how uncommitted employees treat others, an auditor at NCB described:

“An uncommitted employee is reckless.....has a bad manner in dealing with customers and superiors” (A.12)

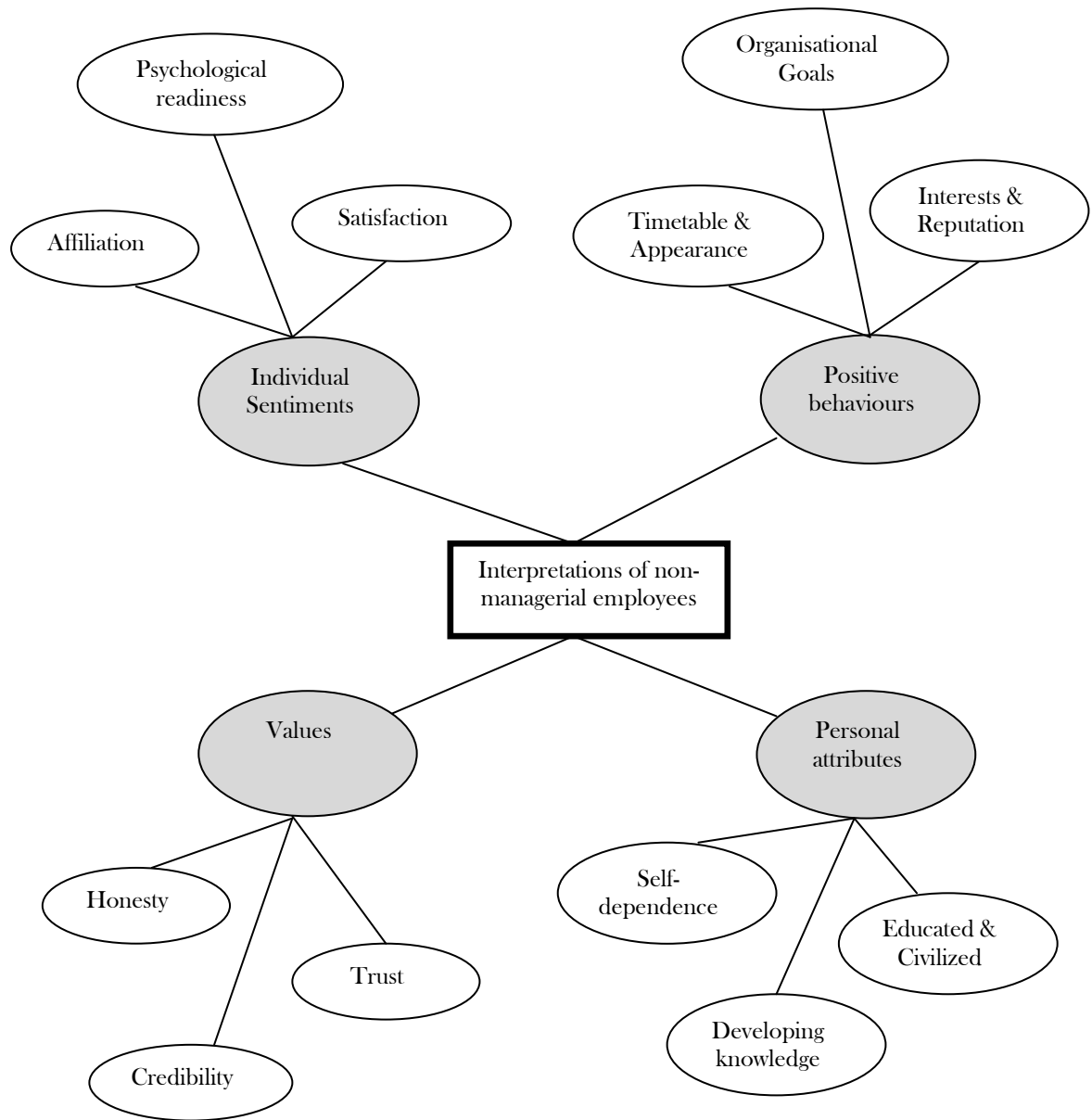
In more depth, an administrative employee at NCB in Misurata described uncommitted employees as follows:

“Uncommitted employees usually have bad expressions, they sometimes insult others and the bank. Unfortunately, they advise our customers to go to another bank to get some services. They are reckless, and they try to exploit their jobs for their personal needs, such as using the telephone for unnecessary calls, or exchanges services with others for their benefit” (B.40)

The figure 14 summarizes the main key elements of insights of non-managerial interviewees, with examples of the relevant sources (29).

²⁹ Thematic networking diagram is adopted form ATTRIDE-STIRLING (2001).

Figure 14: Thematic and Subcategories network of Interpretations of Commitment as Seen by Non-Managerial Participants



6.3.2 Non-man managerial participants' interpretations and demographic data

6.3.2.1 Length of service

Even though interviewees expressed similar components of what commitment may refer to, they made few different points, related to their work experience. Employees with 0-10 years' experience underscored all components of commitment. For instance, they saw

being committed as having positive feelings, attributes and behaviours towards jobs and organisations. Further, interviewees, with 11- 20 years' experiences focused more on sentiments and behavioural elements of commitment, i.e. various positive feelings and behaviours expected of a committed employee. Finally, interviewees with 21- 30 years' experience stressed two elements of commitment: positive behaviours and positive values towards jobs. However, they did not recognise sentiments and attributes as components of commitment.

Overall, I suggest that participants who had 0-10 years of experience had more holistic views of components of commitment by mentioning all four elements of commitment. However, across all groups commitment was seen as positive behaviours, and then individual sentiments towards work. The table 6 summarizes these components based on length of service.

Table 6: Classification of Components of Commitment Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants

Length of service	0-10 years	11-20 years	21-30 years
Interpretations of Commitment	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours
	Positive values	////////////////////	Positive values
	Individual sentiments	Individual sentiments	////////////////////
	Personal attributes	////////////////////	////////////////////

6.3.2.2 Educational attainment

Interviewees with postgraduate education paid attention to personal attributes of individuals. They interpreted commitment from an individual perspective, where commitment refers to ability to achieve goals and self-dependence. Secondly, graduates saw commitment more widely adding positive behaviours to the personal attributes. They focused more practically on how commitment is expressed in daily behaviour and stressed positive values related to commitment. Thirdly, interviewees with undergraduate levels of education pointed to positive behaviours and personal attributes, i.e. what committed employees do at their workplace and what are their attributes. Overall, interviewees had slight differences in their views of commitment. Thus, personal attributes and positive behaviours components of commitment were common across all educational backgrounds of participants. However, those interviewees with high qualifications interpreted commitment from an individual perspective, undergraduates

took a more behavioural perspective, seeing commitment as a variety of positive behaviours and attributes in workplace, while graduates gave mixed components of commitment. Therefore, the table 7 illustrates these components based on educational attainments of employees.

Table 7: Classification of Components of Commitment Based on Educational Attainment of Non-Managerial Participants

Educational attainment	Postgraduate	Graduate	Undergraduate
Interpretations of Commitment	////////////////////	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours
	////////////////////	Positive values	////////////////////
	////////////////////	Individual sentiments	////////////////////
	Personal attributes	Personal attributes	Personal attributes

6.3.2.3 Age

This section considers four age-groups, to see whether there is any difference in their views of components of commitment. First, interviewees aged between 20 and 30 years indicated that commitment refers to individual sentiments and positive behaviours towards jobs and organisations. They saw commitment via the daily practice of their job duties. Second, interviewees aged between 31 and 40 interpreted commitment from a broader angle, encompassing various elements, such as positive feelings towards organisations, positive behaviour, personal attributes and positive values. Third, interviewees aged between 41 and 50 linked the individual perspective of commitment with positive behaviours and values, as no role for feeling was mentioned. The last group was those interviewees who aged between 51 and 60. Those interviewees saw commitment in terms of individuals' positive behaviours towards their organisations, without mentioning other elements of commitment. Overall, Positive behaviours component was the most common across all ages and middle ages gave more holistic views of components of commitment than both young and aged participants. Thus, I suggest that as employees get older they focus less on positive feelings towards jobs and organisations. This element was absent from the responses the last two groups. However, the positive behaviour element of commitment was captured in all age groups, as shown in table 8.

Table 8: Classification of Components of Commitment Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participants

Age	20-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years
Interpretations of Commitment	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours
	////////////////	Positive values	Positive values	////////////////
	Individual sentiments	Individual sentiments	////////////////	////////////////
	////////////////	Personal attributes	Personal attributes	////////////////

6.3.3 Discussion

Non-managerial participants saw commitment as a constructive and multi-faceted construct, which they defined in relation to the experienced behaviours. Thus, they highlighted the positive nature of commitment through linking it to positive values such as Honesty, Credibility, and Loyalty. This means that commitment is seen as a moral concept and a desirable attitude at the workplace. Employees who have this sort of attitude are usually seen as self-dependent, educated and civilized “*Personal attribute*”. Thus, participants believed that commitment is a personal characteristic, perceived as constructive for the organisation. Attributes such as showing good treatment of others and being civilized and cooperative refer to an ethical aspect of commitment, as being committed means to consider and engage in what participants believe is good “*ethics*”. Another part of commitment is the feeling and emotions that committed employees have towards their jobs and their organisations “*Individual sentiments*”. They believed that being committed means to have feelings towards the workplace, such as being satisfied and feeling affiliated to the organisation as well as psychological readiness to perform the job. On the other hand, the last element of what commitment means, is the observed practices among employees who are considered as committed. Participants defined commitment through individual practices such as punctuality and care about the organisation’s interest and goals. Such behaviours refer to the organisational implications of commitment. Based on this argument two main perspectives of commitment could be suggested; broad attitudinal definition including values, personal attributes and sentiments, and narrow behavioural definition including different practised behaviours at work. On the other hand, two dimensions also could be highlighted; an emotional aspect “*sentiments*” and moral aspect “*values and attributes*”. However, when attention was paid to the demographic characteristics of participants, interpreting commitment as positive behaviours was the most common component across all characteristics, while individual

sentiments and personal attributes came second. Furthermore, participants with less length of service and those with middle ages have more holistic views of components of commitment, while aged participants perceived no role of individual sentiments of commitment. The last point is that participants who had high educational backgrounds saw commitment as more related to individuals themselves, while those with undergraduate levels perceived commitment as practiced behaviours at work. This would suggest that different lengths of service, educational attainments and ages might influence the ways participants perceive and interpret commitment at the workplace in the Libyan banking sector.

6.3.4 *Managerial participants' interpretations of commitment*

To understand holistically what commitment might refer to in Libyan organisations, data was collected from managerial interviewees. More than one source of data will help to capture more insights of commitment. Thus, under this heading I identify four main elements of commitment.

6.3.4.1 *Positive values*

According to participants, commitment is an attribute that represents positive elements of the organisational setting. Thus, commitment was equated with various values, such as honesty, reliability, perfection, loyalty and feelings about the importance of one's role. Supporting this viewpoint, the head of the auditing department at WB saw commitment as follows:

*"Commitment reflects loyalty to the organisation, department and manager....
commitment equals perfection and sense of role" (A.22)*

Similarly, a director of a bank branch at CDB in Misurata maintained:

*"Commitment is to complete the job perfectly.....commitment equals perfection,
honesty and reliability" (A.20)*

6.3.4.2 *Relative personal attributes*

This group of themes points to commitment as personal and relative characteristics, which differ among staff. Thus, commitment varies from one employee to another. Participants mentioned a variety of personal characteristics to describe committed employees, for example, tolerance, understanding of one's job, good treatment of all parties, productivity and hard working. Moreover, they addressed the individual's perception of his job and his position, for example, if the employee sees his job and organisation as being good to him he will be highly committed and vice versa. Therefore, commitment could be high, medium or low with different employees. For instance, the deputy branch manager at NCB in Sirte exemplified commitment in terms of job performance:

"Committed employees tolerate criticism and fix their mistakes at work; they never repeat the same mistakes..... And they understand all aspects of their jobs" (B.30)

In addition, managers also pointed out the role of individual's expectations of themselves and their jobs. Thus, commitment depends on the individual perception of what has been promised. For example, the director of the accountancy department at NCB in Misurata stated:

“The employee who comes and leaves at the allocated time is not a committed employee. A committed employee should be productive and hard working. Also an employee who is dissatisfied with his administration and who sees himself as deceived or who has been treated unfairly, usually is not committed; he does not produce” (B.26)

6.3.4.3 Social Interaction

This subcategory reflects moral and social aspects of commitment. Thus, managers in the study described committed employees as those who consider ethical issues and apply what has been agreed to be ethical in the organisation. Therefore, good treatment of others is seen as part of being committed. Various themes are captured here, such as cheerfulness, ethics, being committed ethically and behaviourally and assisting colleagues. In a broader sense, this subcategory refers to what is considered as moral and ethical by social actors such friends, families and neighbours. So, commitment is to do what is considered as ethical, not only in the organisation, but in society in general. Supporting this view of commitment, a deputy branch manager at NCB in Sirte stated:

“A committed employee is one who, first of all, is committed morally, and he has a respectful manner toward customers and colleagues.....if the employee has a good level of ethics and morality, we can make a good employee out of him” (B.30)

Moreover, raising the role of ethics at the societal level, a branch manager at CDB in Misurata agreed that:

“An employee who is committed to his family, friends and neighbours usually is a committed employee at his work” (A.20)

6.3.4.4 Positive individual behaviours

This set refers to group of activities related to job and organisation that are considered as constructive to the organisational environment. Managers mentioned various organisation-related activities such as mastering jobs, completing job duties, development at work, fulfilling job obligations, working for the interest of the organisation, portraying a good

image of the organisation and caring about possessions. Although such behaviours are deemed as constructive to the organisation, I decided to make subcategories of them in order to highlight themes appearing for the first time, namely, customer treatment, obedience and compliance with regulations. Nevertheless, various individual behaviours are linked with commitment. For example, the credit department manager at WB reported:

“Adherence to the job timetable and implementation of job duties, adherence to formal dress and organisation in work, performing duties at the specified time”
(A.23)

Furthermore, the personnel affairs manager at LCB stated:

“Commitment is to allocate time for performing your job duties, dedication in your job, adherence to the timetable, applying work regulations and being honest and faithful to your job procedures. Commitment could show in your behaviours, expression and way of talking with colleagues and managers” (B.31)

1) Customer treatment

Although the above behaviours are organisationally constructive, this subcategory points to positive individual behaviours of employees toward customers. Managers stressed customer treatment as an element of commitment, asserting that being committed means respecting customers and providing high quality service. Such behaviour could include maintaining a calm tone, never neglecting customers' needs and serving them as soon as possible. For instance, the personnel affairs manager at GB in Misurata expressed:

“Commitment is to adopt a respectful manner when handling customers. We give points in the annual report for being respectful to our customers..... So you are obligated to commit to ethics and treat customers within the limitations of your work and in a moral way” (B.25)

Additionally, the branch manager at CDB in Sirte added:

“Commitment has many aspects; a moral aspect by considering the work times, a customer aspect by good treatment, an appearance aspect by looking good and an honesty aspect by being trusted at your work” (B.29)

2) Obedience

The second highlighted element of individual behaviours toward the organisation is employee obedience. Participating managers believed that obedience is strongly indicative of commitment. It means complying fully with requests from directors in the organisation. Various themes were mentioned to support this aspect of commitment, for example, implementing managerial decisions, obeying superiors and doing what the director asks. Sustaining this argument, the manager of the auditing department at CDB in Misurata agreed, asserting:

“Commitment is to implement managerial decisions and administrative circulars”
(A.19)

Similarly, another departmental manager at GB in Misurata said:

“Commitment is to do what the administration has asked the employee to do and to participate in the outcomes of the work” (B.33)

3) Comply with laws & regulations

The third subcategory refers to the legal aspect of what commitment means. Managerial interviewees pointed out that commitment is applying and enforcing work laws and regulations, reflecting a narrow perspective of commitment. In this regard, a deputy branch manager at SB in Misurata raised these issues, but also noted the difficulty of enforcing such rules:

“Commitment exists in form of laws and regulations, and there are many legal items to guarantee a certain level of commitment, but when we come to implementing them to maintain high levels of commitment, employees will start saying that you are destroying their lives and you as a manager will lose your social relationships with them” (B.28)

Alternatively, commitment was defined also by looking at the characteristics of uncommitted employees. Managerial participants described uncommitted employees, in terms of various negative behaviours and unfavourable personal characteristics, which contrasting with their descriptions of the favourable characteristics of committed employees, as follows:

Negative behaviours: these are unconstructive behaviours practised by uncommitted employees, for example, they mentioned; absenteeism, poor treatment of managers and customers, erratic work, uncompleted work and lack of concern for the organisation's interest. For example, a manager at CDB in Misurata commented:

“An uncommitted employee does not care about presence and absence.....does not care about decisions of managers..... does not listen to advice or instructions offered by managers or colleagues..... He does not also care about customers”
(A.19)

Similarly, the manager of the treasury department at GB described uncommitted employees as follows:

“Uncommitted employees always try to deceive in their attendance and leave, they are negative, every day they come late to work, and they never perform what is required of them properly” (B.32)

Undesirable personal attributes: this cluster of characteristics refers to different personal attributes, which are considered by the interviewees as unhelpful. Participants believed that uncommitted employees have some personal characteristics that distinguish them from others, for instance, being unconcern to improve their skills, chaotic and reckless. A good example of this perspective is the head of the auditing department at WB in Misurata, who stated:

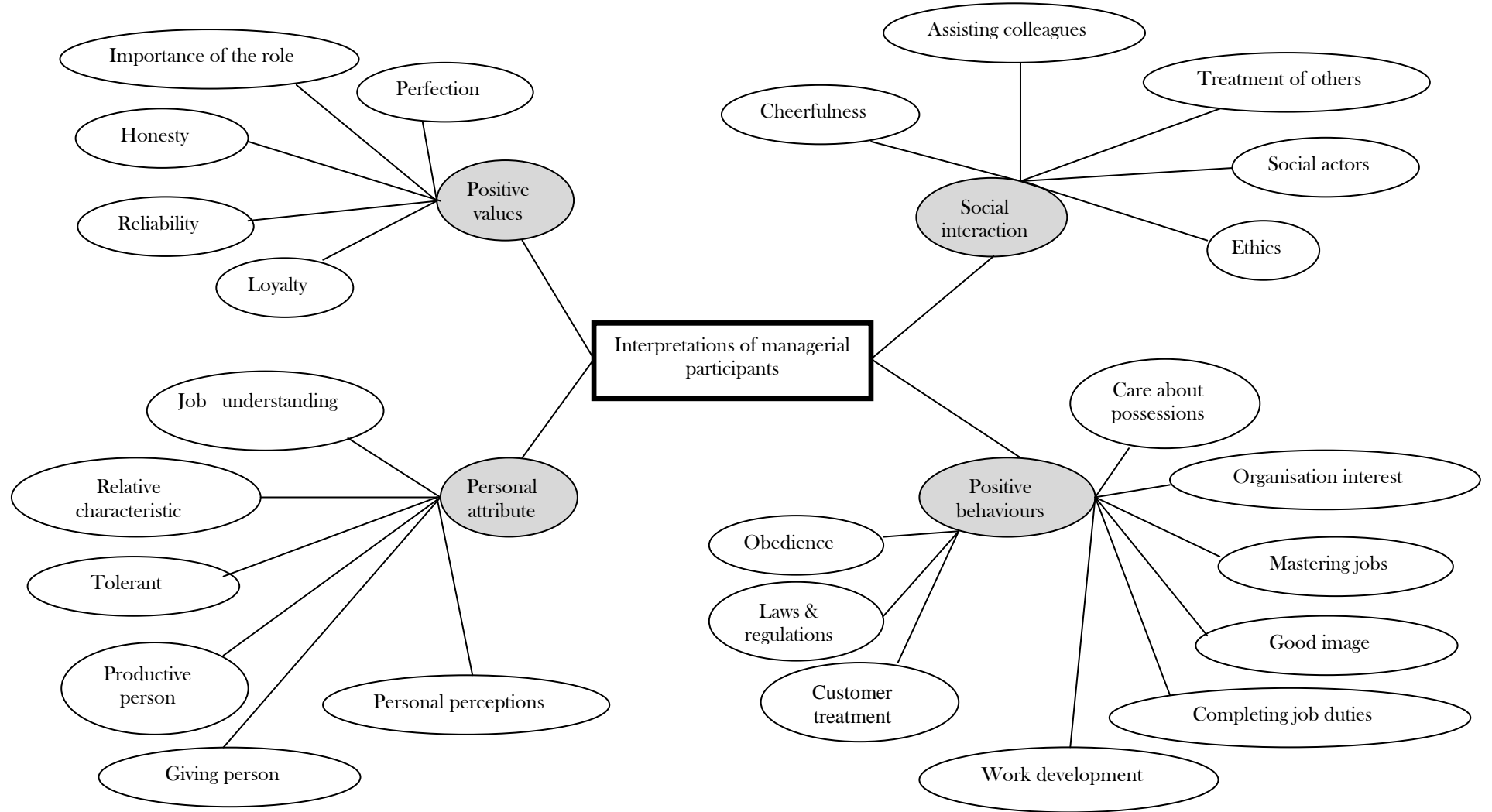
“The uncommitted employee is one who does not develop, loses his/her loyalty, does not have loyalty, is indifferent, careless and performs their duties only” (A.22)

Similarly, a deputy branch manager at SB maintained:

“They usually go out of their jobs, they have no feeling of loyalty and affiliation to the organisation” (B.28)

To sum up, the figure 15 summarises the above themes and subcategories.

Figure 15: Thematic and Subcategories network of Interpretations of Commitment by Managerial Participants



6.3.5 Managerial participants' interpretations and demographic data

6.3.5.1 Length of service

Although managers had different lengths of service at work, they had similar and holistic views of commitment. The four groups (0-10, 11-20, 21-30 and 30≤ years), pointed out similar elements of commitment, including all the elements reported above. Different lengths of service did not show any influential differences among those groups, as seen in the table 9.

Table 9: Classification of Components of Commitment Based on Length of Service of Managerial Participants

Length of service	0-10	11-20	21-30	30 ≤
Interpretations of Commitment	Social interaction	Social interaction	Social interaction	Social interaction
	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours
	Positive values	Positive values	////////////////////	Positive values
	Personal relative attribute	Personal relative attribute	////////////////////	////////////////////

6.3.5.2 Educational attainment

Across all educational attainments, there were no differences among the three groups of educational attainment as the table 10 shows.

Table 10: Classification of Components of Commitment Based on Educational Attainment of Managerial Participants

Educational attainment	Postgraduate	Graduate	Undergraduate
Interpretations of Commitment	Social interaction	Social interaction	Social interaction
	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours
	Positive values	Positive values	Positive values
	Personal relative attribute	Personal relative attribute	Personal relative attribute

6.3.5.3 Age

Although all elements of commitment were addressed by managers, some groups omitted certain elements of commitment. Most notably, the 31-40 years group saw commitment as having two components: a personal relative attribute and positive behaviours. Whereas other age groups nearly stressed the same elements of commitment, managers aged 51-60 gave the most holistic view of commitment, capturing all components of commitment.

Overall, I think it is sensible to say that the older managers are, the more holistic their view of what commitment is.

Table 11: Classifications of Components of Commitment Based on Age of Managerial Participants

Age	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
Interpretations of Commitment	Social interaction	////////////////	Social interaction	Social interaction
	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours
	Positive values	////////////////	Positive values	Positive values
	////////////////	Personal relative attribute	Personal relative attribute	Personal relative attribute

6.3.5.4 Position

Based on their positions, managers were divided into two main groups: mid-level managers, i.e. those who supervise managers, and lower-level managers, who supervise non-managerial employees. Overall, their positions in their organisations did not explain any differences in interpreting commitment.

Table 12: Classifications of Components of Commitment Based on Position of Managerial Participants

Position	Mid-level managers	Lower-level managers
Interpretations of Commitment	Social interaction	Social interaction
	Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours
	Positive values	Positive values
	Personal relative attribute	Personal relative attribute

6.3.6 Discussion

This discussion demonstrates themes and subcategories of commitment as defined by the managerial participants. It shows that they saw commitment as multi-faceted, consisting of four main elements. Firstly commitment is considered as a moral concept linked to positive values, such as honesty, reliability and sense of role importance. The second element of what commitment means is its personal dimension. In this sense, participants viewed commitment as a personal relative attribute differing from person to person according to many organisational and non-organisational variables. These attributes are desirable because they represent an ethical aspect, as employees consider them wanted and desirable at the workplace. Thirdly, commitment implies forming and maintaining good relationships with others and socializing with them, in line with ethical standards. Thus, it reflects the role of ethics and morality in defining commitment.

On the other hand, commitment involves individuals' behaviours toward their organisation. Interviewees thought that commitment was reflected in workplace behaviours that are beneficial to organisational performance. They include mastering and finishing job requirements, caring about the organisation and assisting in building a good picture of it. Interviewees also highlighted behaviours such as treating customers in an effective and respectful way, being obedient to superiors and managers, compliance with laws and regulations.

In summary, managerial participants defined commitment based on several beliefs and thoughts. Some of them considered commitment as personal attribute, so they paid attention to multiple constructive characteristics of individuals and their conformity to norms of ethics and morality as well as being loyal, honest and reliable "moral aspect". In this sense, commitment is seen from an attitudinal perspective to include individual and groups of related values. On the other hand, managers who saw commitment through the behavioural perspective described commitment as positive individual behaviours towards customers, managers and the organisation in general. Accordingly, commitment had narrow range of definition, as participants interpret its meaning to include various positive behaviours at work.

6.3.7 Comparison of interpretations of commitment by non-managerial and managerial participants

In this section similarities and differences between the two groups, managerial and non-managerial employees, will be explored. The table below shows how participants interpreted commitment at the workplace. Based on their thoughts and beliefs they identified several aspects of what commitment might refer to. Therefore, similarities emerged to representing their common interpretations, as shown in table 13.

Table 13: Components of Commitment by Managerial and Non-Managerial Interviewees

Non-managerial	Managerial interviewees	Similarities	Differences
Individual sentiments	///////////////////////////////// ////////////////////////////////	///////////////////////////////// ////////////////////////////////	Commitment is: Feelings & emotions towards work
Personal attribute	Personal relative attribute	Commitment is: personal attribute	///////////////////////////////// ////////////////////////////////
Constructive concept	Constructive concept	Commitment is: Positive nature of commitment	///////////////////////////////// ////////////////////////////////
///////////////////////////////// ////////////////////////////////	Social interaction	///////////////////////////////// ////////////////////////////////	Commitment is: considering society and others
Positive behaviours	Positive behaviours:	Positive individual behaviours	Commitment is: respecting customers/ Commitment is: obeying superiors Commitment is: applying laws & regulations
////////////////////////////////	-Customer treatment	////////////////////////////////	
////////////////////////////////	-Obedience	////////////////////////////////	
////////////////////////////////	-Laws and regulations	////////////////////////////////	

6.3.7.1 Discussion

Managerial and non-managerial interviewees agreed in viewing commitment as a personal attribute, a constructive in nature, and reflected in individual positive behaviours toward the organisation. The first agreed element of commitment is that it is a personal characteristic, which stems from the self, and varies among people, so some people could be highly committed and others not. Based on this argument, commitment is seen as entirely dependent on individual characteristics and perceptions of jobs and organisations. Secondly, interviewees stressed the constructive and desirable nature of commitment at the workplace. They linked commitment to various values, which are believed to improve and develop both the individual and organisational environment. Finally, interviewees defined commitment through individuals' behaviour towards the organisation. They pointed out that commitment means mastering job duties, job dedication and complete care about the organisation. Therefore, the definition of commitment relies on the

distinction between the individual behaviours of committed and uncommitted employees at the workplace.

Even though participants came from the same context and, in some cases, from the same banks, they had different interpretations of what commitment might refer to. These differences appeared in five key elements: One, raised by non-managerial participants, was individual sentiments. Participants thought commitment means having positive feeling and emotions towards the job and organisation. By contrast, managerial participants did not explicitly mention this aspect of commitment. However, they addressed other elements of commitment. First, they pointed out the ethical element of commitment; they believed conformity with ethical and moral standards held by colleagues and superiors represents part of commitment. Second, managerial interviewees maintained that treating customers with respect and serving them effectively is part of their interpretations of commitment at the workplace. A third is being obedient to managers and heads of section. Thus, obeying superiors represents another element of their definition of commitment. Fourth, is applying work laws and organisational regulations. The following diagram shows interpretations about workplace commitment in the Libyan banking sector, highlighting interpretations of commitment by managerial and non-managerial interviewees.

6.4 Perceptions of Antecedents of Commitment in the Libyan Banking Sector

This section covers participants' perceptions of the antecedents of commitment, that is, what causes are thought to create and develop commitment at the workplace. It aims to answer the second research question; *what do employees and managers perceive to be the antecedents of commitment at work in the Libyan banking sector?* In more depth, I am asking more detailed questions, such as what makes committed employees at the workplace? What elements are thought to develop levels of commitment at the workplace? Is there any role for demographic data to cause specific groups of antecedents? How are employees and managers different or similar in perceiving antecedents of commitment?

6.4.1 Non-managerial participants' perceptions of antecedents of commitment

6.4.1.1 Personal antecedents of commitment

Supporting the interpretations of commitment as a personal attribute, this cluster of responses refers to the personal characteristics of individuals that create and foster

employee commitment. Participants identified several personal attributes, which they thought influence levels of commitment in the organisation, including individual's personality and education. For example a cashier employed at SB in Misurata thought the relevant qualities were derived from background and experience. He explained:

“People will act according to what they used to do when they were young. Some people are used to being organised or used to completing their tasks on time. It is the nature of the individual. It is my habit when I come every morning to open the doors and close them at the end of the day” (B.41)

Another cashier at NCB addressed the role of individual perception of the actions of others, and suggested that if the employee perceived such actions in positive way s/he might be more committed and the vice versa. He stated

“Sometimes there are some psychological stressors on committed employees, because of favouritism from the administration, where some employees are allowed to be late or when they are given permission to have more days off than others. Sometimes not all staff will have such these opportunities or they do not to get such offers, because of their job nature or whatever” (B.38)

6.4.1.2 Socio-cultural antecedents of commitment

Another set of antecedents of commitment, as seen by non-managerial interviewees, is those social variables, which come from the surrounding environment of individuals. This means commitment does not just come from the personalities of individuals. It could also be affected by other groups around them. For instance participants commented on the role of family and culture in influencing levels of commitment in the workplace. Variables such as culture, social ethics and family upbringing, were thought to be fundamental pillars to create committed employees. Presenting this argument an accountant at NCB in Misurata expressed:

“Commitment is an outcome of culture and family.....commitment also presents an ethical side” (A.11)

Similarly, other participants backed this argument by identifying the role of family education and upbringing in determining individuals' future behaviour at work. As an accountant at NCB in Misurata articulated:

“Organisational commitment starts from childhood and upbringing at home. If the employee has high levels of commitment and respect when he was young, this will go with him when he starts his job” (B.34)

Surprisingly, an accountant at CDB in Misurata thought marital status influence commitment. He believed that married people have a greater sense of responsibility, so a married person is expected to be more committed at the workplace. Therefore, being married could be one of the social roots of commitment as he addressed:

“A married person could be more committed than a bachelor because he has the sense of being responsible” (A.18)

6.4.1.3 Organisational antecedents of commitment

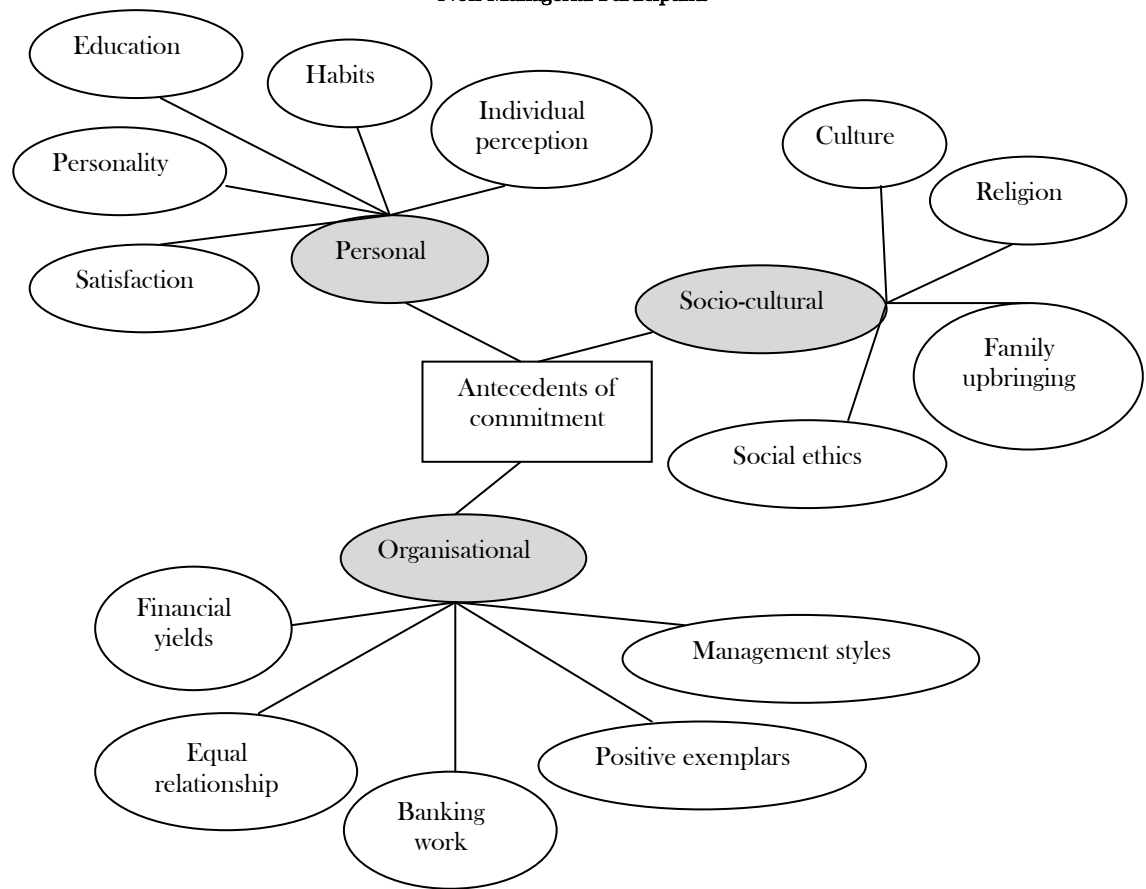
This group of antecedents of commitment concerns factors in the organisation thought to have an effect on commitment. Participants believed that commitment could be caused and developed by many different organisational variables such as expected financial yields, nature of the banking work, efficient management styles and treatment of employees. For example, an administrative employee at WB commented on practices at work by stating:

“Reduced levels of commitment could result from ambiguity of organisational objectives. Information withholding.....lack of clarity of vision..... Unclear organisational career.....secret performance appraisal” (A.15)

Shedding light on the role of mutual relationships between employees and their employer, participants asserted that commitment is created through the treatment received from organisations, jobs and other organisational parties. For instance, an employee who had worked at SB in Misurata for 21 years expressed:

“Indeed as your organisation gives and respects you, you should not be stingy with it. This means as your organisation treats you, you should treat it in a mutual relationship. So your position, job and organisation could develop commitment or not” (C.18)

However, the figure 16 summarises the non-managerial participants' views of what constitutes commitment at the workplace.

Figure 16: Thematic network of themes and Subcategories of Perceptions of Antecedents of Commitment as Seen by Non-Managerial Participants

6.4.2 *Non-managerial participants' Perceptions of antecedents of commitment and demographic data*

6.4.2.1 *Length of service*

Interviewees were classified into three groups according to their length of service, 0-10, 11-20 and 21-30 years. In all of these groups interviewees addressed similar personal, socio-cultural and organisational antecedents of commitment. Therefore, no differences were captured and their views of what constitutes commitment were homogenous cross different lengths of service.

Table 14: Classification of Antecedents of Commitment Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants

Length of service	0-10	11-20	21-30
Perceived Antecedents of Commitment	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational
	Personal	Personal	Personal
	Social	Social	Social

6.4.2.2 Educational attainment

Looking at themes based on education groups, nearly the same subcategories of antecedents were revealed, i.e. personal, social and organisational roots of commitment. Although I could not capture any differences between interviewees who had graduated from universities and undergraduates, I noticed that postgraduates did not mention personal antecedents of commitment, while other groups perceived them as vital. Overall, educational backgrounds did not play an important role in making differences among non-managerial interviewees.

Table 15: Classification of Antecedents of Commitment Based on Educational Attainment of Non-Managerial Participants

Educational attainment	Postgraduate	Graduate	Undergraduate
Perceived Antecedents of Commitment	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational
	Personal	Personal	Personal
	////////////////////	Social	Social

6.4.2.3 Age

Similar to the previous section, not differences were highlighted, as this suggests that age plays no part in determining what is seen to constitute commitment at the workplace in the banking sector in Libya. This could be explained by the homogenous context, where participants were subject to the same laws and legislations, same systems and regulations, along the same jobs, in the same society.

Table 16: Classification of Antecedents of Commitment Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participants

Ages	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
Perceived Antecedents of commitment	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational
	Personal	Personal	Personal	Personal
	Social	Social	Social	Social

6.4.3 Discussion

Commitment is seen as a miscellaneous construct, influenced positively or negatively by a variety of factors. For example, non-managerial participants believed that there are external and internal factors that affect the level of commitment at the workplace. External factors refer to variables outside the organisation such as personal and social origins; participants thought that elements such as education, culture and personality could have significant impact on being committed or not. Furthermore, interviewees raised the issue of family upbringing, culture, values and principles as influences on

employees' life in general. They thought that those social and personal elements play a huge role in determining employees' commitment at their jobs.

Participants also pointed out the role of internal organisational factors in influencing commitment. They believed that management perspectives towards staff and management efficiency would influence the level of commitment at the workplace. The overall picture of the antecedents of commitment, as seen by non-managerial interviewees, encompasses not only organisational conditions and the offers of the management, it put also a combination of social and personal factors. Thus, the administration cannot guarantee to increase commitment unless it bears in mind the social conditions of individuals and their personal characteristics. Conversely, good personal characteristics and positive social values and relationships will not guarantee that an individual will be committed at the workplace. Because people in the context are expected to follow the norms set by colleagues and managers, the role of the organisational environment is of paramount importance in shaping commitment in the workplace. According to this argument, these antecedents of commitment are related to the above components of commitment, as participants addressed various personal and organisational elements when interpreting commitment from their views. For example, participants' perceptions of personal and socio-cultural antecedents support their interpretations of commitment as individual sentiments and personal attributes, as these components steam from such personal and socio-cultural origins such as personalities, family upbringing and ethics. However, organisational antecedents also are related to various components of interpretations of participants of commitment. For instance, many organisational actions and management behaviours are thought to be influential for individual to get engaged with several positive behaviours, such as being punctual, motivated and loyal to the organisation. Nevertheless, by considering participants' demographical characteristics to understand why they might adopt certain interpretations of commitment, no important points were addressed, as across all categories and characteristics of their demographical data antecedents of commitment were stable.

6.4.4 *Managerial participants' perceptions of antecedents of commitment*

6.4.4.1 Personal antecedents of commitment

Even though participants believed that commitment has multiple causes, they mentioned several effects of personality and individual personal characteristics in increasing or decreasing commitment. They pointed out aspects such as educational level and experience, personality, personal morality and ethics, individual capabilities and competences. For illustration, a manager at GB in Misurata stressed the significance of matching personalities of employees with their jobs by expressing:

“We witnessed a case of an introverted employee who could not deal with customers. When customers asked him about anything he could not even answer. Should I fire him? He is committed and organised employee but he has this characteristic, so I will try to find him a place where there is no dealing with customers, to match his personality with his job” (B.25)

How individuals see their capacities and competencies is another personal variable. Thus, the head of the banking credit department at WB supported the creation and improvement of commitment via appreciation of employees' competencies and skills. He stated:

“Sometimes it depends on how the employee sees his skills and abilities. Some employees think that they are better than their bosses and think that their administrations did not deal with them properly and it did not appreciate his abilities. In this case, he will be uncommitted because of his thoughts about himself” (B.27)

6.4.4.2 Socio-Cultural antecedents of commitment

This segment represents socio-cultural origins of commitment, which refer to elements from outside the organisation, such as humanistic and social aspects of commitment, family upbringing, talking with others, giving others advice, social actors around the individual, family stability and life situation. Thus, this points to different influences from outside the organisation. For instance, the manager of auditing department at WB stressed the role of family and their effect on levels of being committed, he added:

“Personal circumstances and social factors, family stability and living state are significant elements in creating and improving commitment.....” (A.22)

Supporting the same argument, the head of the credit department at GB commented:

“Here the role of family upbringing is important. This refers to the youth’s upbringing. If they have been taught how to be committed when they were younger, when they come to their jobs they will be committed” (B.33)

6.4.4.3 Organisational antecedents of commitment

Under this set, interviewed managers identified different organisation-based roots of commitment, such as banking work, delegation of authority, fear of punishment, affiliation, justice and equality of management, job requirements, the organisational environment, facilities and equipment, regulations and instructions. Participants believed that being committed or uncommitted could develop from such factors. The head of CDB branch supported this argument and stated:

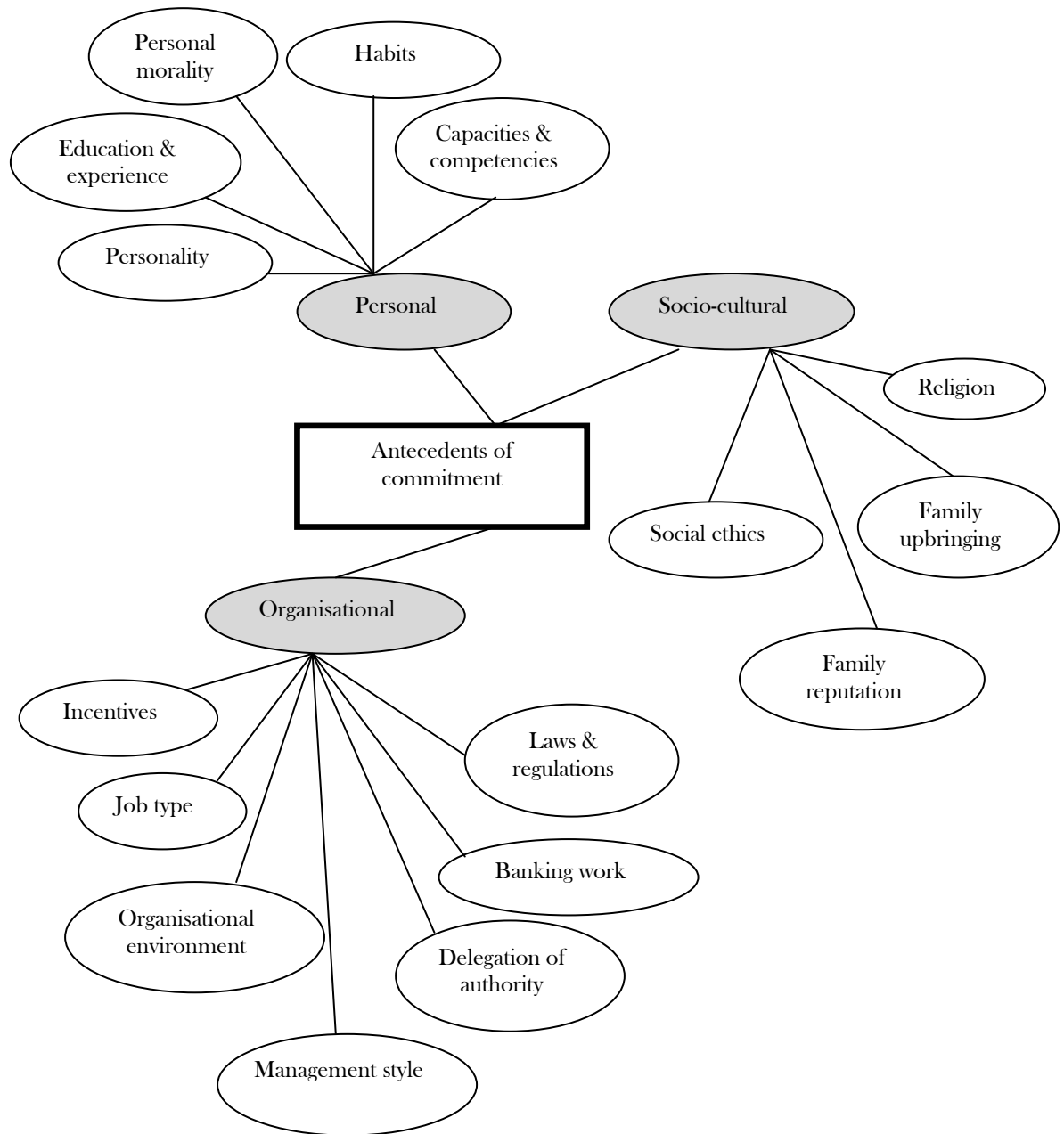
“Banking work is built upon cooperation and dealing with customers. Commitment could come spontaneously, the job requires commitment, and the organisational environment might highly create committed personnel.....” (A.20)

Moreover, others mentioned the significance of job type, as they believed that different jobs require different levels of commitment. For instance, the head of the accountancy department at LCB said:

“Sometimes your job requires more commitment than other jobs at the bank. For example working as a cashier means being at your office all the time, but when you do any administrative jobs it is not necessary to be completely committed at work. So the kind of the job will determine your commitment” (B.39)

Overall, this argument about managers’ perceptions of antecedents of commitment is summarised in the figure17.

Figure 17: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Perceptions of Antecedents of Commitment as Seen by Managerial Participants



6.4.5 *Managerial participants' perceptions of antecedents of commitment and demographic data*

6.4.5.1 *Length of service*

Although participants addressed three main antecedents of commitment; personal, socio-cultural and organisational, those with shorter experiences, 0-10 and 11-20, expressed a more holistic perspective of what creates and develops commitment, highlighting the role of all three groups of antecedents. The more experienced interviewees had a less holistic perspective of antecedents of commitment; managers with 21-30 years experience saw personal and socio-cultural antecedents of commitment, while managers with $30 \leq$ years experience believed more in personal and organisational antecedents. In general, while personal antecedents of commitment were the most agreed source of commitment through the four groups of length of service, socio-cultural and organisational antecedents also were thought to have an influential impact on creating commitment, this is shown in table 17.

Table 17: Classifications of Antecedents of Commitment Based on Length of Service of Managerial Participants

Length of Service	0-10	11-20	21-30	$30 \leq$
Antecedents of Commitment	Personal	Personal	Personal	Personal
	Organisational	Organisational	////////////////	Organisational
	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural	////////////////

6.4.5.2 *Educational attainment*

Postgraduate, graduate and undergraduate groups produced the same sub-categories; personal, socio-cultural and organisational antecedents of commitment. Managers in all three groups believed that commitment is created and developed from multi-source origins. Although different positions have been taken on the role of educational background, no important differences were found among those groups of managers.

Table 18: Classifications of Antecedents of Commitment Based on Educational Attainment of Managerial Participants

Educational attainment	Postgraduate	Graduate	Undergraduate
Antecedents of Commitment	Personal	Personal	Personal
	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational
	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural

6.4.5.3 Age

Similar to the previous examination of educational attainment, there were no real differences among the four groups. Different age groups produced the same subcategories of what creates and develops commitment. Hence, all groups perceived personal, socio-cultural and organisational antecedents of commitment.

Table 19: Classifications of Antecedents of Commitment Based on Age of Managerial Participants

Age	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
Antecedents of Commitment	Personal	Personal	Personal	Personal
	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational
	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural

6.4.5.4 Position

As with the previous subcategories, positions of managers did not account for why participants perceived specific antecedents of commitment. As a consequence, both mid-level and lower-level managers referred to similar antecedents of commitment.

Table 20: Classifications of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Position of Managerial Participants

Position	Mid-level managers	Lower-level managers
Antecedents of Commitment	Personal	Personal
	Organisational	Organisational
	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural

6.4.6 Discussion

To discuss how managers perceived the origins of commitment, it was agreed that commitment at the workplace has more than one source. Participants indicated that commitment is a characteristic of an employee. This characteristic is influenced by socio-

cultural factors such as family upbringing and stability, ethics in society, friends and neighbours. Nevertheless, the personal factor was also deemed to have an influence in shaping commitment in individuals. In this sense, managerial interviewees believed that a big part of commitment develops within the personalities of individuals, shaped by personality, experience, education and individual capabilities.

Furthermore, participants believed that there are various managerial and organisational origins of commitment, such as management attitudes towards and treatment of employees, managers' and colleagues' behaviours, facilities and organisational justice. Commitment at the workplace is thus seen as an individual characteristic, which could be created and developed through various socio-cultural and organisational factors.

These roots of commitment are congruent with previously mentioned components of commitment. For instance, perceiving commitment as personal relative attribute and social interaction construct has support from personal and socio-cultural antecedents of commitment, where such antecedents are highly related to the existence of such components. However, organisational antecedents of commitment are also related to the perceived components of commitment. For example, practising positive behaviours at the organisation, i.e. customer treatment and obedience are highly related to the establishing of various organisational antecedents. On the other hand, demographical characteristics of participants did not explain why some of them tended to support certain components of commitment. This suggests that participants have a broad meaning of commitment, as they consolidated several origins and several components of the concept.

6.4.7 Comparison of perceptions of commitment antecedents between non-managerial and managerial participants

At this point I compare both perceptions of managerial and non-managerial participants of antecedents of commitment at the workplace. I aim to understand similarities and differences between their perceptions, so I can deeply explain how they see the creation and development of commitment at the workplace. This could lead, I believe, to deeper understanding of their insights into commitment and reflect different realities as they adopt different positions in their organisations. Table 21 summarise the similarities and differences between the two types of interviewees.

Table 21: Subcategories of Antecedents of Commitment as Seen by Non -Managerial and Managerial Participants

Antecedents	Similarities		Differences	
	Non-managerial	Managerial	Non-managerial	Managerial
Personal	Personality	Personality	Individual perceptions	Capacities & competences
	Education & experiences	Education & experiences	Satisfaction	Ethics
	Habits	Habits	////////////////////	////////////////////
Socio-cultural	Social ethics	Social ethics	Culture	Family reputation
	Religion	Religion	////////////////////	////////////////////
	Family upbringing	Family upbringing	////////////////////	////////////////////
Organisational	Management style	Management style	Positive exemplars	Delegation of Authority
	Financial yields	Incentives	Equal relationships	Laws & regulations
	Banking work	Banking work	////////////////////	Organisational environment

6.4.7.1 Perceptions of the personal antecedents of commitment

This unit points to similarities and differences between managerial and non-managerial participants with regard to their perceptions of the personal roots of commitment. Firstly, both have raised the significance of personality, education and experience and habits in creating and developing the characteristic of commitment. In more depth, both believed that some individuals have personalities that could lead them to be more committed at the workplace. Furthermore, many employees believed that they were committed because of their personalities and they would do what they thought made them comfortable in their jobs. Another common theme between managerial and non-managerial interviewees

was the individual habits. Therefore, if an individual has become accustomed to being committed in life in general, s/he will be committed at his/her job.

On the other hand, there were some differences in themes raised by interviewees. Firstly, non-managerial interviewees highlighted the role of job satisfaction in increasing commitment. They also stressed the role of the individual perceptions of the actions of colleagues and bosses at work. So that as long as those perceptions are positive, employees will be more committed at their jobs and vice versa. Secondly, managerial participants mentioned capabilities and competences of the employee as antecedents of commitment. They believed that levels of abilities and aptitudes determined to a great extent levels of commitment. They have also captured another theme, which is ethics or morality. They thought that being committed is a result of ethical behaviours and considerations.

Looking deeply at those differences between managerial and non-managerial participants, I noticed that the perceptions of non-managerial participants of the personal antecedents of commitment are more related to themselves. Such elements indicate that they look at their own egos and feelings. By contrast, managerial participants seem to look more at characteristics of others, such as their competences or ethics. This can be suggested to reflect the nature of their jobs, in which they are expected to evaluate others to form judgments about them.

6.4.7.2 Perceptions of the socio-cultural antecedents of commitment

Participants drew attention to the role of the outside environment in creating and developing commitment. Therefore, both managerial and non-managerial interviewees identified different social factors, which they thought led to the creation and development of commitment at the workplace. Both types of informants, stressing the role of the community, believed that there is a substantial role for families in creating and improving commitment in individuals, through family education and principles. Moreover, they thought being committed within the family will lead family members to be committed at work, and vice versa. Additionally, social ethics were recognised as one of the main social elements of the socio-cultural antecedents of commitment. Both types of participants believed that when employees are concerned to comply with what is considered as ethical in their society, they will be more committed. Accordingly, people will act in a way that

does not conflict with social ethics. Thirdly, sets of participants believed that religious principles and orders could be origins of being committed.

By contrast, there were differences, albeit few, between managerial and non-managerial interviewees. For example non-managerial employees saw a role for culture in shaping commitment. They thought that some societies have high appreciation for commitment, so the majority of their employees will be committed, where in other societies, which place less value on being committed, employees will not care about increasing their commitment. On the other hand, managerial informants have raised another social theme, family reputation; they thought that as long as the employee comes from respected family, they will try their best to maintain the good reputation of their families by being more committed at work.

6.4.7.3 Perceptions of the organisational antecedents of commitment

This group refers to factors inside the organisation, which create or develop levels of commitment in the workplace. Common themes are management style, banking work and incentives. Respondents believed that the way that management treat employees is major source of commitment; being concerned with employees, valuing their views and giving them effective roles in their organisations lead to an increase of commitment, while failing to do so reduces commitment. Furthermore, another common organisational theme is the nature of banking work. Participants believed that the nature of banking work required them to be more committed compared with other work. They saw banking as a service role, where providing good services requires more commitment to get more customers and raise customer satisfaction. A third common identified theme is incentives and outcomes of being committed at the workplace. Both groups of participants believed that the more incentives and outcomes employees receive, the more committed they will be. They believed that being committed should be rewarded and managers should encourage employees for high levels of commitment.

Furthermore, participants also addressed dissimilar organisational themes as antecedents of commitment. For instance, non-managerial participants stressed the role of justice and equality in the manager-employee relationship, and commented that favouritism and bias towards specific employees could decrease levels of commitment at the workplace. Another theme was the example set by managers. Non-managers believed that if their managers are not committed, employees will not be either. Therefore, they highlighted

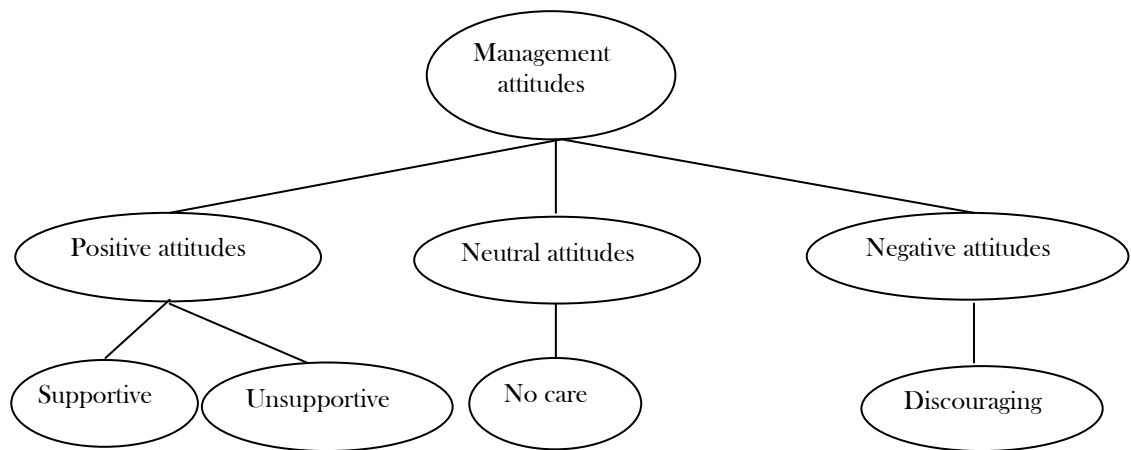
the importance of good exemplars in the organisation as a motivation to commitment. On the other hand, managerial participants raised other themes. For example, they view delegation of authority as encouragement to be better commitment. In addition, they emphasized the role of laws and regulations in creating and enhancing commitment. From this perspective, they believed that legal punishments are effective to create the right level of commitment at the workplace. Another theme raised by managerial participants was the internal setting; they believed that if all parties in the organisation are committed, employees will be committed as well. This thought comes from their belief that people will adapt their behaviour to the environment that they work in.

6.5 Views of Management Attitudes toward Commitment

The third section is about understanding the value of being committed at the workplace. It aims to capture how participants see appreciation of commitment by their managements. If managements appreciate commitment at the workplace, this would give a clear message about commitment's value for those organisations; otherwise commitment would not be considered as influential. Accordingly, this section is about answering the third research question, which is; what views do managerial and non-managerial participants have regarding management attitudes towards commitment at the workplace in the Libyan banking sector?

However, to guide the data analysis process, I ask more specific sub-questions; how do managements appreciate commitment in the workplace? What attitudes do managers have towards commitment? Is there any role for demographic data in determining specific attitudes? What differences and similarities can be identified between employees and managers regarding their visions of management attitudes? However, in order to understand such management attitudes, it is preferable to know how attitudes will be classified. Thus, figure 18 illustrates how these attitudes will be classified in this chapter.

Figure 18: Classifications of Management Attitudes



6.5.1 Management attitudes towards commitment as seen by non-managerial participants

The management attitudes category reflects how important commitment is to the administration, and whether they really appreciate the importance of commitment at work. Based on the developed themes, management attitudes as seen by non-managerial interviewees are as follows:

6.5.1.1 Positive management attitudes

This subcategory illustrates the positive desire of managers to have commitment at their organisations. Participants pointed out that they believed that management are very aware of commitment, and encourage them to be more committed. This encouragement could be consolidated through positive support such as training, rewarding and incentives or could be negative reinforcement through punishments. However, positive attitudes also are seen through encouragement without support, where administrations encourage their employees to show more commitment without giving any rewards for this behaviour.

1) Supportive attitude

This unit refers to participants' perception that their managers encourage them to show more commitment and support them through several motivators, positive and negative incentives. For example an administrative employee at WB described an encouraging, supportive attitude towards commitment by saying:

“Management awareness is seen through management speech, formal letters, increased salaries, giving gifts and rewards..... there is a fear of employee leaving to competitor organisations” (A.15)

Similarly, a cashier at CDB perceived an encouraging supportive attitude of his management so he commented:

“Managers greatly care about commitment; therefore, they use formal speech, field visits and try to support their personnel materially and morally” (A.18)

2) Unsupportive attitude

The second sort of positive attitudes towards commitment is encouragement without direct support. Managers usually focus on a narrow element of commitment without offering positive or negative support. For instance, stressing the customer aspect of commitment, a cashier at SB articulated:

“Even though the logo of the bank includes commitment and innovation, our administration pays attention to commitment towards our customers. Managers always keep pressing us to meet the customers in a good way and fulfil their needs as soon as we can; this is how managers see commitment” (B.41)

Along this line, a cashier at WB expressed his view:

“Management is concerned only with the formal commitment, such as staff appearance or work timetable and they think that this might benefit the organisation” (A.16)

6.5.1.2 Neutral attitudes

Under this subcategory interviewees referred to a situation where commitment has little importance and is nearly absent from organisational life, except for some focus on other specific issues related to commitment. These participants thought that their managements should show more appreciation towards employees who are considered as committed. For example, an administrative employee at NCB addressed the lack of managerial professionalism stating:

“Our managers spend their time to satisfy their bosses to keep them in their places, looking for relationships with important people in the government, and they do not

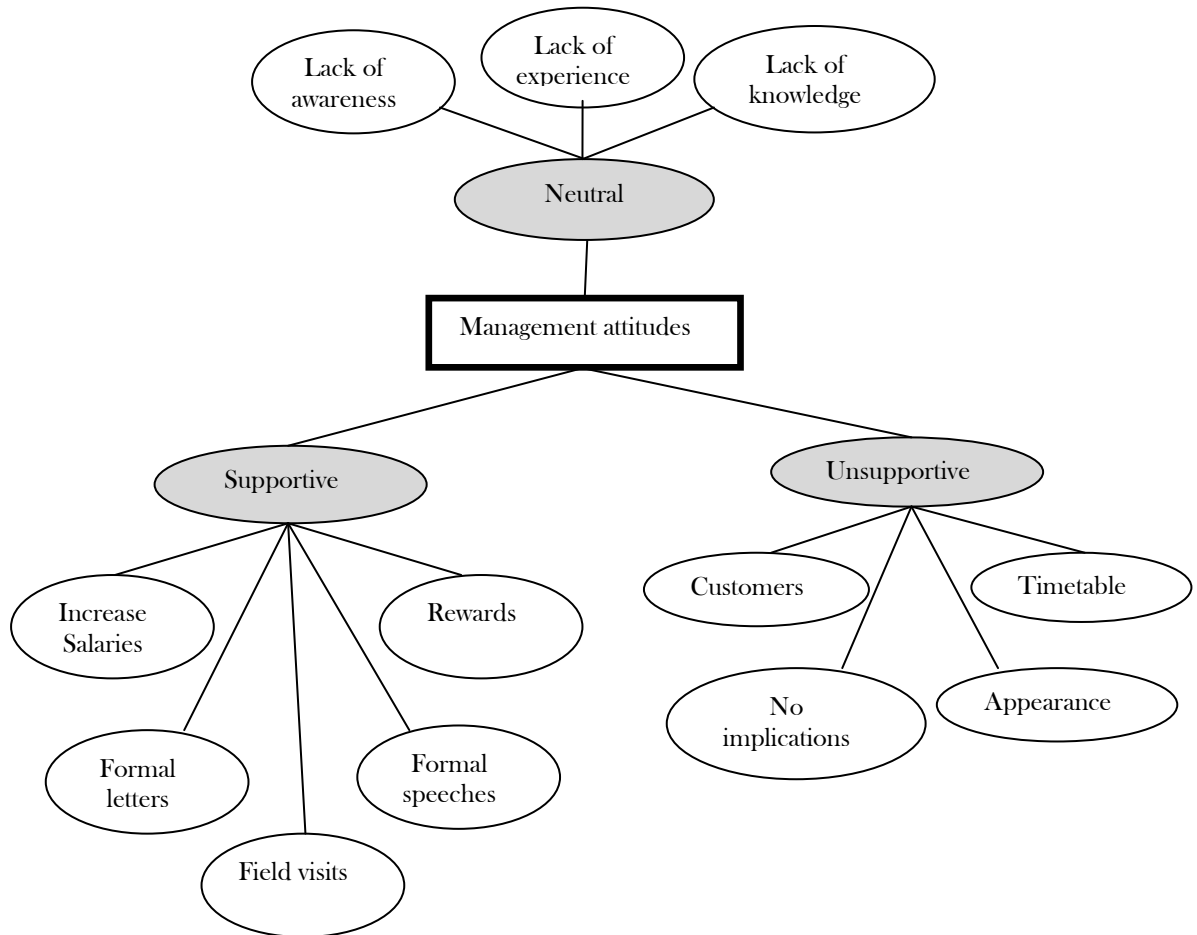
care about the organisation..... they also lack knowledge and experience of banking work” (B.40)

On the other hand, some employees saw no concern for commitment from their managements. For instance, an administrative employee at NCB said:

“We have never noticed any awareness of commitment from our administration at this bank.....it does not take into account the importance of commitment” (A.13)

Overall, figure 19 summarizes the themes and subcategories raised by non-managerial participants.

Figure 19: Thematic network of themes and Subcategories of Views of Management Attitudes as Seen by Non-Managerial Participants



6.5.2 *Non-managerial participants' views of management attitudes and demographic data*

6.5.2.1 *Length of service*

Based on the three groups of length of service, non-managerial participants' views of management attitudes towards commitment were similar. However, no differences were captured; interviewees in these groups nearly mentioned almost the same categories of positive management attitudes. Most notably, they all agreed that their managements encouraged them to be more committed, but they differed in the level of support they perceived. Therefore, some of them mentioned their management support and others did not, while other interviewees stated that their managements did not care about commitment and gave it no encouragement or support.

Table 22: Classifications of Management Attitudes towards Commitment Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants

Length of service	0-10 years	11-20 years	21-30 years
Management attitudes	Supportive	Supportive	Supportive
	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	Unsupportive
	Natural	Natural	////////////////////

6.5.2.2 *Educational attainment*

Non-managerial participants raised similar themes and subcategories with regard to their views of their managements' attitudes towards commitment. The majority of them firmly agreed about the positive attitudes of their managers, but again different levels of support were captured. In each educational group there were different views of the level of support that managers gave to commitment. However, a few others, who had graduate qualifications perceived no care from their managers towards commitment.

Table 23: Classifications of Management Attitudes towards Commitment Based on Educational Attainments of Non-Managerial Participants

Educational attainment	Postgraduate	Graduate	Undergraduate
Management attitudes	Supportive	Supportive	Supportive
	////////////////////	Unsupportive	Unsupportive
	////////////////////	Natural	////////////////////////////////////

6.5.2.3 Age

Under this division of ages interviewees addressed similar management attitudes towards commitment. Although they commonly agreed that their managements have positive attitudes, they described varying levels of support. Therefore, the same management attitudes towards commitment were captured across all age categories.

Table 24: Classifications of Management Attitudes towards Commitment Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participants

Ages	20-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years
Management attitudes	Supportive	Supportive	Supportive	Supportive
	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	////////////////////
	////////////////////	Natural	////////////////////	////////////////////

6.5.3 Discussion

Several opinions about the appreciation of commitment are to be expected, since participants had different experiences. Therefore, by clustering similar themes together I ended up with three main subcategories, which are thought to reflect how the non-managerial participants perceived the appreciation of commitment by their managers. Many saw their administrations as highly focused on commitment, whereas others saw little or no awareness from their managers towards commitment. Accordingly, some managers have positive attitudes towards commitment, encouraging and supporting employees through offering rewards and advantages. Others, in contrast, have less appreciation of commitment at the workplace, although, they ask for manifestation of commitment through issues like timetable or good looking appearance. They want their employees to come to work and have no problems with others or with customers. Therefore, they encourage being committed, without offering support. The last group of managers are those who attach no importance to being committed at the workplace; they think being committed is up to the individual and being uncommitted will not affect the organisation, but only the individuals themselves.

Building on this argument, these attitudes confirm and back different components of participants' interpretations of commitment. For instance, supportive and unsupportive attitudes are compatible with perceiving commitment as constructive concepts, as it refers to different desirable values. Furthermore, these attitudes confirm the positive nature of commitment, where managers are interested in commitment and they prefer to have such behaviours and characteristics in their organisations. Thus, perceiving commitment as

positive behaviours at work also is connected with such attitudes. However, demographic characteristics of participants did assist in explaining why participants tended to support certain attitudes of their managers.

6.5.4 *Management attitudes towards commitment as seen by managerial participants*

To capture the value of commitment from the views of managers, I present here opinions of managerial interviewees regarding how they saw the appreciation of commitment from their superiors. The interviewees pointed out a variety of themes, which I grouped into in three main attitudes.

6.5.4.1 Positive management attitudes

In this cluster participants saw desirable awareness of commitment in their organisations. This means high managerial demand for commitment and encouragement towards more committed staff at the workplace. Although managers viewed different levels of support, they captured positive attitudes of their managers through their encouragement of commitment at the workplace. Thus, this unit consists of two positive attitudes; supportive and unsupportive.

1) Supportive attitude

As in the previous section with non-managerial interviewees, encouraging supportive attitudes reflect very positive attitudes towards commitment, where managers encourage being committed and support that with positive and negative motivators. For instance, the head of the credit department at GB reported that their management rewards commitment with training sessions and a variety of incentives. He stated:

“Yes there is a lot of encouragement, for example more training such learning English language or learning more computer software. Committed employees are always the first in everything; rewards, allowances or incentives, these exist and are practised by our administration” (B.33)

However, others explained how management support was shown through using negative motivators. For example, the manager of an auditing department focused on punishment for not being committed:

“Our administration is always asking for commitment and seeks an ideal one to the extent that it uses punishing to force employees to be committed. It neglects encouragement by awareness or education” (B.37)

2) Unsupportive attitudes

This title represents the positive attitudes of managements through encouraging employees to be more committed, without accompanying support. Besides, such managements normally focus on specific elements of commitment. For instance, a branch manager at CDB described the narrow focus of his management, which concentrated on specific parts of commitment. He said:

“Managers ask for being committed to the timetable, not to eat or drink in front of the customers. For commitment of job obligations, they do not reward staff...”
(A.20)

Stressing the positive and desirable nature of commitment, the head of the credit department at CDB in Misurata pointed to the vital need for committed employees by saying:

“Managers must guarantee at least a minimum level of commitment by caring about observing all staff and judging their work and this procedure motivates towards more commitment. Supporting commitment through an incentive system does not exist in the policies of the bank...” (A.17)

6.5.4.2 Neutral management attitudes

This set comprises a group of opinions among participants that their managements do not show enough appreciation of commitment at the workplace. Interviewees perceived that their managements lack various influential factors such as interest, knowledge and experience. For example, the head of a remittances and transfers department at NCB in Sirte, criticised the practice of appointing unqualified managers, based on relationships and asserted that such managers have no concern for the interest of the bank. He commented:

“I had witnessed many cases when managers were appointed just because they have relationships with the chief executive, so most of the managers now are without high qualifications and they lack experience” (B.35)

Consolidating this view, the head of the accountancy department at NCB in Misurata asserted that his management sees commitment as the employee's responsibility; therefore, being committed is up to the staff member, he stated:

“Managers ask you to do something, like reports, otherwise, you will keep to your job..... It is up to you to be committed. There is a big lack of getting connected with our administrators” (B.26)

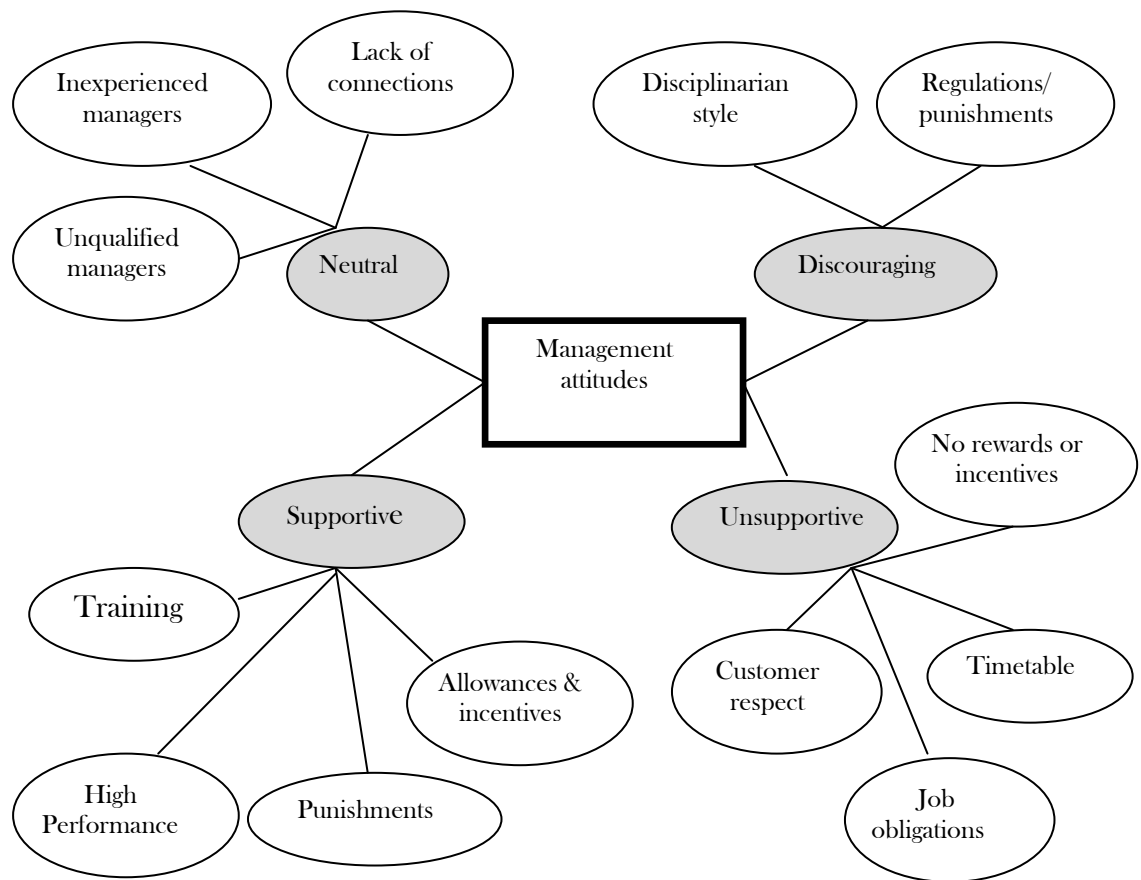
6.5.4.3 Negative management attitudes

Even though the participants of this section were managers, some reported negative management awareness of commitment, believing that their administrations were not responsive toward this concept. Interviewees thought that their managements discouraged them from being committed by implementing senseless rules and regulations and adopting authoritarian management styles, which reflected negative attitudes and caused employees to be uncommitted. For example, the head of the auditing department at WB in Misurata stressed the tendency of his managers to apply a classic, dictatorial management style in which punishments were common, by uttering:

“All managers ask for policies of punishment and discipline. They encourage commitment with the aim of forcing staff to obey the rules and regulations that the administration decided which reduces commitment” (A.22)

Overall, all captured themes and subcategories are summarized in the figure 20.

Figure 20: Thematic network of themes and Subcategories of Views of Management Attitudes towards Commitment as Seen by Managerial Participants



6.5.5 Managerial participants' views of management attitudes towards commitment and demographic data

6.5.5.1 Length of service

The majority of interviewees addressed positive attitudes of their managers towards commitment. However, other attitudes such as discouraging and neutral attitudes were also addressed, to a lesser extent. Managers with fewer years of service perceived their managers as encouraging, with different levels of support. Additionally, interviewees, with 11-20 years experience pointed out various attitudes, ranging from supportive to discouraging. Overall, managers with less experience saw their management attitudes as positive, and the more experience the managers had, the less positive were their views of their managements' attitudes towards commitment.

Table 25: Classifications of Management Attitudes of Commitment Based on Length of Service of Managerial Participants

Length of service	0-10	11-20	21-30	30 ≤
Management attitudes	Supportive	Supportive	////////////////	////////////////
	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	////////////////
	////////////////	////////////////	Neutral	Neutral
	////////////////	Discouraging	////////////////	////////////////

6.5.5.2 Educational attainment

I noticed that graduate managers perceived positive attitudes in their managers, while postgraduate and undergraduate respondents reported different attitudes. For example, managers with postgraduate qualifications described two different attitudes of their managers; encouraging and discouraging, whereas, undergraduate managers characterised management attitudes as encouraging and neutral. Overall, I noted that both graduate and undergraduate managers saw their managements as being positive towards commitment at the workplace.

Table 26: Classifications of Management Attitudes of Commitment Based on Educational Attainment of Managerial Participants

Educational attainment	Postgraduate	Graduate	Undergraduate
Management attitudes	////////////////	Supportive	Supportive
	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	Unsupportive
	////////////////	////////////////	Neutral
	Discouraging	////////////////	////////////////

6.5.5.3 Age

Although different attitudes towards commitment were captured by managers with regard to their ages, most of them believed that their managements had positive attitudes towards commitment. Managers aged between 20-30 and 31-40 confirmed the positive attitudes of their managers, with different levels of support. However, managers aged between 41 and 50, although expressing positive attitudes of their managers, also stated discouraging attitudes, while managers aged between 51 and 60 perceived both positive and neutral attitudes of their managers towards commitment. Overall, the majority of participating managers believed that their managements had positive attitudes towards commitment. It was also noticed that young managers believed more in positive attitudes of their managers, whereas, older managers were less indicated to perceive positive attitudes of their managements.

Table 27: Classifications of Management Attitudes of Commitment Based on Age of Managerial Participants

Age	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
Management attitudes	Supportive	////////////////	Supportive	Supportive
	unsupportive	unsupportive	unsupportive	Unsupportive
	////////////////	////////////////	////////////////	Neutral
	////////////////	////////////////	Discouraging	////////////////

6.5.5.4 Position

When participants' visions of management attitudes were divided based on their positions lower-levels managers showed more holistic views of their managements, as they addressed the four attitudes. However, mid-level managers had narrower views as they perceived one attitude. The following table shows what attitudes addressed by both positions of managers.

Table 28: Classifications of Management Attitudes of Commitment Based on Position of Managerial Participants

Position	Mid-level managers	Lower-level managers
Management attitudes	////////////////	Supportive
	Unsupportive	Unsupportive
	////////////////	Neutral
	////////////////	Discouraging

6.5.6 Discussion

According to the data above, a variety of management attitudes emerged from interviewed managers. First are the positive attitudes towards commitment. From this perspective, managements thought that commitment could give their organisations more advantages to deal with competition and raise levels of loyalty; therefore, they encouraged and supported commitment through training and rewards.

Second, within the stream of positive attitudes there was the unsupportive attitude, where managers looked at commitment from a practical angle, so they focused on issues such as compliance with duties and regulations, appearance and punctuality. Thus, participants in this view equated commitment with a narrow range of controllable behaviours.

Third, participants also identified another management attitude, which has less amount passion for commitment. Interviewees believed that some managers showed no care for commitment and did not encourage employees to be committed, but saw commitment simply as a duty of employees.

Last, are discouraging management attitudes toward commitment, where managerial participants saw no appreciation of commitment by their managers. Managers with this type of attitude used traditional ways of controlling subordinates through punishment and, as a consequence, employees might lose their commitment. Therefore, interviewees believed that managers who adopted such attitudes were negative towards commitment.

If we reflect on participants' components of commitment, I suggest that such management attitudes could be related to different elements of commitment. For instance, both supportive and unsupportive attitudes would be connected with seeing commitment as constructive concept, as managements encourage employees to be more committed with different opinions whether it should be supported or not.

Neutral attitudes also could be related to the personal relative attribute component of commitment, as managements believed that being committed is an element of personal matter and it is up to the individuals themselves to decide to be committed or not. Nevertheless, discouraging attitudes were quite contradicting of the positive nature of the concept, as participants addressed that some management might apply different practises at work, either consciously or unconsciously. These practices could discourage employees of being committed. On the other hand, discouraging attitudes would support and congruent participants' views that ineffective management is one of the organisational antecedents of commitment.

Demographic characteristics of participants indicated different thoughts about why participants could support certain ideas about their management attitudes. For example, participants who had less experience, lower educational attainment, and younger ages perceived positive attitudes of their managements. However, their views could support the desirable nature of commitment and indicate that different people could have different views and interpretations of commitment. Further, participants with lower positions perceived holistic views of management attitudes, as this could also confirm that values of commitment depend on how employees interpret this concept at their workplaces.

6.5.7 Comparison between views of non-managerial and managerial participants regarding management attitudes to commitment

Both managerial and non-managerial participants raised similar themes regarding management attitudes towards commitment and small differences were highlighted related to their positions. However, interviewees pointed out a variety of themes regarding

their management attitudes towards commitment. These attitudes are different in the level of focus on commitment. While some management were more commitment-focused others showed less focus on commitment.

First, positive management attitudes refer to positive awareness of being committed at the workplace. Managers encourage their staff to be committed and offer varying levels of support. Some offer rewards and benefits to those who are recognised as committed and others just encourage, without specific rewards. Supportive attitude points to high awareness of managements towards commitment. Non-managerial participants saw this as expressed in practical terms such as salary increase, formal letters, formal speeches and field visits. They tended to identify motivators related directly to their jobs and tangible offers. By contrast, managerial interviewees paid attention to broader factors, such as employee loyalty and feeling part of the organisation. They also saw issues like competition, performance appraisal and high performance as related to positive management attitudes. This shows more focus on policy making and way of managing, rather than on practical issues, in regard to positive management attitudes.

Unsupportive attitudes indicate less concern about being committed and managers do not offer any incentives or support the practice of commitment. Even though both managerial and non-managerial participants identified different themes, their themes refer to less awareness of the value of commitment. According to this stream of themes, commitment is seen as being adherence to daily requirements such as punctuality and formal appearance. Those managements view commitment as less significant than the first group, but they rely on individuals themselves to be more committed. However, both managerial and non-managerial participants pointed to similar administrative characteristics of dealing with commitment, where little appreciation is shown.

Second, are unenthusiastic management attitudes; both sets of interviewees stressed that there are some careless attitudes toward commitment. These attitudes refer to managers who lack managerial knowledge, experience and skills. They do not focus on commitment as well as other organisational concepts. Interviewees suggested that such managers usually were appointed because of their relationships and they focus on maintaining their positions by making good relationships with politicians. However, no influential differences could be seen between managerial and non-managerial interviewees.

Third, managerial interviewees underlined negative attitudes of their managers regarding commitment, which they thought discouraged employees from showing committed behaviour. Interviewees believed that using authoritarian styles and applying senseless rules and punishments led them to be less committed. However, such these attitudes were highlighted only by managerial interviewees.

According to this discussion, management attitudes could be classified into three streams:

- I.* Broad perception of the value of commitment at the workplace. This stream refers to:
 - a.* Supportive attitudes, and
 - b.* Unsupportive attitudes.
- II.* Narrow perception of the value of commitment at the workplace. This points to;
 - a.* Neutral attitudes
- III.* Negative thoughts and beliefs about commitment. This includes;
 - a.* Discouraging

6.6 Awareness of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance

Having previously considered the value of commitment, in this section I explore how interviewees view the connections between commitment and individual performance. This section aims to answer the fourth research question; *what connections managerial and non-managerial participants are aware of between commitment and OCBs on one hand and individual performance, on the other hand in the Libyan banking sector?* Further, it focuses on more detailed sub questions such as what connections do they see between these concepts? How aware are they of the value of commitment for their individual performance? Is there any impact of demographic characteristics determining specific connections between these concepts?

6.6.1 Non-managerial participants' awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance

Non-managerial interviewees pointed out different implications of commitment of affecting organisations. Specifically, they stressed the role of commitment in enhancing levels of organisational and individual performance through various personal and organisational factors. Participants believed that commitment is a constructive element in organisations, and this is represented in the following views.

6.6.1.1 Positive direct connections

This unit of themes refers to positive views of non-managerial interviewees, who saw direct connections between being committed and individual performance. Accordingly, they see commitment as a motivator for fulfilling job responsibilities, aspiration and high scores in performance appraisal. For example, an accountant at SB in Misurata asserted that commitment is related to job requirements and responsibilities, he stated:

“Yes the committed employee’s performance will be high, because every employee performs what is required from him and what he is responsible for; his performance will be high” (C.17)

Moreover, another employee linked between being committed and getting high scores at the end of the year. He said:

“Yes it is noticed, being committed leads to high individual performance. From any angle, being committed will lead to one of the best annual reports” (C.18)

6.6.1.2 Positive combined connections

Although participants believed in the positive nature of commitment, some indicated that the expected implications of commitment for individual performance were subject to other factors. Thus, this group pointed to indirect connections between commitment and individual performance through several individual characteristics, such as desire, capabilities, personality and colleagues. For example, an administrative employee at WB in Misurata explained the roles of individual and organisational factors in the workplace, saying:

“Commitment will increase individual performance when it is combined with capabilities, desire and importance to the administration” (A.15)

Other non-managerial participants stressed the role of other parties in the organisation in determining the impact of commitment on individual performance. For instance, a cashier at NCB in Misurata identified the significant role of others at the organisation by saying:

“Committed employees may have problems with bosses or colleagues and they might have some problems outside the organisation. However, all of these could have effects on their performance, so commitment could contribute in increasing performance subject to these being no such problems” (B.38)

6.6.1.3 No connections

Though many employees asserted the positive connections between commitment and individual performance, others saw that no such connections. They did not believe that being committed leads to increased individual performance. For instance, an accountant at SB in Misurata thought that punctuality and dressing formally do not mean high individual performance, as employees could come early and leave late but do nothing. He said:

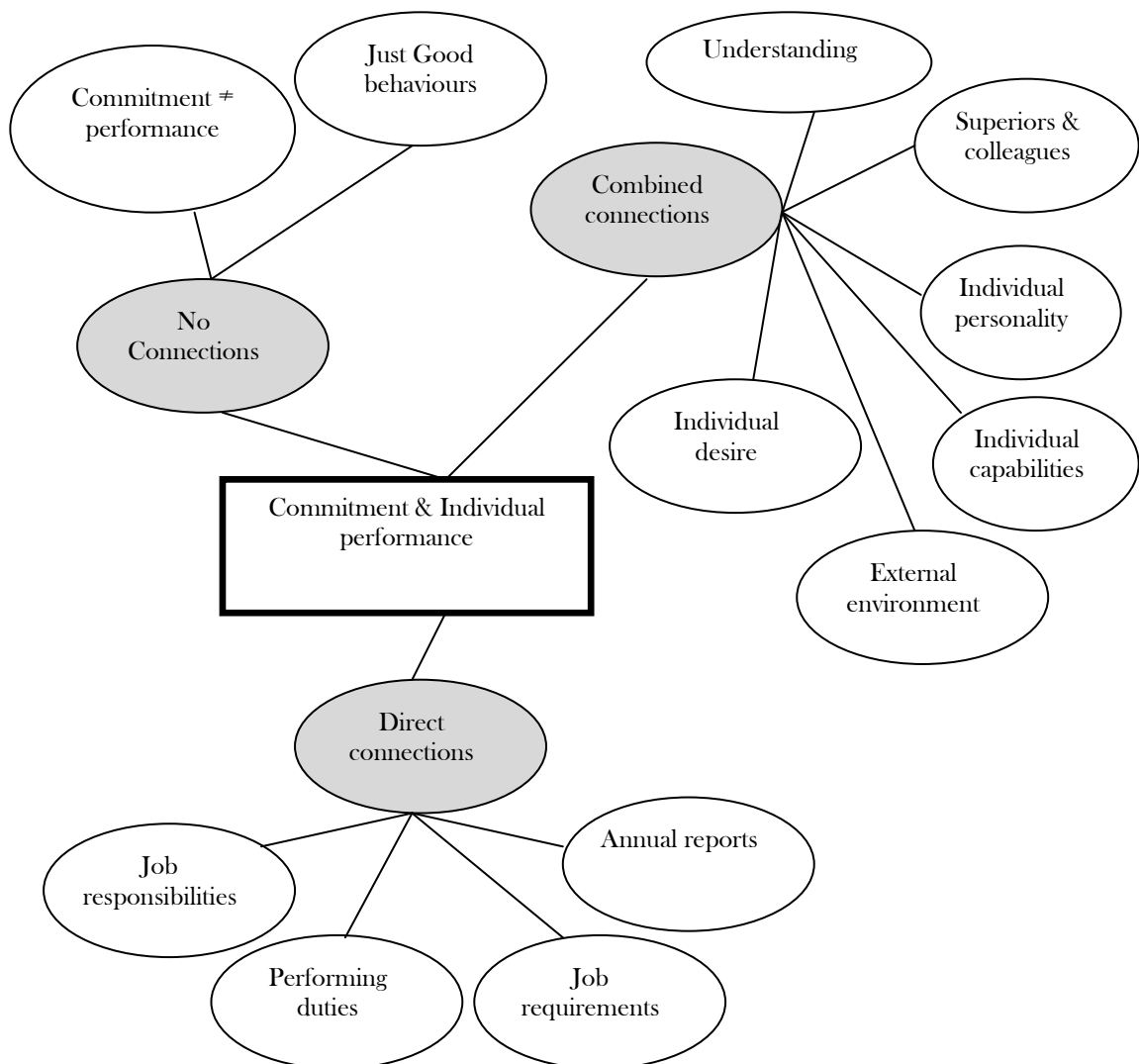
“I mean coming every day to work on time and leaving on time does not mean doing well. Some employees do not try to understand their jobs. Some employees are older than me at the bank, if you ask them about certain issues they will not know how to answer. Here some staff think that the less they understand, the less they will have to do” (B.41)

Along the same line, an auditor employed at NCB in Misurata believed that being uncommitted does not necessarily mean having low individual performance, as many uncommitted employees perform well. He added:

“Yes, being uncommitted does not mean low individual performance, in some cases uncommitted employees do well at their jobs, so, if they can gain more motivation and care they will be excellent employees” (B.34)

Overall, employees perceived different possible connections between commitment and individual performance. They had awareness of the value of being committed at the workplace, and saw connections between individual performance and commitment, either directly or in combinations with personal and organisational factors. However, three subcategories emerged from several different themes as the figure 21 summarises.

Figure 21: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Non-Managerial Participants' Awareness of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance



6.6.2 *Non-managerial participants' awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance and demographic data*

6.6.2.1 *Length of service*

The majority of participants supported positive connections between commitment and individual performance, whether direct or combined connections. Most of the interviewed employees agreed on the existence of positive connections between the two concepts. However, some interviewees who had 11-20 years serving at organisations pointed out that they could not see such a connection. Nevertheless, no specific links between length of service groups and views on connections between commitment and individual performance could be emphasized.

Table 29: Classifications of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants

Length of service	0-10	11-20	21-30
Connections with individual performance	Direct connections	////////////////////	Direct connections
	Combined connections	Combined connections	Combined connections
	////////////////////	No connections	

6.6.2.2 *Educational attainment*

Opinions were nearly similar to each other, as most interviewees viewed that commitment has positive combined connections with individual performance. However, a third set of opinions came from some employees with graduate level attainment, who believed that commitment and individual performance have no connections. Overall, although no influential differences were found among the three groups of education levels, some thoughts could be mentioned that participants who had lower education backgrounds could perceive more positive connections between the two concepts.

Table 30: Classifications of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance by Non-Managerial Participants based on Educational Attainment

Educational attainment	Postgraduate	Graduate	Undergraduate
Awareness of connections with individual performance	////////////////////	////////////////////	Direct connections
	Combined connections	Combined connections	Combined connections
	////////////////////	No connections	////////////////////
	////////////////////	////////////////////	////////////////////

6.6.2.3 Age

I noticed that most opinions across the four age groups were similar, with most asserting direct and combined positive connections. However, some interviewees aged between 41-50 years stated that no such connections could be captured. Although, non-managerial participants had broad views of how commitment might be connected to their individual performance, I suggest that younger participants tended to have more positive connections of the two concepts as the table shows.

Table 31: Classifications of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participant

Age	20-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years
Awareness of connections with individual performance	Direct connections	Direct connections	Direct connections	////////////////////
	Combined connections	Combined connections	Combined connections	Combined connections
	////////////////////	////////////////////	No connections	////////////////////

6.6.3 Discussion

Three main views of the connections between commitment and individual performance were identified. Firstly, some opinions confirmed direct and positive connections between the two concepts, where employees believed that being committed leads to performing job duties and responsibilities, and consequently, high scores in the annual reports. This view is more related to those interpretations where participants indicate broad interpretations of commitment to include loyalty, affiliations and perfection at work. Secondly, other employees believed that just being committed at the workplace would not increase their individual performance, as other personal and organisational factors could influence such connections. Moreover, other factors such as personality, environment and understanding play crucial roles in determining the connections between commitment and individual performance. However, this view also could be related to the narrow interpretations of commitment, which include perceiving commitment as being punctual and adherence to job duties. Thirdly, by contrast, although the majority of participants saw commitment as constructive and desirable at the workplace, many others stressed that commitment is not connected to their individual performance.

However, contradictory views were captured, where no connection between the two concepts was perceived. In this sense, these views of such connections were built upon

participants' interpretations of what commitment is. Thus, these connections are related to components of commitment, which we saw early in the first section. For example, identifying positive connections between both concepts, I suggest, is built upon clear views that commitment is a positive and desirable concept at the workplace. Therefore, direct and combined connections between commitment and individual performance are related to positive behaviours and values components of commitment, as participants interpret commitment from a broad positive angle. However, few views supported no connections between the two concepts, as some participants saw no connections between the two concepts, and this could be related to perceiving commitment from a narrow angle to include certain practise at the workplace. Nevertheless, demographic characteristics of participants explained slim justifications of why they might support such connections. Therefore, it is suggested that participants who had lower education backgrounds and younger ages tended to have more positive views of possible connections between commitment and individual performance.

6.6.4 Managerial participants' awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance

This section represents outcomes of commitment as seen by the participating managers. Many thought that commitment leads to an increase in individual and organisational performance and at least guarantees the existence of many constructive behaviours in the workplace. By contrast, others did not support any connections between commitment and individual performance. Thus, I combined the related themes into three sub-groups.

6.6.4.1 Positive direct connections

Under this group participants pointed out that commitment is vital for doing their work and for organisation survival. They indicated some factors such as increased profit, high performance, excellent job performance, increased individual performance and work development, which could be directly ascribed to commitment. Thus, they perceived the positive and direct impact of commitment on performance in general and individual performance in particular. For example, the head of the credit department at CDB in Misurata saw a positive connection between being committed and level of individual performance. He stated:

“Commitment leads directly towards high performance, it indeed works for the interest of the organisation, good performance level and perfection in performing jobs....” (A.17)

In more depth, other participants consolidated this argument by describing what issues they evaluated when assessing their employees. Thus, they said that they evaluate commitment as part of the individual performance for the employee. For example, the head of administrative affairs at GB maintained:

“When you come to the annual report you will find that the appearance as a sort of commitment, attendance and leave all has degrees to be evaluated from 1 to 10. So being committed will affect the employee’s individual performance; as soon as he is committed his performance will increase” (B.25)

6.6.4.2 Positive combined connections

The second subcategory is constructive and combined connections between commitment and individual performance. Although managerial participants saw the constructiveness of commitment, some believed that commitment could lead to more desirable results when combined with other variables, such as individual competence, capabilities and satisfaction. Such elements could magnify connections to high individual performance. For instance the branch manager at CDB in Misurata supported this notion by stating:

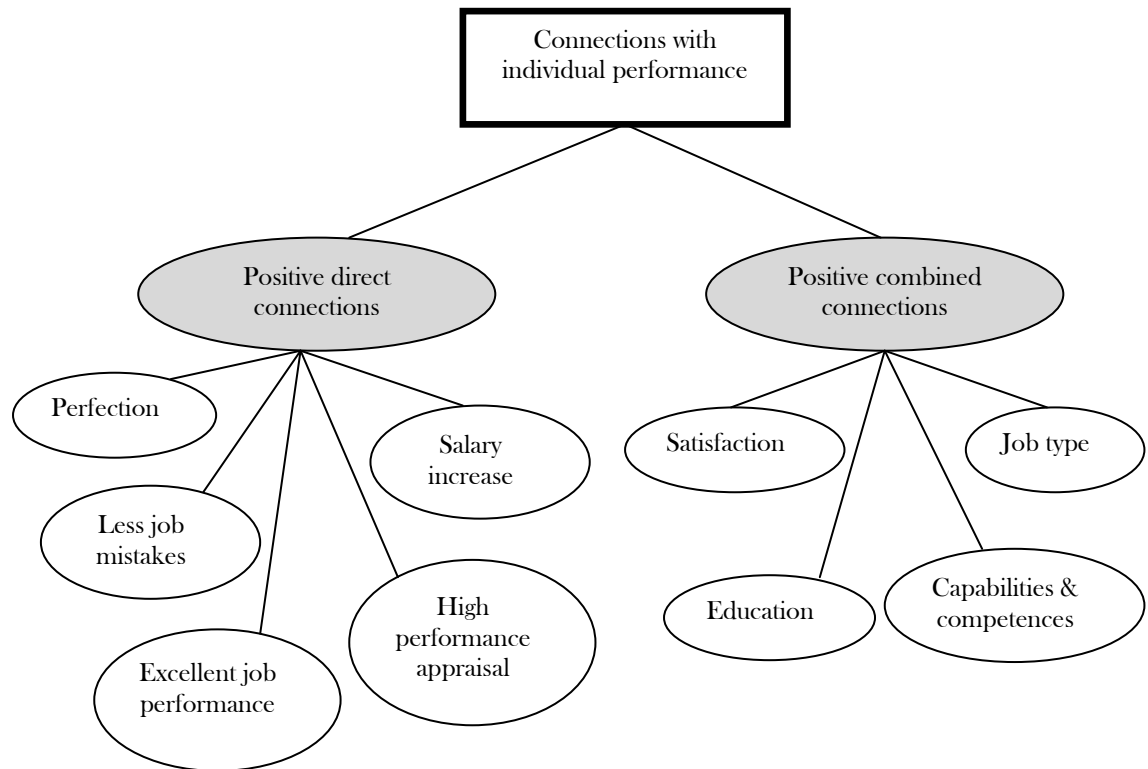
“Commitment leads to high performance of a committed employee, with respect to his/her competences and capabilities” (A.20)

The head of the accountancy department at LCB in Sirte stressed the role of job type, as in some jobs commitment is connected with high individual performance not in others. He said:

“As I said, when there is a queue at the window waiting for the cashier, bosses will report negatively on the file of the employee. On the other hand, when another employee is late but doing another job where there is no dealing with customers, it will not be reported as negatively as with the first type of job” (B.39)

On the whole, managerial participants underscored many themes which I grouped into two subcategories. Thus, the figure 22 summarizes the themes and sub-categories raised by managerial interviewees.

Figure 22: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Managerial Participants' Awareness of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance



6.6.5 Managerial participants' awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance and Demographic data

6.6.5.1 Length of service

Irrespective of their lengths of service, managers were aware of two different sorts of connections between commitment and individual performance. There were no differences across the groups, as managers raised various themes. Overall, managers were aware of possible direct and combined positive connections between commitment and individual performance.

Table 32: Classifications of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants Based on Length of Service

Length of service	0-10	11-20	21-30	30 ≤
Connection with individual performance	Direct connections	Direct connections	Direct connections	////////////////////
	Combined connections	Combined connections	//////////////////// ////////////////////	Combined connections

6.6.5.2 Educational attainment

Based on their educational attainment groups, managers' awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance has no influential role of educational attainment in interpreting any differences among these groups.

Table 33: Classifications of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants based on Educational Attainment

Educational attainment	Postgraduate	Graduate	Undergraduate
Connection with individual performance	Direct connections	Direct connections	Direct connections
	Combined connections	Combined connections	Combined connections

6.6.5.3 Age

Although managers fell into different age groups, across all these groups they have addressed positive direct or combined connections between commitment and individual performance. Thus, they shared a common view of such connections. Overall, age did not explain why managers have different levels of awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance.

Table 34: Classifications of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants based on Age

Age	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
Connections with individual performance	Direct connections	////////////////////	Direct connections	Direct connections
	Combined connections	Combined connections	Combined connections	Combined connections

6.6.5.4 Position

The last characteristic is positions of managers at their organisations. In both groups, managers saw a mixture of direct and combined connections between commitment and individual performance. Overall, no differences helped in interpreting why managers had different ways of making sense of such connections.

Table 35: Classifications of Connections between Commitment and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants Based on Position

Position	Mid-level managers	Lower-level managers
Connection with individual performance	Direct connections	Direct connections
	Combined connections	Combined connections

6.6.6 *Discussion*

Based on the provided data, managerial interviewees saw the outcomes of commitment through two lenses. The first was that commitment at the workplace leads directly to more desirable results; thus, it is appreciated and vital for accomplishing high levels of individual performance. They argued that commitment could lead to desirable job related activities, such as few mistakes, job perfection, high ratings in performance appraisal and increased salaries. All of these advantages were thought to have immediate and positive connections with high individual performance. Thus, participants who supported this opinion saw being committed as valuable in the workplace, as they perceived commitment as broad concept, which leads to a desirable increase in their performance. Others, however, saw commitment as less valuable, as they thought that commitment has different connections with individual performance. Therefore, they think that commitment has positive implications for performance in connection with some other factors, but that commitment itself is not enough to guarantee an increase in individual performance. For instance, they saw connections with performance through other concepts such as employee satisfaction, education, capabilities and job type.

Overall, these views of connections between the two concepts could be related to certain components of commitment, as these views came through having certain interpretations of what commitment is. Thus, perceiving just two positive types of connections between commitment and individual performance would maintain and support perceiving commitment as constructive concept and positive behaviours components of commitment. For example, being loyal and perfect in doing job duties as well as being obedient and complying with regulations would result in showing high individual performance at work. Nevertheless, participants' demographic characteristics did not help in explaining why participants adopted certain views of such connections.

6.6.7 *Comparing non-managerial and managerial participants' awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance*

This section compares views of non-managerial and managerial interviewees. Although they had different interpretations of what commitment is, they did not show such differences in their awareness of possible connections between commitment and individual performance. Both groups of interviewees shed light on different ways that commitment contributes in increasing individual performance.

First, non-managerial participants expressed their belief that commitment is a positive concept, and could be connected directly with their individual performance and indirectly through various personal and organisational factors. However, another group while supporting the positive nature of commitment at the workplace saw no direct connection between this and performance; they believed that being committed is no guarantee of high individual performance.

Second, managerial participants also have mentioned the constructive nature of the connections between commitment and individual performance. They described in more depth how commitment could be connected with individual performance. Thus, instead of maintaining that commitment is connected indirectly with performance through other factors, they perceived commitment as connected directly with individual performance, having immediate effects on such performance. Others, however, had different views of this kind of connection between the two concepts, and noted the interventions of other factors, such as satisfaction, education, capabilities and job type, in the expected connections between being committed and individual performance.

Overall, there are some similarities between the two data sources. Firstly, both types of participants mentioned the positive connections between commitment and individual performance. In addition, both recognised the indirect connection between the two constructs, and pointed out similar themes. By contrast, differences explicitly appeared in the views of managerial participants, who believed that direct connections between the two concepts exist and mentioned them explicitly. This suggests that managerial participants had broader views of the value of commitment than non-managerial participants, which could be related to the nature of their jobs. The following figure represents such differences and similarities more clearly.

6.7 Conclusion

After exploring different components of insights of employees and managers in the banking sector in Libya regarding commitment, I think it is necessary to reflect on whether I achieved what I aimed for or not. In this chapter, I answered four research questions; how managerial and non-managerial employees interpret commitment in the Libyan banking sector? What antecedents are perceived by managerial and non-managerial participants of commitment at the work in the Libyan banking sector? What

views do managerial and non-managerial participants have regarding management attitudes towards commitment at the workplace in the Libyan banking sector? What connections managerial and non-managerial participants are aware of between commitment and individual performance in the Libyan banking sector? Although I am very aware of my subjectivist stance, which rejects the existence of a single external reality, I think we can, to some extent, conclude what we have discovered about participants' insights of commitment. Whereas, at the beginning of this chapter, we had no idea about how participants constructed their interpretations of commitment, now we can sum up, what commitment meant for participants.

As we saw from the above exploration, participants interpret commitment from two points; behavioural interpretations of commitment, as they saw commitment to be included in some behaviours such as good appearance and punctuality. Such interpretations could be linked with low levels of awareness of connections between commitment and individual performance, and could also be linked with perceptions of negative and discouraging management attitudes. On the other hand, some participants showed attitudinal interpretations of commitment, where they construe this concept to included broader elements such as loyalty and feeling of affiliation. This view refers to emotional "affective" and moral "normative" aspect of commitment, as being committed refers to complying with what employees and managers think is the right thing to do, as well as feeling emotionally attached to the organisation. This sort of interpreting commitment could also be linked with positive encouraging attitudes of management. Additionally, it could also be linked with being highly aware of connections between commitment and individual performance.

Therefore, I suggest that making sense of all categories together would lead to reach such conclusions. In other words, insights of commitment in the Libyan banking sector could be constituted, to some extent, according to the following scenario:

"Organisational, personal and socio-cultural antecedents led to attitudinal "affective and normative" and behavioural interpretations of commitment. Participants who interpret commitment from a broad attitudinal angle saw links with positive management attitudes, and were aware of positive connections with individual performance. By contrast, participants who interpret commitment from a narrow behavioural angle saw neutral and

negative attitudes of management toward commitment, and they could not see positive connections between commitment and individual performance”.

However, while the figure 23 includes the whole picture of insights of commitment, the figure 24 illustrates the concluded scenario of insights of commitment in the Libyan banking sector.

Figure 23: Network of Categories & Subcategories of Insights of Commitment in the Banking Sector in Libya as Seen by Participants

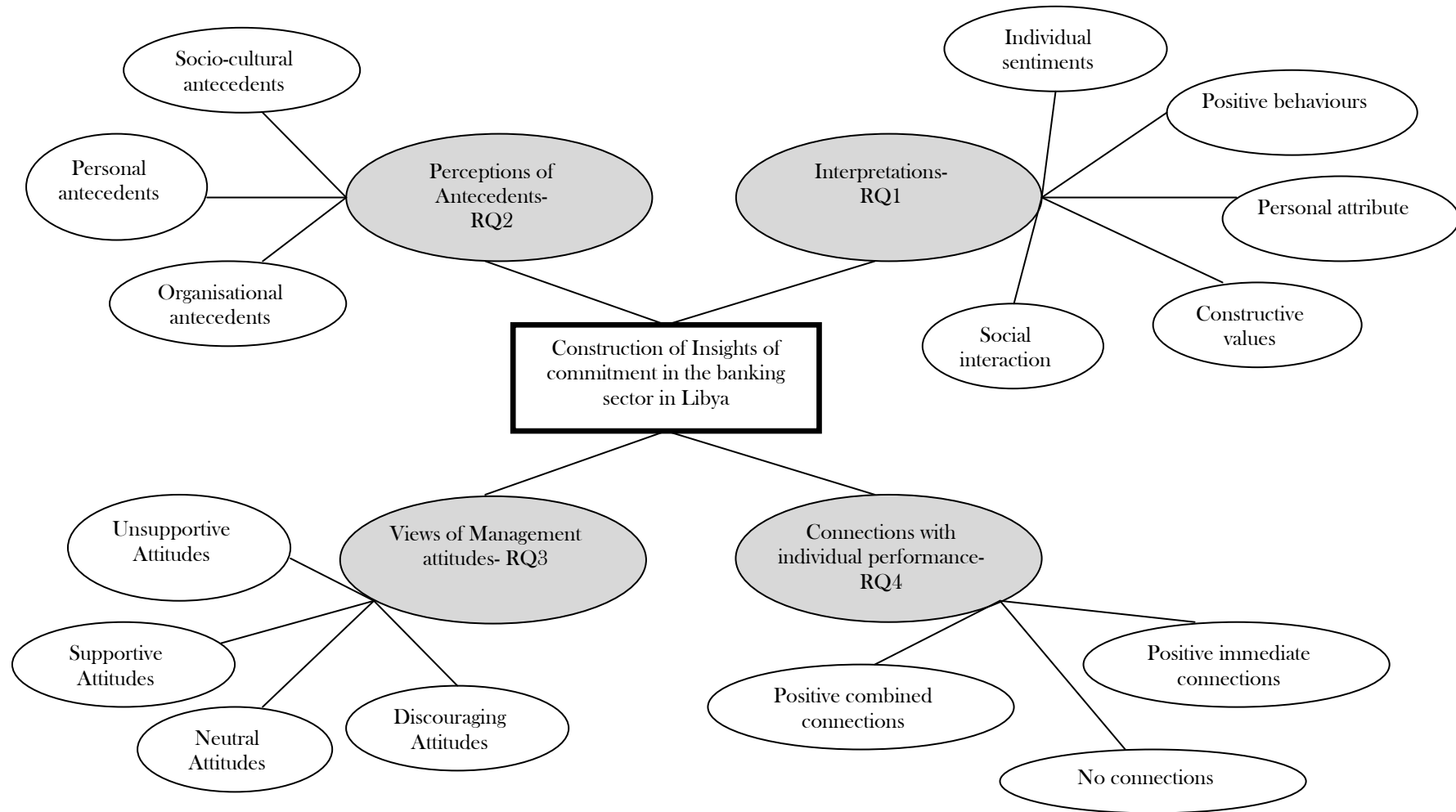
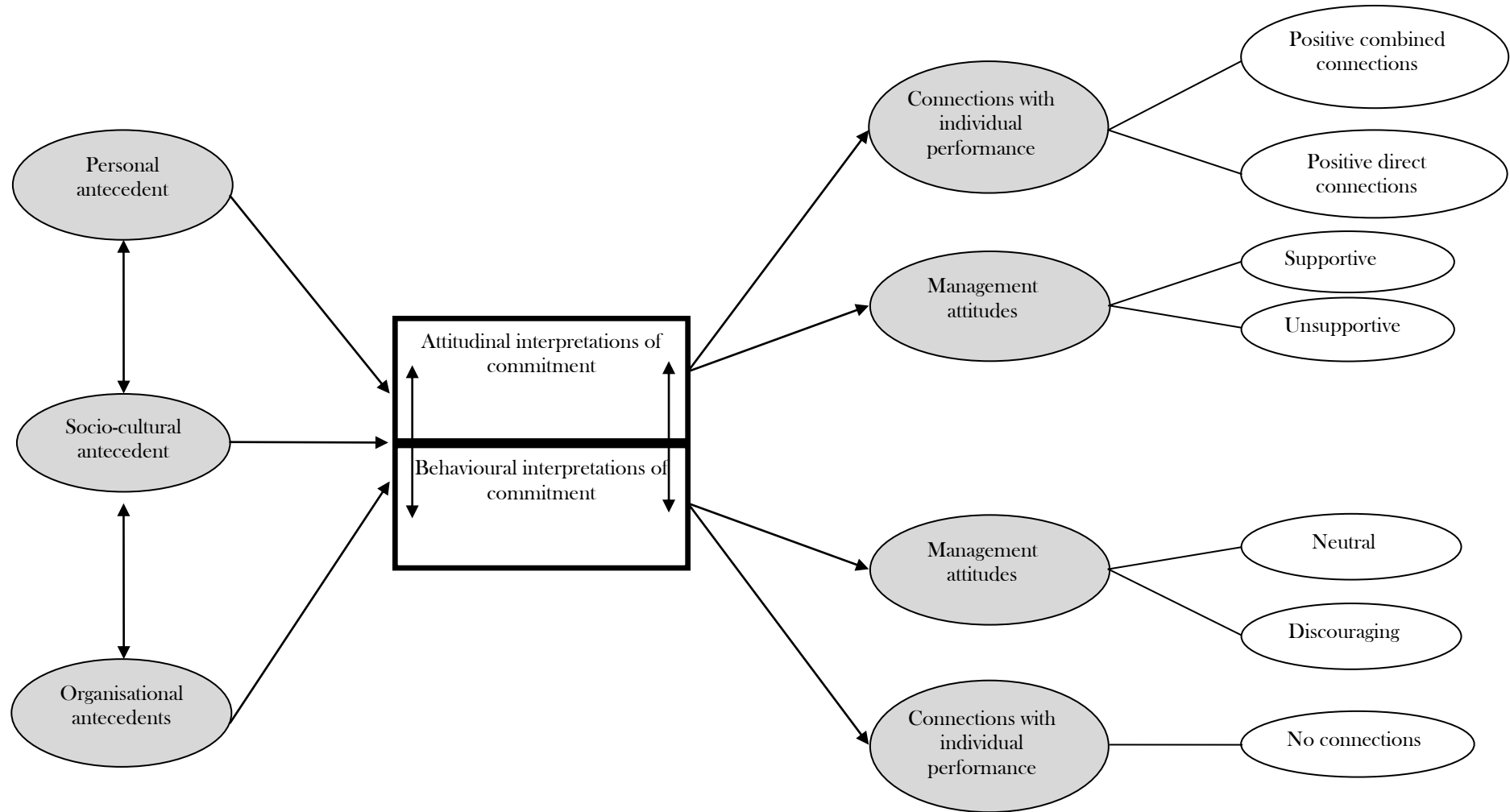


Figure 24: Structure of Categories and Subcategories of Insights into Commitment in the Libyan Banking Sector



CHAPTER 7: EMPIRICAL EXPLORATION AND CONSTRUCTION OF INSIGHTS INTO OCBs

7.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the second organisational construct of the study. It focuses on answering the second part of the research questions. Accordingly, it is structured in four main sections, namely; interpretations of managerial and non managerial participants of OCBs, perceptions of antecedents of OCBs, visions of management attitudes to OCBs and awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance.

So far, little is known about OCBs in the workplace in the Libyan banking sector, and insights into how employees and managers see OCBs are still inexplicit. Therefore, by considering the research questions to guide this chapter, I aim to explore and understand how participants see OCBs, how engagement with such behaviours could be created and developed in the eyes of participants and how they perceive the relevance of OCBs to the workplace.

7.2 Reflections of my Personal Position

As with the previous chapter, I felt it is necessary to report my own values and views regarding OCBs. I always wondered why some of my colleagues at Misurata University were not able to cooperate with others and why some of them never did jobs or activities beyond their expected jobs. I also wondered why I stayed after work time doing some work when I was a deputy manager in the examination committee. Was it because of position, responsibilities or just a matter of personal traits? Such questions occupied my mind when I was conducting this research, and my answers, consciously or not, to such questions, shaped much of process of this research. Reflecting on my work values highlighted in the previous chapter, I believe that work is a place to prove self-efficacy and self-competence. For me, work is not just about gaining money; it is for self-value and self-achievement. Thus, I believe a good employee is one who gives, produces and makes an effect. Therefore, I see OCBs as exerting efforts to do extra work beyond what is required. They are voluntary actions that come from employees who have loyalty, who love their jobs, and who believe that jobs are not just a matter of money. They are

practised by those who can make a difference. Even though I believe that these behaviours come from the very personal nature of individuals, these behaviours, I believe, could be adopted when the right conditions are present.

7.3 Interpretations of OCBs in the Libyan Banking Sector

This section addresses the first research question regarding interpretations of OCBs in the Libyan banking sector, which is, *how managerial and non-managerial employees interpret commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector?* Other sub-questions also are explored such as: what components do participants see in relation to construct the concept of OCBs? Do demographic characteristics impact upon adopting specific components of OCBs? How do managerial and non-managerial participants' interpretations differ from each other? Thus, this section will be organised to give an account to views and opinions of non-managerial and managerial participants about definitions, meanings and dimensions of OCBs.

7.3.1 Interpretations of OCBs by non-managerial participants

Non managerial participants raised various elements to capture what OCBs could refer to, which fell into five subcategories, as follows:

7.3.1.1 Social collaborative behaviours

This subcategory represents the social nature of OCBs. Participants mentioned that OCBs are those behaviours when people cooperate and socially exchange favours. In this regard, participants believed that OCBs are a sort of socializing with others and building blocks of social interaction among group members. Further, they addressed themes such as understanding and harmony, solidarity and cooperation, exchange of favours and intimate manners among employees. These themes could be grouped under this title to express the element of social interaction and collaborative behaviours. For instance, good relationships through understanding and harmony among group members were highlighted by an accountant at NCB. He stated:

“OCB means there are understanding and harmony between work group members...The type of relationship between the working group members determines the extent of choice or necessity in exercising OCB” (A.11)

Similarly, a cashier at SB in Misurata described OCBs as social interaction and harmony among employees. He said:

“OCBs refer to harmonious relationships between employees because they are without rewards. These behaviours are done through intimate manners in the scope of social interaction. So OCBs mostly are represented in the form of cooperation and social interaction with others” (B.38)

7.3.1.2 In-role, extra-role behaviours

This group of themes concern how participants saw the degree of formality of OCBs, i.e. whether participants saw OCBs as within the scope of their jobs or as extra behaviours beyond their job duties. Therefore, OCBs were perceived as in-role behaviours and extra-role behaviours simultaneously. An accountant at SB in Misurata saw such behaviours as extra-role. He stated:

“Sometimes we come early in the morning to do tasks outside our main jobs and without rewards, for the sake of the bank. Sometimes I do some administrative work. Sometimes I use my own mobile to contact customers” (B.41)

By contrast, others saw OCBs as in-role behaviours. Therefore, they described these behaviours as within their job duties. An example is this comment:

“Practising OCBs is limited to your job responsibility, not more. For example, I could help just within my job scope, where OCBs are included” (B.34)

7.3.1.3 Intangibly rewarded behaviours

Even though the majority of participants indicated that OCBs are not rewarded, some of them believed that these behaviours are practised in order to get indirect rewards. Thus, this group points to the possibility that OCBs could be considered as rewarded behaviours that are practised in order to gain benefits. For example, an administrative employee at WB highlighted that employees usually get unforeseen rewards for practising OCBs. He said:

“OCBs are to double efforts to achieve more, they contribute in getting more unforeseen rewards because they are good for work, so are rewarded” (A.15)

Nevertheless, for others, OCBs are unrewarded behaviours, as engaging in them will not yield any benefits. An accountant at NCB took this view based on his own experience. He asserted:

“Helping others because of more experience or coming in the evenings to do some other jobs out of the scope of mine and without rewards, I travelled a lot to many places without rewards and out of my job, using my own car to finish jobs” (B.36)

7.3.1.4 Person-related behaviours

OCBs are seen as more related to individuals than organisations. Therefore, participants highlighted various individual-related characteristics when describing OCBs. They believed that OCBs are to maintain individual interest and desire for self-development. Therefore, they addressed themes such as personality, personal desires, gaining knowledge and developing skills. In this sense, OCBs refer to various personal motives and attributes. For example, an administrative employee at NCB stressed that personal attributes play an important role in encouraging people to practise OCBs. He described:

“OCBs could be practised for the sake of very selfish interest of individuals, because engaging in them could be practised for the sake of showing off. Here the intent of employees is really important.....OCBs are related to personalities of people” (B.40)

Another accountant at the same bank added:

“They refer to cooperation, you do them and you are satisfied about engaging with them, you do them from yourself spontaneously. Such behaviours always exist at the work, especially when there is work pressure, they depend on the abilities of employees, so when you can, you do something to prevent problems” (C.14)

7.3.1.5 Mutable behaviours

This component represents the dynamic and multi-faceted nature of OCBs, as participants stressed a variety of imprecise issues in regard to the meaning of OCBs. However, under this subcategory, OCBs are distinguished by three main themes. Firstly is the degree of choice, which points to whether OCBs are optional or mandatory behaviours. Secondly, two-edged behaviours; this refers to different uses of OCBs, either to develop and improve the workplace situation, or to have adverse influence over the situation. Thirdly, engagement, which refers to who usually engages in OCBs. For

example some participants mentioned certain sorts of personalities, while others thought that all employees get engaged in OCBs. Overall these elements are presented in the following subtitles.

1) Degree of choice

This unit represents different individual choices to practise OCBs. Non-managerial participants pointed out that these behaviours could be considered as optional or compulsory behaviours according to the situation and people involved. They agreed that the necessity or discretionary nature of such behaviours is situation-dependent, so OCBs, in some cases, are considered as unavoidable and in other cases they are optional. For instance, an accountant at NCB in Misurata saw OCBs as discretionary, saying:

“OCBs are optional and related to the individual desire, because I feel that work should be done” (B.36)

On the other hand, an administrative employee at WB described OCBs as unavoidable behaviours which employees have no choice but to engage in. He articulated:

“Because of interaction with employees and managers, the practice of OCBs is changed into mandatory activities and not optional. This means that employees will be forced to practise it” (A.15)

2) Two-edged behaviours

Even though participants underlined the significance of interaction among staff and personal attributes when defining OCBs, they thought that OCBs could be used in different ways. Many believed that OCBs are used to enhance the organisational situation and to benefit their organisations. However, others perceived that such behaviours may be used to impact their organisations negatively. Expressing such views, participants who supported the positive role of OCBs highlighted issues such as doubling efforts to achieve more, performing work to the fullest, positive behaviours for the banking work and for the interest of organisation needs. On the other hand, although OCBs are mostly seen as positive and desirable behaviours, some participants stated that OCBs could also be harmful to employees and organisations, because conflicting responsibilities could lead to more serious issues, especially in case a mistake in doing a specific job or in loss accountability. An administrative employee at NCB highlighted both types of effects of OCBs on organisations. He asserted:

“At the moment OCBs represent the personal desire of employees to serve the interests of the organization or sometimes to do good deeds. However, many think that OCBs are harmful behaviours in some cases, for example loss of accountability if there is a mistake or in case these is conflict between employees”

(A.13)

An accountant at NCB described the dark side of OCBs when he referred to them as restricted behaviours at work. He stated:

“Although OCBs represent ability to be useful to others and improve the self, they could have adverse impact over the organisation. Therefore, they are restricted behaviours at the bank” (B.34)

3) Engagement

This title refers to who gets engaged with OCBs at work. Although some participants mentioned that all employees get engaged in OCBs, others, however, asserted that OCBs are not confined to certain employees. Describing limited involvement in OCBs, an administrative employee at WB linked the practice of OCBs and the position of the person; he thought that managers are more engaged in such behaviours. He stated:

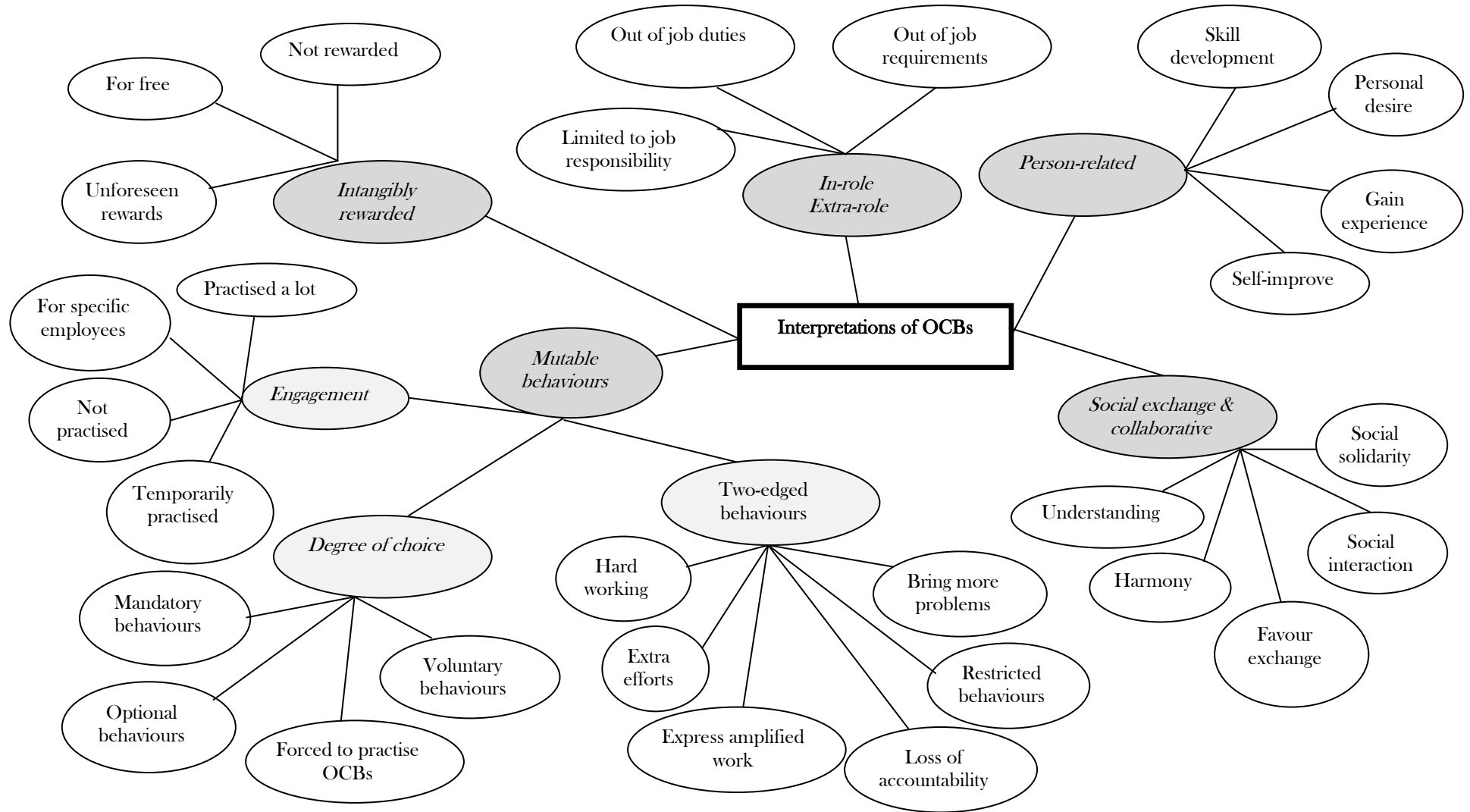
“OCBs increases with the position of the person who practises it, therefore OCB is higher among managers than employees, OCB is practised by managers to express amplified work” (A.15)

On the other hand, an auditor at NCB saw widespread practice of such behaviours, and he supported the view that OCBs are practised by a large number of employees. He said:

“OCBs are practised a lot in the organisation, because the bank is deemed as one hand, so it is natural to find such behaviours happening” (A.12)

Overall, figure 25 presents the captured components of interpretations of OCBs according to non-managerial participants.

Figure 25: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Interpretations of OCBs by Non-Managerial Participants



7.3.2 *Dimensions of OCBs*

7.3.2.1 *Organisational dimension*

This dimension refers to three groups of behaviours, where employees pursue the interest of their organisation. Thus, they may work for extra time, do extra jobs and show high concern for their organisation. However, these groups are illustrated below in more detail:

- 1- *Extra time*; this group includes coming early in the morning, staying after work time or coming in the evenings. Such behaviours are considered as OCBs.
- 2- *Extra roles*; participants addressed different behaviours when talking about what behaviours they performed and considered as OCBs. They mentioned; doing any job as wanted, doing the job of another employee and doing extra work.
- 3- *Concern*; participants stressed those behaviours which aim to enhance the situation at their organisations. They specifically mentioned: solving all problems concerning their organisations, solving problems faced at the workplace, spending money, using private cars and their mobile phones.

7.3.2.2 *Interactional dimension*

This dimension points to those behaviours that include any sort of interacting and socialising with others such as colleagues, managers or even customers. It refers to (1) helping employees in many ways such doing their jobs or paying for a deficit they encountered, (2) reconciliation between colleagues for their best interest. For example participants expressed; cooperation with colleagues, helping colleagues, reconciliation between colleagues, contributing by money and staff collaboration.

Supporting these dimensions of OCBs, participants mentioned several behaviours they considered as OCBs. For example, a cashier at SB stressed that attending outside working hours and using one's own mobile phone are kinds of OCBs. He said:

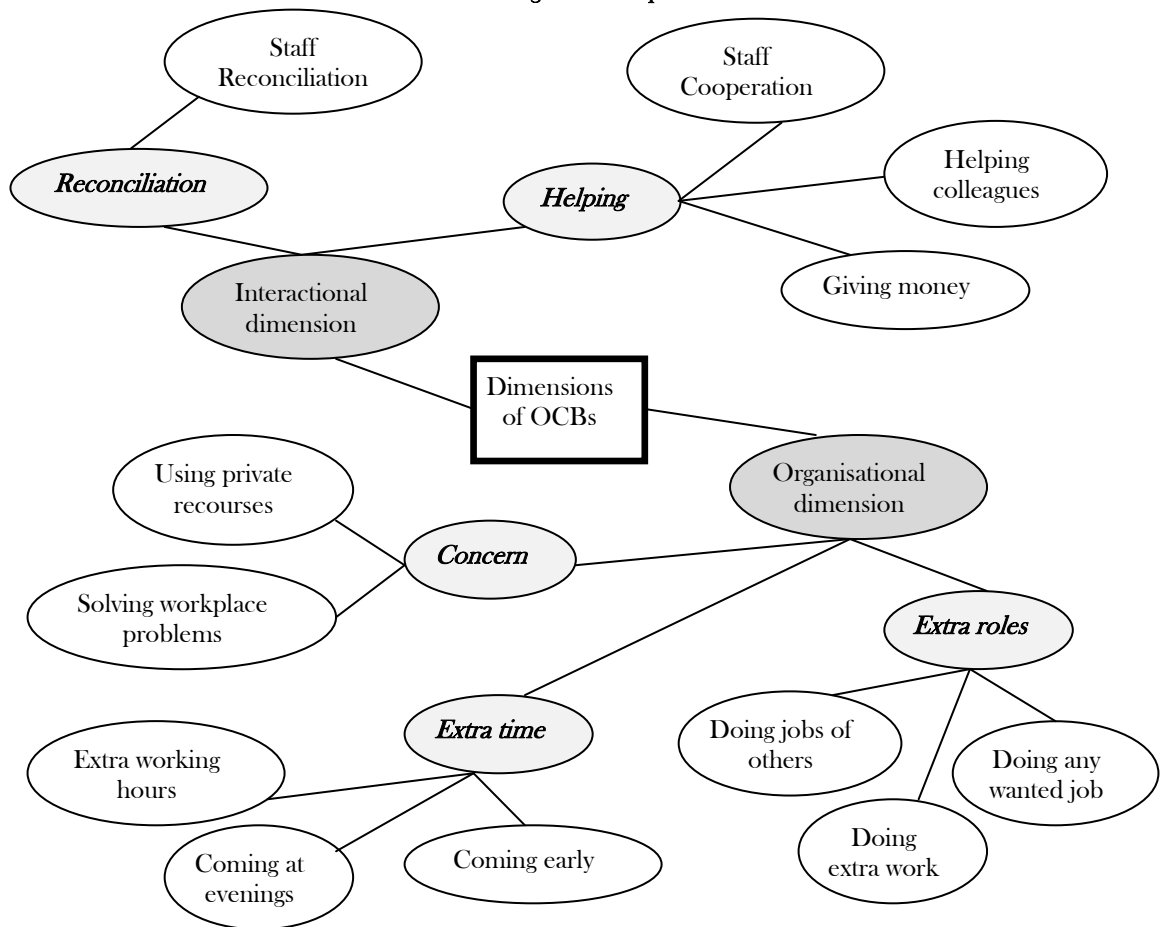
“Sometimes we come early in the morning to do jobs outside our main jobs and without rewards, for the sake of the bank. Sometimes I do some administrative work; sometimes I use my own mobile to contact customers” (B.41, 11-20, graduate, 41-50)

Similarly, an accountant at NCB highlighted helping others at work and using their own car for the sake of their organisations. He stated:

“Helping others because of more experienced or coming at evenings to do some other jobs out of mine and without rewards, I travelled a lot to many places without rewards and out of my job, using my own car to finish jobs” (B.36, 0-10, graduate, 20-30)

This argument is summarised in figure 26 presenting what dimensions of OCBs participants saw at the workplace.

Figure 26: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Dimensions and Behaviours of OCBs as Seen by Non-Manual Participants



7.3.3 Demographic data and interpretations of non-managerial participants

7.3.3.1 Length of service

Although participants were divided into three groups according to their lengths of services (0-10, 11-20, 21-30 years), they were similar in their identified components of OCBs. Across all groups person-related, social collaboration and two-edged behaviours were highlighted. However, participants saw differences in whether OCBs are in-role or extra-role behaviours, different levels of engagement with OCBs, whether OCBs are rewarded

or not and whether OCBs are optional or compulsory behaviours. For instance, participants with 11-20 and 21-30 years of service stressed that OCBs are unrewarded behaviours and employees practise them to various degrees, while those with less length of service raised different views, as some of them saw OCBs as rewarded behaviours and identified limited engagement with OCBs. Whereas some participants with 0-10 years of service saw OCBs as optional, others in the same group saw them as compulsory behaviours. Nevertheless, this classification of participants suggests that more years of service guided participants to see OCBs as unrewarded and were associated with more engagement with such behaviours. This view is clearly seen from the table 36.

Table 36: Classification of Components of OCBs Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants

<i>Length of service</i>	<i>0-10 years of service</i>	<i>11-20 years of service</i>	<i>21-30 years of service</i>
<i>Interpretations of OCBs</i>	Person-related	Person-related	Person-related
	Social collaboration	Social collaboration	Social collaboration
	Two-edged	Two-edged	Two-edged
	ERBs	IRBs/ERBs	ERBs
	Intangibly rewarded	Unrewarded behaviours	Unrewarded behaviours
	Limited engagement	High engagement	High engagement
	Optional /Compulsory behaviours	////////////////////	////////////////////

7.3.3.2 Educational attainment

Despite the fact that participants had three different levels of educational backgrounds; postgraduate, graduate and undergraduate, slight differences were raised among them when their views were classified according to their educational attainment. Although, across all education groups participants saw person related and two-edged behaviours as landscapes of OCBs, differences were also reported. For instance, postgraduate degree holders identified OCBs as bringing unforeseen rewards and they saw limited engagement of employees within such behaviours. In addition, they did not see OCBs as social collaboration behaviours. Whilst graduate and undergraduate degree holders saw OCBs as to social collaboration, unrewarded behaviours and mixed engagement with OCBs are also reported. These views suggest that postgraduate degree holders had narrower interpretations of OCBs, as table 37 shows.

Table 37: Classification of Components of OCBs Based on Educational Attainment of Non-Managerial Participants

<i>Educational attainment</i>	<i>Postgraduate</i>	<i>Graduate</i>	<i>Undergraduate</i>
<i>Interpretations of OCBs</i>	Person-related	Person-related	Person-related
	Two-edged	Two-edged	Two-edged
	Social collaborative	Social collaborative	Social collaborative
	ERBs	IRBs/ERBs	ERBs
	Unforeseen rewards	Unrewarded behaviours	Unrewarded behaviours
	Limited engagement	High engagement	High engagement
	Optional/compulsory	Optional behaviours	////////////////////

7.3.3.3 Age

This demographic characteristics includes four categories of age; 20-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60 years. Although participants were distributed across these categories, little difference was found among their interpretations of OCBs. As in length of service and educational attainment, participants shared views that OCBs are person-related, social collaboration and two-edged behaviours. However, they reported other components to different degrees, from which no meaning could be suggested. The only component that could give some suggestion is the level of engagement of OCBs, as older participants saw high engagement of OCBs, while participants aged 20-30 and 31-40 years described mixed levels of engagement of OCBs. Thus, table 38 shows how components of OCBs were reported by different age groups.

Table 38: Classification of Components of OCBs Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participants

<i>Age groups</i>	<i>20-30 years</i>	<i>31-40 years</i>	<i>41-50 years</i>	<i>51-60 years</i>
<i>Interpretations of OCBs</i>	Person-related	Person-related	Person-related	Person-related
	Social collaborative	Social collaborative	Social collaborative	Social collaborative
	Two-edged	Two-edged	Two-edged	Two-edged
	IRBs	ERBs	IRBs/ERBs	ERBs
	Unrewarded	Unforeseen rewards	Unrewarded	////////////////////
	Optional behaviours	Optional/Compulsory	////////////////////	////////////////////
	Mixed engagement	Mixed engagement	High engagement	High engagement

7.3.4 Discussion

Reflecting different elements of what OCBs are the above argument points to the multi-component nature of OCBs as seen by non-managerial participants. Interpretations of OCBs by non-managerial participants refer to five different elements. Firstly, OCBs were

seen as social collaboration and exchange behaviours, equivalent to many social attributes such as solidarity, harmony and favour exchange. In this sense, OCBs are considered as outcomes of interacting with others in the organisation. Secondly participants saw OCBs via different lenses. Though the majority of them saw OCBs as extra-role behaviours, others pointed out those behaviours are vital and exist within the job of every banker. Thus, OCBs were seen as In-role behaviours. Thirdly, a big number of respondents argued that OCBs are not rewarded because they are not included in their job duties. Others, however, addressed that employees who practise OCBs do get indirect rewards. Thus, they did not see OCBs as unrewarded behaviours. Fourthly, participants highlighted the individualistic component of OCBs. In this regard, they saw OCBs as a group of personal endeavours and desires. Thus, OCBs are equivalent to self improvement, gaining knowledge and developing skills. The last element of their interpretations of OCBs is the mutable nature of OCBs. Participants stressed that OCBs are vibrant and depend on different situational factors. In specific, they highlighted three contingent elements: degree of choice, two-edged behaviours and engagement. Degree of choice refers to whether these behaviours are considered as optional or compulsory; both views were reported. Two-edged behaviours refer to multiuse of OCBs, where non-managerial participants highlighted that OCBs could be seen as desirable or unconstructive behaviours. Engagement refers to different levels of practise of OCBs. While some participants perceived widespread practice of OCBs at their organisations, others considered that OCBs need engagement of special employees, and were not practised at their organisations.

Accordingly, participants shared common agreement on two components of OCBs, namely, person-related and social collaborative behaviours. The first point that could guide different interpretations perceives OCBs as in-role or extra-role behaviours. I suggest that those who believe that OCBs are in-role behaviours might perceive them as rewarded and compulsory behaviours. This view supports perceptions of high and mixed engagement with OCBs and the view of OCBs as positive for the organisation's interest. In contrast, those who believe that OCBs are extra-role behaviours view them as unrewarded behaviours. Therefore, they are optional behaviours, which could have negative impact on the organisation, and employees hesitate to get engaged with them.

Based on their described behaviours, I gathered those related behaviours to present two dimensions of OCBs. The first is the organisational dimension, which includes different

behaviours related more to the organisational interest. Basically, such behaviours are practised to support and benefit the organisation. In specific, working for extra time, performing extra roles and concern with developing the organisation are sub-groups of this dimension. Furthermore, this dimension, I suggest, could be linked with some components of interpretations of OCBs. For example, by looking at the described behaviours included within this dimension, we could notice that extra time and extra-role performance could be associated with the in-role/extra-role components, as participants reported different behaviours as doing more than their job duties. In addition, the concern sub-group could be associated with two-edged and unrewarded behaviours, where participants expressed different behaviours, which serve the interest of the organisations without looking for rewards.

The interactional dimension refers to different related behaviours, which aim toward interaction with others in the organisation. Participants believed that these behaviours are not for the organisational interest, but are practised for the interest of other staff members. When looking at this dimension's subgroups, thoughts about relationships to components of interpretations of OCBs occurred. Thus, social collaborative, person-related and two-edged behaviours could be strongly associated with this dimension. For instance, participants reported different behaviours reflecting individual interest in practising OCBs, and for the interest of others, i.e. colleagues, managers and customers. Additionally, such behaviours are thought to be more constructive for the relationships among employees than the organisation.

Why different participants perceived different components of OCBs also was investigated. However, by looking at the three demographic characteristics of participants, little was achieved, as length of service, educational attainment and age provided few answers for this question. It was noted that participants with longer service perceived OCBs as unrewarded and highly engaged with such behaviours. Furthermore, the structure of data also suggests that postgraduate degree holders had narrower view of OCBs, while older participants supported high engagement with OCBs in the workplace. However, I suggest that those interpretations of OCBs are more likely to be related to individual perceptions of participants. Thus, individual differences could answer the question why different participants saw different components of OCBs.

7.3.5 *Interpretations of OCBs by managerial participants*

This part explores managerial participants' interpretations of OCBs. It addresses the second part of the first research question, which is, *How do employees and managers interpret OCBs in the Libyan banking sector?* As in the first part, it deals with more detailed sub-questions such as what themes do participants recognise as elements of OCBs? What makes managers adopt different elements of OCBs? The themes are grouped into six subcategories, each of which represents a facet of OCBs.

7.3.5.1 *Person-related behaviours*

This group refers to several individual characteristics, where OCBs are seen as a combination of a certain personal abilities, desires and senses. Thus, these behaviours reflect high perceptions by individuals of their capabilities and importance of their roles. For example, participants reported personal information and experience, feeling of self importance, self-development, sense of growth, individual perceptions and sense of responsibility. Thus, participants believed that OCBs are individual behaviours towards organisations. For example, the head of the accountancy department at LCB supported the role of individual abilities and development as part of what OCBs meant to him. He expressed:

“Practising OCBs means having more information about work. OCB refers to self and career development at work” (B.39)

Similarly, the head of the auditing department at CDB stressed that OCBs reflect personal skills and abilities. He added:

“Availability of a range of skills and capabilities with the individuals qualified employees who have information and experience usually do activities beyond their jobs” (A.19)

7.3.5.2 *Social collaborative behaviours*

This cluster of themes points to different interactional behaviours reflecting desirable mutual relationships among staff. This means that OCBs are seen as sort of exchange of benefits and interaction with others in the organisation, whether colleagues or managers. This sort of interaction and exchange takes two forms; first, exchange and interaction between employees, and second, swapping benefits with managers. Participants captured several themes describing social interaction and collaborative behaviours. For instance,

they identified social interaction, favour to favour exchange, exchange of experience and benefits, solidarity, cooperation and integration. Supporting this view, a deputy manager at NCB underscored that OCBs involve benefit exchange among employees and their bank. He said:

“OCBs reflect mutual benefits between staff and their bank.....they are in order to get more from the bank” (B.30)

Similarly, the head of the credit department at WB saw these behaviours in the frame of social interaction and exchange of favours among colleagues. He expressed:

“OCBs mean to interact and cooperate with others aiming for their help in future, they represent social exchange and social interaction and reflect social role exchange” (A.23)

7.3.5.3 Unrewarded behaviours

This subcategory considers what is expected of engaging in OCBs. Participants agreed that OCBs are not rewarded behaviours; they are not asked to practise them. Hence, they are out of the reward system and employees themselves do not consider any rewards for them. However, other participants thought that people who engage in OCBs always expect to get a desirable reaction to their involvement in OCBs, there are no clear or direct rewards for practicing such behaviours. Specifically they mentioned: not looking for rewards, no material rewards, without any reward and employees anticipate getting some reactions. For instance, the manager of the credit department at CDB argued that although OCBs are unrewarded, employees expect to gain some positive reactions of their engagement of OCBs. He stated:

“There are no material rewards for OCBs, but employees always anticipate getting some reactions to OCBs; if not they will think that their administration does not deserve to be supported by OCBs” (A.17)

By contrast, the head of the accountancy department at WB, like many others, backed the view that OCBs are completely unrewarded. He described:

“OCBs are spontaneous voluntary behaviours without any reward.... Always happened at the workplace... Out of job duties and not everyone gets involved” (B.27)

7.3.5.4 *In-role, extra-role behaviours*

This group of themes refers to how managers consider such behaviours with reference to their job scopes, i.e. whether OCBs are seen as in-role or extra-role behaviours. The majority of participants believed that OCBs are out of their job requirements, and to be engaged during free time or after they finish their main jobs. This means that completion of job duties has priority over OCBs. On the other hand, taking a broader view of being a banker, others stated that OCBs are actual behaviours of any banker. In general, participants addressed several themes including; activities out of main job, secondary activities, performed after finishing the main job's activities, more than the job requires, work that does not belong to your job, finishing their original jobs and OCBs are within the duties of everyone at the bank. For example, a deputy branch manager at NCB highlighted that OCBs are secondary behaviours and they are out of the job duties of any employee. He said:

“OCBs are any activities out of your main job.....they are secondary activities performed after finishing the main job activities” (A.21)

On the other hand, the branch manager at CDB asserted that OCBs are pure duties of any banker, and they are included within the main jobs of employees. He maintained:

“OCBs are important behaviours. They are within the duties of everyone because being a banker requires the employee to engage in such behaviours” (B.29)

7.3.5.5 *Spontaneous and voluntary behaviours*

This component includes themes describing the nature of OCBs as being unprompted optional behaviours. Participants believed that such behaviours depend on individual judgement, so their managers will never punish them for not getting engaged with OCBs. However, these behaviours could be altered into obligatory behaviours, especially when employees want to expand their experience and knowledge. They addressed different themes such as optional and discretionary, volunteering work, voluntary behaviours and becoming mandatory behaviours when more experience is sought. For instance, the head of the credit department at GB emphasized that OCBs are optional and voluntary work, which is needed to maintain effective organisations. He expressed:

“Employees are volunteering work without any rewards..... vital for every work and optional behaviours include any behaviour to make our bank better and they are about everything at the bank” (B.33)

Similarly, the head of personnel affairs at the same bank said:

“Spontaneous voluntary behaviours without any rewards always happened at the workplace. They are out of job duties and not everyone gets involved” (B.25)

7.3.5.6 Mutable behaviours

This component of OCBs points to their mercurial nature, as participants described different uses and engagement with OCBs. This gives the impression that OCBs can change according to the viewer's intent. For example, participating managers indicated two elements; two-edged behaviours, where OCBs could be interpreted as positive or negative behaviours and engagement, where participants saw different levels of engagement with OCBs.

1) Two-edged behaviours

This group points to different judgments of participants of OCBs. First, OCBs are seen as positive and desirable behaviours, where managers underlined that OCBs are against negativism, they lead to work development, are crucial for jobs and for making employees feel affiliated, supportive for work, keeping the work wheels turning without interruption, reducing pressure, solving problems facing the workflow and vital for every work.

On the other hand, other participants saw that OCBs as undesirable behaviours because they lead to work overlapping and loss of accountability. Therefore, they highlighted themes such as contradictory behaviours, do not exist in laws and regulations, not appreciated at work, could be negative when self-interest is pursued, limited behaviours because of sensitivity of jobs. Supporting these views, participants reported different views of whether OCBs are positive or negative for organisations. For example, a branch manager at CDB in Misurata saw OCBs as wholly positive, as they lead to favourable outcomes. He stated:

“OCBs reduce work pressure, do not allow work to accumulate, understanding jobs and more positive behaviours at the work” (A.20)

On the other hand, the deputy manager at SB addressed the possibility of OCBs having both negative and positive aspects. He asserted:

“OCBs have two faces, positive and negative. They could be for work development or could be for getting a personal interest. Therefore, they depend on individual perceptions of people” (B.28)

2) Engagement

This cluster of themes refers to different levels of involvement with OCBs. Although managers pointed out that these behaviours differ from one person to another and not everyone engages with them, others reported that OCBs are practised widely and everyone gets involved with them. A third group stated that OCBs are more practised by managerial than non managerial staff, so, engaging with OCBs depends on what sort of jobs employees have. This argument adds to the mutable nature of OCBs as they are seen by different people. For example, participants captured different themes, such as OCBs are practised by special people, not anyone can practise them, there are capabilities to practise OCBs, OCBs are practised largely in the bank, no one refuses to practise OCBs and managerial jobs are more engaged with OCBs. For instance, the manager of the accountancy department at NCB addressed that employees see OCBs as unrewarded and unvalued behaviours at work. Therefore, they hesitate to get engaged with such behaviours. He stated:

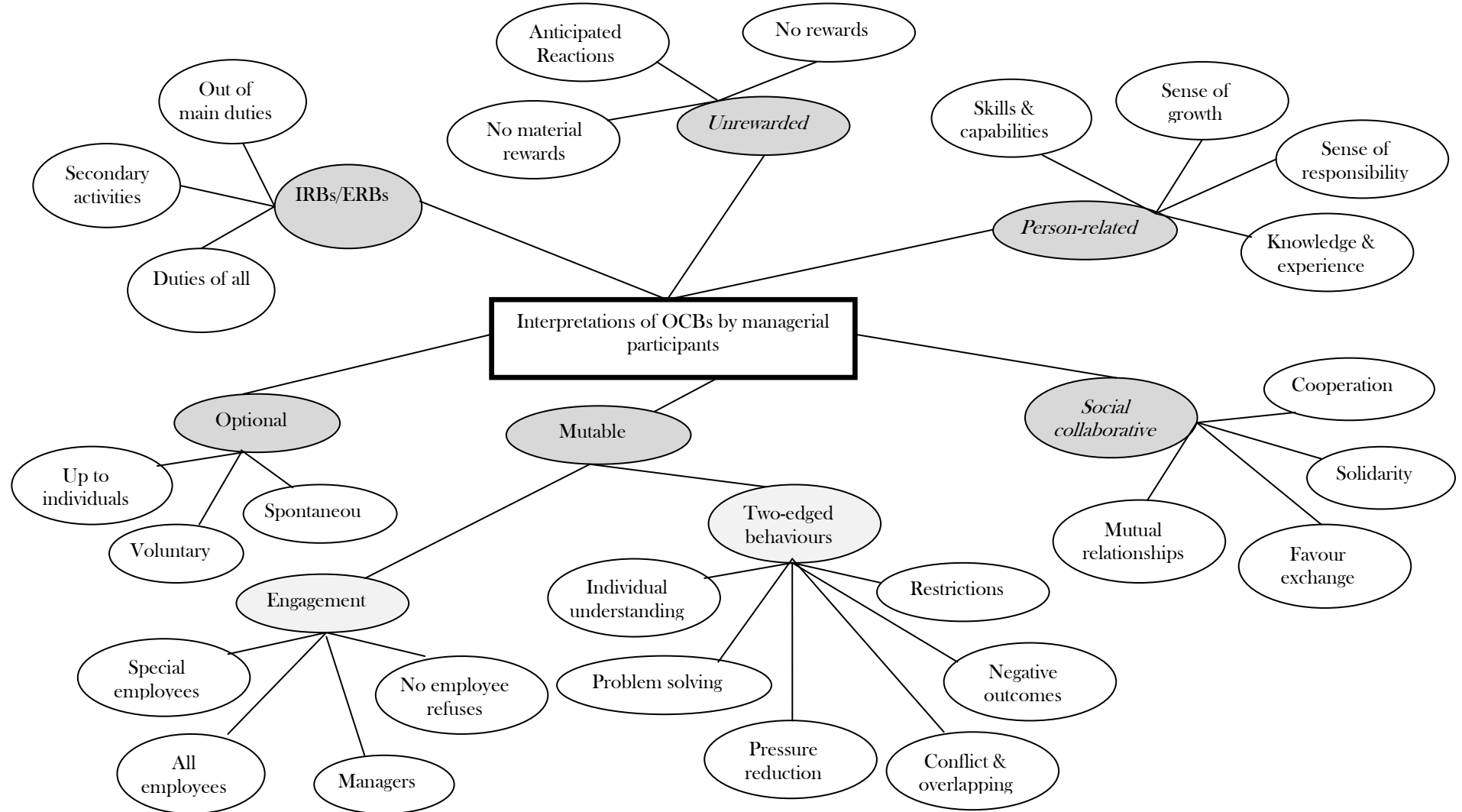
“Because these behaviours are not rewarded and out of the job duties, OCBs are not for all staff, most staff see them as unappreciated behaviours at work” (B.26)

On the other hand, the head of the credit department at WB saw OCBs as a type of social interaction among people, so that high engagement was to be expected. He highlighted:

“OCBs present social interaction among staff; therefore no one refuses practising OCBs” (A.23)

Based on the explanation above, interpretations of managerial respondents could be summarised in figure 27.

Figure 27: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Interpretations of OCBs by Managerial Participants mutable



7.3.6 *Dimensions*

7.3.6.1 *Organisational dimension*

This cluster points to behaviours thought to serve the interest of organisations. Thus, this dimension comprises of three main groups of behaviours of OCBs:

- 1- *Extra work*; this dimension reflects doing more jobs and performing extra actions such as transfer of furniture and money from one place to another, cleaning, doing jobs of others, working from home and organizing the archives.
- 2- *Extra time*; this group refers to doing extra working hours. Participants indicated that they work for long hours as a form of OCBs. For instance, they stressed; working on holiday, at weekends, private occasions and national celebrations day and coming back from vacations.
- 3- *Concern*; refers to various practised behaviours which are thought to reflect concern about the organisation and its customers. This dimension represents carefulness about organisations, stopping people from destroying possessions, turning off lights, cleaning the bank, defending the organisation, presenting a good image of the organisation in society, attracting more customers and solving all problems.

7.3.6.2 *Interactional dimension:*

This dimension indicates treatment with others in a desirable manner. For example, participants highlighted behaviours such as;

- 1- *Helping*; this refers to offering help and information to colleagues, managers and customers it also includes participating by money for others in case of need.
- 2- *Educating and training*; this points to different behaviours of teaching and illuminating in order to show others how to deal with specific issues.
- 3- *Reconciliation*; this includes different behaviours of keeping harmony and agreement among staff.

These classifications of dimensions of OCBs were generated from the descriptions of such behaviours in the interviews. For example, the head of the credit department at WB reflected the organisational dimension by highlighting problem solving and defending the organisation. He said:

“We try to solve all problems in all sections for the interest of the customers.

Defending the organization so that it has a good reputation” (A.23)

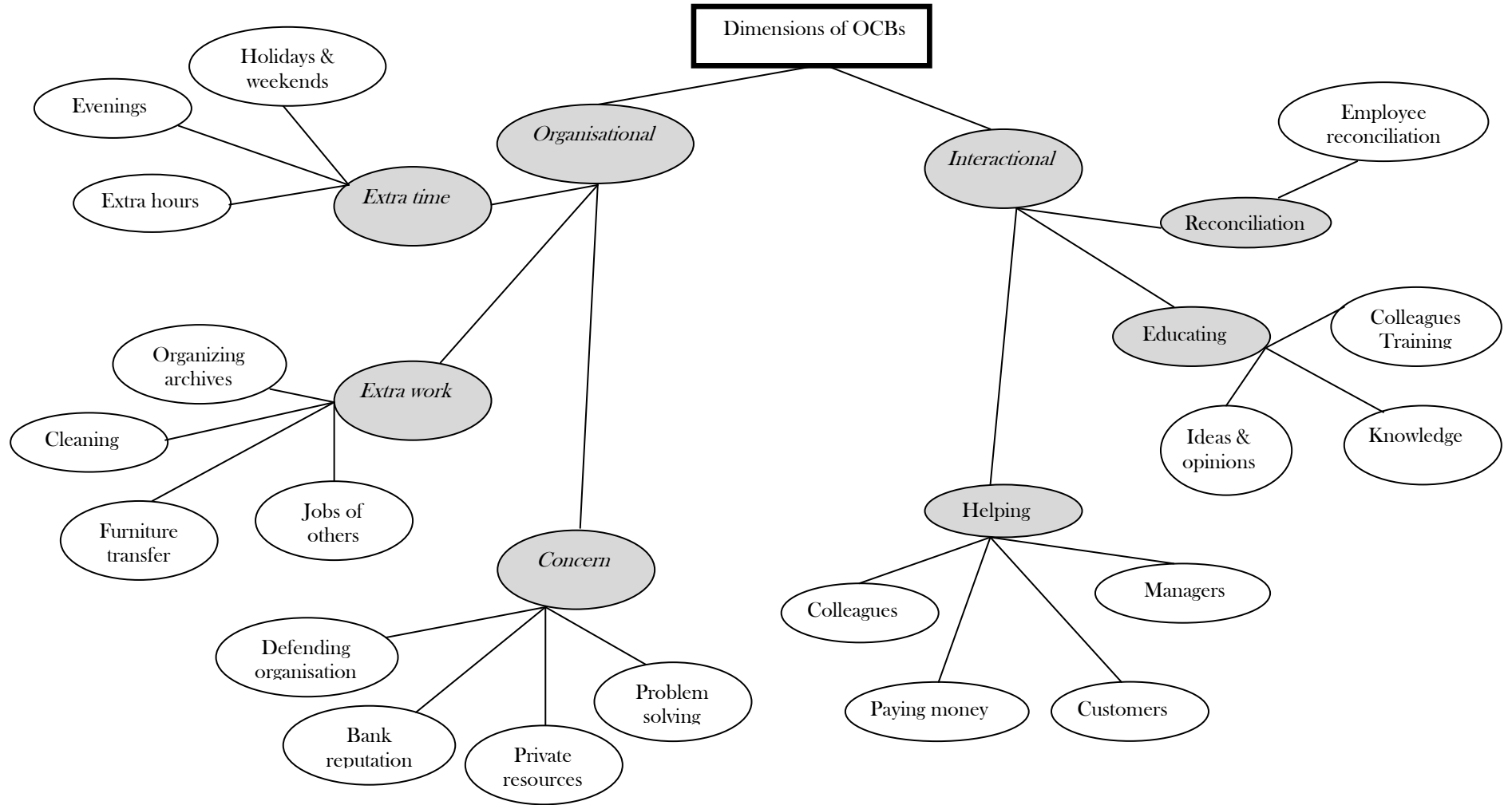
The head of the credit department at GB also cited a wide range of practiced behaviours when stating:

“Taking my work home and doing it there when the bank is closed, or when you find employees fighting each other, helping our administration to solve its problems, also I think stopping people from destroying our possessions is one of those behaviours, helping customers withdraw from their accounts is an example”

(B.33)

These dimensions represent feasible views of what participants meant by OCBs. Therefore, both dimensions are presented in figure 28.

Figure 28: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Dimensions of OCBs as Seen by Managerial Participants



7.3.7 Demographic data and interpretations of OCBs by managerial participants

7.3.7.1 Length of service

Respondents were divided into four groups according to their lengths of service: 0-10, 11-20, 21-30 and 30≤ years. Although person-related, positive behaviour and unrewarded behaviour aspects of OCBs were highlighted across all groups, social collaboration and mixed engagement were stressed by participants with fewer years of service, 0-10 and 11-20. In addition, while participants with 0-10 years of service saw OCBs as compulsory behaviours at work, other groups saw them as optional behaviours. However, participants with 21-30 and 30≤ years of service did not perceive social collaboration as a component of OCBs; rather they saw OCBs as extra-role behaviours and perceived limited engagement in OCBs. These differences of interpretations suggest that different experience of participants could be a factor in their different perceptions of what OCBs meant to them. Table 39 summarises the differences among respondents.

Table 39: Classification of Components of OCBs Based on Length of Service of Managerial Participants

<i>Length of service</i>	<i>0-10</i>	<i>11-20</i>	<i>21-30</i>	<i>30 ≤</i>
<i>Interpretations of OCBs</i>	Person-related	Person-related	Person-related	Person-related
	Social collaborative	Social collaborative	////////////////////	////////////////////
	Unrewarded	Unrewarded	Unrewarded	Unrewarded
	Two-edged	Two-edged	Positive purposes	Two-edged
	Mixed engagement	Mixed engagement “managers”	Limited engagement	Limited engagement
	Mandatory behaviours	Optional	////////////////////	Optional
	////////////////////	IRBs/ERBs	ERBs	ERBs

7.3.7.2 Educational attainment

Comparing participants' views, revealed common agreements across all education levels that OCBs are person-related, unrewarded and could be positive or negative behaviours at work. However, there were also some differences among these groups. For example, graduate participants saw OCBs as mandatory behaviours, while those with postgraduate and undergraduate education saw OCBs as optional behaviours. Participants in the undergraduate group perceived limited engagement of employees of OCBs, and they did not see OCBs as social collaborative behaviours. However, participants with postgraduate qualifications interpreted OCBs as in-role as well as extra-role behaviours. Overall, by

linking educational backgrounds with components of OCBs, it is possible to suggest that the higher educational attainment, the more in-role and engagement interpretations of OCBs. This suggestion is supported by the details of table 40.

Table 40: Classification of Components of OCBs Based on Educational Attainment of Managerial Participants

<i>Educational attainment</i>	<i>Postgraduate degree holders</i>	<i>Graduate degree holders</i>	<i>Undergraduate degree holders</i>
<i>Interpretations of OCBs</i>	Social collaborative	Social collaborative	////////////////////
	Person-related	Person-related	Person-related
	IRBs/ ERBs	ERBs	ERBs
	Unrewarded	Unrewarded	Unrewarded
	Two-edged	Two-edged	Two-edged
	Mixed engagement	Mixed engagement	Limited engagement
	Optional	Mandatory	Optional

7.3.7.3 Age

Under this unit participants were divided into four age groups; 20-30, 31-40, 41-50, and 51-60 years. Three components were found across all age groups; social collaborative, person-related and unrewarded behaviours. However, the youngest participants, aged 20-30 years, perceived OCBs as completely positive and limited engagement for those who have certain skills and abilities, while the oldest participants, aged 51-60 years saw OCBs as both in-role and extra-role behaviours. Additionally, participants of 41-50 and 51-60 years asserted that OCBs are optional behaviours, while younger participants did not mention this component of OCBs. In general, oldest participants showed more holistic views of components of OCBs, and this can be seen from table 41 below.

Table 41: Classifications of Components of OCBs Based on Age of Managerial Participants

<i>Age</i>	<i>20-30</i>	<i>31-40</i>	<i>41-50</i>	<i>51-60</i>
<i>Interpretations of OCBs</i>	Social collaborative	Social collaborative	Social collaborative	Social collaborative
	Person-related	Person-related	Person-related	Person-related
	Unrewarded	////////////////////	Unrewarded	Unrewarded
	Positive purposes	Two-edged	Two-edged	Two-edged
	Limited engagement	High engagement	Mixed engagement	Mixed engagement
	////////////////////	Extra role	Extra role	Extra role, In role,
	////////////////////	////////////////////	Optional	Optional

7.3.7.4 Position

Participating managers were classified into two groups according to their positions in the organisations, namely, mid-level and lower-level managers. These groups were almost similar in describing OCBs, but there were small differences between the two sorts of classifications. While, mid-level managers viewed OCBs as in-role/extra-role behaviours, lower-level managers described OCBs as extra-role behaviours, and they described OCBs as both mandatory and optional behaviours, which was not mentioned by mid-level managers. However, mid-level managers saw OCBs as within the duty of employees, and this would give more weight to their interpretations of OCBs. Table 42 reflects this argument.

Table 42: Classifications of Components of OCBs Based on Position of Managerial Participants

<i>Position</i>	<i>Mid-level managers</i>	<i>Lower-level managers</i>
<i>Interpretations of OCBs</i>	Person-related	Person-related
	Social collaborative	Social collaborative
	Unrewarded	Unrewarded
	Mixed engagement	Mixed engagement
	Two-edged	Two-edged
	IRBs/ERBs	ERBs
	////////////////////	Optional, Mandatory

7.3.8 Discussion

Participants saw OCBs from several angles, each representing different components and supporting a multi-faceted construct of OCBs. Their interpretations were expressed in six different elements, as seen above. Based on their interpretations, managers saw OCBs as behaviours that depend on individual skills, abilities and experience. These behaviours represent a type of social exchange and interaction inside organisations, where many relationships among employees already exist and lead to the practice of OCBs. These behaviours also depend on individual perceptions, as some perceive OCBs as within their job duties and the majority of others perceive them as extra work. Such perceptions influence levels of engagement with OCBs, as those who see them as in-role behaviours get involved with them spontaneously and voluntarily. However, those who see OCBs as extra-role they might refrain from involvement with such behaviours. Perceiving OCBs as unrewarded behaviours might consolidate a view of them as extra-role behaviours, as it is not sensible, I suggest, to say that OCBs are in-role behaviours but they are unrewarded, as job roles should be rewarded. Based on the fact that OCBs greatly depend on levels of

individual perceptions via; experience, knowledge and competences, perceptions of the impact of OCBs differ among managers. There are managers who saw that OCBs are used to serve and develop interests of the organisations, whereas, other managers saw that such behaviours only serve individual interests, as practising OCBs at work could lead to problems at work. Overall, this mixture of understandings of OCBs confirms that these behaviours depend on how individuals perceive them, which comes from a positive individual and social variety of feelings, senses and competences.

Furthermore, the identified dimensions of OCBs could be linked with specific components of OCBs. I think such links could increase our understanding of how managers perceive OCBs. For example, the interactional dimension, which includes various behaviours, refers to interacting with others at organisations. This dimension might be connected with person-related, social collaborative and two-edged behaviours, as helping, educating, reconciliation and paying for others are connected to individuals being cooperative and beneficial to others, interacting with them and achieving positive personal aims. On the other hand, the organisational dimension supports other components of OCBs such as extra-role, unrewarded and two-edged behaviours. Further, seeing OCBs as showing concern with the organisation's interest would also confirm the positive nature of OCBs, although managers highlighted that OCBs could be negative behaviours at work.

Another focus of attention was demographic characteristics of managers to explore whether they have an impact on components of OCBs. By reviewing the data again in relation to categories of demographical data, it was shown that the majority of participants across all those groups identified person-related, social collaboration, unrewarded and two-edged behaviours as components of OCBs. This means that such components are highly thought to present what OCBs are. Nevertheless, exploring whether demographic characteristics have an impact on specific components of OCBs, results consolidated our understanding that different experiences could guide different interpretations of OCBs. Educational attainment was also a key factor, where managers with higher educational attainment showed more positive and holistic views of OCBs, as well did older managers. Positions also showed, to some extent, that higher managerial positions lead to more appreciation of OCBs at the workplace. In general, although little explanation was provided by demographic data, I suggest that these factors were behind managers' identification of components of OCBs.

7.3.9 Comparison of interpretations of OCBs by non-managerial and managerial participants

This section of interpretations of OCBs deals with identifying differences and similarities between non-managerial and managerial participants. I believe that comparing and contrasting their interpretations may lead to better understanding of how employees in the context see and interpret OCBs. Subsequently, under this title a comparison between both interpretations of participants is made and shown in the table 43 below.

Table 43: Comparison of Interpretations of OCBs by Non-Managerial and Managerial Participants

<i>Non-managerial</i>	<i>Managerial</i>	<i>Similarities</i>	<i>Differences</i>
Person-related	Person-related behaviours	Similar	////////////////////////////////////
Social collaborative	Social collaborative	Similar	////////////////////////////////////
IRBs/ERBs	IRBs/ERBs	Similar	////////////////////////////////////
Intangibly rewarded	Unrewarded	//////////	Managerial: unrewarded
Engagement	Engagement	Similar	////////////////////////////////////
Two-edged	Two-edged	Similar	////////////////////////////////////
Optional and mandatory	Optional behaviours	//////////	Non-managerial: optional and mandatory behaviours. Managerial: optional behaviours.

7.3.10 Discussion

Even though participants come from five different banks in Libya, distributed in two cities, and they have different positions in their organisations, the components of their interpretations of OCBs are mostly similar. Although, in the previous pages of the analyses, different themes were addressed by both types of participants, the majority were similar and subcategories made out of them were also similar. For example, both mentioned themes related to the being of individuals, social exchange and in-role/extra-role behaviours and so on. By contrast, there were two differences; first whether OCBs are optional or compulsory behaviours. In this regard, non-managerial employees addressed different views of the choice of practising OCBs. Although some of them supported free choice in practising OCBs, others saw OCBs as mandatory behaviours, with which every employee must get involved because they represent the meaning of being a banker. On the other hand, all of the managerial participants saw OCBs as

voluntary and depend on judgment of individuals to choose to get involved with OCBs or not. A second difference concerned whether these behaviours are rewarded or not. Non-managerial participants saw them as inexplicitly rewarded behaviours, as employees can get, albeit non-material, indirect rewards for involvement with OCBs. Nevertheless, managerial participants, although anticipating some reactions to practising OCBs, interpreted OCBs as unrewarded behaviours, and this could explain why they saw them as optional behaviours.

In general, what do we understand from these differences? Although the majority of participants saw OCBs as optional behaviours, I think this difference consolidates that interpretations of OCBs are mercurial and depend on the individual perception of people. Further, this difference also could be linked with the component of in-role/extra-role behaviours, where seeing OCBs as in-role behaviours could be related to seeing them as mandatory behaviours and vice versa. On the other hand, interpreting OCBs as extra-role behaviours could be related to recognising them as unrewarded optional behaviours.

7.4 Perceptions of Antecedents of OCBs

Similar to previous sections of data analyses, this part explores participants' views regarding origins of practising OCBs at the workplace. It is guided by the second research question: *What do employees and managers perceive to be the antecedents of OCBs at work in the Libyan banking sector?* Participants were also asked to reflect on more detailed sub-questions, such as what makes employees get engaged with OCBs at the workplace? How can managements encourage and improve more engagement with OCBs? Does demographic data guide participants to adopt specific antecedents of OCBs? Both perceptions of non managerial and managerial participants are explored and compared to get a holistic and deep understanding of their insights into OCBs in the workplace.

7.4.1 *Non-managerial participants' perceptions of antecedents of OCBs*

Participants were asked to spotlight reasons behind the existence of OCBs at their organisations, which might contribute to better understanding of insights of participants of OCBs in the context. Non managerial participants perceived several themes within this issue, which can be classified within three subcategories, namely, personal, organisational and socio-cultural antecedents of OCBs.

7.4.1.1 *Personal antecedents*

This group of roots of OCBs includes several individual themes that lead to involvement in OCBs. Participants believed that there are various personal factors that encourage individuals to practise behaviours beyond what their jobs require. These are related to individuals' intrinsic motivators. For example, employees mentioned feeling of affiliation, personality, satisfaction, love of job and colleagues, desire for development, psychological state, religion, gaining more experience and self development. Interestingly, they also highlighted that appearing a useful employee in the eyes of colleagues is a reason for engaging in OCBs. Supporting this argument, a cashier at CDB said:

"OCBs could be practised because of love to work and love among group members as well as their feeling of affiliation towards the organisation" (A.18)

In the same line, an accountant at the NCB stressed that desire to gain experience, self development and satisfaction are important antecedents of OCBs. He expressed:

“Practising these behaviours aiming to gain more experience and develop yourself in a faster way than the normal routinely job duties. Being satisfied at your job is also important to engage with OCBs” (B.34)

7.4.1.2 Organisational antecedents

Within this title participants identified different origins of OCBs related to their organisations. Respondents stressed several themes to express how their organisations might spark their involvement with OCBs. For example, they captured themes such as efficient and well developed management, organisational justice, organisational culture, management treatment and bank reputation. These themes were grouped together to emphasize the roles of organisations in creating and developing OCBs in the workplace. For instance, an administrative employee at NCB emphasized organisational justice and effective management as organisational antecedents of OCBs, as he thought fair managers could encourage employees to play extra roles at organisations. He stated:

“Justice among staff helps the practise of this behaviour, the equity in the distribution of tasks between the old and new employeesThe existence of a well-developed and well educated administration reduces the chaos and oppression at work. This helps to practise OCBs” (A.13)

An administrative employee at WB mentioned organisational culture, as he thought that the willingness to engage in OCBs stems from the relationships between employees and their heads, and their aims in practising such behaviour. He asserted:

“Culture within the bank, which is that the good person is that person who is always present at work, therefore, some employees seek to be present after the official working hours and seek to be present in front of the administration....The tenure in doing the job produces special feelings, which lead to more engagement in OCBs” (A.15)

7.4.1.3 Socio-cultural antecedents

Even though, participants stressed roles of personal and organisational antecedents of OCBs, they also firmly raised different social and cultural themes when they talked about origins of OCBs. Therefore, this category consists of influential social and cultural themes and presents another unit of antecedents of OCBs. It includes all those factors which come from the surrounding social external environment of individuals such as social interaction, helping others, community, ethics, and social life. For example, an

administrative employee at NCB thought that employees get engaged with OCBs because of their considerations to their social communities and ethics. He stated:

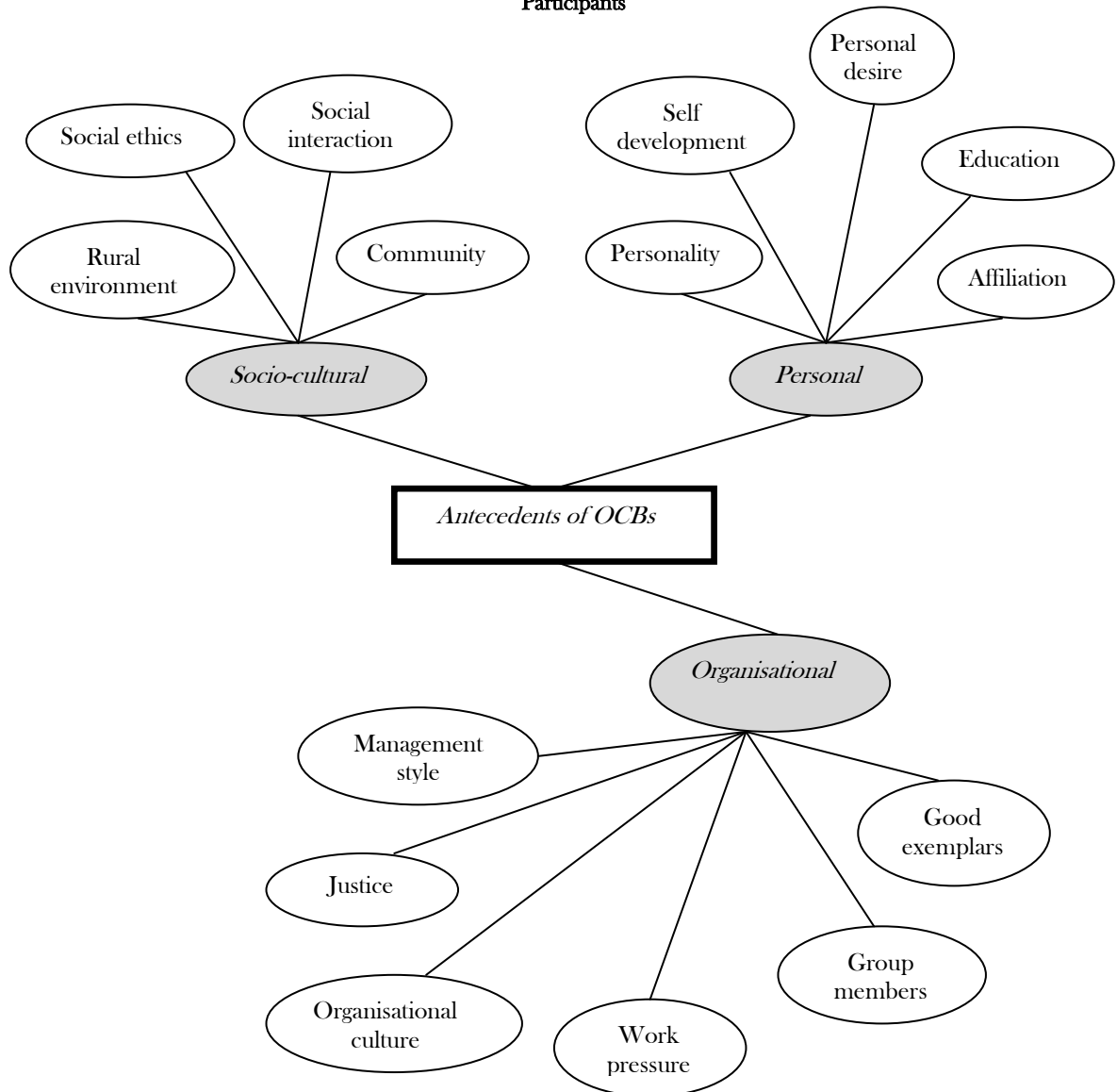
“Islam and the community urge to cooperate and ethics also encourage cooperation and helping each other by different means” (A.13)

Similarly, an accountant at the same bank added:

“The majority of employees tend to practice OCBs due to the religious and social aspects, those dominating our relationships.....OCBs are practiced because of exchanging help with others at work, where everybody needs to interact to achieve goals” (A.11)

However, these views are summarised in figure 29.

Figure 29: Thematic Network of themes and Subcategories of Perceptions of Antecedents of OCBs by Non-Manual Participants



7.4.2 Demographic data and perceptions of antecedents of OCBs by non-managerial participants

7.4.2.1 Length of service

It was found that participants' perceptions of what constitutes OCBs are similar. Even though their lengths of services are different, they underlined similar themes. Therefore no differences were captured among their perceptions of antecedents of OCBs. This refers to broad perceptions of how to create and develop OCBs at the workplace, as it is seen in table 44.

Table 44: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants

<i>Length of service</i>	<i>0-10</i>	<i>11-20</i>	<i>21-30</i>
<i>Perceived Antecedents of OCBs</i>	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational
	Personal	Personal	Personal
	Social	Social	Social

7.4.2.2 Educational attainment

Though participants have different educational attainments, most of their perceptions of antecedents of OCBs are similar reflecting the three identified groups of antecedents. The only slight difference was for participants with postgraduate degrees, who did by not address the social antecedents of OCBs. They saw OCBs as constituted via organisational and personal motivators, as table 45 summarises such views.

Table 45: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Educational Attainment of Non-Managerial Participants

<i>Educational attainment</i>	<i>Postgraduate</i>	<i>Graduate</i>	<i>Undergraduate</i>
<i>Perceived Antecedents of OCBs</i>	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational
	Personal	Personal	Personal
	////////////////////	Social	Social

7.4.2.3 Age

In order to assess their perceptions of OCBs, interviewees were assembled in four groups of age: 20-30, 31-40, 41-50 and 51-60 years. All four groups had similar broad perceptions of what motivates them to engage in OCBs. Therefore, they highlighted similar organisational, personal and social themes of antecedents of OCBs. Accordingly, their different groups of age did not support any specific trend towards specific antecedents, as represented in table 46.

Table 46: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participants

<i>Ages</i>	<i>20-30</i>	<i>31-40</i>	<i>41-50</i>	<i>51-60</i>
<i>Perceived Antecedents of OCBs</i>	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational
	Personal	Personal	Personal	Personal
	Social	Social	Social	Social

7.4.3 Discussion

The above explanations capture perceptions of antecedents of OCBs as seen by non-managerial participants. They highlighted three groups of themes, each one including several related themes.

First are those factors related to individuals themselves, such as personality, education and desires. Participants believed that such personal characteristics are important key issues to create and develop practices of OCBs. This puts more weight on the individualised nature of OCBs and explains differences between employees in regard to engaging in OCBs.

Secondly, participants identified other themes, which are more related to their organisations, managements and workplace. Thus, because they practice OCBs at the workplace, they thought that engaging in OCBs depends on various job related factors. Therefore, good treatment and being comfortable with work elements could create and develop more desires to get engaged in OCBs.

The last group is socio-cultural antecedents, as participants perceived motivation to OCBs could come from society and interaction with others. Since employees have their own lives out of organisations, employees will be affected by other influences such as families, social ethics and social habits. They maintained that such elements play an important role in determining the readiness of people to get engaged with OCBs.

Overall, from the discussion above, participants expressed various perceptions of what could motivate employees to practise OCBs. Their holistic understanding of such antecedents confirms that OCBs are a multi-faceted concept, which is constructed from different personal, organisational and socio-cultural components. Moreover, although participants had different demographic characteristics, no related explanations were found as to why different participants tended to perceive certain antecedents. This suggests two issues; first individual differences could be behind their perception of such antecedents.

Second the miscellaneous nature of this concept makes it difficult to link it to specific antecedents, as different actions and factors could influence levels in engagement of OCBs.

7.4.4 *Perceptions of antecedents of OCBs by managerial participants*

Participants highlighted several themes and different combinations of related and unrelated themes. Therefore, I grouped the related themes to present one group and ended up with three main derivations of antecedents: *personal, organisational and socio-cultural antecedents*, as illustrated in the next pages.

7.4.4.1 *Personal antecedents*

This unit includes a variety of person-related themes, which are thought to be sources of engagement with OCBs. Accordingly, participants emphasized the role of individual characteristics and abilities influencing individuals to get involved with OCBs. For example they highlighted personality, individual needs, self-confidence, experience, desire to know and understand sense of growth, religion, self-fulfilment, skills and capabilities. Participants believed that such characteristics in individuals lead to the practice of OCBs at the workplace. For instance, the head of the auditing department at WB pointed to self and work satisfaction and feeling about one's role at work. He stated:

“Feeling of satisfaction and feeling of the role, self-satisfaction and work are very important in providing the willingness of the staff member to practise OCBs” (A.22)

Similarly, the head of the auditing department at CDB in Misurata stressed the role of experience, knowledge and feelings toward colleagues. He said:

“Experience and practical knowledge in the field of specialization is the primary motivation for the practising OCBs. The motivation for practising OCBs may also be because of loving colleagues at work” (A.19)

7.4.4.2 *Organisational antecedents*

The second group of themes points to factors those come from the organisational setting. Participants strongly emphasized that even though personal and social origins are vital for getting engaged in OCBs, organisational features are extremely important sources of OCBs. They raised different issues related to management, colleagues and workplace, namely; loyalty to the bank, banking work, avoiding negligence and defaults at work,

understanding and homogeneity among staff, reputation and success of the bank, participating in decision making, prevent occurrence of problems and concern about the organisational interest. For example, the manager of the CDB in Misurata saw the desire to develop work and stop defaults from happening as sources of antecedents of OCBs. He reported:

“Carrying out these behaviours to avoid negligence and defaults at work, and that performing OCBs gives the opportunity to take all rights” (A.20)

Further, the head of auditing department at NCB in Sirte mentioned lack of training and care about the bank. He expressed:

“Another reason is the lack of directing and qualifying new employees. There is no training for them before they start their jobs, unfortunately, everybody learns inside the organisation. We practise OCBs because we care about its reputation. It’s the source of our incomes, so we need to make it better” (B.37)

7.4.4.3 Socio-cultural Antecedents

This cluster of themes reflects several social and cultural roots of OCBs. Participants believed that social factors such as social interaction and exchange determine to some extent abilities of practising OCBs. Thus, issues such as loyalty to the nation, financial state, solidarity among people, family upbringing, and social exchange of benefits and spirit of cooperation are important for supporting the practice of OCBs in the workplace. For example, the head of the treasury department at GB agreed that social interaction, homogeneity and cooperation are important sources of engaging with OCBs. He asserted:

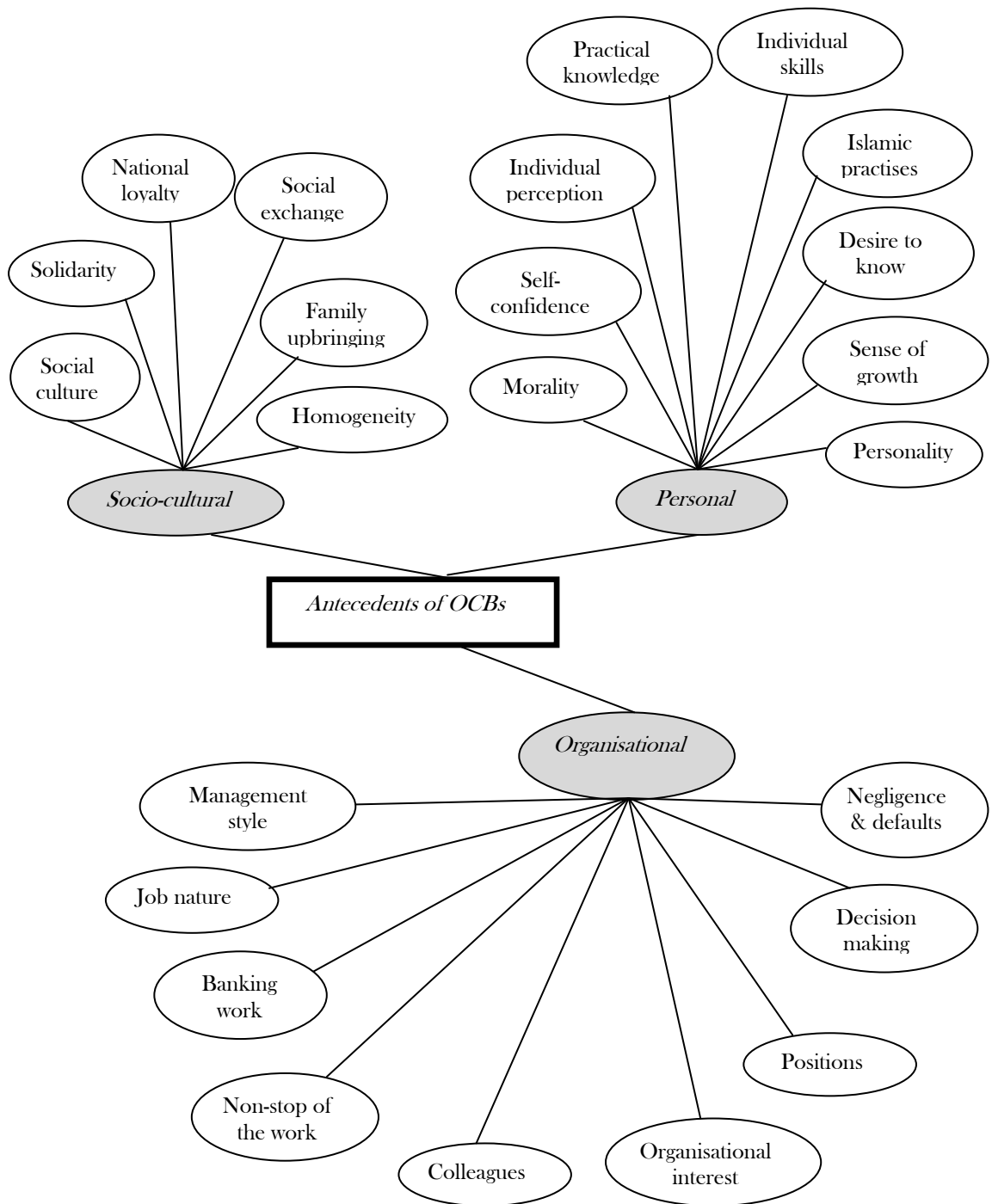
“Secondly, by practising OCBs you aim reaching and maintaining various values such as social interaction, homogeneity among them and more spirit of cooperation in the society” (B.32)

Similarly, the deputy manager of SB maintained that practising OCBs is a result of having good social relationships with others. He described:

“The other thing is that when employees aim for helping their colleagues or developing their organisations, so friendship and fellowship are main sources of practising OCBs” (B.28)

Generally, those perceptions of antecedents of OCBs are summarised and supported by sources in figure 30.

Figure 30: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Perceptions of Antecedents of OCBs as Seen by Managerial Participants



7.4.5 Demographic data and perceptions of antecedents of OCBs by managerial participants

7.4.5.1 Length of service

Although participants were divided into four categories of length of service, no difference among them was highlighted. Across all groups of lengths of service, managers described three main groups of antecedents of OCBs, namely, organisational, personal and socio-cultural. As shown in the table 47.

Table 47: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Length of Service of Managerial Participants

Length of service	0-10	11-20	21-30	30 ≤
<i>Antecedents of OCBs</i>	Personal	Personal	Personal	Personal
	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational
	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural

7.4.5.2 Educational attainment

As with demographic characteristic, this grouping produced the same three groups of antecedents of OCBs, namely; organisational, personal and social antecedents. Participants had a holistic perception of such antecedents. Thus, across all levels of educational attainment, participants saw exactly the same antecedents of OCBs as follows:

Table 48: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Educational Attainment of Managerial Participants

Educational attainment	Postgraduate	Graduate	Undergraduate
<i>Antecedents of OCBs</i>	Personal	Personal	Personal
	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational
	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural

7.4.5.3 Age

Across the four age groups, participants perceived the same groups of antecedents of OCBs. This confirms the holistic views of participants of what makes employees engage with such behaviours. The table 49 summarises their thoughts:

Table 49: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Age of Managerial Participants

Age	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
<i>Antecedents of OCBs</i>	Personal	Personal	Personal	Personal
	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational	Organisational
	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural

7.4.5.4 Position

Even though position of participating managers was expected to have an influence on their choices of specific antecedents of OCBs, this group clearly shows that both mid-level managers and lower-level managers showed a similar holistic understanding of what might create and develop engagement in OCBs. Across both groups, participants perceived three antecedents of OCBs; organisational, personal and socio-culture antecedents, and no difference was highlighted. The table 50 summarises their perceptions:

Table 50: Classification of Antecedents of OCBs Based on Position of Managerial Participants

Position	Mid-level managers	Lower-level managers
<i>Antecedents of OCBs</i>	Personal	Personal
	Organisational	Organisational
	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural

7.4.6 Discussion

Many themes were raised when participants talked about what they saw as antecedents of OCBs, falling into three main groups. Supporting the multifaceted nature of OCBs, these antecedents reflect various aspects of OCBs and confirm their multi-origins. The first group is the personal antecedents of OCBs, where participating managers identified several themes related to the individuals and their own abilities. Furthermore, this group supports the individualistic element of OCBs, where participants believed that these behaviours are more related to the choice of employees to practise them. They saw that not all employees could get engaged with such behaviours. Rather, they believed that employees who practise OCBs have broad views of their selves and abilities. Therefore, participants stated many different characteristics they could see in employees who gets engaged with OCBs, for instance, being skilful, an extroverted personality and a sense of self-development.

Secondly is the group of external themes, coming from the surrounding society. Participants mentioned that OCBs could be practised because of the influence of several issues related to the society and culture where they live. For example, social exchange, family upbringing and social solidarity are thought to encourage and motivate engagement in OCBs. Thus, the impetus to engagement in such behaviours does not necessarily come just from personal characteristics: it could evolve from other elements affecting individuals towards more involvement in OCBs, and this view is compatible with the social interaction and exchange components of OCBs, identified previously

The last set of themes is the organisational antecedents. This set refers to the treatment and interaction that happen inside the organisation. Participants raised several themes related to their organisational life. Thus, issues such as; management styles, nature of banking work and desire to keep the wheels of work turning are all linked to the organisation and are thought to have a strong influence over the desire to engage in OCBs. For instance, many interviewees stated that they participated in OCBs because of their concern about their colleagues and the organisational interest. Stressing the organisational antecedents, participants believed that even though some employees do not possess certain characteristics and are not influenced much by their societies, their practices of OCBs could be high because of an effective and inspiring work setting.

As regards to whether demographic data played any role in perception of certain antecedents, results were negative, as participants across all demographic groups mentioned a variety of themes, which I grouped into the above categories. This suggests that participants were aware of a wide range of possible antecedents, which was well-matched with their interpretation of OCBs. On the whole, even though I suggested three groups of antecedents of OCBs, this does not mean that just one of them separately could be a source of practising OCBs. Rather, managers believed that a mixture of these antecedents together is important. Thus, it is important to consider individual differences, socio cultural and organisational factors when exploring what makes and develops more engagement in OCBs.

7.4.7 Comparison of perceptions of antecedents by non-managerial and managerial participants

Although participants represented two different positions, each with different responsibilities, they identified similar themes when asked about antecedents of OCBs. Their addressed themes, as it seen above, were grouped into three main subcategories, namely, personal, organisational and socio-cultural. They were also similar in the degree of emphasis on certain groups. For example, both prioritized the role of organisational antecedents, believing that though some employees may lack personal and social antecedents, they could show high engagement with OCBs because of the existence of the organisational antecedents. Moreover, both stressed individual characteristics and highlighted many issues related to the nature, abilities and desires of individuals to get engaged with OCBs. Despite the fact that organisational and personal antecedents were important groups, both participants also recognised other themes related to their culture and society, although this group was the least mentioned by both sets of participants.

Overall, even though no differences were identified, this comparison helps to highlight how participants construct the ranking of those antecedents, where both ranked them as organisational, personal and then socio cultural antecedents.

7.5 Views of Management Attitudes towards OCBs

In this section I explore how participants view the importance of OCBs through eyes of their managers, and answering the third research question, which is: *What visions do employees and managers have regarding management attitudes towards OCBs at the workplace in the Libyan banking sector?* More specific sub-questions include how do management appreciate OCBs in the workplace? What attitudes do managers have towards OCBs? What roles do demographic data play in perception of certain management attitudes? Are there differences/similarities between employees' and managers' visions of management attitudes toward OCBs? All of these issues are explored in this section.

7.5.1 Views of management attitudes of OCBs as seen by non-managerial participants

This section indicates the visions of non-managerial participants of the appreciation of OCBs by their managers at the workplace. It shows to what extent managers are seen to be aware of the value of OCBs as practised behaviours at their organisations. Participants highlighted different themes and trends from their managers towards OCBs. However, I grouped them to represent three sorts of attitudes: Supportive attitudes, Unsupportive attitudes and Neutral attitudes.

7.5.1.1 Supportive attitudes

This title reflects a group of themes identified by participants to describe positive attitudes of their administrations towards OCBs. Within this group, participants addressed that their managers appreciate practice of OCBs at the workplace. Therefore, managers keep encouraging them to engage in OCBs because they believe that such behaviours are positive for effective organisation. Participants described several ways of supporting employees who participate in OCBs, with either tangible or intangible rewards. They underscored different themes such as seeing OCBs as vital for work development, getting training sessions and high assessment scores, encouraging and educating employees and giving support when needed. These themes refer to supporting OCBs with more reward to maintain high levels of engagement. For instance, an auditor at NCB in Misurata supported the encouraging supportive style of managers towards OCBs. He said:

“All managers and heads of sections like the practice of OCBs and they appreciate employees who practise them. Therefore, there are some rewards such as moral incentives, training sessions and rewards of extra work hours. These behaviours may result in the assessment of managers and therefore result in more rewards”

(A.12)

Similarly, a cashier at SB also saw encouragement and support from his managers towards employees who engaged in OCBs. He asserted:

“Yes our administration encourages us to show such behaviours, managers know who practises OCBs and who does not. They offer support when is needed to him. Usually managers rely on employees who engage in OCBs, they prefer them over others” (B.41)

7.5.1.2 Unsupportive attitudes

This group refers to another sort of managers, those who believe that practising OCBs is desirable at the workplace and employees are responsible for engaging in them. Therefore, managers prefer to see practices of OCBs at their organisations, but they do not actively support them or offer any practical incentives. This group was constituted by gathering different related themes such as: managers do not actively promote such practices, administration has a desire to see voluntary work, no mechanisms for applying them, managers want to see more than job duties, no feasible applications for developing OCBs, lack of qualified managers. Accordingly, within such attitudes participants believed that their administrations have positive attitudes towards OCBs but because of lack of effective managers, they do not support such behaviours. A good example is an administrative employee at NCB in Misurata, who stated:

“Managers want to see the staff practise OCBs. Unfortunately there is no appreciation for practised efforts. There are no applications for the development of OCB in the bank” (A.13)

Another administrative employee at WB maintained a similar view and added:

“Sometimes you find care from the administration for the purpose of developing loyalty or OCB, at the same time you cannot find mechanisms for implementing them, which shows a lack of rehabilitation of managers” (A.15)

7.5.1.3 Uninterested attitudes

Participants highlighted that it is unclear whether their managers have positive or negative attitudes towards OCBs. In specific, they stated that in some cases managers could ask for engagement with OCBs and in other cases they ask employees not to engage in them. For instance, they raised themes such as managers do not care about OCBs, their attitudes could be positive or negative, they could encourage you or let you down when engaging with OCBs and they see them as outside job duties. Such views refer to less concern about OCBs and limited views of their necessity to the workplace. For instance, a cashier at WB referred to the idea that OCBs are up to individuals and managers do not usually care about them. He reported:

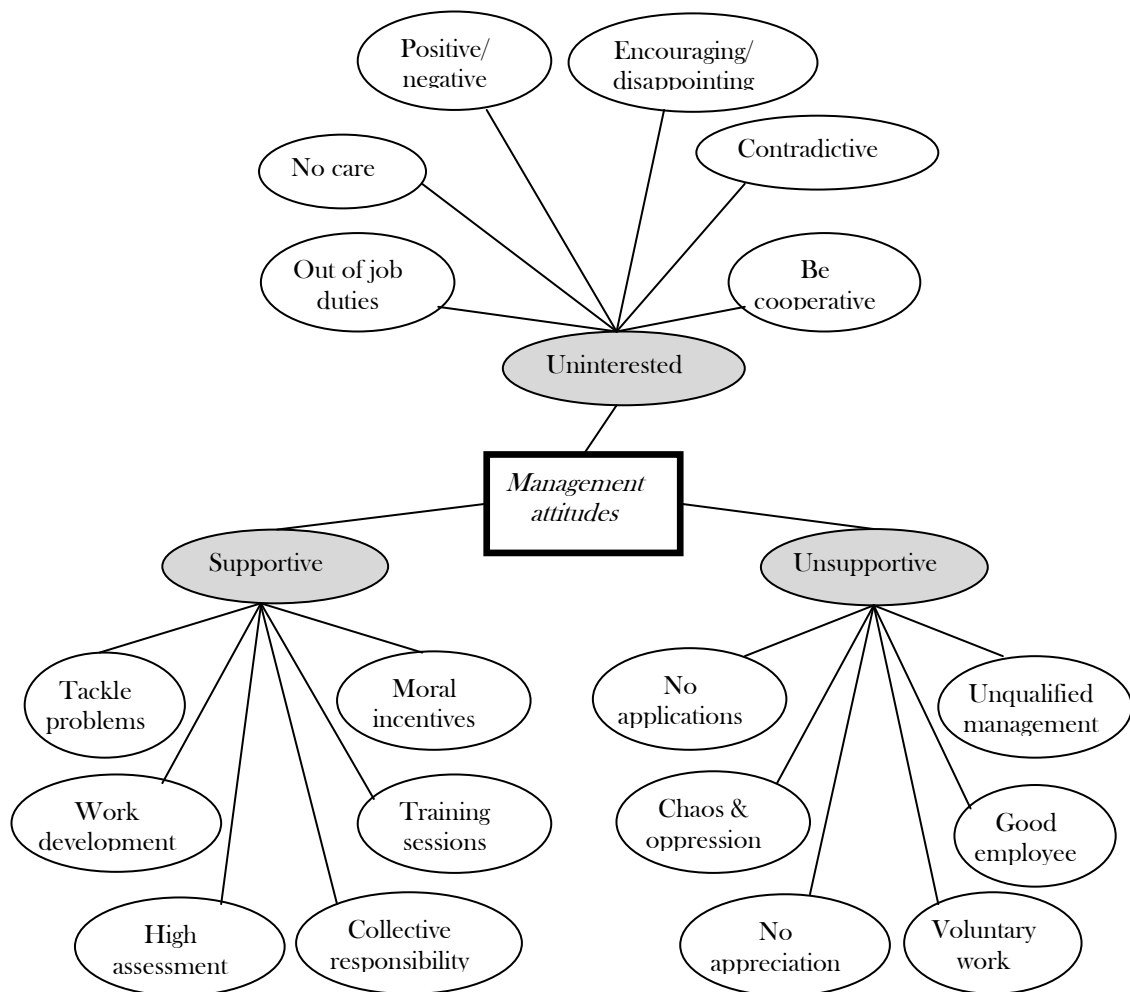
“Departments do not care about OCBs and employees engage in OCBs because of the fear of work pressure” (A.16)

Similarly, an accountant at the same bank captured a mixture of views in relation to OCBs. He added:

“Managers could be positive or negative for OCBs, as they could encourage you to engage more in OCBs or could let you down when they ask you to do just your job” (B.34)

Although non-managerial participants highlighted three different attitudes of their managers towards OCBs, most of these were positive, whether with or without support, as managers usually appreciate engagement with OCBs. These attitudes are summarised and supported by figure 31.

Figure 31: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of View of Management Attitudes as Seen by Non-Manual Participants



7.5.2 Demographic data and views of management attitudes of OCBs of non-manual participants

7.5.2.1 Length of service

Based on length of services groups, the majority of participants reported positive attitudes of their management towards OCBs. Nevertheless, participants believed that in many cases such attitudes lack support. They also underlined that some of their managements show no concern about OCBs. Overall, although participants expressed a similar range of attitudes and little difference among service groups was noted, employees with more years of service perceived more positive attitudes of their managers towards OCBs, as it is as shown in table 51.

Table 51: Classification of Management Attitudes towards OCBs Based on Length of Service by Non-Manual Participants

<i>Length of service</i>	<i>0-10 years</i>	<i>11-20 years</i>	<i>21-30 years</i>
<i>Management attitudes</i>	////////////////	Supportive	Supportive
	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	Unsupportive
	Uninterested	Uninterested	////////////////

7.5.2.2 Educational attainment

Most views of management attitudes towards OCBs were positive, as participants addressed that their managements encourage them to get engaged with the practice of OCBs. However, participants with undergraduate education believed that their managements have positive attitudes and support such behaviours. On the other hand, the most pessimistic participants were those with graduate levels of education, who thought that their managements have two sorts of attitudes; unsupportive and uninterested in such behaviours, as shown in table 52.

Table 52: Classification of Management Attitudes towards OCBs Based on Educational Attainments of Non-Manual Participants

<i>Educational attainment</i>	<i>Postgraduate</i>	<i>Graduate</i>	<i>Undergraduate</i>
<i>Management attitudes</i>	////////////////	////////////////	Supportive
	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	Unsupportive
	////////////////	Uninterested	////////////////

7.5.2.3 Age

While unsupportive attitudes were perceived by all age groups, the most positive views came from those aged between 51-60 years, who saw their managements as both supportive and unsupportive. Overall, however, only slight differences existed among participants, as the majority maintained unsupportive attitudes, as shown in table 53.

Table 53: Classification of Management Attitudes towards OCBs Based on Age of Non-Manual Participants

<i>Ages</i>	<i>20-30 years</i>	<i>31-40 years</i>	<i>41-50 years</i>	<i>51-60 years</i>
<i>Management attitudes</i>	////////////////	Supportive	////////////////	Supportive
	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	Unsupportive
	////////////////	Uninterested	Uninterested	////////////////

7.5.3 *Discussion*

Participants identified different levels of management attitudes towards OCBs, ranging from supporting employees who practise them to lacking any concern about OCBs. However, this variety of visions of management attitudes points to diverse opinions about what OCBs are and what impact these behaviours could have on organisational performance in general and employees in particular. In other words, considering these attitudes on the one hand and components of interpretations on the other, I suggest that such attitudes confirm more the positive side of OCBs, and make it less believable that such behaviours were seen as negative at the workplace. Furthermore, participants did not see any negative attitudes of their managers at worst, managers were described as neutral toward OCBs. Another issue that could be discussed here is rewarding OCBs. Some participants perceived encouraging supportive management attitudes, which could support some interpretations of OCBs. In particular, some saw OCBs as inexplicit rewarded behaviours and this would put more pressure on how they interpret OCBs as indirectly rewarded behaviours and they clearly saw rewards for engaging with OCBs. Although this seems to be like a contradiction, I suggest that this difference in views confirms the existence of different realities among participants, when they saw encouraging supportive/unsupportive and neutral attitudes of their managers.

Overall, although participants saw favourable attitudes of their managers towards OCBs, their interpretations of OCBs as two-edged behaviours and not explicitly rewarded are still arguable, as in this part they described how they saw the appreciation of their managers through different attitudes. Moreover, although different demographic characteristics were explored, only slight differences were found. For instance, participants with more years of service and less educational attainments perceived more positive attitudes of their managers.

7.5.4 Views of management attitudes towards OCBs as seen by managerial participants

Participating managers also were asked about their visions of their management attitudes towards OCBs. Therefore, they identified several themes and issues related to their management attitudes towards practising such behaviours. Generally, they stated many orientations and perspectives of their managers. However, by linking those related themes together I derived four main attitudes, namely, encouraging supportive, encouraging unsupportive, neutral and negative attitudes towards OCBs. This mixture of attitudes is explained below.

7.5.4.1 Supportive attitudes

Under this title participants thought that their management have constructive attitudes towards practising OCBs at organisations. In this regard, managements always attempt to offer more facilities and advantages for staff who engage with OCBs. Accordingly, participants introduced themes such as getting loans with no interest, medical and financial grants, positive employee assessment, directing us verbally and in written form, providing circulars and instructions and getting more promotions. These themes point to the desire of managements to see more engagement with OCBs, and refer to appreciation of them at the workplace. For example, the manager of NCB branch in Sirte reported an encouraging supportive attitude, as he pointed out a range of rewards. He expressed:

“The administration tries to increase OCBs through loans with no interest, treatment and financial grants” (A.14)

Similarly, the head of accountancy department in LCB stressed that OCBs lead to getting promotions. He added:

“OCBs are appreciated by managers, so when you show good practice of OCBs they will consider you as their first choice of getting promotions. Otherwise they will shed the light on other employees” (B.39)

7.5.4.2 Unsupportive attitudes

The second group indicates less concern with OCBs. Participants believed that their managers want to see the practice of OCBs, but they do not take actions to strengthen OCBs at the workplace. Therefore, different themes were highlighted: limiting behaviours to responsibilities and tasks, under the condition of no negative impact, desired

behaviours from managers, without any procedures, these behaviours should come through employees, there is no complete programme and managers prefer their employees to express positive behaviours. For instance, the head of the auditing department at CDB underlined that managers want such behaviours but within job duties and on condition that they have no negative impact. He stated:

“Administrations encourage practising OCBs but in the frame of the definition of responsibilities and tasks. Practising OCBs is conditional on having no negative impact on the organization or any of the other staff members” (A.19)

The head of the credit department at CDB in Misurata described attitudes of managers as encouraging attitudes, without mentioning any support. He reported:

“The administration pays little attention to OCBs and managers in general encourage practising OCBs” (A.17)

7.5.4.3 Uninterested attitudes

According to this group, the value of OCBs at the workplace is unrecognized. Participants stated that their managements have very little appreciation for such behaviours. Therefore, this set of themes refers to the nonexistence of OCBs in the agendas of managers, when they do not offer any support for OCBs and think that jobs can be practised without engaging in OCBs. Moreover, those managers think that practicing OCBs is up to the individuals themselves and they have no relation with OCBs. Participants conveyed such views by raising themes such as managers reluctant towards such behaviours, OCBs are absent from management awareness, applying traditional ways of managing, they do not care about OCBs and acting according to the legislation. For example, the head of the auditing department at WB emphasized that managers show no concern with this concept and there is no application of it in the organisation. He expressed:

“The administration does not care about OCBs and this concept is completely absent from management thinking in the organization..... There is no concern with employees’ satisfaction. There is no concern with individual initiatives and extra work in the original job” (A.22)

The head of the credit department also pointed out that managers see OCBs as employees’ obligations, so employees should already get engaged with OCBs. He stated:

“Managers think that because of your responsibility for a specific department you are expected to engage in OCBs, so they will not consider any encouragement, it is expected from you as a manager” (B.33)

7.5.4.4 Negative attitudes

The last sort of management attitudes towards OCBs, according to participants' views of them, is negative perspectives. Participants highlighted several themes describing unfavourable views of OCBs and suggested fear of possible adverse outcomes of OCBs. As a result, participants raised themes such as; OCBs are destructive behaviours, OCBs lead to mistakes, cause loss of accountability, discouraging employees from getting engaged with OCBs and staff need to get permissions to practise OCBs. Managers who have such attitudes see only the dark side of OCBs, so they do not want to manage and get involved in more possible problems at the workplace. For instance, the head of the accountancy department at WB mentioned different negative situations of practising OCBs. He said:

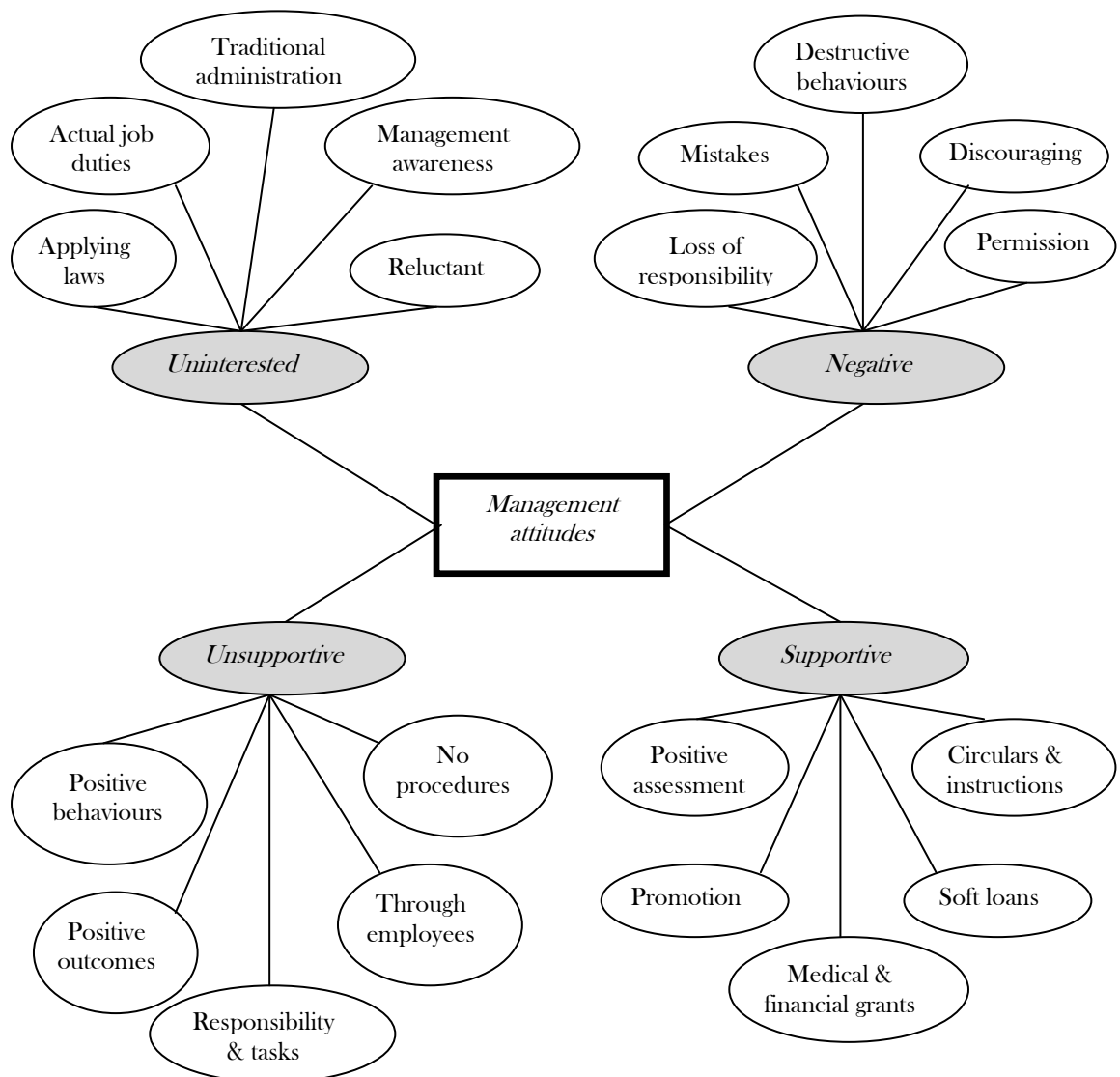
“Though these are constructive behaviours, managers are frightened of making mistakes when engaging with OCBs. For example, when there is overloaded work in a specific department, if everyone comes to help there will be too many employees, which might cause loss of accountability” (B.27)

Similarly, the deputy manager at SB described unappreciative attitudes towards OCBs. He expressed:

“We have a negative attitude towards such behaviours, as our administration keeps encouraging us not to do something that is not within our job, even in case there is a shortage of staff” (B.28)

In general, participants had various views of their managers' management attitudes towards OCBs. However, the above description of such attitudes is summarised with more support in figure 32.

Figure 32: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Views of Management Attitudes towards OCBs as Seen by Managerial Participants



7.5.5 Demographic data and management attitudes of OCBs by managerial participants

7.5.5.1 Length of service

Although most participants across all groups saw supportive attitudes of their managements towards practising OCBs, they also saw a variety of other attitudes ranging from unsupportive attitudes to negative attitudes. However, participants with less service, 0-10 and 11-20 years, were the only groups that described their management attitudes as negative. In general, table 54 suggests that the greater the length of service, the more positive the attitudes of management were perceived to be.

Table 54: Classification of Management Attitudes of OCBs Based on Length of Service of Managerial Participants

<i>Length of service</i>	<i>0-10</i>	<i>11-20</i>	<i>21-30</i>	<i>30 ≤</i>
<i>Management attitudes</i>	Negative	Negative	////////////////	////////////////
	////////////////	Uninterested		Uninterested
	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	////////////////	////////////////
	////////////////	Supportive	Supportive	Supportive

7.5.5.2 Educational attainment

While, across all groups, participants saw encouraging supportive attitudes, they also described negative attitudes of management toward OCBs across all groups. However, graduate and undergraduate qualification holders mentioned unsupportive attitudes, while postgraduate degree holders did not perceived them. However, this grouping did not explain much why specific participants emphasized specific management attitudes. Thus, participants' education backgrounds do not appear to guide their opinions in relation to management attitudes toward OCBs. However, summarised views about these attitudes are presented in table 55.

Table 55: Classification of Management Attitudes of OCBs Based on Educational Attainment of Managerial Participants

<i>Educational attainment</i>	<i>Postgraduate</i>	<i>Graduate</i>	<i>Undergraduate</i>
<i>Management attitudes</i>	Supportive	Supportive	Supportive
	////////////////	Unsupportive	Unsupportive
	Uninterested	////////////////	Uninterested
	Negative	Negative	Negative

7.5.5.3 Age

Even though all sorts of management attitudes were mentioned by participants, younger participants emphasized negative attitudes of their management. However, older participants were more positive and described encouraging supportive attitudes of their management. Accordingly, I can suggest that the older participants, the more positive perceptions of management attitudes. This suggestion is illustrated in table 56.

Table 56: Classification of Management Attitudes of OCBs Based on Age of Managerial Participants

<i>Age</i>	<i>20-30</i>	<i>31-40</i>	<i>41-50</i>	<i>51-60</i>
<i>Management attitudes</i>	Negative	Negative	////////////////	////////////////
	////////////////	////////////////	Uninterested	Uninterested
	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	////////////////	Unsupportive
	////////////////	////////////////	Supportive	Supportive

7.5.5.4 Position

Both types of managers had common views of management attitudes. Both shared the view that management attitudes included encouraging supportive and negative attitudes. However, lower-level managers were more discriminating and identified four attitudes of their management. Nevertheless, position did not explain why participants had different visions of their management attitudes, which are seen through table 57.

Table 57: Classification of Management Attitudes of OCBs Based on Position of Managerial Participants

<i>Position</i>	<i>Mid-level managers</i>	<i>Lower-level managers</i>
<i>Management attitudes</i>	Supportive	Supportive
	////////////////	Unsupportive
	////////////////	Uninterested
	Negative	Negative

7.5.6 Discussion

Even though the majority of participants have raised positive management attitudes towards OCBs, they also identified neutral and negative attitudes towards the practice of OCBs. This would support the multi-faceted nature of OCBs, such that individuals could see them from different angles, so the appreciation of them would be related to individuals themselves. This description of management attitudes is consistent with managerial participants' interpretations of OCBs, specifically with two components. First, when they referred to OCBs as two-edged behaviours, as capturing the above four attitudes would confirm their views that OCBs could be seen as positive or negative depending on the individual perception of such behaviours. Secondly, their perceptions of encouraging supportive attitudes of managers would highlight the unrewarded component of OCBs. Although managerial respondents stated that OCBs are unrewarded behaviours, some of them, albeit a small number, perceived different types of rewards. This suggests that there is a contradiction in their views of OCBs. However, such views would confirm that some participants saw OCBs as rewarded behaviours.

On the other hand, participants' views of management attitudes were slightly related to their demographic characteristics. Older participants and those with more years of service perceived more positive visions of their managers towards OCBs, while participants in lower positions discriminated more among management attitudes, as they highlighted all four mentioned attitudes.

7.5.7 Comparison of views of management attitudes towards OCBs by non-managerial and managerial participants

As an important part of the data analysis, this section compares the views of non managerial and managerial participants regarding their management attitudes of OCBs. Thus, I start by asking, what if anything is similar between visions of non managerial and managerial participants of management attitudes of OCBs? On the other hand, if there are similarities between their visions what is different between their visions? I start answering these questions by putting both visions in the following table.

Table 58: Comparing Visions of Management Attitudes by Non-Managerial and Managerial Participants

<i>Non managerial</i>	<i>Managerial</i>	<i>Similarities</i>	<i>Differences</i>
Supportive attitudes	Supportive attitudes	Similar	////////////////////
Unsupportive attitudes	Unsupportive attitudes	Similar	////////////////////
Uninterested attitudes	Uninterested attitudes	Similar	////////////////////
	Negative attitudes	////////////////////	Managers identified negative attitudes of their managements towards OCBs

7.5.8 Discussion

Table 56 shows the similarities and differences between visions of both types of participants. It is clearly seen that both sets of participants agreed about the positive attitudes of their managements, as both employees and managers recognised encouraging supportive/unsupportive attitudes. Thus, positive attitudes were divided into two encouraging attitudes with different levels of support. Additionally, both groups indicated that there are uninterested attitudes regarding OCBs, where their managements show no interest of OCBs and just leave engagement to the judgment of individuals.

On the other hand, although both sets of participants raised similar themes ended up with similar attitudes, managerial participants were distinguished by highlighting another sort of attitude, a negative attitude towards OCBs. While non managerial participants did not mention such an attitude, managers have reported that such an attitude is expressed by their managers, who prevent their staff from engaging in such behaviours. They think that there are many pitfalls associated with OCBs. Therefore, building on their responsible positions at their organisations, such managers discourage their employees from practising OCBs at the workplace and ask them to get permissions before they engage in such behaviours.

On the whole, even though similarities between both sets of participants exist in perceiving the positive and neutral attitudes of managements, managerial participants are distinguished by mentioning the existence of a negative attitude towards OCBs. To sum up, this comparison enriches our knowledge with the following points: A- the position of individuals determines their views of the value of OCBs. B- OCBs could be seen as undesirable behaviours at the workplace and C- within the same organisation and work setting, employees could have different views of the value of OCBs at the workplace.

7.6 Awareness of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance

The last section represents the fourth category of insights of employees of OCBs in the Libyan banking sector. It explores appreciation and values that participants have in regard to OCBs. Thus, this section aims to answer the fourth research question: *what connections managerial and non-managerial participants are aware of between OCBs and individual performance in the Libyan banking sector?* Sub-questions include: What connections do they see between these concepts? How aware are they of the value of OCBs for their individual performance? Is there any impact of demographic characteristics determining specific connections between these concepts? Through the responses, levels of awareness of both non managerial and managerial participants are explored and different subcategories are built.

7.6.1 Awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance as seen by non-managerial participants

This title comprises different opinions of non-managerial participants regarding their awareness of the possible connections between OCBs and individual performance. I aim to capture in more depth whether participants are aware of any relationships between the two concepts. This, I believe, is essential to better understand their perspectives on OCBs. Based on data analysis, four sub-categories were generated, each one consisting of similar or related themes as seen by participants.

7.6.1.1 Direct connections

According to this subcategory, participants believed that engaging with OCBs enables them to gain more skills and knowledge, and consequently, enhances their individual performance. For example, they featured themes such as engagement with OCBs leads to high performance, help with gaining personal benefits and OCBs are usually practised by effective employees. These views point to high appreciation of the value of OCBs at the workplace and show high awareness of the influence of such behaviours over performance. For example, an auditor at NCB pointed out that employees who get engaged with OCBs are those who have high performance and those who consider their main jobs before OCBs. He stated:

“Employees who practise OCBs usually have high levels of performance, and they are serious about their original job, so they practise OCBs after they finish their duties” (A.12)

Further, another administrative employee at the same bank in Misurata saw that OCBs promote and gain desirable benefits for employees. He added:

“OCBs helps you to raise your level, OCBs could be used in gaining personal benefits for employees, where OCBs are practised in excess of the main job” (A.13)

7.6.1.2 Combined connections

This group refers to another way of connecting OCBs with individual performance. Participants spotlighted that connections between these concepts depend on availability of other factors. Therefore, OCBs have an influence over individual performance combined with other abilities and characteristics such as anticipated rewards, actual performance, commitment and satisfaction. These themes are thought to have an influence with OCBs to increase individual performance. However, practising OCBs alone will not increase it. Supporting this view, an administrative employee at WB perceived a variety of organisational and personal factors as important for OCBs to enhance individual performance. He expressed:

“Employees who practise OCBs are those who have desire and abilities to challenge. OCBs may increase actual performance if employees have desires to develop the organisation. On the other hand, the performance could be unreal such as practising OCBs just for appearing well to the administration” (A.15)

Another accountant at NCB referred to roles of commitment, annual performance appraisal and satisfaction in determining such connections. He added:

“Practising OCBs is related to the main job performance, as they have strong relationships, so if the employee has high commitment and annual performance appraisal, they are more expected to engage in OCBs. It is strange to find an employee with low levels of commitment, satisfaction and annual performance appraisal engaging in OCBs: this will put a question mark on him” (B.36)

7.6.1.3 No connections

Participants thought that OCBs have no effect on their individual performance. They believed that such behaviours cannot be connected to their performance because they are

not included in their job duties. Moreover, they suggested that for some employees who practise OCBs, their individual performance does not support such a relationship. Themes raised include: OCBs have no connections with individual performance, OCBs are practised out of organisations and out of the work time and OCBs are not related to the main job duties. For instance, a cashier at NCB commented that some employees who practise OCBs have low individual performance. He described:

“OCBs have no relation with level of individual performance, because some employees practise OCBs and their performance is still not high” (A.16)

Similarly, another cashier at SB mentioned that OCBs are practised out of the main job, working time and workplace, so he did not perceived such a connection. He asserted:

“There is no such connection, I think practising OCBs is not related to the job performance, because when I practise OCBs I do them out of the work time and out of the bank itself, so they are not related” (B.41)

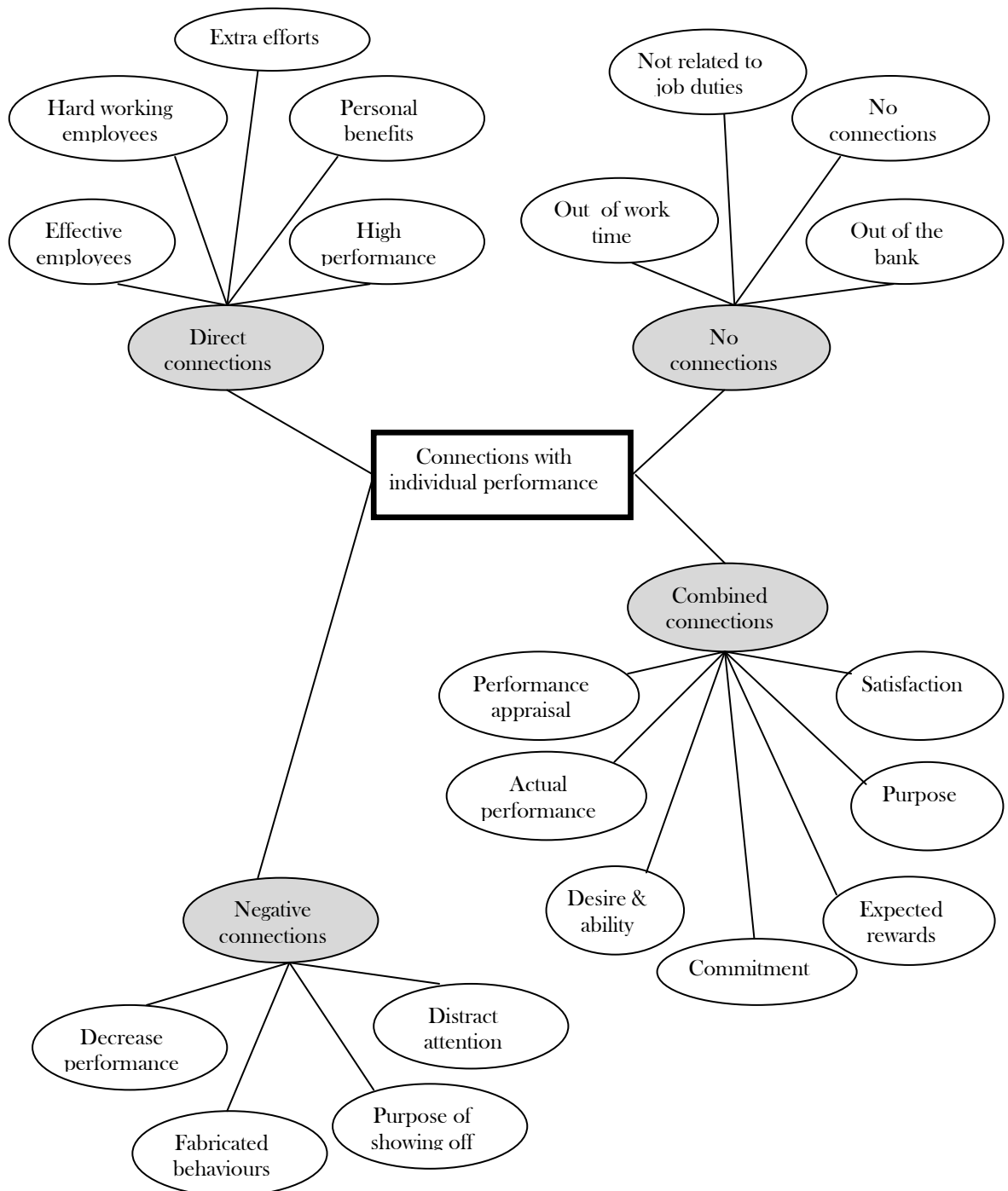
7.6.1.4 Negative connections

This group reflects the dark side of OCBs, as they are seen as harmful to the organisation and may lead to pitfalls at the workplace. Therefore, participants underlined themes such as OCBs lead to a decrease of individual performance, OCBs could be fabricated to influence the opinion of assessors, they could be practised for the purpose of fame and they might distract attention from the actual performance. In aggregate, participants identified negative connections between them and individual performance. For example, an accountant at NCB in Misurata mentioned that some employees could practise OCBs to cover their weak individual performance, using OCBs for the sake of showing off. He asserted:

“The practice of OCBs may lead to decrease the levels of individual performance of the employee, because the employees will focus to show that they are working through doing OCBs. Practising OCBs also could be fabricated to influence the opinion of the assessor, especially during the last three months of the year. OCBs could be used to distract attention from the actual performance. Where they are practised for the purpose of fame, job performance will be affected negatively”
(A.11)

Based on this argument, non managerial participants identified four possible connections between OCBs and individual performance. These views are summarised in figure 33.

Figure 33: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Non-Manual Participants' Awareness of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance



7.6.2 Demographic data and awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance by non-managerial participants

7.6.2.1 Length of service

Participants with few years of work saw a range of four possible sorts of connections. Although different possible connections were captured and direct connections were the most agreed ones among all different lengths service, it is noted that the more length of service the more positive awareness was shown of connections between OCBs and individual performance. These connections and groups of length of service are shown in table 59 below.

Table 59: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance Based on Length of Service of Non-Managerial Participants

<i>Length of service</i>	<i>0-10</i>	<i>11-20</i>	<i>21-30</i>
<i>Connections with individual performance</i>	Direct connections	Direct connections	Direct connections
	Combined connections	Combined connections	////////////////////
	No connections	No connections	////////////////////
	Negative connections	////////////////////	////////////////////

7.6.2.2 Educational attainment

This grouping aims to clarify whether participants' views are linked to their educational attainment. Of the four types of connections are identified, only awareness of combined connections was shared by all these groups. It is also noticed that those with lower educational levels reported more perceptions of positive connections, as shown in table 60 below.

Table 60: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance Based on Educational Attainment of Non-Managerial Participant

<i>Educational attainment</i>	<i>Postgraduate</i>	<i>Graduate</i>	<i>Undergraduate</i>
<i>Awareness of connections with individual performance</i>	////////////////////	Direct connections	Direct connections
	Combined connections	Combined connections	Combined connections
	////////////////////	No connections	////////////////////
	////////////////////	Negative connections	////////////////////

7.6.2.3 Age

Participants were divided into four age groups investigated in relation to the four groups of connections identified. It is seen that direct connections were the most agreed ones among all groups and older participants were more aware of positive connections than others. In addition, younger participants supported positive combined connections as well as direct connections. These connections and age groups are shown in table 61.

Table 61: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance Based on Age of Non-Managerial Participant

<i>Age</i>	<i>20-30 years</i>	<i>31-40 years</i>	<i>41-50 years</i>	<i>51-60 years</i>
<i>Awareness of connections with individual performance</i>	Direct connections	Direct connections	Direct connections	Direct connections
	Combined connections	Combined connections	////////////////	////////////////
	////////////////	No connections	No connections	////////////////
	////////////////	Negative connections	////////////////	////////////////

7.6.3 Discussion

Non managerial participants expressed several themes regarding their awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance. The first group includes themes which support the existence of positive direct connections, as participants believed that employees who engaged with OCBs are effective and have high performance. The view of such connections as positive and direct could be related to the perceived components of interpretations of OCBs, as participants could see positive practices, high engagement, rewards and in-role behaviours. The second group is similar to the first but they saw connections between OCBs and individual performance indicated by other factors such as commitment, satisfaction and desire. While the first and the second levels of awareness saw positive connections, the third group refers to non existence of any connections between OCBs and individual performance. Participants who supported this view believed that the two concepts are not related by any means, since individual performance is more related to their job duties, whilst OCBs are not: therefore, connecting them is not possible. The last group of views about connections between OCBs and individual performance reflected a negative influence of OCBs over individual performance. Participants highlighted that engaging with OCBs can have undesirable outcomes over

performance, as employees could use them to hide poor performance, or could misbehave and then their individual performance would decrease. Building on the ambiguity and complexity of OCBs, employees could use OCBs for their own interest or to mislead others at the workplace.

Overall, I suggest that awareness of such groups is related to participants' interpretations of OCBs. Therefore, based on the common agreement among participants that OCBs represent individual and social exchange behaviours, those who interpret OCBs as positive, in-role and rewarded behaviours are more considered to have positive connections between OCBs and individual performance, as they perceive OCBs as desirable behaviours. In contrast, those who showed less concern about the value of OCBs could perceive them as extra-role, unrewarded, situation-dependent behaviours. However, ultimately they could disagree with such behaviours when perceiving disadvantages and negative consequences of OCBs; this could explain more why some participants saw negative connections between OCBs and individual performance. On the other hand, little was revealed about what demographic characteristics could gather participants' views of such connections. Although it is not strongly confirmed, I suggest that participants who have more length of service were more aware of positive connections between OCBs and performance. Further, participants who have lower educational attainments and younger ones showed more positive views of those connections. Thus, length of service, educational attainment and age, to some extent, influenced participants' awareness of those connections.

7.7 Awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance by managerial participants

This part focuses on viewpoints of managerial participants to explore in more depth how they value such behaviours at the workplace. Subsequently, better understanding of their insights of this construct will be achieved. Participating managers raised many themes in regard with such connections. Thus, I grouped them into three sorts of connections, as explained below.

7.7.1.1 Direct connections

In this unit participants indicated that connections between OCBs and individual performance are direct and practising OCBs leads to high individual performance. They spotlighted several desirable themes and they believed that employees who practise OCBs are those who have good levels of performance. These connections are based upon positive views of OCBs and represent high awareness of the value of OCBs at the workplace. However, this sort of connection was built by assembling related themes, which refer to agreement with direct influence for OCBs over individual performance. They include: employees who have high scores of individual performance usually practise OCBs at work, they are preferred by our customers, OCBs are derived from their selves, optional work leads to creativity and then high achievements and high performance means more than job duties. For instance, the head of the auditing department at WB saw that OCBs lead to desirable characteristics of employees which enhance their individual performance. He expressed:

“Employees who volunteer usually perform at a high level, because these practices are usually derived from their selves. When employees practise not inevitable work, which is optional and discretionary, they will be creative in that work” (A.22)

Similarly, the head of CDB underscored that employees who practise OCBs are those who have high levels of performance and customers usually trust them based on their performance. He articulated:

“Employees who practise OCBs usually have high levels of performance, the employee who practises OCBs usually is the one preferred by customers” (A.20)

7.7.1.2 Combined connections

This collection of related themes points to indirect connections between OCBs and individual performance. This means that practising OCBs alone does not affect levels of individual performance unless they are combined with other factors. Thus, participants perceived that practising OCBs only at workplace without completing job duties or getting management permission will not increase individual performance. For example, the head of the auditing department at CDB in Misurata emphasized that happiness, cooperation and completion of role duties must be associated with OCBs to achieve high performance. He reported:

“OCBs affect the organisational performance in general, practising OCBs at work makes a positive image of the organization..... OCBs impacts employees’ performance through feeling happy to have completed the basic work to the fullest, and cooperate with other employees” (A.19)

Similarly, the head of personnel affairs at GB mentioned that a high quality of family breeding and positive personalities must be associated with OCBs to get high individual performance. He stated:

“Although some employees have high levels of individual performance they never got involved in such behaviours; they move beside you without even asking what are you doing. It depends on family breeding, as people practise what they used to do at their homes, and depends as well on their personalities” (B.25)

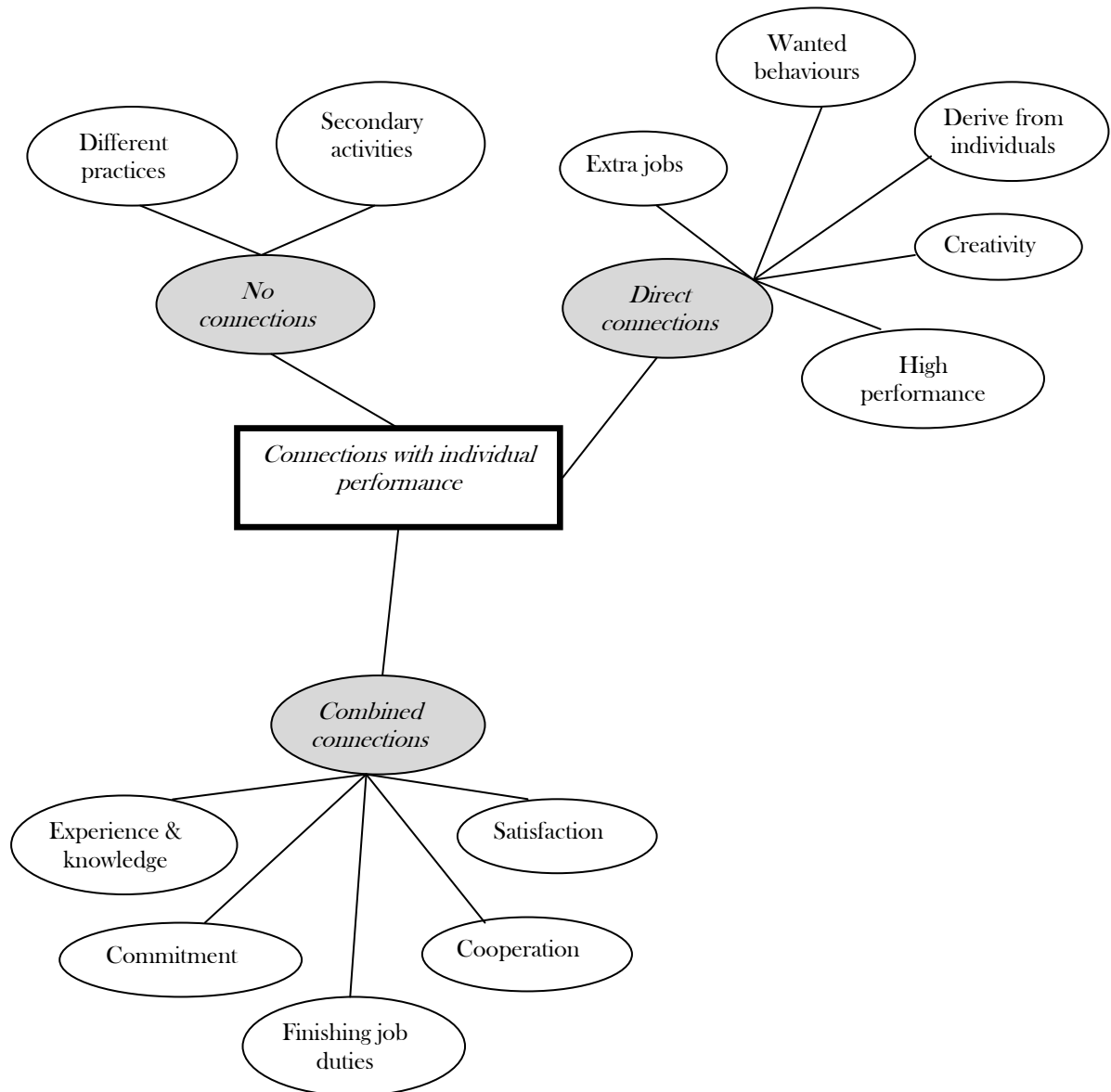
7.7.1.3 No connections

The last group of themes refers to less recognition of the value of OCBs at the workplace. Participants explained the lack of such connections by stating that OCBs are extra secondary work and individual performance is related more to the job duties, which have priority and are given more appreciation at work. Therefore, those concepts are not connected. For example, the head of the accountancy argued that there is no connection between OCBs and performance. He said:

“Main job duties always have priority over OCBs, because OCBs are extra work to do, so it is not connected to performance” (B.26)

However, these categories and their themes are summarised in figure 34 below.

Figure 84: Thematic Network of Themes and Subcategories of Managerial Participants' Awareness of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance



7.7.2 Demographic data and managers' awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance

7.7.2.1 Length of service

This category contains four different groups of different length of service. Across all groups, most participants indicated positive combined connections between OCBs and individual performance. However, participants with 11-20 and 21-30 years of service expressed high awareness of such connections. In general, even though this characteristic

did not suggest any notable difference among participants, I suggest that most participants confirm the combined connections, as seen in table 62 below.

Table 62: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants Based on Length of Service

<i>Length of service</i>	<i>0-10</i>	<i>11-20</i>	<i>21-30</i>	<i>30 ≤</i>
<i>Connections with individual performance</i>	////////////////	Direct connections	Direct connections	////////////////
	Combined connections	Combined connections	////////////////	Combined connections
	////////////////	////////////////	////////////////	No connections

7.7.2.2 Educational attainment

Although respondents had different educational backgrounds, they had similar levels of awareness of possible connections between OCBs and performance. They expressed high awareness of positive direct and combined connections between the two. However, no differences were captured among the three groups based on education. Thus, educational attainment did not explain any variance among participants as table 63 shows.

Table 63: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants based on Educational Attainment

<i>Educational attainment</i>	<i>Postgraduate</i>	<i>Graduate</i>	<i>Undergraduate</i>
<i>Connection with individual performance</i>	////////////////	Combined connections	Combined connections
	Direct connections	////////////////	Direct connections
	////////////////	////////////////	No connections

7.7.2.3 Age

Participants were divided into four age groups. Participants in all these groups perceived positive combined connections between the two concepts, whereas, the older participants identified stronger connections by emphasizing direct connections between those concepts. Overall, table 64 suggests that older participants had more awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance.

Table 64: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants based on Age

<i>Age</i>	<i>20-30</i>	<i>31-40</i>	<i>41-50</i>	<i>51-60</i>
<i>Connection between OCBs and individual performance</i>	Combined connections	Combined connections	Combined connections	Combined connections
	////////////////	////////////////	Direct connections	Direct connections
	////////////////	////////////////	////////////////	No connections

7.7.2.4 Position

Although participants had two different positions; mid-level managers and lower-level managers, they had similar views of possible connections between OCBs and individual performance. Mid-level managers were slightly more positive, mentioning direct and combined connections between the two concepts, whereas some lower-level managers showed less positive views, indicating that no connections exist between the two concepts. Accordingly, I suggest, to some extent, that higher level managers were more aware of the positive connections between concepts, as shown in table 65.

Table 65: Classification of Connections between OCBs and Individual Performance by Managerial Participants Based Position

<i>Position</i>	<i>Mid-level managers</i>	<i>Lower-level managers</i>
<i>Connection between OCBs and individual performance</i>	Direct connections	Direct connections
	Combined connections	Combined connections
	////////////////	No connections

7.7.3 Discussion

Participating managers expressed three different groups of awareness regarding connections between OCBs and individual performance, based on the highlighted themes. The first group was those themes which refer to positive direct connections. These managers concluded that engaging with OCBs will lead to more desirable outcome and then high individual performance. The second group of awareness of such connections was positive as well, but participants showed less certainty about connections between the two concepts. They saw this connection as mediated by other factors, such as being commitment, satisfaction and experience and knowledge of the work. The last group includes few themes, but it refers to non-existence of any connections between OCBs and individual performance. Participants addressed that OCBs are not related in any way to

individual performance, because individual performance is strongly related to their main job duties, while OCBs are voluntary work not included when performance is assessed.

Overall, I suggest that these views could be associated with different components of interpretations of OCBs. Participants who perceived OCBs as person-related, in-role and positive two-edged behaviours would have positive direct views of the connections between OCBs and individual performance. However, combined connections also could be seen through different components of OCBs, for example, being cooperative as a form of social exchange element, extra-role and two-edged behaviours could support such perceptions of combined connections. In turn, the view that there is no connection could also be related to specific narrow components of interpretations of OCBs. For example, interpretations of OCBs as negative two-edged, voluntary behaviours “out of assessment” and unrewarded behaviours support such a view. The four demographic characteristics examined (length of service, education, age and position) did not explain why participants tended to support certain groups of connections.

7.7.4 *Comparison of awareness of connections between OCBs and individual performance as seen by non-managerial and managerial participants*

Concluding participants' awareness of possible connections between OCBs and individual performance, both managerial and non managerial participants have addressed similar views of how OCBs could be connected to their individual performance. Therefore, similar themes were captured and three similar subcategories were constructed. Awareness of participants was nearly similar in all three groups, namely, direct connections, where they saw direct influence of OCBs over individual performance, combined connections, where participants saw a joint influence of OCBs over individual performance with other organisational or personal factors, and no connections between the two factors. These three groups of awareness were similar among all participants and overall indicate a positive awareness of OCBs at the workplace. The only difference came from some non managerial participants, who raised different themes towards such connections. They highlighted that OCBs can have undesirable influence on individual performance. Accordingly, practising OCBs decreases individual performance and makes employees engage with behaviours unrelated to their jobs.

To sum up, both sets of participants were familiar with and positive towards connections between OCBs and individual performance. As a part of their insights of OCBs, this confirms their positive views of OCBs at the workplace and stresses the multi-faceted nature of this construct. However, this comparison shows that managers have a deeper view of connections between the two concepts. Accordingly, they have more awareness than non managerial participants of the value and possible influence of OCBs over individual performance.

7.8 Conclusion

The last section in this chapter is to conclude what we have learnt about insights of respondents in relation to OCBs in the Libyan banking sector. In specific, such insights were explored through answering four main questions, each dealing with a certain characteristic of OCBs. However, to draw trust worthy conclusions, it is important to start with the perceived components of OCBs. Participants perceived different themes of OCBs. They are: person-related behaviours, social collaborative behaviours, in-role/extra-role behaviours, mutable behaviours, intangibly rewarded behaviours and spontaneous optional/compulsory behaviours. Three common components were agreed by both types

of participants, namely, person-related, social collaborative behaviours and mutable behaviours. Participants confirmed that these components represent the core of what OCBs are. Therefore, I suggest that any possible drawing of conclusions should consider these components as the bases of OCBs. Accordingly, two possible conclusions on interpretations of OCBs could be drawn. The first is that; OCBs are person-related, social collaborative behaviours and mutable behaviours. These behaviours are extra-role and unrewarded behaviours. Therefore, they are optional behaviours, as engaging with them is subject to the judgement of employees. However, a second conclusion could be that; OCBs are person-related, social collaborative behaviours and mutable behaviours, which are in-role, intangibly rewarded behaviours. Therefore, they are compulsory behaviours, and not practising them may lead to undesirable consequences. Adopting one of these interpretations is expected to guide ways of perceiving other aspects of participants' insights of OCBs, such as antecedents and management attitudes toward OCBs. It is important to understand that these conclusions are not absolute, as other conclusions could also be derived in between those in the text above.

Participants' insights into OCBs were constructed upon four sections; interpretations, antecedents, management attitudes and connections with individual performance. They interpreted OCBs into different components and different perceptions, and these interpretations reflected various possible components of the term. Accordingly, they perceived three possible groups of antecedents of OCBs. These antecedents also reflected different personal organisational and socio-cultural roots of OCBs, as well as confirming their various interpretations and the multi-faceted nature of OCBs. Matching these miscellaneous interpretations and perceptions of antecedents of OCBs, participants had similar views of their managers' attitudes to the concept, as they raised several attitudes of their managers reflecting and confirming that attitude to OCBs depends on how people perceive and interpret them. Thus, attitudes such as supportive and unsupportive, neutral and negative attitudes were confirmed. In line with those interpretations, perceptions and views of different elements of OCBs, respondents also reflected upon their thoughts of possible connections between OCBs and individual performance. However, their various levels of awareness of such connections also reflected various interpretations and perceptions of the term, as participants reported four possible types of connections between OCBs and individual performance, reflecting the

fact that their insights of OCBs dynamic and depend on several elements, as they did not recognise just one specific connection

According to this argument, two main scenarios could be suggested. The first is as follows:

“OCBs are person-related, social collaborative, in-role, mutable, compulsory and explicitly rewarded behaviours. Employees engage in these behaviours because of different personal, organisational and socio-cultural factors. Managers encourage and may reward such behaviours, because they see them as in-role and compulsory behaviours. Thus, OCBs are important because they are perceived as in-role, rewarded behaviours and therefore, they impact directly and indirectly upon individual performance”

The second suggested scenario could be described as:

“OCBs are person-related, social collaborative, extra role, mutable, optional and unrewarded behaviours. These behaviours come through various personal, organisational and socio-cultural origins. However, managers are uninterested and may have negative attitudes towards them, because they are dynamic, optional and unrewarded employees could use OCBs to have negative impact on organisations. Moreover, because OCBs are extra-role, optional and unrewarded behaviours, they cannot be connected with individual performance, and if they are practised at the workplace they could have adverse outcomes upon individual performance”

These scenarios are built upon the discussion and argument above in this chapter and represent all the sections of this chapter. However, it is important to mention again that these scenarios are suggested to make sense of all sections together and not to develop or generate any objectivist theories. Nonetheless, participants' insights into OCBs and the above scenarios are presented in the figures 35 and 36.

Figure 35: Network of Categories & Subcategories of Insights into OCBs in the Banking Sector in Libya as Seen by Participants

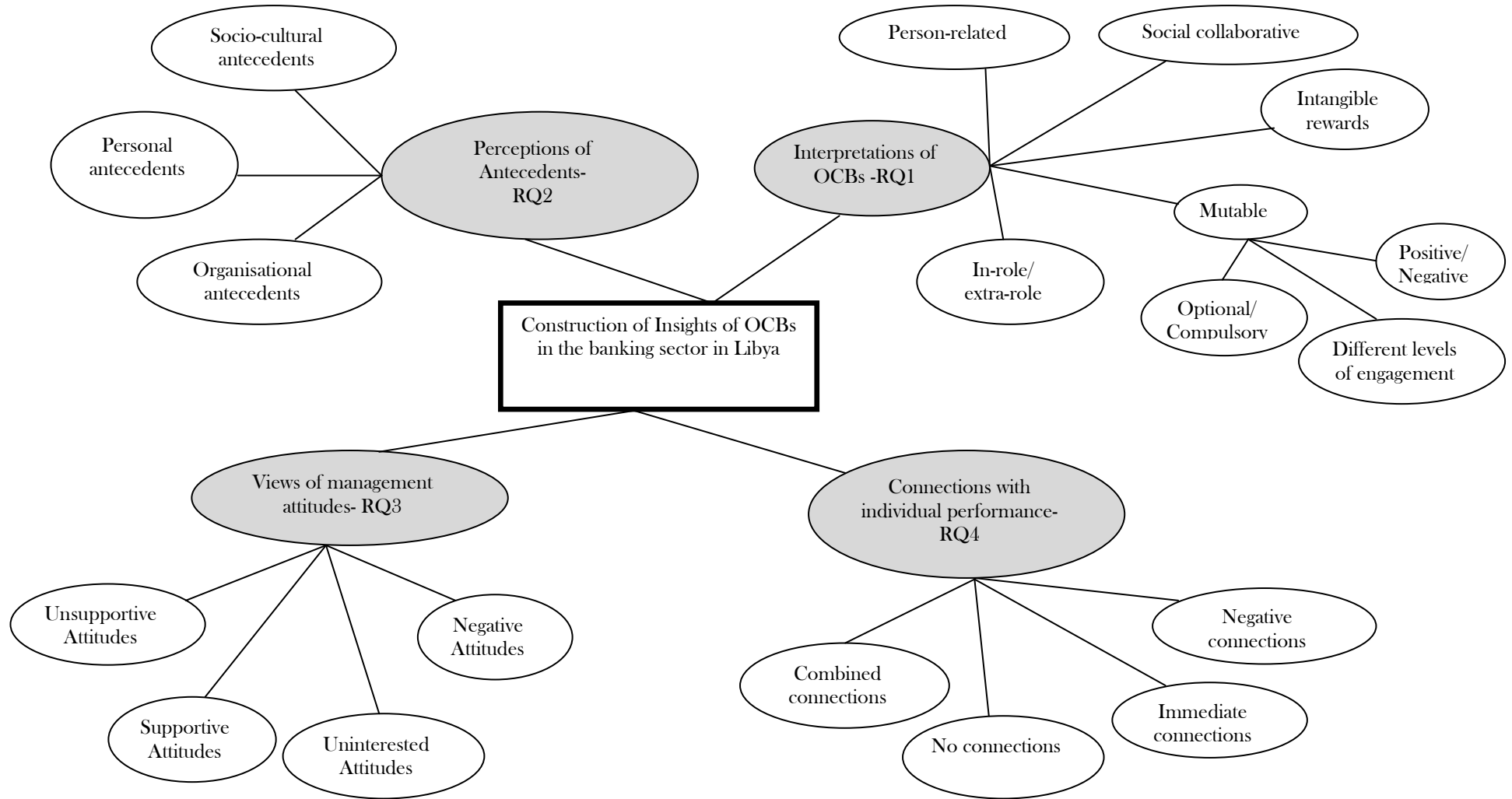
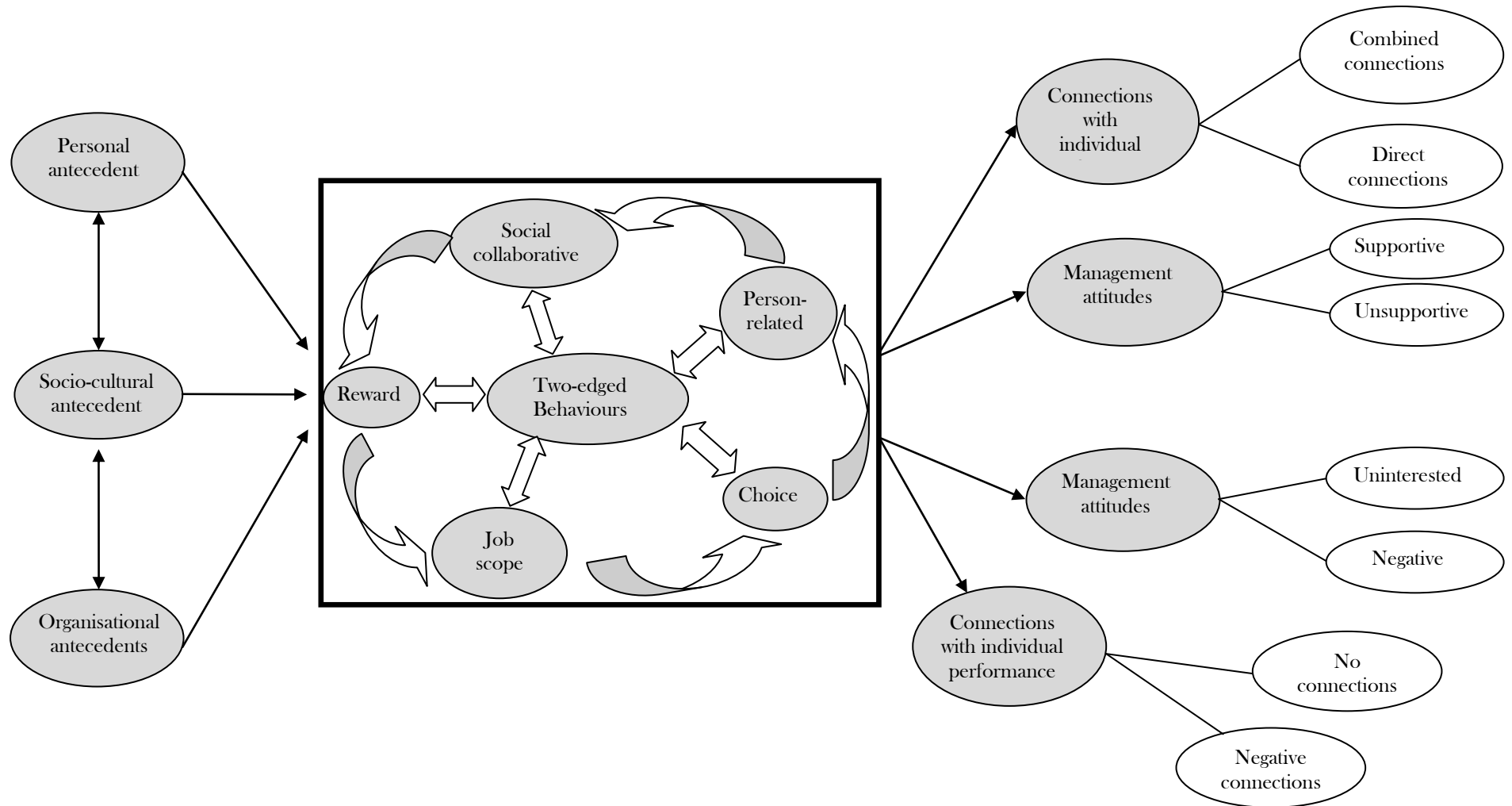


Figure 36: Structure of Categories and Subcategories of Insights into OCBs in the Libyan Banking Sector



CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION AND REVISITING THE LITERATURE

8.1 Introduction

As was seen in the first chapter, this study aimed to explore insights into commitment and OCBs and highlight their main characteristics in the workplace in Libya. Guided by the research questions, employees were given the opportunity to express their thoughts, views and interpretations of different elements of the two concepts. Subsequently, although differences and similarities were appreciated, common conclusions related to the two concepts were drawn and discussed. However, different people have different sets of values, cultures and beliefs. Therefore, their interpretations of concepts and the meanings they attach to them differ. Accordingly, this argument contends that characteristics of commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector are different from other sectors elsewhere. Accordingly, in this chapter I aim to highlight the main features of the explored insights and address their differences of previous research.

8.2 Commitment

8.2.1 Characteristics of commitment in the banking sector in Libya

To start the discussion, let us see how participants interpreted commitment through the four research questions. It is important to note that participants were talking about commitment, because they linked between commitment and organisations and they described commitment in terms of different behaviours at work.

8.2.1.1 Attitudinal and behavioural interpretations

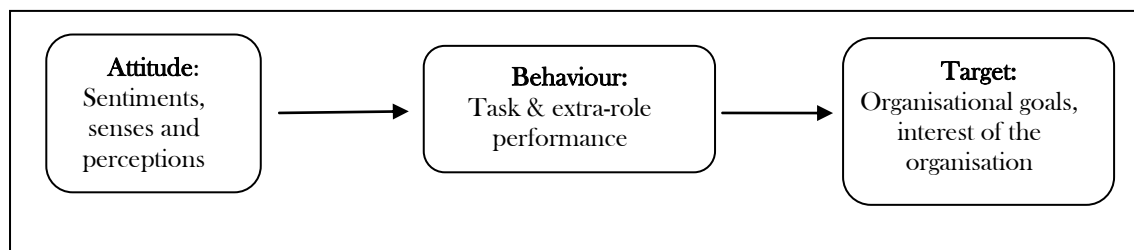
To begin with, although non-managerial and managerial participants stressed different themes of what might represent commitment, these themes could be better understood and classified into two dimensions; Firstly, the attitudinal interpretations refer to several positive sentiments, attributes and values towards the workplace. For example, these interpretations include different themes, such as psychological readiness, affiliation and self-importance. This would allow interpretations of commitment as a concept equal to honesty, devotion and loyalty. As we have seen in the analysis chapter, these aspects refer to affective attachment and normative moral components of commitment. In this sense, commitment is primarily seen as an attitude, which is considered as the essence of commitment, as participants believed that this dimension is crucial for the emergence of

the second dimension. Secondly, the behavioural interpretations refer to various desired behaviours of individuals at the workplace. Participants emphasized many positive behaviours of committed employees, which reflect both IRBs and ERBs. For example, they highlighted punctuality, compliance with regulations, adherence to organisational goals and working for the interest of the organisation. In this sense, commitment could be seen as a psychological state or orientation of the mind that guides individuals to express persistent behaviour. However, the different positions of participants could reflect both approaches. Thus, non-managerial employees believed more in the attitudinal interpretations of commitment, while managerial employees interpreted commitment more in terms of behavioural components, e.g. punctuality, treatment and performance.

8.2.1.2 Directed towards the workplace

To express the discussion in academic terms, participants' interpretations of commitment represent an attitude towards a target "organisation" through behaviours; "in-role and extra-role". At this point, such conclusions will help us to understand what commitment meant to participants in the Libyan banking sector, in academic language. The mixture between the two main interpretations of commitment, attitudinal and behavioural, is evidence that commitment is not just about having positive attitudes towards the workplace, such as having loyalty, affiliation and value congruence. It is also completing in-role duties and exerting efforts even out of the job scope. Figure 37 summarises this notion of attitudes towards the organisation expressed through in-role and extra-role behaviours

Figure 37: Interpretations of commitment in the Libyan banking sector



8.2.1.3 Affective and normative dimensions

Participants in all demographic categories supported the three sources of commitment; personal, socio-cultural and organisational antecedents. This indicates their holistic views of the effect of the three types of antecedents together. Different work experience,

educational levels, ages and positions were not associated with any differences in identifying antecedents of commitment. Nevertheless, even though participants emphasized the roles of the three sources together in creating and developing commitment, we can re-order them in a more meaningful academic way. For example, personal and organisational antecedents could be grouped in one category in relation to their influence on the desire to perform, the AC (Affective commitment), whereas the socio-cultural antecedents influence the sense of “obligation to do” (Normative commitment; NC). The AC comes out of personal desires of individuals to be committed, because they want to. It includes positive feelings, which are the most important when defining commitment, so the existence of positive sentiments towards the job and the organisation represents a great part of AC (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

In contrast, NC refers to feelings of individuals that they have to be committed at work. Such feelings come from moral and social influences indicating that being committed is the right thing to do, and commitment will give value to the organisation. The interpretations of participants support the roles of social, organisational and family interaction in creating a sort of exchange of norms through family upbringing and social ethics. For instance, ascertaining that commitment means positively engaging in social interaction through considering morality, being cooperative, complying with ethical standards of social actors such as friends, families and neighbours is evidence that participants’ view of commitment includes a normative element.

8.2.1.4 Attitude towards task and extra-role performance

Participants were aware of different connections between commitment and individual performance. They saw positive immediate connections where more commitment leads to high performance, and combined connections, where commitment was seen as one of a number of factors that contribute in increasing individual performance. Even though a variety of opinions was expressed, participants’ demographic characteristics explained some differences. For instance, more educated and younger non-managerial employees identified positive connections between commitment and individual performance. On the other hand, these connections were not identified by managers who had the same characteristics. Rather, less experienced and lower-level managers supported such connections. Research on commitment, as reported by Meyer & Allen (1991), did not confirm the direct relationship between commitment and job performance; rather, research looked at this relationship through other links such as turnover rate. However,

the insights of participants into commitment give evidence that performance and commitment are linked in that they interpreted commitment as an attitude towards performing in-role and extra-role behaviours. This insight places more value on the concept of commitment, since seeing it as directly intended towards job performance makes it a more valuable and desirable construct for organisations.

In brief, participants' insights could be summarised by saying that commitment is interpreted as having positive attitudes towards the organisation, which are expressed through both IRBs and ERBs behaviours to serve the goals and values of the organisation. In this sense, commitment is seen as a comprehensive mixture of attitudinal and behavioural components, which refers to getting involved with any activity in order to accomplish organisational goals. In essence, although participants saw commitment as directed towards devotion in serving the organisation, they did not explicitly see different forms of commitment, as they saw commitment as one concept with different foci; managers, groups and job duties. In other words, participants did not divide commitment into different forms. Rather, they viewed it as committing to the organisation through performing job duties perfectly, complying with regulations and cooperating with managers and other parties in the organisation, so commitment is towards an entity with no divided specifications.

8.2.2 Revisiting the literature of commitment

Building on the insights above, in this section I will discuss how these insights into commitment are similar to or different from the literature. To answer this question, let us revisit the literature and compare and contrast it with those insights into commitment, to reach concrete conclusions about the contribution of the study. What is similar and what is different to participants' insights of commitment? Therefore, this section will be focused on comparison and contrast with the mainstream conceptualisations of commitment.

8.2.2.1 Similar thoughts with mainstream conceptualisation of commitment

This section of the discussion deals with various common ground between participants' views of commitment and the mainstream literature on commitment. It includes three key points; similarities with conceptualisations of commitment, contextual influence and antecedents of commitment.

1) Attitude-behaviour conceptualisations of commitment

Definitions of commitment in the Libyan banking sector do not focus solely on the attitudinal part of commitment. Rather, it also refers to cognitive and behavioural parts. Participants thought that these parts represent real interpretations of what commitment is, and subsequently, lead to distinguishing commitment from other concepts. This vision is consistent with previous research that supported the attitudinal-behavioural conceptualisation of commitment, as commitment was seen as an attitude towards a target and attitude towards behaviours (Mowday et al., 1982; Solinger et al., 2008). This conceptualisation of commitment is close to the participants' interpretations, as they highlighted that being committed can be used to predict several positive behaviours of employees, such as time-keeping, dressing well and good treatment of others. Moreover, their interpretations of commitment as an attitude-behaviour concept would enhance the clarity of identifying commitment as an independent concept. In this sense, participants' interpretations of commitment support, to a great extent, the idea of attitudinal commitment, which is a group of strong and positive attitudes to the organisation, that comes from goal dedication, value congruence and willingness to exert behaviours for the sake of the organisation (Mowday et al., 1979; Brown, 1996; Stazyk et al., 2011). Similarly, participants mentioned that commitment means adhering to organisational goals and holding positive values such as perfection, loyalty and dedication, as well as having positive sentiments, thoughts and senses towards the organisation. All of these represent the attitudinal interpretations of commitment.

On the other hand, participants' interpretations also included behavioural interpretations of commitment. They highlighted positive behaviours such as attendance and good treatment of others as an important part of commitment. Accordingly, the empirical insights of participants are consistent with the notion that commitment leads to consistent behaviour (Becker, 1960). Similarly, participants interpreted commitment as internal thoughts and perceptions that lead to desired and consistent behaviours such as punctuality, obedience and good treatment. Furthermore, these behaviours are consistent because they are believed to be outcomes of attitudes and considered as right and proper to practise at work (Becker, 1960). This is in line with participants' interpretations that there is a considerable role for social players, such as family and society, in influencing interpretations of commitment, as they see this concept as right and proper when working in an organisation. Furthermore, participants' interpretations of commitment also support

Solinger and his colleagues' (2008) classifications of commitment-related behaviours. They classified such behaviours based on a typology of organisational behaviours comprising constructive (passive/active) and destructive (passive/active) behaviours. This classification fits well with the behaviours ascribed by participants to committed and uncommitted employees, such as being obedient and cooperative or negligent and poor time-keeping.

In brief, the attitudinal and behavioural dimensions are different but related. Thus, while the attitudinal commitment focuses on loyalty, identification and contribution and involvement with the organisation, the behavioural commitment represents the process of linking employees with their organisations through their behaviours (Mottaz, 1989; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999). Such academic conceptualisations of commitment, to varying degrees, explain and support participants' empirical interpretations of commitment in the Libyan banking sector. Indeed, recent research has reaffirmed the attitude-behaviour conceptualisation of commitment. For example, Lok and his colleagues (2005) conceptualised commitment as an attitude with behavioural connotations. Their view of commitment includes identification and involvement with and loyalty, to the organisation. Participants, to a big degree, conceptualised commitment as an affective concept. They went beyond interpreting commitment based on exchange theory, and proceeded to feeling obligated to be committed, as they indicated that even when there was no exchanged benefit with the organisation, they felt obligated to be committed at the workplace (Solinger et al., 2008; Meyer and Parfyonova, 2010; Yonghong et al., 2010).

2) Affective and normative dimensions of commitment

As explained above, commitment in the Libyan banking sector is seen as an attitude towards behaviour. This view of commitment is similar to the early work on commitment, as commitment was seen to have affective and normative dimensions, which are directed towards performance to serve the organisation (Becker, 1960; Mowday et al., 1979; Mowday et al., 1982). Participants' interpretations of commitment are consistent with the multidimensionality of commitment, as two dimensions have been confirmed. First, having positive sentiments, senses and values towards the organisation in general, which is called "affective dimension" (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Cohen, 2007; Solinger et al., 2008). Furthermore, seeing commitment as emotional attachment of the individual

towards the organisation reflects the degree of interaction with the organisation and adoption to its characteristics. Therefore, participants' interpretations of commitment are congruent with most previous research that described commitment as emotional attachment (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Wasti, 2008; Somers, 2010). Participants displayed strong support for this conceptualisation, as they interpreted commitment as feeling emotionally attached to the organisation. In addition, participants' insights reaffirm the early conceptualisations of commitment as reflecting identification with and involvement in the organisation (Mowday et al., 1979; Meyer and Allen, 1991). This view, to a high degree, represents what commitment meant to participants, as it includes both attitudinal and behavioural interpretations.

Second, the normative component was supported through the social influence of family and social ethics. However, although the affective component was supported to a high degree, the normative component was interpreted differently in regard to its target behaviour, as we will see later when discussing differences. Participants' view of the role of social and moral influence in determining what commitment meant to them refers to the same precept of a normative component of commitment introduced by Meyer & Allen (1991). Even though participants did not mention this component explicitly, they acknowledged considerable influence from families, social ethics and social values in determining and explaining why employees may be committed or uncommitted. In specific, managerial participants emphasised the role of ethical considerations as a component of commitment. Furthermore, participants' interpretations of normative component were more related to the moral imperative facet of NC. . This facet refers to the role of the moral value of being committed at work (Gellatly et al., 2006; Meyer et al., 2007; Meyer and Parfyonova, 2010). Thus, it supports an interpretation by some participants of commitment as having positive values and ethical consideration.

Another similar explanation of participants' interpretations of normative component is Cohen's (2007) view of NC. He redefined it as a "propensity", which does not depend on any sort of exchange with the organisation. Rather, employees perceive that it is obligatory to show committed behaviours, even if they are not involved in an exchange process. This conceptualisation of commitment is supported by participants' interpretations, as they believed in the role of social norms and values in influencing interpretations of commitment. Thus, NC is a general attitude that does not belong to a specific organisation, and it explains why different people interpret commitment in different ways.

To sum up, this combination of affective and normative dimensions of commitment is not new, as this notion was mentioned by previous research (Mowday et al., 1982; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999), which claimed that commitment is not just an affective attachment to organisations. Therefore, participants' interpretations of commitment support the conceptualisation of commitment as constructed from normative and self-identity outcomes (Solinger et al., 2008). Participants spotlighted the role of self-identity, by highlighting themes such as self-role recognition and self-dependence. In addition, they also highlighted different social elements, such as social ethics and values, which refer to the normative outcomes of commitment. Furthermore, participants' interpretations of commitment are in line with later research, in which three mindsets are combined together to formulate a profile of commitment in individuals (Meyer and Allen, 1991, 1997; Cohen, 2007). Therefore, participants' identifications of commitment as two dimensions support the view of commitment as a profile of different mindsets. In this regard, their interpretations of commitment reflect affective, normative and affective-normative profiles of commitment (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer and Parfyonova, 2010).

3) Committed to whom?

Another area of similarity is foci of commitment. Literature has reported that employees view commitment as being committed to different parties in the organisation such as group members, managers, occupations and organisations (Meyer and Allen, 1991, 1997; Beck and Wilson, 2001; Van Steenbergen and Ellemers, 2009). Participants' insights of commitment supported this argument, as they mentioned implicitly different foci of their commitment as they pointed to being committed to job duties, regulations and norms, superiors, organisational goals and values. One possible explanation for these views is that employees' collective, relational or individual identifications influence how they interpret commitment (Johnson et al., 2010). Thus, employees interpret commitment based on different identifications of others, such as managers, group members and social actors i.e. family and society. Therefore, the empirical insights provided by participants support this explanation of commitment, as participants highlighted that managers' being positive exemplars, equal relationships and alignment with social and family norms all reflect the role of individual identifications of interpreting commitment.

4) Commitment-performance insights

Conceptualising commitment as affective would lead to a link with high performance. This was postulated by Meyer & Allen (1991), which may explain why some participants agreed upon positive immediate/combined connections between commitment and performance. Thus, participants' views of these connections support their interpretations of commitment as affective. On the other hand, although commitment is seen as a positive concept, some research has revealed that some sorts of commitment could be related negatively with individual performance (Meyer et al., 1989; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Swailes, 2002). Similarity with this literature can be seen in the claims of some participants who did not agree on the positive connections between commitment and individual performance. One possible explanation is that those participants interpreted commitment from a narrow angle, such as limiting the meaning of commitment to the expression of some behaviours and lacking the right perception and understanding of commitment. Overall, participants who interpreted commitment as attitudinal tended to connect it with high individual performance, and those who interpreted it as behavioural tended to support weak connections with individual performance. Even though the relationship between commitment and performance is not clear yet (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Swailes, 2002; Van Steenbergen and Ellemers, 2009; Mehmud et al., 2010), both managerial and non-managerial participants' perceptions support different views of connections between commitment and performance. In this respect, participants' perceptions of different connections between commitment and individual performance are congruent with previous interpretation of commitment. It is argued that some aspects of commitment are already included in performance evaluations. For example, while compliance and punctuality represent IRBs, which are existed in performance evaluation, identification and value congruence represent extra-role and prosocial behaviours, which are not addressed in performance evaluation (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). Therefore, participants' interpretations of commitment as being directed towards in-role and extra-role performance support, to a certain degree, the identification of positive connections between AC and performance (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002; Swailes, 2002; Van Steenbergen and Ellemers, 2009).

5) Continuance commitment

In congruence with previous research, participants' interpretations of commitment reaffirm the claim that commitment should not incorporate the CC. Some research claimed that the affective and NC are more important than continuance for organisations (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999). Therefore, participants' interpretations of commitment are consistent with previous research in that CC was not an element of what commitment meant to them, as they never connected their interpretations of commitment with the idea of considering costs of staying/leaving the organisation or costs of alternative choices for them outside the organisation. Supporting this argument, research has cast doubt on the CC and called for retesting it. It is explained that the strong relationship between commitment and turnover is due to the existence of a continuance component when measuring this relationship (Cohen, 2007).

8.2.2.2 Contextual influence on conceptualisations of commitment

This section deals with similarity between participants' interpretations of commitment and previous research about the role of contextual influence, such as cultural and social influence, on interpretations of commitment. To begin with, it is worth noting that participants were characterised by their collectivist culture, high power distance and Islamic work values.

Contextual influence through organisational and societal contexts is highly influential of commitment (Beck and Wilson, 2001; Meyer et al., 2007; Cohen, 2010). This argument is consistent with participants' interpretations, as they saw commitment to flow from various organisational, personal and socio-cultural antecedents. Participants' interpretations of commitment support Al-Esmael's (2007) conclusion that the meaning of commitment differs across cultural contexts. In this study, participants highlighted several values and emotional attachments reflecting their collectivist culture. Such values and attachments affect and explain their high perceptions of groups and organisations.

Even though collectivist cultural contexts are more related to focus on affective interpretations of commitment, they also could lead to more normative interpretations as well. Consistent with this view, while participants' interpretations included different themes stressing affective interpretations, they also included various social themes such as family and societal values and norms reflecting normative interpretations of commitment. In this sense, collectivism could support both affective and normative components. Thus,

this argument is congruent with research that maintained that collectivism positively influences affective and normative dimensions of commitment on national and individual levels. Researchers have also maintained that people from collectivist and high power distance societies do not distinguish between the affective and normative components of commitment (Meyer et al., 2007; Fischer and Mansell, 2009). This could provide a good explanation of why participants highlighted both affective and normative dimensions of commitment.

The cultural characteristics of collectivism, masculinity and high expectations positively influence individuals' propensities to be committed (Cohen, 2007). Supporting this argument, high power distance also contributes in understanding why commitment is interpreted as being obedient to managers and regulations. This view of commitment is similar to the argument that societies that accept authority usually focus on obedience and loyalty and so the normative dimension of commitment becomes more valued (Fischer and Mansell, 2009). In this sense, classifying participants as from a culture where high power distance is accepted would explain why they focused on obedience as an important theme of commitment. Participants' interpretations of commitment reaffirm this thought, as their interpretations of commitment were full of positive values, attributes and behaviours of individuals towards the organisation. Furthermore, linking commitment with performance is typical of collectivist cultures (Wasti, 2008). Such thoughts could explain why some participants saw strong connections between the two concepts, because they interpreted commitment as perfectly, honestly and loyally performing job duties and more. In this sense, being committed leads to high individual performance.

Similarly, participants' descriptions of commitment as normative are congruent with Meyer and Parfyonova's (2010) model of NC, where it is linked strongly with employees from a collectivist culture, as participants paid attention to the influence of social ethics and norms and considered them as right to implement. Further, they appreciated the role of family and social actors in building the value of being committed in individuals.

All of these effects support Cohen's (2007) claim that participants who come from a traditional society have a high propensity towards NC. This argument explains why some participants put weight on the family upbringing and social ethics, as they adopt their traditional social values and perceptions that an employee should be committed at work. Moreover, recent research has linked NC with collectivist culture, proposing that people

from such cultures are more likely to show high levels of NC with their groups (Meyer and Parfyonova, 2010). This argument is supported by participants' interpretations of commitment, as they highlighted the feeling of being obligated to be committed to the organisation and work groups.

To varying degrees, participants' interpretations of commitment were supported by their religious thoughts and beliefs, as participants saw committed employees at work as committed to their religion. This view is consistent with the argument that commitment at work is linked with commitment to a religion, as both commitments stem from similar social values (Hashim, 2010). In congruence with these explanations, participants' perceptions of religion as an antecedent of commitment was due to shared similar values between religion and commitment. In this regard, participants' interpretations of commitment are also compatible with the Islamic view of work, which is that performance of job duties should be perfected for the sake of Allah (God) and society. The fact that this precept was mentioned several times supports the interpretation of commitment as a religious obligation. Participants' interpretation of commitment as perfecting job duties was compatible with their Islamic work values in relation to performing job duties. This interpretation reaffirms previous research findings in relation to the influence of Islamic values in determining the conceptualisation and practice of different concepts (Ali and Al-Owaidan, 2008; Cohen, 2010; Mellahi and Budhwar, 2010). Participants' views of different foci of commitment are in congruence with research that proposed that individuals from collectivist contexts tend to divide commitment to different foci such as managers, colleagues and customers. Further, participants' focus on loyalty and work groups, such as managers, customers and colleagues, when interpreting commitment, could be linked to their collectivist and in-group cultural characteristics, as people who come from such a context usually appreciate their close groups and emphasise having relational associations with them (Wasti, 2003; Fischer and Mansell, 2009; Hashim, 2010).

8.2.2.3 Similar antecedents of commitment

Commitment as a phenomenon is seen to be created and developed from various sources. These sources affect levels of commitment among individuals. However, antecedents of commitment, as seen by participants, were divided into three groups, namely, personal, socio-cultural and organisational. Even though each of them represents a different group

of related roots of commitment, they are thought to be in effect one group containing a mixture of antecedents.

Participants' perceptions of personal, socio-cultural and organisational antecedents are compatible with classifications of previous research, such as personal and organisational antecedents (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001), personal, job-related and environmental antecedents (Meyer and Allen, 1991), personal and role-related antecedents (Swales, 2002) normative/affective antecedents (Meyer et al., 2007; Al-Esmeal, 2007) and pre-entry and post-entry antecedents of commitment (Cohen, 2007).

Even though there are several classifications of antecedents of commitment, it is important to acknowledge that participants see them as one block, as the absence of any of them might influence commitment. For example, participants' perceptions of personal antecedents are in line with previous findings that affective and normative components of commitment are associated together with different personal characteristics (Al-Esmeal, 2007). However, participants did not distinguish between those that might influence affective and those that might affect NC; rather, they perceived that personal characteristics influence both of them.

Participants highlighted a holistic view of commitment antecedents, in which they took account of various personal, socio-cultural and organisational sources of commitment. This holistic view is similar to previous research. For example, participants shared with previous research some personal antecedents such as education, determination, self-efficacy, personality, work experience and self-development (Lok et al., 2005; Al-Esmeal, 2007; Wasti, 2008; Li et al., 2010; Cohen, 2010). This similarity supports the view that different personal characteristics are crucial in creating and developing commitment in individuals. Further, such antecedents are thought to be related to affective and normative components of commitment (Cohen, 2007), as they influence perceptions, sentiments and desires of individuals in order to motivate them out of desire and out of a sense of obligation.

Socio-cultural antecedents of commitment were also signified by participants, as they referred to the significant role of social influence from family, social ethics and values. This view shares common ground with previous research. For instance, several socio-cultural antecedents, such as family upbringing, national cultural, occupational culture, social values and ethics have been highlighted previously (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Wasti,

2008; Behery, 2009; Hashim, 2010). Similarly, participants reaffirmed the importance of such antecedents, as they asserted their influence in creating and developing commitment. However, such antecedents were seen to be more related to the normative component of commitment, as research maintains that the feeling of obligation, as part of commitment, comes from social and cultural influences on employees to be committed at the organisation because this is, socially, the right thing to do.

The last group is those antecedents that come from inside the organisation and affect perceptions and reciprocal relationships between individuals and their organisations. Organisational antecedents are perceived to be of paramount importance for commitment (Swales, 2002; Williamson et al., 2009). Accordingly, participants' perceptions of organisational antecedents and previous research shared common themes, such as organisational justice, support, teamwork, institutional affect, participation and empowerment, management, leadership style, organisational interaction, value congruence, equity, autonomy, extrinsic rewards and discrimination (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Johnson et al., 2010; Khalifa and Truong, 2011). Even though individuals could have personal and socio-cultural inclinations towards being committed, organisational antecedents are considered to be influential in creating and developing commitment in employees. Further, this group of antecedents confirms that commitment could be managed through several organisational actions in order to maintain high levels of commitment (Beck and Wilson, 2001; Cohen, 2010; Sahertian and Soetjipto, 2011).

8.2.2.4 Differences between research findings and previous research

Even though participants' insights into commitment are similar to previous research, they also, to various degrees, contradicted some mainstream conceptualisations of commitment. This section shows and explains how participants' insights of commitment differ from traditional conceptualisations of commitment.

Participants' empirical insights into commitment did not support Becker's (1960) view of commitment as conscious awareness of costs related to staying in or leaving the organisation, which was later named CC. It also contradicts Mowday et al.'s (1979) view of commitment as maintaining membership in the organisation, as participants did not mention maintaining membership in any form. According to Meyer and Allen (1991) an employee might have the three components of commitment at the same time, and they

could be mixed together, but participants' views of commitment did not support such an assumption, as participants did not refer to considering the costs of staying or leaving.

Insights into commitment in this study support different thoughts, about forms of commitment from those in the literature. Previous research suggested that commitment could be divided into many sub-commitment themes of "forms" (Meyer and Allen, 1991, 1997). However, participants saw commitment towards different foci such as job duties, managers or regulations, but only as forms of general commitment towards the organisation, as commitment to one of these elements alone made no sense to them. Thus, participants saw commitment towards the organisation without actually distinguishing different forms of commitment.

The explored empirical insights of commitment also differ from previous research about NC (Becker, 1960; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Meyer and Parfyonova, 2010), as the target in most previous research was staying. However, this would differ from participants' interpretations, as they perceived performing as the target of commitment. Thus, participants' interpretations of NC were quite different, as they considered the normative component as an obligation to do one's best for the organisation, obligation to perform in-role and extra-role behaviours. In this sense, commitment is performing job duties and even more, doing so to the best of one's ability or "job perfection". Thus, commitment focuses on the value of performing, not the value of staying.

Participants' interpretations of commitment strongly considered both the attitudinal and behavioural interpretations of commitment. Therefore, they did not match Cohn's (2007) model of commitment, which sees commitment as an attitude, not behaviour. He maintained that such separation prevents the overlap between the components of commitment.

Participants' insights into commitment prove that there was a sense of obligation that motivated them to engage in commitment. This feeling stemmed from various social, cultural and personal sources, such social morality and individual attributes. Thus, participants' views of commitment do not support the call for not considering NC (Solinger et al., 2008).

Even though research in the 70s, 80s and 90s focused on commitment as directed towards staying (Becker, 1960; Meyer et al., 1989; Meyer and Allen, 1997), recent

research describes a general sense of commitment that could be directed towards many targets. However, in this study, commitment is particularly directed towards performance through job duties, applying regulations and obeying management instructions.

According to participants' interpretations of commitment, employees are committed to performing job duties and serving the interest of the organisation. Therefore, commitment is seen as an attitude towards behavioural performance. This could be inferred from the daily behaviour of performing their job and organisational duties that participants mentioned. If they had meant commitment to stay, they would have referred to it in some ways or they would not have described the daily behaviours when explaining what commitment meant to them, because describing daily activities refers to performance. This is compatible with previous criticism of the three-component model of commitment (Ko et al., 1997; Swailes, 2002; Solinger et al., 2008).

Participants' interpretations of commitment also stand in contrast to Awamleh (1996), the first study of commitment in the Middle East. Using traditional conceptualisations of commitment, he found that commitment is a one-dimension concept, "affective". This view is different from participants' perceptions of commitment as a two-dimensional concept; affective and normative. Although there is a great degree of similarity between participants' interpretations and O'Reilly & Chatman's (1986) conceptualisation of commitment, the latter's interpretation of commitment refers to the affective component through identification, compliance and value congruence, whereas it lacks the normative component of commitment.

8.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

8.3.1 *Characteristics of OCBs in the banking sector in Libya*

This section highlights the main characteristics of interpretations of participants of OCBs in the Libyan banking sector. Even though this research claims subjective views in relation to interpretations of concepts, this section highlights common components among participants and draw conclusions about how participants perceived OCBs.

8.3.1.1 *Interactional behaviours*

To begin with, let me shed some light on the main characteristics of interpretations of OCBs in the sector. OCBs were most commonly described by participants as social collaborative behaviours. OCBs are interpreted as social behaviours that represent positive interaction between employees. These behaviours refer to cooperation, harmony and understanding among employees, and maintaining good social relationships with employees, managers and customers. This component was perceived by the majority of participants, as they saw OCBs as a sort of interaction and exchange of favours among people who work at the same workplace. Furthermore, they saw such behaviours as normal spontaneous behaviours when a group of people work together to achieve similar goals. In this regard, OCBs are seen to be distinct from the actual job duties because they could be directed towards other parties in the organisation, whereas job duties are directed towards the organisation in order to gain rewards such as salary and promotions. Moreover, the emphasis on this component of OCBs could be explained through the collectivist culture of participants, as social interaction is seen as crucial for relationships at work. However, participants paid much attention to describing OCBs as helping behaviours on the one hand and describing them as risky behaviours on the other hand. This could also be related to their collectivist and uncertainty avoidance cultural characteristics, where helping behaviours are appreciated at work, yet, ambiguous, uncertain and unspecified behaviours are not preferred at work. Even though OCBs are directed towards individuals and organisations, they are seen as more related to individual perception, interaction among individuals and representing behaviours already existing in the society. The majority of participants described OCBs as being helpful and cooperative with others. Thus, most of them were talking about collaborative behaviours directed towards other individuals.

8.3.1.2 IRBs/ERBs

Another component is that OCBs could be seen as in-role/extra-role behaviours, as these behaviours are already perceived as job duties. Previous studies argued that IRBs are different from OCBs (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998; Organ et al., 2006; Stoner et al., 2011). However, some participants maintained that OCBs are IRBs and others perceived them as extra-role behaviours. One possible explanation is lack of job descriptions, as employees stated that they lacked specified roles. Therefore, when employees start jobs they already are ready to do what their managers ask. Lack of role clarity comes from lack of job descriptions, as employees do not know exactly what they are required to do. Instead, they estimated their jobs by comparing them with others, which could enhance or reduce their engagement in OCB.

There appeared to be a consensus that employees should perform what their managers ask them to do. This could come from the norms of reciprocity with managers, as employees should apply whatever their managers ask in order to get the highest benefits. Furthermore, managerial instructions and attitudes towards OCBs may force employees to think that they are in-role or extra-role behaviours. For example, when a manager has negative attitudes towards OCBs subordinates may perceive OCBs as out of the job scope and vice versa. In this sense, it is expected that organisational culture determines what is within one's duties and what is not. Furthermore, even though OCBs are not specifically stated in the job duties, some participants believed that they must engage with them at the workplace. This could be explained in terms of employees in the banking sector perceiving that being a banker should include various behaviours related to OCB. The idea of being a banker could also influence employees' perceptions of their jobs, as it could make them adopt broad expectations of what a banker should do at work, which would include OCBs as well as task performance. Another possible explanation is culture, as employees' interpretations of OCBs as IRBs could be explained by their collectivist culture, where people value and appreciate being cooperative and interacting with others. They believed that good employee or "soldier" is one who is more beneficial for the group (Wagner Iii, 1995; PoIiert, 2010).

On the other hand, other participants saw OCBs as extra-role behaviours, as they distinguished between job duties and OCBs. Participants added that IRBs have priority over OCBs, as ERBs are secondary and come after completing IRBs. Overall, such views

add to the multi-faceted interpretation of OCBs, as their interpretations depends on how individuals see them, either in-role or extra-role behaviours. Therefore, it is suggested that this component highlights the role of individual perception of the job scope; where some employees have broad perceptions of their duties that include OCBs, while others could have narrow perceptions of their job duties that do not include OCBs. This issue is important in OCBs research, as studies explored why and under what conditions employees consider OCBs as in-role or extra-role behaviours. For instance, individual perception was one of the main distinguishing factors used to explain why different employees have different views of OCBs (Morrison, 1994; Kamdar et al., 2006).

Even though the majority of participants viewed OCBs as extra-role behaviours, some argued that OCBs are IRBs. This illustration could be supported by describing OCBs as person-related behaviours. Those sub-categories support the argument of individual differences and the subjective view of such behaviours, where expectations, experiences and perceptions are the main determinants of how people see them. As employees learn from each other what is included and what is discretionary, it is difficult to distinguish between in-role and extra-role behaviours. Therefore, most participants had different views of whether OCBs are within the scope of the job or out of job scope. Participants also talked about different forms of OCBs, which could also affect their views of in-role or ERBs. For example, participants who see those behaviours as directed towards individuals could perceive them as ERBs. On the other hand, participants who see those behaviours as directed towards the organisation may perceive them as IRBs. This is to say that participants identified mixed views of OCBs because they mixed OCB-I with OCB-O. Mixing views of both individually/organisationally directed behaviour could be one possible reason of why research outcomes described OCBs as IRBs/ERBs (Marinova et al., 2010).

How these behaviours are viewed and interpreted in society is also important to understand this phenomenon from a group level. Therefore, if we return to look at socio-cultural antecedents of OCBs, we will find themes such as solidarity, ethics and loyalty. These themes reflect how such behaviours are seen from social views, as OCBs refers to positive desired behaviours. Even though participants had mixed views of OCBs, they, to certain degree, understood that OCBs are different and distinguished forms of behaviours. This comes from describing OCBs as different behaviours of jobs i.e. accountant, manager, or cashier. Therefore, from this understanding participants reaffirm

that OCBs are different from job duties. This argument is consistent with the academic literature and provides a more solid ground for such separation. However, participants could not accurately agree whether OCBs are IRBs or ERBs because of their individual perceptions. So participants could separate the two sorts of performance, but could not agree whether OCBs are within their job scopes or extra roles.

8.3.1.3 Intangibly rewarded behaviours

One of the characteristics of OCBs as interpreted by participants is that these behaviours are not explicitly rewarded behaviours. Participants reported that OCBs are not directly rewarded but they contribute in gaining positive benefits such as influencing managers' opinions when assessing employees, and influencing their decisions regarding promotions, training and remuneration. Although there are no stated rewards for practising OCBs, one characteristic of OCBs in the studied sector is the intangible rewards for OCBs. Participants believed that there is a positive reaction to such behaviours. Thus, this argument sheds light on two points; (1) OCBs are seen as positive behaviours, (2) employees expect to gain desired reactions from practising such behaviours. Accordingly, participants' interpretations of OCBs as intangibly rewarded behaviours could be explained through talking about different forms of OCBs. Those who mentioned individual-related behaviours usually did not see any reward of helping others, while those who mentioned organisation-related forms of OCBs usually expected to get some rewards. Moreover, this view of intangibly rewarding OCBs could be explained through the existence of certain organisational and contextual assumptions and norms among employees, that direct material rewards are given for job activities, while intangible rewards are usually given for OCBs.

8.3.1.4 Personal-related behaviours

Highlighting the individual role of OCBs, this component supports the role of individual needs, desires and attributes in interpreting OCBs. Participants believed that practising OCBs represents various characteristics and desires of employees. Therefore, this component highlights the role of subjectivity in OCBs, as they represent individual desires and attributes, not just managerial orders. This might explain the individual differences in interpreting OCBs among employees. According to this component OCBs refer to individual interests such as achievement, skills and personal attributes. They also refer to feelings of self-importance and self-development, as OCBs represent desires of

employees to develop their skills and capabilities. Thus, OCBs are interpreted as a variety of senses, desires and abilities in relation to self-importance and self-development. On the other hand, this element represents self-interest in OCBs, which might be used for the sake of very personal goals, and then a dark aspect of OCBs could emerge for the organisation.

Participants believed that practising OCBs is a matter of individual judgment and position; they reported more practice of OCBs from managers than employees. This leads to the suggestion that more responsibilities direct toward more engagement in OCBs. Moreover, participants' views suggest that engaging in OCBs depends on the rewards employees expect for them. Thus, if they expect more relationships with others or more benefits for them or for the organisation, they are most likely to get engaged in them; otherwise, they will refrain from engaging in such behaviours. This argument is consistent with describing OCBs as social collaboration and person-related behaviours. However, high use of laws and regulations, such as bureaucracy, in organisations do not support the practice of OCBs at work (Turnipseed and Murkison, 2000). Thus, this could explain the reluctance of some employees in the banking sector to practise OCBs and their viewing them as unwanted, negative behaviours.

8.3.1.5 Situational discretionary behaviours

Some participants believed that practising such behaviours is up to the individual, as it is optional choice for each employee. Others believed that practising OCBs is compulsory and they are unavoidable. These views give evidence that OCBs depend on the situation and engaging employees. Degree of choice depends also on whether individuals perceive them as in-role or extra-role behaviours, as considering them as IRBs would make employees see them as compulsory behaviours. Moreover, participants argued that such behaviours depend on relationships with others at the workplace. This argument could be strongly supported by the components of social and collaborative and person-related behaviours. Participants reported that in some cases of strong unity and integration among employees, practising OCBs becomes necessary. Thus, the choice to practise OCBs depends on favour exchange and individual perception of jobs. These views of OCBs confirm two points: (1) the voluntary choice to practise OCBs, (2) OCBs are unplanned and normal behaviours among people working and interacting in the same workplace.

Even though managerial participants described OCBs as optional and discretionary, non-managerial participants had mixed views, as they described them as both mandatory and optional behaviours. One possible explanation is that managerial employees usually know exactly what is included in their jobs, even though banks in Libya do not use job descriptions. On the other hand, views of non-managerial participants were mixed, as some described them as optional and others described them as mandatory. This also could be related to the lack of job descriptions, as they assumed that their jobs include such these behaviours. Overall, the majority of employees described OCBs as voluntary work. This reaffirms that such behaviours are seen as discretionary and optional behaviours.

8.3.1.6 Two-edged behaviours

This element concerns the expected outcomes of OCBs, as participants identified two different outcomes of OCBs. Some participants identified positive outcomes for the organisation such as better team work and better performance. Others highlighted possible negative outcomes such as loss of accountability and leaking of confidential information. Furthermore, because of the nature of the banking work in Libya, such behaviours could be considered as unwanted behaviours because of the expectations of losing accountability or uncovering secret details about customers and using them for personal goals. Such perceptions are supported by the absence of OCBs in the regulations and laws of the banking system in Libya. They are also supported by the managerial ambiguity of such behaviours, as some managers want employees to practise them, others not. However, because of the two-edged outcomes, participants saw that OCBs depend on the individual perceptions and judgment, which some could use for the sake of their own benefits, in which case they were most likely to be perceived as unwanted behaviours. Therefore, some banks adopted a policy of not encouraging OCBs at work, as managers insisted on the secret nature of banking jobs and kept emphasising the individual accountability for all actions at work. However, I propose that such management policies are likely to reduce trust among employees and then negatively restrict the practice of OCBs at the workplace. This argument is supported by the commonly told story of participants that when an employee faces a deficiency at work, s/he will be accountable for it, nobody else. This shows that OCBs are cautiously considered at work in the studied sector.

Why did participants perceive negative aspects of OCBs, even though they come from a collectivist culture? Different possible reasons are: (1) A culture in several banks that employees in this sector should not engage with behaviours beyond their jobs, in order to prevent negative outcomes such as loss of accountability; (2) a general perception among employees of their top managements as incompetent and mismanaging, which discouraged employees from engaging in exchange behaviours; (3) worry about losing responsibilities and causing problems due to the sensitivity and confidentiality of banking work; (4) ambiguity about whether such behaviours are preferred and desired by managers or not, as some managers might not want them. Furthermore, when participants could not distinguish individual-related OCBs from organisation-related OCBs it is expected that their views of outcomes of OCBs would be a mixture of positive and negative outcomes. Another possible explanation is that participants considered only those OCB behaviours directed towards others, not those directed towards organisations (Marinova et al., 2010). Moreover, this argument is supported by the Organisational Prosocial Behaviours, as OCBs could be used for the sake of individuals, not for organisations.

Furthermore, management attitudes also added to the view of OCBs as two-edged behaviours. Managers' attitudes towards OCBs were mixed, supporting the mercurial and subjective nature of OCBs. Four groups of attitudes were reported: (1) Supportive attitudes; according to this group, participants perceived positive attitudes of their managers towards OCBs. They thought that managers wanted and supported employees who practise OCBs because they are positive and desirable behaviours at work. Therefore, they reward such behaviours by training sessions, promotions, loans without interests and high scores in performance evaluation. This group gave evidence that participants linked between such behaviours and gaining more rewards. When employees practise OCBs in order to get positive outcomes for the organisation, managers form positive attitudes towards them. Thus, managers encourage practising OCBs when they perceive positive outcomes of them, which is a matter of individual difference among managers. (2) Unsupportive attitudes; this group of attitudes refers to perceiving OCBs as positive but unsupported by managers. Managers want to see such practices at work, and they believe at the same time that such behaviours should come from the individuals themselves. Managers also believe that OCBs are a sort of voluntary work, so they should not be supported. They support their views by the absence of regulations to direct

managers how to deal with them and the absence of such behaviours in the formal system.

(3) Uninterested attitudes; this group describes those managers who think that practising OCBs is up to individuals because of their feelings and relationships at the bank. Furthermore, these attitudes support the ambiguous nature of OCBs, as managers were confused between non-existence of OCBs in the formal system and the positive use of them. Thus, they relied on the choice of individuals to practise OCBs and believed that managers should not ask them to engage with OCBs because they are outside the formal reward system. It was also reported that managers who adopted such views were usually interested in in-role job duties. These attitudes add to the argument about whether OCBs are IRBs or ERBs, as well as whether engaging with OCBs is a positive or negative matter.

(4) Negative attitudes; this group was indicated by participating managers to represent narrow views of OCBs. They highlighted that some of their superiors had negative attitudes towards OCBs, as they believed that such behaviours lead to undesired outcomes such as overlapping and work mistakes. However, these attitudes could be traced in the Libyan banking sector to the prevailing culture across all banks highlighting the sensitivity and confidentiality of banking work. Thus, OCBs are unwanted because they affect such characteristics of the banking work. This argument supports the view of OCBs as ambiguous and two-edged behaviours.

Overall, why did participants identify reluctant attitudes of their managers towards OCBs? I think such a question could be answered and explained through two main conflicting points: (1) the absence of such behaviours in the formal rewarding system, i.e. regulations and laws, as managers are confused whether to encourage and support them or not; (2) Managers' desire to see more practices of OCBs at work, because of their expected positive outcomes. Thus, managers dealt with such overlapping by adopting one of the above attitudes. The attitude adopted depends on the individual perception and thoughts of each manager. Therefore, variety of attitudes is expected when interpreting OCBs. This argument is supported by the demographic data, as more experienced participants identified positive attitudes of their managers towards OCBs. For instance, more experienced participants did not describe negative attitudes of their managers. Some managers thought that OCBs have no application at their organisation, whether because of the nature of certain work, such as banking or because of ambiguity associated with such behaviours.

Based on describing OCBs as two-edged behaviours, participants had different views of the connections between OCBs and individual performance. Such connections indicated to what extent that they valued OCBs at the workplace. Thus, there were four groups of views in relation to the connections between OCBs and individual performance; (1) direct connections; this group reflected opinions that supported a direct connection between OCBs and individual performance. Participants argued that practising OCBs adds to their knowledge, develops their skills and helps them to get personal benefits and good relationships. Therefore, OCBs lead to higher individual performance, and are practised by employees who have high scores in performance evaluation. Such views reflect high appreciation of OCBs and support a perception of them as positive for organisations and individuals through higher performance and developed skills. (2) Combined connections; according to this group, participants attached less value to OCBs in relation to individual performance. They believed that such behaviours could be connected with individual performance through the existence of other factors such as finishing job duties, being satisfied and committed at work, desire to perform and aiming at the interest of the organisation. This view about the connection between OCBs and individual performance supports interpreting them as two-edged behaviours, as OCBs could be used to express unrealistic performance for the sake of individual interest. Thus, OCBs must be accompanied by other performance indicators to judge whether they are connected with individual performance or not. (3) No connections; this view refers to different opinions expressing the absence of connections between OCBs and individual performance. Participants who adopted such views argued that OCBs are not in the job duties of employees and they are practised out of the job scope and outside the organisation. They believed that OCBs and individual performance each represent a distinct aspect of the work, and connection between them is not possible. This view supports the extra-role component of participants' interpretations of OCBs, as it is clearly seen that participants interpreted such behaviours as extra-role behaviours. (4) Negative connection; this group of opinions reflects the dark interpretation of OCBs. It includes viewing OCBs as unwanted behaviours that negatively affect individual performance. Participants who adopted this view believed that practising OCBs leads to more pitfalls at work and they are used for the sake of very selfish interest of individuals. Because of the mercurial nature of OCBs and their openness to subjective interpretations, employees could interpret them differently in such a way that practising them will lead to negative impact on individual performance. This view supports the two-edged nature of participants'

interpretations of OCBs, as it confirms the dark side of practising OCBs. Linking OCBs with individual performance indicates that participants were aware of the importance of OCBs for their workplaces and for themselves. They were also aware of the possible negative aspects of OCBs, as they could be used to get personal advantages or they could lead to undesirable outcomes for the organisation. Other participants could not find associations between individual performance and OCBs. However, such views highlight two points: (1) full awareness that OCBs are different from task performance, as engaging in OCBs could lessen individual performance; (2) organisational culture discourages such practices and considers them as negative to performance.

8.3.1.7 Interactional and organisational dimensions

To capture a deep understanding of interpretations of OCBs in the Libyan banking sector, it is important to describe what participants believe are OCBs. Thus, two main groups of behaviours were highlighted. The first is an organisational dimension, which refers to groups of behaviours directed towards goals and interest of banks. This dimension includes behaviours such as doing extra work for the sake of the bank, staying for extra hours or coming early just to do something relevant to banks, as well as concern about the interest and goals of banks. This dimension has some connotations: (1) it reaffirms the positive side of OCBs for the organisation, i.e. concern about the interest of the bank; (2) it consolidates the extra-role description of OCBs, i.e. extra time and extra work. In general this dimension represents strong positive views of OCBs for the organisation. The second is an interactional dimension, which includes various behaviours directed towards other parties in banks. It includes helping, training, paying and reconciliation between colleagues. Thus, such behaviours are mainly directed towards colleagues, managers and customers for the sake of maintaining good relationships with them and serving the interest of their banks through them. This dimension supports the views of OCBs as social collaborative and person-related components. Subsequently, it adds another value of OCBs as they are not just practised for the sake of the banks; rather, they serve the interests of individuals as well.

Considering all of the above components and meanings attached to OCBs, did demographic data highlight any connotation? Regarding participating non-managerial employees, the only suggestion that I could report is that more experienced employees supported a view of OCBs as unrewarded and highly practised behaviours. On the other hand, more experienced managers did not support a social collaborative component.

Furthermore, they supported a view of OCBs as IRBs, which reflects their broad perceptions of their job scopes. However, less experienced managers supported the view of OCBs as social collaborative and mandatory behaviours. Their views were supported by their belief that they must get engaged with OCBs in order to improve their skills. Therefore, less experienced managers expressed broad views of their jobs to include OCBs as compulsory positive behaviours. These views confirm the role of OCBs in helping young employees to get more know-how and experience at the workplace as well as establishing good relationships with other at work. Thus, this argument supports the role of work experience in interpreting OCBs.

8.3.1.8 Multi-source antecedents

Giving credit to the multi-origins of OCBs, participants highlighted a mixture of antecedents of OCBs. (1) Personal antecedents; participants believed that OCBs stem from various personal feelings, perceptions, capabilities and desires. Such elements are thought to motivate individuals to engage in OCBs in order to satisfy personal goals such skill and knowledge gaining, feeling of growth and maintaining relationships with others. This group of antecedents supports the person-related, optional choice of practising OCBs, their positive side and social collaboration components of interpretations of OCBs. (2) Organisational antecedents; this group includes different elements from banks in relation to developing OCBs such as treatment, participation and justice. Such elements are thought to effect perceptions of individuals. So as long as they perceive that their banks value them and appreciate their roles, employees will, consciously or not, engage in any behaviour that they perceive as beneficial for their banks. This group of antecedents supports the highlighted positive side of OCBs and reaffirms that such behaviours are performed for the interest of banks. (3) Socio-cultural antecedents; this group of origins of OCBs includes various elements such as social ethics and interaction, cooperation, and national loyalty. This group reflects an interpretation of OCBs as equal to cooperation and social interaction, and that it is necessary for each employee to interact with others through OCBs. Working at the same place makes it necessary for employees to make relationships and exchange favours. This exchange usually is controlled by social norms and ethics, which participants saw as imposing engaging with OCBs. Furthermore, this group of antecedents supports the social collaboration component of OCBs and highlights that OCBs are directed towards other individuals at work. In general, this

spectrum of variety of antecedents of OCBs refers to multiple interpretations and perspectives of OCBs.

8.3.2 *Revisiting the Literature of OCBs*

8.3.2.1 *Similarities with mainstream conceptualisations of OCBs*

Research has highlighted that in some national cultural contexts the term OCBs does not exist. Rather, there will be alternative names that could illustrate and capture meanings of OCBs in different cultures (Paine and Organ, 2000). Hence, the first similarity is that participants could not explicitly recognise what OCBs mean because this term did not exist in their work culture, as illustrated in data analysis chapter.

In relation to describing OCBs as social and collaborative, participants' interpretations of OCBs were partly congruent with Smith and colleagues (1983), as they interpreted OCBs based on cooperation and exchanging favours between employees. Likewise, participants' interpretations are consistent with describing OCBs as social and cultural behaviours as well as interpersonal facilitations among employees (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996). Participants' view of OCBs as a sort of social interaction is supported by the anticipated role of social thoughts in effecting individual behaviours at work (Cem Ersoy et al., 2011). Furthermore, these insights are consistent with previous research which argued that people in collectivist cultures practise OCBs for the sake of interaction among their groups (Paine and Organ, 2000). On the other hand, participants' descriptions of OCBs as spontaneous and voluntary behaviours are similar to previous perspectives that described OCBs as spontaneous and voluntary works (Katz, 1964; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Moorman and Blakely, 1995),

Participants' interpretations of OCBs are consistent with the argument that extra-role behaviours are not permanent because of various factors such as job nature and individual perception. They indicated that jobs at the banking sector require employees to engage in OCBs, which is up to the perception of individuals. Furthermore, describing OCBs as mundane behaviours practised every day is congruent with participants' view of them, as they maintained that such behaviours are practised every day because of the social interaction at work (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998; Organ et al., 2006). Another point of similarity is in interpreting OCBs, to a considerable extent, as extra-role behaviours. This view is consistent with the majority of previous research about OCBs, as these behaviours

are identified as beyond formal job duties and out of managers' orders (Smith et al., 1983; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Koster and Sanders, 2006; Spector and Fox, 2010).

The mixed views of OCBs as IRBs/ERBs are consistent with previous research. For example, it is argued that employees have different views of whether these behaviours are in-role or extra-role behaviours. It is explained that employees' different expectations, perceptions and positions lead to such differences (Van Dyne et al., 1994; Morrison, 1994). Even though managerial and non-managerial participants had mixed views of whether these behaviours are in-role or extra-role behaviours, they clearly recognised and distinguished their main job activities from OCBs. This view is consistent with previous research (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998; Bergeron, 2007). Furthermore, it is argued that the nature of the job determines how employees interpret such behaviours as in-role or extra-role behaviours. For example, salesmen are more likely to consider OCBs as IRBs, while middle level managers are more likely to have mixed views of them (Bergeron, 2007). This argument is similar to participants' views of the practice of OCBs as crucial behaviour because of the banking work, in which requires them to engage in such behaviours. Moreover, OCBs are more important for managerial employees than non-managerial employees, as managerial jobs require more support for subordinates, good relationships with others and cooperation with other sections in the organisation (Podsakoff et al., 2011). This view is similar to the view of participants, who of considered OCBs to be related to managers than employees.

One of the main points of similarity is reward. Thus, participants' interpretation of OCBs as intangibly rewarded behaviours is similar to the argument that OCBs influence the opinion of evaluators, as OCBs usually are used in suggesting an increase in salaries, promotions, training and performance feedback (Moorman and Blakely, 1995; Shore et al., 1995). Participants highlighted that they get rewards for their engagement in OCBs, e.g. training, promotion, health services and soft loans. Similarly, previous research also explained that OCBs effect opinions of evaluators and hence, the possibility of more rewards (Organ et al., 2006; Bush and Jiao, 2011). In congruence with this argument, Borman and Motowidlo (1997) argued that contextual performance influences the opinion of managers, which in turn leads to more benefits and advantages. This argument pushes forward more agreement that OCBs are indirectly rewarded behaviours that yield positive outcomes for employees (Marinova et al., 2010). Accordingly, insights of participants indicated that OCBs usually come after finishing one's job duties. This means

that OCBs come second after task performance. This argument is similar to a discussion in recent research that there is a minimum level of task performance should be achieved in order for OCBs to be effective and rewarded by managers. Furthermore, it is highlighted that OCBs should not be considered before task duties, which would be seen as a constraint on performance (Podsakoff and Mackenzie, 1994; Organ et al., 2006; Bergeron, 2007). This argument could also explain why some participants identified OCBs as not appreciated at work, as if they are practised before job duties, employees and managers will see them as unwanted behaviours.

Turning now to the mainstream frameworks of OCBs, first, participants' interpretations of OCBs are congruent with the framework of Prosocial Organisational Behaviours in two aspects: (1) describing OCBs as directed towards organisations and individuals, which means that they could be positive or negative behaviours for the organisation. Participants' interpretations of OCBs also included several aspects related to individuals, such as helping/training colleagues and paying for a deficiency in the cash department for the sake of colleagues. (2) Partly viewing them as extra-role behaviours (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986).

Second, Participants' interpretations of OCBs are also congruent with the framework of contextual performance in that OCBs generally support organisations through the support of the social and psychological environment. Thus, some similarities with this framework are; (1) the distinction between task performance and contextual performance, (2) defining OCBs as voluntary ERBs at work, (3) intangible rewards (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997), (4) not including conscientiousness and job dedication as forms of OCBs, as these two forms are better related to task performance (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996; Organ et al., 2006).

Similarly, participants considered conscientiousness and job dedication as out of the scope of OCBs. Third, participants' interpretations of OCBs are partly consistent with OCB framework in three aspects: (1) individual discretion; (2) implicit rewards; (3) describing OCBs as non traditional activities promote functionality of the organisations. Participants highlighted that OCBs are not traditional activities as they are practised by distinguished employees; however, such behaviours are promotive for both organisation and its employees (Organ et al., 2006). Fourth, the highlighted insights of this study are also congruent with the framework of ERBs. There are two points of similarity; (1)

describing OCBs as ERBs/IRBs; (2) describing OCBs as positive behaviours (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998; Mackenzie et al., 2011).

Management attitudes toward OCBs have less researched than other OCBs- related dimensions. However, participants' views of supportive management attitudes are congruent with previous research which highlighted that managers see engagement in OCBs as beneficial for organisations; therefore, they usually adopt supportive attitudes towards this phenomenon (Organ et al., 2006). On the other hand, different managers could have different attitudes. They might be less interested in OCBs because they do not perceive them as ERBs, as perceiving OCBs as IRBs is highly expected from managers in situations where there is a lack of job description or if managers are collectivists. Nevertheless, managers could feel threatened by the practice of OCBs by subordinates; therefore, they might have negative attitudes towards OCBs at work (Mackenzie et al., 2011). Thus, individual perception and understanding of the value of such behaviours are important in determining attitudes towards them. Managers do not always like the practice of OCBs at their organisations because different forms of OCBs could mean inability, embarrassment, threat or inefficiency to them (Morrison and Milliken, 2000). This assumption is consistent with insights of some participants that their managers had unsupportive and negative attitudes towards practising OCBs.

Another point of similarity is connections with individual performance. For example, views of participants that OCBs are connected with individual performance directly or in combination with other factors are consistent with previous literature (Turnipseed and Murkison, 2000; Werner, 2000). Participants highlighted that employees usually engage in such behaviours at the end of the year, as they aim to influence their managers' views of their performance in order to get higher ratings. Such behaviour has been highlighted by researchers before (Bergeron, 2007). Another point of similarity is thinking of the dark side of OCBs. Some participants highlighted various possible unwanted outcomes of OCBs. Similarly, previous research identified possible negative results of OCBs such as giving wrong details, limiting self-development of skills or contradicting accountability (Podsakoff and Mackenzie, 1994; Hall and Ferris, 2011). Furthermore, interpretations of some participants of OCBs as having negative outcomes are consistent with recent research, which has pointed out the adverse anticipated outcomes of some forms OCBs (Bolino et al., 2004; Sevi, 2010; Mackenzie et al., 2011).

1) Similar forms of OCBs

Even though participants highlighted different practised forms of OCBs, these forms were grouped in two dimensions: (1) an interactional dimension, which includes different forms, directed towards other individuals at the bank. In general they represent helping behaviours. Therefore, they refer to helping others in their jobs and work problems, helping by paying to compensate deficiency, helping by training and educating other staff and reconciliation among others. This dimension is consistent with different described forms of OCBs in the literature, for instance, altruism and courtesy (Smith et al., 1983), helping and cooperating (Williams and Anderson, 1991; George and Brief, 1992; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Van Dyne and LePine, 1998), interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996), interpersonal harmony (Farh et al., 1997) and helping, training others and peacemaking (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ et al., 2006). These forms reflect different components of participants' interpretations such as social collaboration, spontaneous voluntary and positive behaviours.

(2) An organisational dimension, which refers to several behaviours directed towards the organisation. Participants believed that they practise such behaviours because of the interest in developing their banks. Thus, these forms could be presented in three groups: extra work, time and concern with all issues related to banks. Such views are congruent with previous research. For instance, putting forth extra efforts (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986), double efforts (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997), extra time, concern about the organisation and civic virtue (Organ et al., 2006), supporting organisational goals (Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Borman and Motowidlo, 1997), loyalty (Podsakoff et al., 2000), protecting company resources (Katz, 1964; George and Brief, 1992; Farh et al., 1997), stewardship and voice (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998), expression of constructive suggestions (Raub and Robert, 2010), spreading goodwill (George and Brief, 1992) and organisational participation and loyalty (Graham, 1991) are directed towards the organisation and represent the preferred aspect of OCBs.

On the other hand, views of participants are also consistent with previous research which claimed that people from collectivist cultures usually interpret conscientiousness and obedience as parts of their job duties. Therefore, their views of forms of OCBs did not include them (Farh et al., 1997). Overall, the categorisation of forms of OCBs as directed

towards individuals and the organisation was used in previous literature. For example, Williams and Anderson (1991) argued that OCBs are mixed behaviours and they are better viewed as those directed towards the organisation and those directed towards the individuals. Since then, forms of OCBs were classified as OCBI and OCBO. Furthermore, recent research also added to this argument and called for a distinction between individual-related OCBs and organisational-related OCBs (Marinova et al., 2010; Mayfield and Taber, 2010).

2) Similar antecedents of OCBs

Even though participants emphasised various personal, socio-cultural and organisational antecedents of OCB, some of these antecedents have been highlighted by previous research. Research, although scarce, has mainly stressed different attitudinal and dispositional antecedents of OCBs such as job satisfaction, commitment and several personality traits (Organ et al., 2006). Therefore, participants' perceptions of possible antecedents of OCBs coincided with previous research in certain points. First, attitudes and personal antecedents such as being satisfied with the job were highlighted by participants, as they considered job satisfaction as an antecedent of OCBs. This attitude was addressed by early and later research about OCBs (Williams and Anderson, 1991; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Paine and Organ, 2000; Organ et al., 2006). Furthermore, participants' perceptions of personal antecedents of OCBs are congruent with research expectations that personal traits are related to the engagement of OCBs. For example, need for achievement, need for affiliation, agreeableness, self-training and personality traits are personal antecedents mentioned in previous research (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Organ et al., 2006). Participants highlighted similar antecedents, such as feeling of belonging, self development, sense of growth and excellence and self-development.

Second, participants strongly emphasised the role of socio-cultural antecedents. Research on such antecedents is still scarce, but a few points coincided with participants' perceptions. One of the similarities is the linkage of OCBs with rural environments, as people who come from such environments are expected to engage more in OCBs, due to high trust and interaction among them (Smith et al., 1983). Furthermore, family upbringing has been identified as an antecedent of OCBs by participants. This social antecedent is highlighted also by previous research (Werner, 2000).

Third, organisational antecedents of OCBs were also a point of connection with previous literature. For example, participants' perceptions of their managers as being exemplars of practising OCBs is emphasised through observational learning and modelling (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986). Moreover, participants highlighted the role of providing all job requirements, as they believed that it could lead to more engagement in OCBs. This is congruent with research that argued lack of facilities and resources could reduce engagement in OCBs (Organ et al., 2006). Another point of similarity is stressing the role of leaders in encouraging or discouraging the practice of OCBs. Participants addressed management attitudes towards OCBs as antecedents. Furthermore, they argued that fair and supportive management lead to more trust and then more practice of OCBs. This argument is in line with the literature (Wright and Sablinski, 2008; Cho and Dansereau, 2010; Reychav and Sharkie, 2010; Wong et al., 2012). Consistent with roles of social interaction and collaboration, participants addressed that groups and group members at work are important antecedents of OCBs. They pointed out that group cohesiveness and interactions among group members are motivators for practising OCBs at work. Again, this argument is also consistent with previous and recent research (Kidwell et al., 1997; Banki, 2010; Chou and Garcia, 2011)

8.3.2.2 Differences between research findings and previous research

Even though not many, this study highlights some points of difference from the literature of OCBs. OCBs in the Libyan banking sector are seen as daily spontaneous and voluntary behaviours. However, this is contrary to what some previous research has suggested about widening the concept of OCB to include changing work policies and procedures (Morrison and Phelps, 1999). This is to say that OCBs are seen as daily individual mundane behaviours, related to everyday activities at work. Furthermore, participants' interpretations of OCBs contradict some aspects of Organ et al.'s (2006) definition of OCBs, as they thought that the abilities of the individual are not related to the practice of OCBs, while participants believed that those who have good abilities could engage more in such behaviours. Moreover, participants' view of OCBs reaffirm that OCBs could be seen as positive for both organisations and individuals. Such insights contradict a variety of frameworks and research that claimed that OCBs are more desired by organisations because they help managers to exploit their staff (Bergeron, 2007; Raub and Robert, 2010). Participants highlighted that the subjective nature of this concept

allows individuals to have different interpretations of OCBs, which could lead to some expected negative outcomes of them.

Even though the majority of previous research affirmed that OCBs are ERBs, some participants identified such behaviours as crucial for being a banker. They believed that being a good banker required them to consider behaviours beyond job activities. Participants' interpretations of these behaviours are different from previous research in seeing OCBs as IRBs. For example, even though OCBs were mostly identified as extra-role unrewarded behaviours (Organ et al., 2006; Mackenzie et al., 2011), some participants described them as IRBs.

In relation to the theoretical frameworks, firstly, participants' insights of OCBs are different from the extra-role framework of OCBs. There are two main points; (1) while some participants highlighted positive aspects of engaging in OCBs, others reported misuse of them and interpreted them as negative behaviours. These views are different from the extra-role framework, in which OCBs are considered as solely positive for the organisation. (2) Another aspect of difference is that participants believed that not practising OCBs at work will lead to a sort of intangible punishment. Participants thought that refraining from practising OCBs would negatively affect their reputation at work and in the society, which could restrict them from getting certain opportunities or exchanging certain benefits with others in different institutions. Therefore, those who do not engage in OCBs may get punished indirectly by limiting their social exchange scope (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998).

Secondly, some aspects of participants' interpretations of OCBs are different from the framework of OCB (Smith et al., 1983; Organ, 1988; Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ et al., 2006). Even though this framework argues for complete positive outcomes of such behaviours, participants highlighted the possibility of negative outcomes of OCBs for the organisation. Participants' interpretations contradict the prior conceptualisation in two points; one is rewards, as participants described intangible rewards for practising OCBs, and the second is ERBs, as some participants highlighted them as IRBs. Thirdly, participants ranked OCBs as secondary activities that they practise after they finish their task performance. However, such views are not consistent with the framework of CPBs, as Borman and Motowidlo (1997) saw CPBs as to have the same power and value as task performance. Furthermore, the view of participants is different

from the CPBs framework in the goal of engaging in such behaviours. While this framework refers to serving the organisational goals, participants believed that it could be used for the sake of individuals (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). Another view of contradiction with CPBs framework concerns rewarding OCBs, as participants described OCBs as intangibly rewarded behaviours. Furthermore, this framework describes CPBs as required by job description (Organ et al., 2006), whereas some participants described OCBs as ERBs.

Even though recent research about OCBs highlighted the situational antecedents of practising OCBs (Spector and Fox, 2010), participants tended more to support the stable antecedents of practising OCBs, such as socio-cultural and personal antecedents. Moreover, while self-development was seen as a form of OCBs by previous research (Katz, 1964; George and Brief, 1992; Podsakoff et al., 2000), participants' views indicated self-development as an antecedent of OCBs, not as a form of them. However, some forms of OCBs were also a point of contradiction between insights of participants and research. For instance, whereas conscientiousness and compliance were supported by many previous researches as forms of OCBs (Smith et al., 1983; Williams and Anderson, 1991; Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000), participants did not recognise them as such. It is assumed that participants may have considered them as IRBs, as it is argued that both forms of OCBs are likely to be seen as aspects of task performance duties (Organ et al., 2006).

8.4 Commitment and OCBs; Are they different Concepts?

Despite the clear view in the academic organisational research that commitment and OCBs are completely different concepts (Allen et al., 2011; Cohen and Liu, 2011), do practitioners in reality perceive them as different concepts and how do interpretations of managerial participants differ from non-managerial? This section explores whether participants interpreted commitment and OCBs differently and whether managerial and non-managerial participants had different insights from each other.

Let us first reflect on the components of both concepts as seen by non-managerial participants. Regarding components of commitment, non-managerial participants described them to include: (1) Individual sentiments, i.e. having positive feelings about work such as being satisfied at work, ease and feeling loyal to the organisation; (2) personal

attributes such as being cooperative, civilized and ambitious; (3) positive behaviours, such as punctuality, good appearance and treatment and performing duties; (4) positive values, such as honesty, trust and perfection.

On the other hand, non-managerial participants described different components of OCBs including: (1) person-related characteristics such as desire for development, personality and self-motivation; (2) social and collaborative behaviours such as harmony, cooperation, solidarity and favour exchange; (3) IRBs/ERBs, referring to whether OCBs are seen as in-role or other ERBs; (4) Intangibly rewarded behaviours, referring to receipt of indirect rewards such as training and high performance ratings when engaging in OCBs; (5) mutable behaviours, as they are described as optional/compulsory behaviours, two-edged behaviours and different levels of engagement.

According to the illustration above, commitment and OCBs are not interpreted as one concept. It is clearly seen that commitment represents a very different concept from OCBs in the minds of non-managerial participants. For example, participants saw commitment as consistent individual feelings and characteristics regarding performing jobs at work. These feelings and individual characteristics are shown through positive behaviours related to tasks, thus, commitment leads to rewarded behaviours as such behaviours are described in job descriptions prior to starting work. For example, it is required to be punctual, to perform job duties and to comply with regulations and work rules. By contrast, OCBs are mainly described as individual behaviours not directly related to one's job. These behaviours represent more a sort of social interaction than real work behaviours, as different employees engage differently with such behaviours. However, these behaviours could be unwanted at work. Therefore, they cannot be described in job descriptions or expectations and then cannot be directly rewarded. On the other hand, the only similar characteristic is that both concepts are believed to come from the individuals and both are associated with individual desires, abilities and attributes.

Secondly, managerial participants highlighted similar components of both concepts. Regarding commitment they reported that commitment is; (1) positive values, as commitment is seen as equal to various desired values at work such as reliability, loyalty and sense of importance; (2) personal attributes such as tolerance, productivity, good treatment and understanding job duties; (3) ethical considerations, i.e. social ethics, moral

and ethical behaviours at work; (4) positive behaviours, i.e. desired individual behaviours at work, such as customer treatment, obedience, and compliance with regulations. On the other hand, managerial participants described different components of OCBs including: (1) person-related characteristics, referring to a combination of personal abilities, desires and senses such as individual experience, perception, self-value and sense of development; (2) social and collaborative behaviours, such as favour exchange, social interaction, solidarity and integration; (3) unrewarded behaviours, since managerial participants identified no rewards for engaging in OCBs; (4) IRBs/ERBs, i.e. different views of whether OCBs are within job scope or not; mixed views were reported; (5) spontaneous voluntary behaviours, whereby OCBs were seen as optional, discretionary and volunteering activities; (6) mutable behaviours, referring to the changeable nature of OCBs, as engagement depends on individual perceptions and their outcomes could be seen as positive by some employees, while others could see them as negative for organisations.

Like those of non-managerial participants, managerial participants' views of commitment and OCBs refer to dissimilar concepts. For instance, while commitment is seen as a positive and desired concept at work, OCBs are seen as a two-edged concept, which could lead to undesired outcomes. Furthermore, commitment is clearly seen as an aspect of task performance, which exists in job descriptions or expectations and is rewarded. However, OCBs are most likely to be seen as extra-role behaviours because they do not explicitly exist in job descriptions, expectations or the reward system. Moreover, individuals decide voluntarily whether to engage in them or not.

In brief, the insights of both non-managerial and managerial participants into commitment and OCBs are different from each other. This argument is consistent with previous academic argument that claimed that commitment is different from OCBs (Becker and Kernan, 2003; Tremblay et al., 2010; Gibson, 2011; Ng and Feldman, 2011). This discussion gives a clear understanding that commitment is seen as part of task-related activities, whilst OCBs are seen as in some way contributing to the broader performance of the organisation. This argument supports the recent call for classifying performance into two aspects, task performance and contextual performance (Van Scotter, 2000; Jawahar et al., 2008) . It is also noted that, according to the insights of participants, commitment is more seen as an attitude, as highlighting values, sentiments, attributes and ethical considerations all represent that commitment is seen as an attitude

towards performance. Furthermore, this attitude is seen through showing positive desired behaviours at work. However, OCBs are just described as behaviours aimed at individuals or organisations based on the intent of the person who practise them. Table 66 represents this argument and summarises the main differences between participants' interpretations of commitment and OCBs.

Table 66: Points of Differences between Commitment and OCBs as seen by Participants

<i>Points of difference</i>	<i>Commitment</i>	<i>OCBs</i>
<i>Outcomes</i>	Positive for organisations	Negative/Positive for organisations
<i>In-role, extra-role</i>	In-role	In-role/Extra-role
<i>Rewards</i>	Tangible rewards	Intangible rewards
<i>Nature</i>	attitude	behaviour

8.5 Conclusion

Responding to highlighting the contribution of this study, in this chapter I highlighted the explored characteristics of commitment and OCBs as seen by participants in the Libyan banking sector. I also compared and contrasted them with mainstream research, identifying how participants' interpretations of commitment and OCBs differ from the traditional insights. I can now complete the story of exploring insights of participants with more understanding of what is different and what is similar to previous research in relation to both concepts. Therefore, this section summarises the main characteristics of each concept and key points of difference with previous research. First, the view of commitment in the banking sector in Libya can be summarised as follows: (1) Commitment consists of attitudinal and behavioural interpretations; thus, it refers to an attitude towards performing task and extra-role behaviours. By contrast, even though the majority of literature interpreted commitment mainly as an attitude, a few studies interpreted it as behaviour. (2) Commitment is composed of two dimensions, affective and normative. Whereas the literature divides commitment into three dimensions, participants in this study did not consider CC. (3) Commitment is seen as an attitude towards performance at work, whilst literature mainly described commitment as an attitude towards staying at work. (4) Commitment is seen to develop out of various personal socio-cultural and organisational sources. Such sources broad and confirmed

those were expected by literature. (5) Interpretations of commitment confirm the role of collectivism, power distance and religion in shaping meanings such interpretations. (6) Commitment is mainly intended to serve different foci with the aim of achieving work goals.

OCBs, on the other hand, in the Libyan banking sector are characterised by; (1) interactional spontaneous behaviours, which reflect collaboration and social interaction and are practised daily among employees. (2) individuals-related behaviours; thus, employees exhibit different engagement of them and they see them differently as in-role or extra-role behaviours. These behaviours depend on the discretion of individuals because they are considered as voluntary behaviours. (3) OCBs are intangibly rewarded behaviours, as engaging with them leads to desired individual outcomes. Therefore, these behaviours are described as secondary and come after completing job duties. However, on a managerial level such behaviours could be seen as unwanted because of their highly expected negative outcomes for organisations. Therefore, the dominant culture at the banking sector restricts employees and managers from practising such behaviours. This culture stresses the confidentiality, responsibility and sensitivity of banking work and then bans the practice of OCBs. (4) OCBs are seen as two-edged behaviours, as misuse of them and reasons behind them could lead to negative outcomes. (5) OCBs those directed towards individuals are different from those directed towards organisations. (6) Even though employees could get engaged with OCBs out of their socio-cultural and personal desires, organisations could provide appropriate support to increase engagement with them.

Overall, even though participants' insights into commitment and OCBs are mostly similar to those previously reported, they highlight important aspects of both concepts. Therefore, these insights support certain theoretical and practical implications of them. I will highlight how these insights in the banking sector in Libya could be used to better our knowledge, understanding and practice in the upcoming concluding chapter.

CHAPTER 9: RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses possible implications of participants' views of commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector. Therefore, it illustrates theoretical and empirical consequences by highlighting several contributions to the stock of knowledge and practice. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, this research adopts an inductive, subjectivist approach to generate knowledge, where internal reality is dominant in the research process. However, even though there is always space for each participant to express and maintain their subjective view, general conclusions that can be drawn and common ground found among participants, as they share different characteristics of the context, are considered in order to make explicit the research contributions.

9.2 Implications for Theories of Commitment and OCBs

Under this title, several theoretical contributions are highlighted for the advancement of theory and conceptualisation of commitment and OCBs. Even though this study gives support to some theoretical thoughts and arguments in the literature, it challenges others. The following discussion emphasizes such issues.

9.2.1 Implications for theory of commitment

9.2.1.1 Attitudinal- behavioural interpretations

This study has demonstrated that commitment is an attitude-behaviour concept, and is not just an attitude, as some scholars claimed. Participants did not interpret commitment as maintained intrinsically, without practising certain behaviours. These views of commitment, as an attitude towards in-role and extra-role behaviours, respond to previous researches, which called for more research on the commitment-performance linkage (Brown, 1996; Swailes, 2002). Furthermore, this study provides new insights in relation to the behavioural interpretation of commitment. This interpretation was ignored in previous research on commitment, as most attention was on the attitudinal interpretation (Solinger et al., 2008). However, exploring this interpretation contributes to advancement of commitment theory, as it provides deep insights into the behavioural aspect of commitment as described by participants. Furthermore, this study contributes to

commitment theory by introducing a different way of interpreting commitment, which links between the attitudinal and behavioural interpretations of commitment. This might add to our knowledge that commitment is a mixture of positive attitudinal elements such as sentiments, senses and perceptions (internal) and desired behaviours such as cooperation, treatment and performance (external); thus, the insights of participants support the approach that commitment is an attitude that leads to behaviour.

9.2.1.2 Two-dimensional concept

This study supports the argument that commitment is not a three-dimensional concept, as two dimensions were confirmed. Subsequently, this supports the notion that affective and normative commitments are the two actual dimensions of commitment, according to the insights of the participants. In this regard, the research gives theoretical and empirical evidence to support the call for redefining and retesting continuance commitment as one of the components of commitment. Theoretically this supports researchers who claim that continuance commitment should be excluded as a dimension of commitment (Solinger et al., 2008; Al-Esmeal, 2007).

This study supports the contention that affective and normative commitments are different and important dimensions of commitment, despite of the strong association between them. Even though participants did not distinguish between the two components of commitment, this study confirms previous research about the ambiguous relationship between them, which could be explained by the fact that commitment is created and developed, to a great extent, outside the organisation and is influenced by many different factors, for a long period of time. In view of the problems associated with time when conceptualizing commitment (Cohen, 2007), treating the normative dimension as a social value towards performance, not towards staying in organisations, would clarify the ambiguity associated with it and so help in overcoming one of the weaknesses of the three-component model of commitment.

9.2.1.3 Commitment-performance theory

This study provides empirical support for the idea of commitment towards performance. It is consistent with those studies that claimed that commitment is more important than being an attitude towards maintaining membership of a certain organisation. Furthermore, interpretations of commitment in this way could lead to an important change in the meaning of the concept, by altering it from focus on staying to focus on performance.

This would help in clarifying some conceptual issues related to measurement and definition of commitment, and opens the door for more explorations about the value of the idea of being committed to perform, rather than merely committed to stay.

9.2.1.4 Commitment foci

This study argues that employees' perceived commitment as directed towards the organisation is one entity, and that commitment to regulations, managers and customers are facets of commitment toward the organisation. Although this view is debatable, but participants interpreted commitment as mainly directed to the organisation, not to one of its components. This argument is supported by the cause-effect notion, as employees believe that being committed to the organisation's regulations, rules and members leads to desired organisational and individual outcomes. Behaviours directed towards jobs, colleagues, managers and customers, ultimately serve the interest of the organisation. This logic might lead to theoretical advancement when considering commitment as one positive concept toward the organisation. Also it could challenge the argument that people from collectivist cultural contexts are more inclined to consider their relationships with others such managers, colleagues and customers, at the expense of the organisation.

9.2.1.5 Antecedents of commitment

This study contributes to the theory of commitment by highlighting different antecedents of commitment in different contexts. These antecedents are empirically demonstrated by people in the workplace, not speculated ones. Exploring such antecedents contributes by responding to calls in previous research to test antecedents of commitment, particularly in the cross-culture management field (Meyer et al., 2007). Interpretations of participants provide holistic insights of antecedents into commitment, as they highlight different sets of personal, socio-cultural and organisation antecedents of commitment. Such views indicate a wider range of factors affecting this phenomenon and will guide further investigations of how to control it in the workplace.

9.2.2 *Implications for theory of OCBs*

Even though participants' insights on OCBs were not very different from those in the previous literature, there were some different key points to highlight. However, what is encouraging about these insights is that I have found evidence supporting IRBs/ERBs, rewarded behaviours, two-edged behaviours and individual related behaviours.

9.2.2.1 In-role extra-role performance

Even though OCBs and related concepts, i.e. extra-role behaviours, contextual performance and prosocial behaviours, were described as behaviours that go beyond the requirements of job duties, this study gives empirical evidence that some employees in the Libyan banking sector consider OCBs as in-role behaviours. This argument supports some previous research that called for reconceptualising OCBs by considering that some people could see them as in-role behaviours. Thus, this study provides clear views that some employees could interpret them as IRBs, for example intrinsic to being a banker. Similarly, this study gives more empirical support for the view that performance is two-folded concept, as participants distinguished between their main job duties and OCBs. This argument consolidates theory of task performance and contextual performance.

9.2.2.2 Intangible rewarded behaviours

It has been argued by many researchers that OCBs are not rewarded behaviours. However, this study gives empirical evidence that OCBs are intangibly rewarded behaviours. Participants reported that they usually receive indirect rewards for practising OCBs such as training, allowances and influencing assessors' opinions when appraising performance. Thus, this study contributes to the stock of knowledge by showing that employees in the Libyan banking sector perceive such behaviours as rewarded.

9.2.2.3 Two-edged behaviours

Even though some frameworks have highlighted the misuse of OCBs at the workplace, this study contribute to the knowledge by providing explicit evidence that OCBs could be interpreted as negative behaviours for organisations. This argument supports claims of the prosocial organisational behaviours framework that reported that such behaviours are used for the sake of individuals, which could harm the interest of the organisation. Accordingly, this study reaffirms the theory that OCBs could lead to undesired outcomes such as loss of accountability, work mistakes and leaking of confidential information. Thus, describing OCBs as always positive for organisations is challenged by participants in the Libyan banking sector.

9.2.2.4 Individual and organisational forms of OCBs

A key contribution of this study is adding to the literature by supporting two forms of OCBs, those directed towards individuals and those directed towards organisations.

However, this argument supports the recent claims that research should separate between those related to organisations and those related to individuals. Even though this argument is not new in the literature, these explorations of participants' insights give support to such claims and call for distinguishing OCBs into two groups of behaviours.

9.2.3 Implications for cross-culture and contextual theory

To begin with, this study contributes to cross-culture research by reaffirming the argument in favour of developing different insights (Al-Esmeal, 2007) into commitment and OCBs based on cultural contexts. It assists in reaching broader and stronger conceptualisations of commitment and OCBs across nations. Furthermore, it contributes to the discussion about the role of context in determining the interpretations of concepts through its values and socio-cultural influence. Therefore, this argument supports the theory of "power of the context" (Ferris et al., 1998; Brookes et al., 2011), where attention is paid to the role of several elements of the context in affecting perceptions and meanings given to commitment and OCBs. This study gives evidence that assumptions of organisational culture could influence how employees may interpret and engage in OCBs. For example, the assumption that engaging in OCBs could lead to loss of accountability or uncovering confidential secrets of customers are obvious elements that already existed in the banking culture in Libya.

This study strengthens the argument that cultural values influence individuals' perceptions of concepts, leading to various positive/negative attitudes towards work. Understanding these values and how they influence the attitudes of individuals is of great importance in order to predict and monitor such behaviours, and thereby achieve efficiency and effectiveness. Moreover, this study establishes evidence to suggest that context, culture and values, perceptions and societies lead to different understandings, interpretations and conceptualisations of commitment, so different measurements and implications could be developed (Foley et al., 2006).

This study provides empirical evidence that individuals from collectivist contexts tend to perceive a strong role of social actors in determining the meanings and definitions of organisational concepts. This was seen in participants' interpretations of NC, as they acknowledged considerable influence of normative pressure. This study provides supporting evidence for the view that NC is associated with collectivist cultures, because NC usually comes from socializing and family influence in traditional societies. This

could explain why studies in Western contexts did not show high concern with NC. In addition, this research confirms the previous research proposition that people in collectivist contexts have the ability to experience a sense of desire and sense of obligation when talking about performing social obligation (Meyer et al., 2007). Therefore, it advances the view that there is a strong linkage between affective and NC in such contexts.

Another theoretical contribution is filling the gap in organisational literature regarding management in the Middle East context (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006; Al-Esmeal, 2007; Wasti, 2008), particularly the HRM literature, as it provides, for the first time, insights of employees from that context in relation to commitment and OCBs. Specifically, this research provides a primary basis for commitment and OCBs in the Libyan context. Participants' views on both concepts provide researchers with different features of commitment and OCBs in the context which could be used as a starting point for further research about them in Libya. Moreover, this study is the first study to introduce such insights in the Libyan banking sector. It offers new and distinctive insights into commitment and OCBs rooted in its cultural context, which is characterised by high demand by foreign investors and lack of knowledge that links between practices and theory of commitment and OCBs. Thus, such insights help in advancing theoretical conceptualisations of commitment and OCBs in cross-culture management research (Wasti, 2008). Therefore, this study contributes in formulating a local perspective of commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector. Subsequently, it helps with reaching valid measurements of both concepts in the sector that reflect the actual values, thoughts and opinions of employees in the Libyan banking sector. Therefore, a key contribution of this study is encouraging interested researchers in studying commitment or OCBs, in the Middle East in general or Libyan in particular, to conduct more related studies such as more understanding of relationships between antecedents and outcomes and the implications of such insights of commitment and OCBs. Generally, even though the study's findings make sense of interpretations of commitment and OCBs in the light of some Libyan institutional and cultural features, this study has wider importance because many organisations work in cross-culture contexts. Therefore, understanding the impact of the contextual dimensions helps with implementing specific context-appropriate regulations and policies. This is expected to facilitate the managers' job in dealing with challenges facing organisations that work in cross-cultural contexts, such as contradiction

between local interpretations of certain concepts and global and academic interpretations of them.

9.3 Implications for Practice in the Libyan Banking Sector

Considering that the best research is that which bridges the gap between theory and practice, this section holds important implications for decision and policy makers. It is directed to policy and decision makers in the Libyan banking sector, managements of local and foreign banks in Libya, particularly senior managers and HR managers, and companies aiming to enter Libya in the future. Further, based on the plan of the Libyan government to have all jobs held by Libyans instead of foreign employees, this study provides local banks and foreign investors with several empirical implications for how commitment and OCBs could be managed in order to achieve higher organisational performance.

9.3.1 Individual-related and valued concepts

This study highlights that being committed is beneficial for non-managerial employees, as a means of getting more rewards through performance appraisal. Furthermore, being committed also helped them to build a good individual reputation among colleagues and costumers, which means more and better relationships with social actors and more favourable exchange outside the banks. Some participants perceived that their managements, which had positive supportive attitudes towards commitment, rewarded them for being committed, by training sessions, allowances and incentives, increasing salaries, giving them gifts, and supporting them materially and morally. Participants added that being committed led to few job mistakes, fulfilling job duties, exhibiting OCBs and good treatment of customers, colleagues and managers. Therefore, this study gives evidence to support the positive aspect of commitment, not only for managers but for employees in the banking sector in Libya. However, when managers' attitudes and employees' attitudes towards commitment are different, this could lead to conflict between their values. This could also arise from negative managerial attitudes towards commitment. To avoid the political dimension of power in the organisation, which gives managers more advanced tools to exploit employees, managers should be educated on and convinced of the significance of commitment for both the organisation i.e. achieving goals, and employees i.e. gaining more personal development, rewards and better personal reputation.

Similarly, in relation to OCBs, this study provides support for seeing OCBs as beneficial for non-managerial employees. For example, participants have highlighted that exhibiting OCBs influences opinions of evaluators and managerial decisions such as promotions, rewards and training. Participants believed also that OCBs lead to more social interaction among employees, which they thought to be helpful for the group outcomes and relationships. Moreover, building on participants' insights of OCBs, practising such behaviours makes employees gain more skills to do other jobs at the bank. Therefore, banks could support this concept in order to build a multi-skilled workforce, which would help banks with downsizing, and with reducing training, less selection and delay costs. Furthermore, this study indicates that OCBs depend on individuals and their perceptions of them. Therefore, some employees could consider them as in-role behaviours, and exhibit them believing that they are positive for banks and for their jobs. However, others could consider them as extra-role behaviours. Therefore, they are less inclined to exhibit them, as they believe that they are not related to their jobs e.g. being a cashier or an accountant at the bank. In sum, this study adds to the recent research about commitment and OCBs by showing that managerial and non-managerial employees in the banking sector in Libya believed that both concepts are beneficial to them as well as their banks. This argument adds to the value of both commitment and OCBs through highlighting their relevance to employees.

9.3.2 Attitudinal-behavioural concepts

This study provides managers in the banking sector with an explicit view that commitment is an attitude towards behaving. It is generated through sentiments, beliefs and senses inside individuals. However, this attitude must be shown through exhibiting a variety of behaviours such as attendance, appearance, obedience and good treatment of others. On the other hand, OCBs are interpreted as purely behaviours, which come from feeling satisfied, fair, achieving and socially interacting with others. Therefore, this study helps in understanding the attitudes and behaviours of employees in the banking sector in Libya.

9.3.3 Social interaction and cultural influence

Surrounding social actors have roles in generating commitment and OCBs in individuals through ethically considering them as values at the society. This comes from family, friends and society. Thus, commitment and OCBs are seen as equal to desired values and behaviours at work because they represent what is socially seen as right to do and engage

with at work. However, OCBs are considered as forms of unavoidable social interaction among people at the same workplace. Thus, even if they are told not to engage with OCBs, employees will exhibit them to a certain extent. Furthermore, highlighting social and Islamic values such as trust, honesty and perfection when designing HR strategies is influential for enhancing commitment and OCBs at workplaces. Employees will not find such values alien to them, because they stem from their social, religious and cultural values. Managers could build a transparent and fair system for performance evaluation including different socio-cultural characteristics such as considering the collectivist and Islamic culture of Libyan employees in the sector. For instance, banks could reward all efforts, no matter how small they are. Building such practice based on the culture and values of employees would increase their trust in the organisation and their potential high commitment and engagement with OCBs.

9.3.4 Organisations performance-related concepts

One important implication of this study is that both commitment and OCBs are performance-related concepts. The explored insights of commitment and OCBs support the argument that organisational performance is a two-faceted concept. Accordingly, whilst commitment represents task performance, OCBs represents contextual performance, of which both are important aspects of organisational performance. This argument, thus, indicates that OCBs are distinctive form from task performance.

This study shows that banks in the Libyan banking sector are not managing OCBs as an important form of organisational performance. Rather, OCBs are mostly considered as individual-related behaviours. Therefore, banks do not utilise such behaviours for their interest or that of their employees. Whilst more attention is paid to task-related behaviours such as being committed at work, less consideration to managing OCBs is highlighted.

9.3.5 Individually-directed and organisationally-controllable concepts

Commitment may be directed towards different entities at work, but ultimately it refers to serving goals of banks and their members. Thus, it could be directed towards others at work without negatively affecting the bank's interest. On the other hand, OCBs could be directed towards others as well as banks. Therefore, there is a possibility that OCBs are practised in order to serve other entities than the interest of the bank itself. This study gives evidence that both OCBs those directed towards organisations and those directed

towards individuals are mixed and they are not easy to separate. This argument supports seeing two dimensions of practising OCBs at the banking sector in Libya.

This study supports the evidence that commitment and OCBs are controllable phenomena, as management could affect levels of practice of them. Therefore, managements can increase the number of committed employees and their level of engagement in OCBs. Basically, managers could focus on providing better levels of justice, support and rewards in order to enhance both concepts among Libyan employees through formulating HR strategies according to their interpretations. Thus, this research indicates that managers could use trends towards commitment and OCBs to design certain HR policies such as recruitment, selection and training, as the higher dispositions of commitment and OCBs, the higher efficiency of those HR functions. In this regard, one implication of this study is that banks could use both concepts as indicators of intrinsic motivation and propensity for being good employee when selecting candidates. However, another implication of this study is that commitment and OCBs can be controlled through aiming for higher value congruence between employees and banks, as providing employees with positive work experience helps with more compatibility between employees and banks. This study also gives support to the importance of positive relationships among employees and between them and their banks, as encouraging intimate and strong relationships with supervisors and managers will help with controlling levels of commitment and OCBs. Moreover, this study provides empirical evidence that commitment and OCBs are organisationally-affected concepts, as banks in the Libyan banking sector could control them by minimizing levels of uncertainty, information sharing, open communications and effective leadership styles that increase self-worth in employees. In general, this study provides clear evidence that banks in the Libyan banking context could influence levels of commitment and OCBs to the benefit both of employees and of the banks.

9.3.6 Possibility of misuse of both concepts

This study suggests that both commitment and OCBs could be misused, and so not yield what is expected at the workplace. First, OCBs could be used in order to serve individual interests and could lead to practising behaviours contrary to the organisational interest. Therefore, some managers could express unsupportive attitudes towards them. In this sense, this study shows that managers in the Libyan banking sector have reluctant attitudes

towards OCBs. Subsequently, less support is expected towards OCBs, and failure to exploit OCBs to enhance organisational performance. This implies that banks in Libya need to develop their managers' and employees' awareness of the importance of such behaviours. Second, commitment also could be used in order to give unrealistic assumptions about individuals. For example, showing behaviours of commitment such as attending, appearance and treatment, might not reflect higher performance. Rather, employees could use such behaviours in order to comply with job requirements while not completing job duties, or spending the whole day at work without contributing to performance.

9.3.7 Organisationsal culture and job descriptions

This study supports the role of organisational culture in determining engagement in OCBs, as focus on confidentiality and the principle of accountability require less engagement with OCBs. This is to say that such organisational cultural assumptions contradict willingness to exhibit OCBs. Managers should be aware that localised subculture plays a role in influencing attitudes of employees, particularly commitment. Developing a subculture via direct managers and engendering a feeling of identification with the organisation through this subculture would improve commitment. Furthermore, this research stresses the role of trust between organisations and their employees, as the organisational culture of accountability and confidentiality in the sector hugely reduced desire to engage in OCBs. Finally, this study highlights the role of job descriptions in relation to role clarity. It is shown that ambiguity and uncertainty of OCBs partly comes from the absence of such behaviours in job descriptions and work regulations.

9.3.8 Recent situation in Libya

A key contribution of this study is to help Libyan and foreign banks in Libya to recover from the recent situation in Libya by providing them with a better way of managing their human resources. The current revolution in Libya has inspired Libyans in all institutions, including banks, by sparking hope, challenge and sense of achievement. Therefore, the generated insights of employees could be used to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of local and foreign banks in Libya. In turn, this would lead to better services to customers and employees, who have high expectations of getting better careers and better work places. Generally, this study is valuable in the current situation in Libya by providing banks with a better insight of how to enhance their performance through commitment

and OCBs. Thus, it provides empirical insights of how employees interpret commitment and OCBs, as such insights could be used to provide employees with better workplace and enhance their wellbeing at work through more congruence with their values and goals under the changing socio-political situation in Libya.

9.4 Limitations and Future Research

9.4.1 Study limitations

Even though several implications have been raised for the explored insights of participants, this study also suffers from various limitations: four are discussed here. First, even though I tried hard not to influence participants' interpretations of both concepts, it was necessary to explain what I meant by commitment, and most notably what I meant by OCBs. As mentioned earlier, the concept of commitment already existed in the work terminology in the banking sector, so I did not encounter many questions about what I mean by commitment. On the other hand, the situation with OCBs was different, as this construct did not exist in participants' work terminology. Rather, the term voluntary work was used. Thus, I had to mention doing voluntary work at the beginning of each interview and ask for more examples of extra role behaviours, as I felt that these could be used as alternative terms for OCBs. However, even though I made a plan, as seen in the methodology chapter, to deal with this problematic issue, I felt that data analysis could be misleading to my favour.

Second, using one method was also another limitation of the current study. Due to the time limitations and positions of participants (managerial and non-managerial), this study employed only interviews for collecting data. Although this effectively captured participants' views of commitment and OCBs, using other methods could have yielded more insightful interpretations of both concepts. Furthermore, collecting data method at one time could be seen as a limitation, as collecting data at more than one time would allow the researcher to compare and be sure of participants' meanings.

Third, even though the theoretical implications would help with more understanding of commitment and OCBs as phenomenon, the empirical implications are focusing on the banking sector in Libya, as the generalisability of such interpretations is limited due to the subjective nature of this research. Further, such interpretations are more related to the socio-cultural factors prevailing in the Libyan banking sector, such as the culture of

confidentiality and assertiveness regarding engagement in OCBs and being highly committed employees. Fourth, the research implications were built upon data collected from male participants, as all participants were men. However, exploring the insights of female employees could provide deeper, richer data. However, this limitation arose because of the shortage of female employees working in the sector and refusal of some female employees to be interviewed.

9.4.2 Future research

I believe that good research should open doors for future research. Therefore, this section suggesting several researchable issues related to commitment and OCBs. Based on participants' insights of the dysfunctional forms of OCBs, such forms could be classified as constructive and destructive behaviours. Thus, future researchers interested in OCBs could reclassify forms of OCBs into those positive for organisations and those negative for them. Moreover, future research should attempt to separate those OCBs directed towards organisations and those directed towards individuals, as this study supports some research that argued for this separation. Other future research could focus on the effects of each "personal, socio-cultural and organisational" antecedent group and link them with specific forms of OCBs highlighted by participants.

Future research should also be conducted using more qualitative or mixed method approaches, particularly to explore more interpretations of other organisational concepts in different contexts, not just examining a few measuring scales in different contexts. Future qualitative research is important in contributing to gaining different understandings and interpretations of organisational concepts from the classical Western interpretations of such concepts. Future qualitative research could use other ways of collecting qualitative data to achieve triangulation in data collection. Two or more methods could be used, such as ethnography, focus groups, action research and documents. Even though these methods might take more time, they are considered as effective tools to support data collected by interviews and so deeper insights could be captured. Furthermore, researchers interested in the Libyan context could explore commitment and OCBs in other sectors in Libya, as this could lead to identifying different forms of OCBs and different interpretations of commitment. Drawing on different samples such as engineers, teachers, doctors, nurses and workers in different Libyan institutions would certainly provide a better picture of how employees in the Libyan context interpret commitment

and OCBs. Considering the current situation in Libya, later research could re-explore insights of participants in future in order to understand how the recent changes in Libya may affect employees' interpretations of commitment and OCBs. Similarly, exploring other contexts in the Middle East would be valuable, as previous research has highlighted a huge lack of data regarding various organisational concepts in this area (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2006).

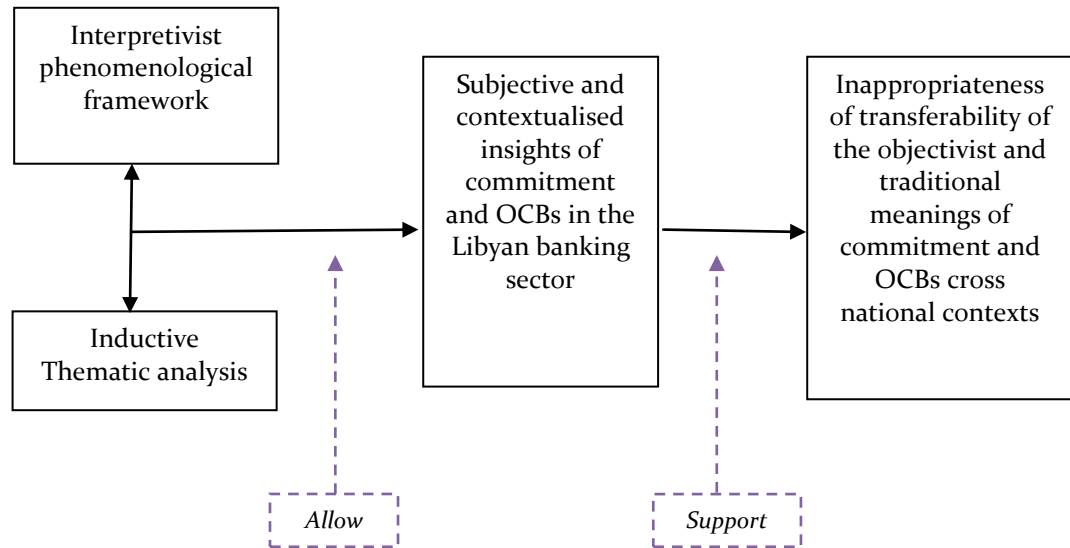
9.5 The Research Conclusion

The core argument of this research is that Libyan managerial and non-managerial employees have their own meanings and interpretations of commitment and OCBs. I built this argument on the claims that different individual experience leads to different interpretations and conceptualisations of concepts at the workplace. Thus, I aimed to explore commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector to improve understanding and theories about both phenomena of the research and provide details for improving HR management in the sector. Therefore, this study was guided by five research questions; (1) how do managerial and non-managerial employees interpret commitment and OCBs in the Libyan banking sector? (2) What antecedents are perceived by managerial and non-managerial participants of commitment and OCBs at the work in the Libyan banking sector? (3) What views do managerial and non-managerial participants have regarding management attitudes towards commitment and OCBs at the workplace in the Libyan banking sector? (4) What connections are managerial and non-managerial participants aware of between commitment and OCBs on the one hand and individual performance on the other hand in the Libyan banking sector? (5) How do managerial and non-managerial participants' insights differ from the traditional mainstream theories of commitment and OCBs?

To answer these questions, I adopted a qualitative subjectivist approach. This design was based on an interpretivist subjectivist research position. Because I was looking at the individual insights of commitment and OCBs, it was vital that I explore their experiences of these phenomena. Therefore, a phenomenological research design was adopted in order to grasp how each participant experienced and formulated their understanding of both phenomena. Phenomenological research was used to facilitate the exploration of the individual experience of participants and the meaning that each participant attached to commitment and OCBs.

However, (1) adopting this philosophical framework gave support to the research claims that transferability of meanings of commitment and OCBs cross national contexts is doubted. Further, adopting this framework allowed for highlighting individual meanings of commitment and OCBs out of participants' individual experiences. Therefore, different insights into the research phenomena were achieved. The captured insights into commitment and OCBs proved that participants have their own conceptualisations of them, which reaffirms the argument that transferability of one meaning cross-cultures and contexts is inappropriate. Therefore, researchers should consider philosophical frameworks that appreciate multiple realities and empirical execution of research. (2) Highlighting different insights of commitment and OCBs in the banking sector in Libya gives evidence of the appropriateness of adopting the interpretivist phenomenological philosophical framework, as constructing meanings out of the individual experiences of participants produced their insights into interpreting commitment and OCBs. This supports the research argument that transferability of certain meanings across national contexts is doubted. (3) Analysing the given data out of the interview transcriptions was also supportive for reaffirming the research claims. Using the thematic technique helped with achieving the aim of this research, which was to construct and understand how participants make sense and interpret commitment and OCBs. This understanding was not built based on the theoretical and conceptual framework in the literature; rather, it was inductively extracted from the data provided from the interview transcriptions. Focusing on and exploring the itemized themes of the data assisted with achieving a holistic picture of various elements of the meanings of commitment and OCBs out of the individual experience of participants. Overall, thematic analysis supported the research claims by allowing themes to emerge out of participants' cultural values and social norms, which proves that transferability of meanings should consider social and cultural issues. Figure 38 summarises this conclusion as follows:

Figure 38: linking the philosophical and analysis frameworks with the research claim



I used the snowball sampling strategy to choose participants. Data was collected by semi-structured interviews, as talking about the individual experience of phenomena of interest was crucial for this research. Accordingly, data was analysed by a thematic analysis technique, in which the whole picture of participants was developed from their data. This picture was constructed to describe the insights of participants based on the research questions, which led the whole process of the analysis.

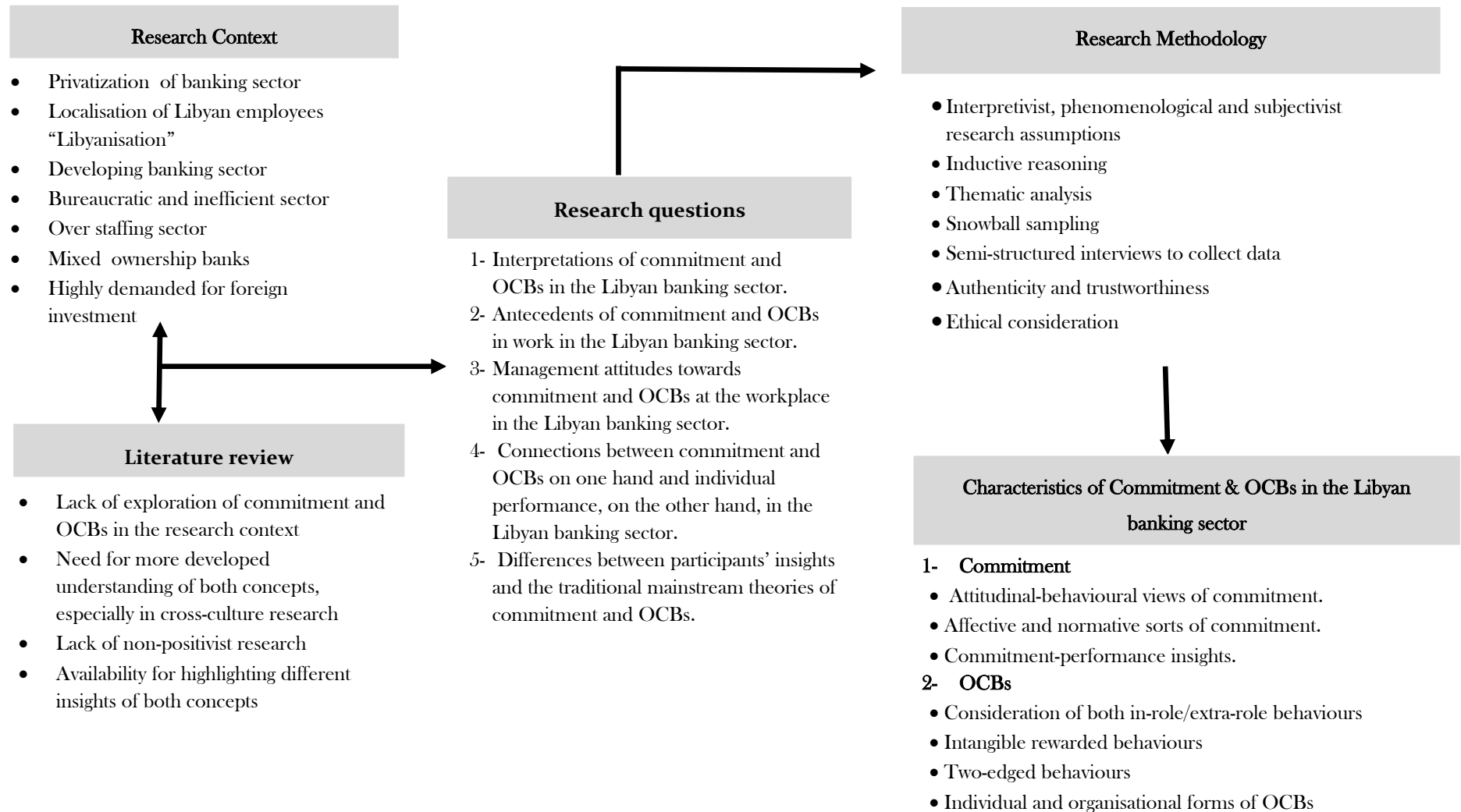
Insights into commitment highlighted that commitment is seen as a component of attitudinal and behavioural aspects linked with performance. It takes two forms; affective, which refers to emotional attachment to the organisation, and normative commitment, which refers to a feeling of societal pressure towards higher individual performance. Commitment is seen to be developed from individual, socio-cultural and organisational sources, each of which could have huge impact over it. Thus, commitment is practised to serve different targets through performance, such as colleagues, managers and customers.

On the other hand, insights into OCBs revealed that OCBs are individual, spontaneous, voluntary behaviours, which reflect the social and collaborative interaction among employees. These behaviours are intangibly rewarded due to their two-edged nature, as they could be helpful for the organisation and, conversely, could be harmful to the organisation. According to these insights, there are two types of OCBs; those related to the interest of the organisation and those directed to the interest of its employees.

Moreover, these behaviours are manageable and could be controlled through social and organisational motivators.

The main contribution of this research is that it adds to the stock of knowledge and organisational practice by giving different perspective and understandings of commitment and OCBs. Interestingly, while commitment is mostly seen as an attitude towards staying working with the organisation, this research reaffirms that commitment is seen as composed of attitudes and behaviours directed towards performing. OCBs are seen as voluntary spontaneous activities that are rewarded. This contributes to the debate on whether OCBs are rewarded or not. Furthermore, this research adds that commitment and OCBs are multi-source phenomena, as personality traits, social interaction and organisational policies have different ways of influencing them. Figure 39 summarises the main research stages and findings

Figure 39: the Research Conclusion



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APPENDIX 1- INTERVIEW STRUCTURE

Commitment

1) **Interpretations**

How do you conceptualise the term OC?

Could you please describe the practices of OC at your job?

How do you differ between a committed employee and an uncommitted employee at his job?

2) **Antecedents**

What antecedents do you see for creating commitment at the workplace?

In your own view, could you explain what factors do you see that could develop commitment more at the workplace?

What antecedents do you think are most important? Why?

3) **Management attitudes**

How management at this bank sees commitment at work?

Do you think managers at the bank give enough importance to being committed at the work?

Do managers encourage employees to be more committed at work?

How managers support committed employees?

How managers see the uncommitted employee at work?

4) **Connections with individual performance**

Do you think that OC is related to your job? If YES why? If NO why?

Could you please tell me, how OC affects the individual performance for the employee?

How can organisations implement OC to influence the individual performance of employees?

Do you think that OC has gained enough levels of importance from both employees and managers? How/Why

Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

1) Interpretations

Could you describe all behaviours that you usually practice at work?

Could you tell me about those behaviours that you see as extra-role behaviours? How do you conceptualise them?

Could you tell me about your own interpretations of OCBs?

Could you please describe the practices of OCBs at your job?

How do you differ between an employee who practice OCBs and an employee who does not practice them?

2) Antecedents

What antecedents do you see for creating commitment at the workplace?

In your own view, could you explain what factors do you see that could develop commitment more at the workplace?

What antecedents do you think are most important? Why?

3) Management attitudes

How management at this bank sees OCB at work?

Do you think managers at the bank give enough importance to the practice of OCB at the work?

Do managers encourage employees to get involved more in OCB at work?

How managers support employees' practices of OCB?

Do managers appreciate practicing OCB at work?

4) Connections with individual performance

Could you please tell me, how OCB could be linked with the individual performance?

How can organisations implement OCB to influence the individual performance of employees?

Do you think that OCB has gained enough levels of importance from both employees and managers? How/Why