THE ORIGIN, EVOLUTION, AND FUTURE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

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Abstract

In this collection, we curate 19 articles from Academy of Management journals that investigate organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)—employee behavior that goes beyond formal job duties. Using the life-cycle model (Hirsch & Levin, 1999), we describe different phases of the construct's evolution and explain how the foundational work of Organ (1977) and Bateman and Organ (1983) ignited decades of scholarly interest in OCB. In the first phase, researchers focused on understanding the nature and antecedents of OCB, particularly with regard to social exchange motives. As scholars challenged the conceptualization of OCB, the second phase expanded its dimensionality and clarified its nomological network. In the third phase, researchers sought to refine and redefine OCB, particularly by examining its "dark side." The fourth and most recent phase added more balance by jointly considering the positive and negative aspects of OCB. Looking forward, we develop an agenda for a fifth phase of research that should increase our understanding of OCB both in the immediate future and beyond. We do so by explaining how OCB may change in response to shifting work designs and dynamics, describing how the harmful effects of OCB can be mitigated, discussing ways the concept of OCB could be better used and understood by practicing managers, and identifying areas where the interplay between OCB and mainstream management concepts is deficient. Collectively, the curated articles and this essay provide evidence-based insights from Academy of Management journals about issues surrounding OCB that continue to be top of mind for scholars and business leaders alike.

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In the post-pandemic workplace, "quiet quitting," whereby employees psychologically detach from work and limit contributions that go beyond required job duties, has emerged as a global phenomenon and controversy (Lee, Park, & Shin, 2023). The challenges posed by this trend have employers asking what they can do to motivate workers to go beyond the call of duty and employees questioning whether doing so is worth it. Answers to such questions can be found in the literature on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB); however, it is unclear to what extent organizational leaders are taking advantage of this knowledge. Compounding this matter, widespread increases in flexible work (Schertler, Glumann, & Boehm, In Press) and the rapid adoption of artificial intelligence by organizations (Van Krogh, 2018) are changing where employees work, when they work, and how they perform job tasks. Given that many types of OCB deal with the where, when, and how employees work, these developments raise questions regarding whether our current understanding of OCB is still relevant in a new era of work. For instance, many popular measures of OCB (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Williams & Anderson 1991) were developed more than 30 years ago. Thus, the purpose of this collection is to not only provide a historical treatment of the OCB construct and its development, but also consider how it might be updated in light of the changing workplace.

In 1983, Bateman and Organ introduced the construct of OCB (see also Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) and offered the first empirical test of this construct in *Academy of Management Journal* (Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2007). OCB describes employee behavior that goes beyond formal role requirements and is typically not formally rewarded. This behavior includes employee actions such as helping coworkers, protecting and defending one's organization,

volunteering for special assignments, working additional hours to finish projects, and showing patience and restraint when one's organization makes mistakes. Forty years later, it is clear that Bateman and Organ (1983), which has been cited over 6,300 times according to Google Scholar, is a scholarly landmark. OCB has been the focus of thousands of research articles (roughly 4,900 between 1983 and 2017; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Podsakoff, 2018) and the subject of multiple books (e.g., Organ, 1988; Organ, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2018). The construct is now considered a central aspect of employee work performance (Carpini, Parker, & Griffin, 2017), and studies have demonstrated that OCB positively contributes to firm performance (Podsakoff, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Maynes, & Spoelma, 2014) by lubricating the "social machinery" of the organization (Smith et al., 1983: 654). Following the construct's early years, wherein researchers sought to understand the antecedents of OCB (a natural place to begin given its importance for organizations), theoretical and methodological challenges and shortcomings about the conceptualization of OCB emerged. Among these critical perspectives, the most impactful for the construct's development were often published in *Academy of Management Journal* and *Academy of Management Review*. Engaging with these challenges provided an increasingly clear and comprehensive understanding of OCB and its implications for both organizations and their employees. In particular, whereas early research tended to emphasize the benefits of OCB, more recent research has taken a more balanced, nuanced approach that also recognizes the potential costs and unintended consequences of OCB.

Table 1 summarizes the 19 articles, published from 1977 to 2023, that we curated for this collection. Our compilation includes 11 empirical articles published in *Academy of Management Journal* (58% of the collection), 6 conceptual articles published in *Academy of Management Review* (32% of the collection), and 2 articles published in *Academy of Management*

Executive/Perspectives[1]. Thus, whereas the majority of the articles are empirical, about one-third are theoretical. To organize our review, we use Hirsch and Levin's (1999) conceptual framework, which proposes that many constructs go through a life cycle characterized by four phases[2]—(1) emerging excitement, (2) validity challenge, (3) tidying up, and (4) overriding challenges. We go on to argue that the origin, development, and evolution of the OCB literature, as reflected in Academy of Management (AOM) journals, has followed these four phases. Further, with the OCB construct turning 50 within the next decade, we propose an emerging phase, "A New Chapter," spurred by the changes in work technology, societal expectations, and employee values that are currently reshaping work and organizations. Specifically, we explain how OCB may change in response to shifting work designs and dynamics, describe how the harmful effects of OCB can be mitigated, discuss ways the concept of OCB could be better used and understood by practicing managers, and identify areas where the interplay between OCB and mainstream management concepts is deficient. As such, in this final section we seek to increase our understanding of OCB in the immediate future and beyond. Figure 1 provides a visual summary of the OCB construct over time.

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[1] Consistent with the mission of *Academy of Management Collections*, we focused on articles from Academy of Management journals that, together, provide readers with "the essence of the topic." Given that two foundational OCB papers (i.e., Organ, 1977 and Bateman and Organ, 1983) were published in Academy journals, it is impossible to tell the story of OCB without these articles. Further, owing to their emphasis on theory development, OCB articles published in *Academy of Management Journal* and *Academy of Management Review* have played a leading role in advancing our conceptual understanding of this construct. Nevertheless, as described in this paper (and highlighted in Figure 1), many OCB papers—that have made major contributions to our knowledge of the construct's nature and dynamics—have been published in non-Academy journals. For example, this important work has articulated the dynamics of OCB at different levels of analysis (e.g., Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997), identified its meta-analytic causes and consequences (e.g., Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009), and developed scales to measure it (e.g., Settoon & Mossholder, 2002).

[2] Hirsch and Levin (1999) principally describe the evolution of *umbrella constructs*, which are broad and typically capture a set of unconnected concepts, but the phases they identify are also applicable to more cohesive constructs like OCB. Furthermore, regarding the third phase of *tidying up*, they focus specifically on the emergence of typologies, but we describe, more generally, how researchers sought to resolve some of the challenges identified in earlier phases. Finally, they argue that some constructs may collapse because of conceptual issues related to the construct, or that researchers may agree to disagree about the nature of the construct and how it is best defined (i.e., a permanent issue). Although it is clear the OCB construct has not collapsed, an argument can be made that some of the definitional and conceptual issues and disagreements surrounding the OCB construct remain unresolved.

PHASE I "EMERGING EXCITEMENT": THE ORIGIN OF OCB

Bateman and Organ (1983) were among the first to use the term "citizenship behavior" and introduced the "good soldier" label to describe employees who are willing to go beyond their formal duties and responsibilities. Their work was clearly inspired by an earlier article published by Organ (1977), which itself built on the classic work of Barnard (1938), Katz (1964), and others who emphasized the importance of cooperation and the willingness of employees to go beyond their formally prescribed roles. Although Organ did not use the term OCB, he was alluding to such behavior when he discussed the way that certain types of employee behavior, which are not formally contracted yet often sought by managers, represent the "glue which holds collective endeavors together" (Organ, 1977: 50). Another goal of Organ's paper was to solve the puzzle of why there was relatively little empirical support for the idea that job satisfaction is positively related to job performance. In short, he argued that the prevailing conceptualization of job performance was too narrow and failed to capture extra-role behaviors like OCB. Further, he noted that there was at least some evidence that job satisfaction was correlated with job performance, and that job satisfaction did correlate more strongly with outcomes like unexcused absences. Thus, he proposed that job satisfaction is likely a better predictor of more discretionary performance rather than completion of duties in a job description, and he identified citizenship-like behaviors as those that are seen as appropriate and desirable by managers, such as following rules, not making waves, and cooperating at work. Organ (1977) further suggested that social exchange is central to the motivation of such behaviors; thus, when organizations treat employees well by providing elements such as satisfying work, employees are likely to reciprocate by voluntarily engaging in behaviors that benefit the organization.

This is precisely what Bateman and Organ (1983) found—job satisfaction positively related to behaviors like helping, cooperation, punctuality, and attendance. Thus, whereas previous research suggested that job satisfaction was weakly correlated with job performance, there was a significant—and stronger—correlation (r=.41, p<.01) between overall job satisfaction and OCB (as measured with a 30-item scale that assessed behaviors such as "compliance, altruism, dependability, housecleaning, complaints, waste, cooperation, criticism of and arguing with others, and punctuality;" Bateman & Organ, 1983: 589). This early empirical investigation of OCB is noteworthy in several ways. First, it established the idea that job satisfaction would be predictive of OCB due to (a) social exchange driving employees' desires to reciprocate positive treatment by the organization and (b) positive affect, which psychologists had linked with prosocial and altruistic behavior (e.g., Rosenhan, Underwood, & Moore, 1974). Second, it set a precedent for using matched data from employees and supervisors, with supervisors providing ratings of OCB, which remains prevalent (though not exclusive) today in OCB research. Third, because they measured both job satisfaction and OCB at two time points (5-7 weeks apart), the researchers could see if job satisfaction was a stronger correlate of OCB than the reverse; their findings provided as much evidence that job satisfaction is predicted by OCB as they did that OCB is predicted by job satisfaction. In other words, Bateman and Organ (1983) found both that satisfied employees engage in more OCB and that employees who engage in OCB tend to be more satisfied, foreshadowing the idea that employees may also benefit from going beyond the call of duty (i.e., through increased job satisfaction).

For the next decade, researchers continued to identify antecedents of OCB, in part to better understand how organizations could elicit such behavior from employees. Much of this work further indicated that social exchange is key to understanding why employees are willing to

go the extra mile. One exemplar of this perspective came from Konovsky and Pugh (1994), who tested a key tenet of the social exchange model of OCB originally proposed by Organ (1990) and based on the work of Blau (1964). Specifically, this perspective suggests that because OCB is volitional, it is a reciprocative behavior that is more likely to be motivated by social exchanges between employees and supervisors, which are more open-ended and long-term, than by economic exchanges, which are more short-term and transactional. Supporting the idea that employees would reciprocate fair treatment by their supervisor, Konovsky and Pugh (1994) found that supervisor procedural justice led to employee OCB (conscientiousness, altruism, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue) via the mediating effect of employee trust in their supervisor. This study is one of several that have shown a significant link between justice and OCB (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2013; Moorman, 1991).

Extending this view, Lambert (2000: 802) suggested that OCB is a "currency of reciprocity" and proposed that employees are more likely to feel supported and engage in OCB when their company provides useful work-life benefits and support. Drawing on ideas about the nature of social exchange described by Gouldner (1960), she argued that employees who derive the greatest value from extra benefits provided by the organization would be the ones most motivated to reciprocate by going above and beyond. Using data from 667 employees and their 217 supervisors, she found that the perceived usefulness of benefits positively related to submitting suggestions, attending quality meetings (something desired, but not required, by the organization), and interpersonal helping. Thus, employees were more likely to repay the organization through OCB when they felt they received more benefits that helped them through difficult times, eased their ability to balance their work and family responsibilities, and enabled their children to do things they would not have been able to do otherwise.

During this emerging excitement phase, researchers greatly advanced knowledge concerning the antecedents of OCB (as summarized in a meta-analysis by Organ and Ryan, 1995). Other dynamics of the construct, however, were left largely unstudied. For example, although Organ (1988: 4) defined OCB as behavior which "in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of organizations," only a handful of studies (e.g., Podsakoff, Ahearne, & Mackenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1994) actually demonstrated an empirical link between OCB and indicators of organizational (or team) effectiveness. Furthermore, this empirical work relied on intuition and logic more than theory to explain why OCB might increase organizational effectiveness; for instance, it was argued that OCB enhances the productivity of managers and coworkers, frees up resources for more productive purposes, facilitates internal coordination, and increases firm adaptability and stability (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

Reversing the exchange-based lens to look at how OCB can build connections within organizations, Bolino, Turnley, and Bloodgood (2002) used social capital theory to explain the link between OCB and organizational performance. Drawing on Barney's (1991) resource-based view of the firm and Nahapiet and Ghoshal's (1998) model of social capital, they argued that social participation OCB contributes to the development of structural social capital (e.g., the creation and configuration of network ties among employees). They also proposed that loyalty, obedience, and functional and social participation OCBs contribute to the development of relational social capital (e.g., liking and trust among employees), whereas social and advocacy participation OCBs contribute to the development of cognitive social capital (e.g., shared language and narratives among employees). Finally, they proposed that strong connections among employees—as reflected by these three forms of social capital—will contribute to the

performance of OCB. In sum, the articles in this first phase of OCB research largely focused on understanding its antecedents. To the extent that this work examined the outcomes of OCB, it emphasized the benefits of citizenship.

PHASE II "VALIDITY CHALLENGE": DEFINITION AND DIMENSIONS

As initial excitement regarding OCB reached its peak, scholars began to question fundamental aspects of the construct, signaling an end to the construct's honeymoon. Notably, Morrison (1994) argued that the line between what is considered in-role (required) versus extra-role (discretionary) behavior is often poorly defined. She correspondingly theorized that employees may engage in OCB because they simply define their jobs broadly and consider OCB to be part of their required duties. Testing these predictions, she found that employees and their bosses disagreed about whether certain behaviors were in-role or extra-role, and that employees were more likely to engage in OCB (or behavior that is typically considered OCB) when they considered it part of their prescribed role. Furthermore, her study suggested that social exchange variables (e.g., organizational commitment) are linked to OCB because committed employees tend to define their jobs more broadly. Altogether her theorizing and findings not only challenged whether it is even possible to objectively measure OCB, but also raised questions regarding whose perspective matters most in defining OCB. Moreover, this study inspired subsequent work about the lines that demarcate in-role behaviors, extra-role behaviors, and OCB, and their attendant implications (e.g., McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, & Turban, 2007; Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995; Van Dyne, Kamdar, & Joireman, 2008).

During this phase, researchers also called into question the idea that OCB was selfless or altruistic behavior (Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Schnake, 1991). Building on this idea, Eastman (1994) used an experiment to find that supervisors sometimes label employees who engage in OCB as

ingratiators (e.g., brown-nosers, boot-lickers, apple-polishers) rather than good citizens (e.g., hard workers, willing to go the extra mile). Furthermore, employees who were labeled as good citizens were recommended for more rewards than those who were labeled as ingratiators (or who did not perform OCB). Although this study focused specifically on self-serving motives, such work supported a new line of thinking regarding the motivational underpinnings of OCB.

Beyond questioning employees' motives for engaging in OCB, this phase also included critiques of what constituted OCB in the form of new typologies. Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) criticized existing OCB frameworks because of their weak theoretical foundations and sought to develop a conceptualization of OCB that was more theoretically grounded. Drawing on political philosophy and theories outlining the duties of civic citizenship in society, these authors identified (and developed a measure of) three broad categories of OCB—obedience (respect for organizational rules and procedures), loyalty (putting the interests of the organization ahead of one's own), and participation (being an involved citizen). Participation was further divided into advocacy participation (speaking out to improve the organization), functional participation (taking on additional assignments, staying late to finish critical tasks), and social participation (being aware of organizational issues, being actively involved in organizational life). In empirically testing their taxonomy, Van Dyne et al. (1994) found that employees were more likely to engage in OCB when they felt that they had a covenantal relationship with their employer (i.e., one characterized by an open-ended commitment, mutual trust, and shared values); they argued that this covenantal relationship represented a more extreme and powerful form of relational exchange than the types of social exchange previously described in the OCB literature.

The debate about the discretionary nature of OCB and its dimensions continued for years. During this time, some work conceptualized OCB in terms of its target (e.g., OCB directed at the organization versus at individuals, Williams & Anderson, 1991; person-focused versus task-focused interpersonal OCB, Settoon & Mossholder, 2002), while other studies focused on whether OCB was affiliative (e.g., helping others) or challenging (e.g., voice or advocacy; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). New conceptualizations and measures continued to emerge, resulting in a proliferation of OCB scales. Continuing decades later, Dekas, Bauer, Welle, Kurkoski, and Sullivan (2013) developed a measure capturing OCBs common among knowledge workers in high-technology industries. In addition to traditional forms of citizenship, like helping, voice, and civic virtue, they found novel forms of OCB in this context, such as employee sustainability (e.g., improving the well-being of oneself and one's coworkers) and new forms of social participation (e.g., getting to know coworkers on a personal basis, being playful at work).

Overall, the different conceptualizations of OCB developed during this phase greatly expanded our understanding of its nomological network and dynamics. At the same time, however, the expansion of OCB in numerous directions at once created murky boundaries of what defines the construct. As described in the next section, researchers sought to clarify some of these issues. However, consistent with Hirsch and Levin's (1999: 209) life-cycle model, researchers continued to "agree to disagree over specifics and even basic definitions." For instance, Organ et al. (2006) criticized the idea that impression management motives might undermine the quality and contribution of OCB (Bolino, 1999) or that OCB might sometimes be performed at the expense of in-role performance (Bergeron, 2007).

PHASE III "TIDYING UP": REFINING AND REDEFINING OCB

In addition to the important questions that had arisen regarding whether it was defensible to conceptualize OCB as exclusively extra-role and altruistic, several studies found a positive association between OCB and organizational rewards (e.g., performance appraisal ratings; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Werner, 1994), which challenged the conceptualization of OCB as behavior that is not directly rewarded. Therefore, in a paper subtitled, "It's Construct Clean-Up Time," Organ (1997) proposed redefining OCB more broadly, as contextual performance that positively contributes to the social environment in which tasks are completed (be it in-role or discretionary, rewarded or unrewarded). In subsequent work, though, he and his colleagues advocated for a definition of OCB that recognizes that it is *more* discretionary and *less* likely to be formally rewarded than behaviors spelled out in employees' job descriptions (Organ et al., 2006). This conceptualization, which positions OCB as mainly (but not exclusively) discretionary and unrewarded, is now common in the larger literature. Organ (1997) also acknowledged that the use of the "altruism" label to describe interpersonal helping was somewhat misleading given that OCB could be motivated by self-interest. In further efforts to delineate the boundaries of the OCB construct, organizational scholars in the third phase acknowledged that even a behavior that is generally positive can have a "dark side" In this line of inquiry, scholars began to focus on the largely unintentional and negative aspects of OCB.

Building on Eastman's (1994) ingratiation perspective, Bolino (1999) sought to provide more clarity on why employees engage in OCB. He theorized that there are both "good soldier" (e.g., social exchange) and "good actor" (e.g., impression management) motives for engaging in OCB. He outlined how employees may be more likely to engage in OCB when it is goal relevant (e.g., high visibility), when being a good citizen is more likely to be valued (e.g., when one's performance appraisal is coming up), and when there is a discrepancy between one's current and

desired image (e.g., after disappointing one's supervisor). Although many of Bolino's (1999) propositions remain untested, subsequent empirical work has confirmed the core idea. As such, OCB can be driven by the desire not only to positively impact other people or one's firm, but also to benefit one's own image in the eyes of other organizational members (e.g., Grant & Mayer, 2009; Rioux & Penner, 2001; Takeuchi, Bolino, & Lin, 2015).

Researchers also sought to understand the potential costs and unintended consequences of engaging in OCB. For instance, Bolino and Turnley (2003) noted that the benefits of OCB could be outweighed by its costs if employees perform OCB at the expense of their required assignments. They also cautioned that employees could feel pressured to engage in OCB, that OCB could escalate to unhealthy levels, and that too much OCB could lead to overload, stress, and work-family conflict (with subsequent research supporting some of these ideas; e.g., Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010; Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009; Koopman, Rosen, Gabriel, Puranik, Johnson, & Ferris, 2020). Further, in a paper examining the professional costs of being a good organizational citizen, Bergeron (2007) theorized that employees who spend time on OCB have less time to spend on task performance—a tradeoff that can harm employees' careers. Using a resource-allocation framework, she proposed that focusing on OCB (relative to task performance) is particularly likely to undermine career success when reward systems are outcome-based rather than behavior-based, when roles are more ambiguous, when OCBs are less visible and not reciprocated by one's colleagues, and when OCBs are more challenging and time consuming. Subsequent research supported some of these propositions (Bergeron, Ostroff, Schroeder, & Block, 2014; Bergeron, Shipp, Rosen, & Furst, 2013) and highlighted that the relationship

between OCB and task performance is more complex than previously recognized (e.g., Ellington, Dierdorff, & Rubin, 2014; Rapp, Bachrach, & Rapp, 2013; Rubin, Dierdorff, & Bachrach, 2013).

In another conceptual paper exploring unintended consequences of citizenship, Klotz and Bolino (2013) used moral licensing theory (Merritt, Effron, & Monin, 2010) to explain the link between OCB and counterproductive work behavior (CWB). They proposed that when employees engage in "morally praiseworthy" OCB (i.e., OCB that is proactive, discretionary, beyond expectations, personally costly, and benefits others), they grant themselves a moral license that psychologically frees them to engage in subsequent CWB. However, these researchers argued that these effects are moderated by employees' personal, relational, or collective identity orientation, such that employees will not feel licensed when they perform OCBs that are aligned with their identity. In an empirical study testing and building on this perspective, Yam, Klotz, He, and Reynolds (2017) used moral licensing and self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 2000) theories to explain how employees who engage in OCB for external reasons (e.g., to avoid getting in trouble or making others mad, because they are supposed engage in OCB or will be rewarded for doing so) feel psychologically entitled to engage in interpersonal and organizational deviance, as well deviant behavior outside of work. Subsequent research has also found that leaders, especially those who are narcissistic or identify with their followers, can vicariously gain a moral license through followers' OCB, thereby freeing them to engage in unethical behavior (Ahmad, Klotz, & Bolino, 2021). In sum, building upon the critiques of OCB research, organizational scholars refined the OCB construct by redefining it and recognizing that citizenship can have harmful or unintended consequences. But this perspective was also somewhat one-sided and mostly neglected how both sides of OCB operate

together. In the next phase, researchers sought to present a more coherent, realistic, and nuanced view of OCB that more fully considered both its positive and negative aspects.

PHASE IV "OVERRIDING CHALLENGES": A MORE BALANCED VIEW OF OCB

In the most recent phase of OCB research, researchers have moved toward a more balanced view of the construct. As such, this work reflects a recognition by researchers that OCB is a behavior that has both benefits and costs. Moreover, such recent work explored OCB as a dynamic behavior that can vary from day-to-day, week-to-week, or year-to-year. Facilitating this more nuanced understanding of OCB were methodological developments, particularly experience sampling methodology. In one of the first intraindividual investigations of OCB, Ilies, Scott, and Judge (2006) found that daily positive affect and job satisfaction were positively related to daily OCB, particularly for employees who were less agreeable by nature (while those who were more agreeable tended to engage in relatively high levels of OCB regardless of their mood or satisfaction). This work provided a foundation for future theory development (e.g., Bolino, Harvey, & Bachrach, 2012) and empirical investigations (e.g., Lin, Savani, & Ilies, 2019; Spence, Brown, Keeping, & Lian, 2014) of the within-person dynamics of OCB. Along these lines, Methot, Lepak, Shipp, and Boswell (2017) developed a theoretical model that explained how a "good citizen identity" (i.e., an employee's self-concept as one who engages in OCB), and cues related to role transitions and work episodes, can shape citizenship over the months or years that follow the honeymoon period when employees first join their organization. Their theorizing suggests that key features of sensemaking cues (e.g., degree of identity discrepancy, event-based versus process-based cues, significance of cues) trigger changes to baseline levels of OCB in four ways—lag, rate of change, magnitude, and permanence. Altogether, this work contributed to

a more complete understanding of how OCB may unfold in both the short and long term, as well as the factors that influence these dynamics.

Contemporary studies of OCB have also brought balance by simultaneously showing the benefits and drawbacks of engaging in OCB. Koopman, Lanaj, and Scott (2016) provided a more comprehensive picture of OCB's implications in their examination of employee well-being. These authors hypothesized that daily OCB increases positive affect, thereby decreasing emotional exhaustion and increasing job satisfaction and affective commitment; however, they also predicted that daily OCB concurrently interferes with work goal progress, thereby increasing emotional exhaustion and reducing job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Further, they argued that the link between daily OCB and positive affect is more positive for promotion-focused employees (who prioritize approaching ideals of advancement and accomplishment) and that the link between daily OCB and work goal progress is more negative for prevention-focused employees (who prioritize avoiding mistakes and completing assigned duties and responsibilities at work). In an experience sampling study, where data were collected at three points each day over a two-week period, they found support for nearly all of these hypotheses. In doing so, this research demonstrated that OCB simultaneously has *both* benefits *and* drawbacks—a key integration of previous work that focused on *either* the benefits *or* the drawbacks of being a good organizational citizen.

Research in this phase also shed further light on dynamics related to those on the receiving end of OCB. Building on Spitzmuller and Van Dyne's (2013) argument that different forms of interpersonal helping may have different consequences, Harari, Parke, and Marr (2022) theorized that people experience greater self-threat from anticipatory help (i.e., help that was not requested) than from reactive help (i.e., help that was requested). They not only found support

for this idea, but also found that anticipatory help was less likely to be accepted and more likely to result in negative views of the helper, especially when the helper had higher status than the recipient. Their investigation builds upon foundational research on how recipients respond to support and assistance (e.g., Fisher, Nadler, & Whitcher-Alagna, 1982), and it complements more recent work demonstrating that people are often reluctant to accept help (e.g., Thompson & Bolino, 2018) and that reactions to help are often mixed (e.g., Deelstra, Peeters, Schaufeli, Stroebe, Zijlstra, & van Doornen, 2003; Lee, Simon, Koopman, Rosen, Gabriel, & Yoon, 2023).

Given that being a good organizational citizen can sometimes be a burden for employees, recent studies of OCB have also sought to understand how employees navigate that challenge. In light of prior research showing that OCB can interfere with one's home life (e.g., Bolino & Turnley, 2005), Bolino, Flores, Kelemen, and Bisel (2023) used interviews to identify five communication strategies that employees use with their partners when they need to engage in individual initiative OCB (e.g., staying late at work, attending work-related functions on their personal time, volunteering for special projects). They found that self-concerned communication strategies (invoking prior conversations, projecting payoffs) tended to positively relate to OCB; however, partners were more satisfied when employees used other-concerned communication strategies (seeking permission, providing early notice). Further, self-concerned communication strategies (projecting payoffs) tended to elicit partner dissatisfaction. Their findings also suggest that both employees and their partners tend to believe that going the extra mile is often important and necessary for getting ahead in organizations, suggesting that families may also be confused about whether or not OCB is rewarded and discretionary. Overall, the work in this most recent phase clarified that OCB is a behavior with positive and negative effects, depending on the presence or absence of numerous contingencies.

PHASE V "A NEW CHAPTER": GOING PUBLIC WITH OCB IN A NEW ERA

As this collection shows, researchers have made considerable progress over the past 40 years in understanding the nature of, and dynamics surrounding, OCB. This research offers organizations meaningful guidance for how to encourage employees to go the extra mile while minimizing the potentially harmful effects of doing so. In 10 years, the OCB construct will turn 50. Examining this collection in the context of the changes occurring in the modern workplace reveals significant opportunities for the investigation of OCB to take another step forward during this time. Given our focus on papers published in Academy journals, a natural framework for moving this literature forward is the themes of recent AOM annual meetings because of their emphasis on "addressing the 21st century's most pressing challenges related to management and organizations." Thus, we critically examined the state of the OCB construct through the lens of the four most recent conferences. Doing so led to four corresponding questions for researchers to address by the time the OCB construct turns 50. Specifically, "Putting the Worker Front and Center," from 2023, led us to ask: *How is OCB changing in response to shifting work designs and dynamics?* From 2022, "Creating a Better World Together," led to the question: *How can the harmful effects of OCB be mitigated?* In reflecting on 2021, "Bringing the Manager Back in Management," we asked: *How can the concept of OCB be better used and understood in the "real world"?* And finally, 2020's "Broadening our Sight" caused us to contemplate: *In what areas is the interplay between OCB and mainstream management concepts deficient?*

How is OCB changing in response to shifting work designs and dynamics?

The 2023 AOM conference theme, "Putting the Worker Front and Center," called attention to the dramatic changes in the workplace and their effects on workers. Although employees continue to be affected by the changing nature of work, the foundation of our

knowledge about OCB was acquired through research conducted in traditional manufacturing and office settings. These settings continue to represent many contemporary workplaces, so insights from this body of work remain relevant. At the same time, we must also consider the profound change in the nature and arrangement of work, which is pushing the occurrence and implications of OCB beyond its traditional boundaries: beyond the office, beyond the work role, beyond the formal organization, and beyond organizational positive impact.

Beyond the office. Although a workplace evolution was well underway before 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic accelerated the change (Bolino, Henry, & Whitney, 2024). Now, remote and hybrid work are a sizeable and permanent part of the work landscape. As of August 2023, over 40% of employees in the U.S. work in fully remote or hybrid arrangements; as such, the number of days that the average U.S. employee now works from home is roughly four times higher than what it was in 2019 (Barrero, Bloom, & Davis, 2021). Further, technological advances have given rise to employees working more hours outside of traditional times (Watkins, Lee, Yam, Zhan, & Long, 2021), and the use of variable work schedules for flexibility is increasing in many organizations (Chung, 2022). The prevalence of alternative work arrangements raises questions of whether our understanding of the nature, causes, and consequences of OCB is generalizable to these settings or needs to be reconsidered. For instance, concerning the *nature* of citizenship, some aspects of one classic form of OCB known as conscientiousness—showing up on time and not taking long breaks—seem largely irrelevant in the context of remote working. At the same time, other types of OCB may simply be altered when they are carried out virtually rather than in person. Employees are now able to use virtual platforms to assist colleagues (i.e., helping) or remain deeply involved in organizational activities (i.e., civic virtue).

In regard to the former, virtual platforms have the potential both to attenuate and exacerbate the harmful effects of unanticipated helping (e.g., Harari et al., 2022; Spitzmuller & Van Dyne, 2013). For example, remote work may lessen the occurrences of unanticipated helping due to proximity and coordination, whereby meetings and interactions require more effort and technological coordination. For instance, employees may have fewer chances to give and/or receive unanticipated help when coworkers are not able to unexpectedly stop by a colleague's office to help at any time. Conversely, a scheduled virtual meeting in which the main purpose is to give anticipatory help might also be seen as a more intentional violation and a higher threat due to the extra coordination costs. With regard to organizational loyalty, is following an organization's activity on social media given equal weight as more traditional types of civic virtue? Such questions suggest that we must consider the possibility that some OCBs need to be reconceptualized owing to these trends.

Beyond the work role. Changes in the workplace are also likely to influence the causes and consequences of OCB. Whereby hybrid and remote work blur the boundaries between work and life for employees (Perrigino, Dunford, & Schwind Wilson, 2018), the (often negative) spillover effects of OCB on workers' home lives are likely more prevalent than ever. At the same time, the flexibility that many nontraditional work arrangements provide is highly desired by most employees (McKinsey & Company, 2022); workers, then, view flexible work as a benefit provided by the organization. Because OCB is rooted in social exchange, flexible work arrangements should be experienced as an investment in employees that leads workers to reciprocate, perhaps by engaging in more OCB directed at the firm (Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997). Yet, flexible arrangements may also make it even more difficult for employees to differentiate between in-role and extra-role behaviors, which could contribute to role ambiguity.

Thus, flexible work may create situations where workers feel driven to engage in more OCB to combat ambiguity about what is considered OCB, which could increase negative work-life spillover. Future work is needed to disentangle these blurred boundaries, thereby enabling organizations to provide better guidance to employees regarding what is considered above and beyond.

Beyond the formal organization. Gig work—which has existed since the dawn of work itself—has become more prevalent, especially in the past decade (Caza, Reid, Ashford, & Granger, 2022). In their review of gig work research, Cropanzano, Keplinger, Lambert, Caza, and Ashford (2023) suggest that it is characterized by the absence of formal organization membership, the presence of multiple work projects over short time horizons, compensation tied to specific gigs, and the sale of one's labor. Given this conceptualization, gig work differs significantly from the context in which the OCB construct developed and has been traditionally examined. These differences shift the motivational bases of citizenship as well as its targets (Moorman, Lyons, Mercado, & Klotz, In Press). Regarding the former, one of the core drivers of OCB is concern for the organization (Rioux & Penner, 2001), but this motivator is likely weak or nonexistent for gig workers. In contrast, targets of OCB other than coworkers and supervisors may be more salient in the gig context, and gig workers may engage in OCB that benefits members of their profession (e.g., freelancers), platforms (e.g., Upwork), and suppliers (e.g., restaurant workers who transfer food to delivery drivers). With this in mind, future work should consider how and when social exchange drives gig workers' OCB. Because these workers do not have traditional colleagues or the same expectations within an organization, it may be that their expectations for reciprocation vary.

In this way, gig worker OCB may share dynamics with service-oriented forms of citizenship (Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007), which have been shown to facilitate the formation of teams across organizational boundaries and the execution of business-to-business collaboration (Webber & Klimoski, 2004). Likewise, through the performance of OCB, workers may cultivate a reputation of being a good citizen, which could facilitate the development of a citizenship identity (Grant & Mayer, 2009); further, as described by the self-regulation model of OCB (Bolino et al., 2012), when an identity of citizenship becomes chronic, people tend to enact OCB out of habit, resulting in the nonconscious performance of OCB in response to situational cues. Overall, we see an opportunity for researchers to extend the literature by developing theory about how OCB operates differently among workers who lack formal organizational membership, especially in identifying overlap between traditional OCB dynamics and those in the gig context.

Beyond the organizational positive impact. As described earlier, a key contribution was Van Dyne et al.'s (1994) redefinition of the OCB construct based on the notion of civic citizenship described in the political philosophy literature. Increasingly, employees view their work and organizations as vehicles through which they can have a positive impact on broader social issues (Polman, 2023), such as those aimed at advancing social welfare (e.g., environment, gender equity, human rights; Mayer, Ong, Sonenshein, & Ashford, 2019). Further, more organizations are responding to employees and taking a stand on such issues (e.g., Burbano, 2021; Roth, Arnold, Walker, Zhang, & Van Iddekinge, 2022). As a result, being a good social citizen both outside and inside of work is becoming more common. This development may shape employees' motives for engaging in OCB, as well as the outcome of positively impacting the organization. For instance, workers may be more likely to engage in OCB when they perceive that their organization addresses social issues that are personally important to them. Relatedly, an

organization may benefit from an employee attending a social charity event that is considered an important cause by its stakeholders. Consequently, being a good citizen at work could increasingly involve advocacy for social causes outside of work or support for causes that are important to colleagues. Of course, while supporting a social issue could be an act of citizenship in the eyes of those who favor that social issue, it also holds the potential to create conflict. Social issues often have multiple sides of support, leading to workgroups comprised of people who hold strong but diverging feelings about these issues (Javidan, Cotton, Kar, Kumar, & Dorfman 2023). Moreover, some employees dislike the inherent moral burden of such issues (Piderit & Ashford, 2003), and external stakeholders may view the time and resources devoted to such efforts as a distraction (Weinzimmer & Esken, 2016). As such, social activism may be a polarizing form of citizenship behavior—seen by some as positive and by others as deviant—depending on one's point of view, the issue involved, and other contingencies.

How can the harmful effects of OCB be mitigated?

The 2022 AOM conference was concerned with "Creating a Better World Together"—understanding the vital role that organizations play in addressing structural and social challenges. This meeting focused on how organizations and scholars can utilize lessons and awareness from the recent pandemic to facilitate a better life for everyone. Whereby researchers have established the "dark side" of OCB, this next phase must identify more solutions to alleviate the potential harm and costs of citizenship.

Preventing coercive OCB. Through a process described as "job creep" (Van Dyne & Ellis, 2004), OCB can become normative over time, as behaviors that were once seen as beyond the call of duty become an expected part of an employee's job. Similarly, peer pressure and group norms can add to the feeling that one *must* perform OCB. For instance, Bommer, Miles,

and Grover (2003) found that the level of OCB of an employee's peers influenced the employee's OCB, especially when OCB was consistently displayed in the workgroup. Further, Ehrhart and Naumann's (2004) model of OCB norms in workgroups suggests that high levels of OCB within a group can lead employees to see such behavior as both acceptable and expected. Vigoda-Gadot (2007) suggested that when this occurs, OCB transforms into CCB—compulsory citizenship behavior. And once OCBs are expected rather than mainly discretionary, their effects on employees shift from a mix (positive and negative) to largely negative (e.g., Bolino, Hsiung, Harvey, & LePine, 2015; Koopman et al., 2020; Yam et al., 2017). As a result, many employees experience citizenship pressure, which is associated with job stress, work-family conflict, work-leisure conflict, and turnover intentions (Bolino et al., 2010).

Although researchers have highlighted the negative consequences of excessive OCB and OCB pressure, they have been slower to identify solutions to these detrimental outcomes. Because of the positive effect of OCB on organizational rewards (for employees) and effectiveness (for the organization), policies and practices that restrict OCB would appear to be a poor remedy. In the next decade, an important avenue of future research is to conduct studies that provide evidence of interventions or conditions that can disrupt or reverse the tendency for OCB to become compulsory or expected. An example of a potential intervention from the practitioner literature is *citizenship crafting* (Bolino & Klotz, 2017). Building on the idea of job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), employees and their managers citizenship craft by considering different ways that the employee might go beyond the call of duty. They then work together to find expressions of OCB that are aligned with employees' interests, skills, and schedules. By emphasizing the extra-role nature of these behaviors and helping employees find more effective

ways of engaging in OCB, citizenship crafting may let employees contribute in ways that are more rewarding and less burdensome.

Preventing oppressive OCB. Interventions such as citizenship crafting could have particularly meaningful practical implications given that normative pressure to engage in OCB is often felt most acutely by those with less power. These employees include those from nondominant groups, who face historical disadvantages in society and at work. Research has found that OCB performed by these employees is not noticed as much (e.g., women who are helpful; Heilman & Chen, 2005); when OCBs are not noticed, employees receive less credit and fewer rewards, which is why such behaviors have been described by some as "non-promotable tasks" (Babcock, Peyser, Vesterlund, & Weingart, 2022). Thus, members of nondominant groups, who may already be at a disadvantage in the resources they can devote to discretionary behavior (e.g., Wu, Antone, Srinivas, DeChurch, & Contractor, 2021), may have to expend even more resources to be seen as engaging in the same level of OCB as their peers. Given that OCB affects employee evaluations (Podsakoff et al., 2009), the (in)ability to perform OCBs may widen the gap between dominant and nondominant groups. Additional evidence indicates that normative control related to OCB may also exhibit a stronger hold on employees who are members of nondominant groups when motivators of OCB are absent or when demotivators are present. For instance, Thompson, Bergeron, and Bolino (2020) found that when employees perceived low levels of support from their organization, men reduced their OCBs, whereas women continued performing them. Thau, Aquino, and Bommer (2008) found that there was a negative relationship between unfair treatment and OCB for White employees, but these variables were unrelated among Black employees. In other words, when White employees were punished unfairly, they reduced their OCB, but it did not affect Black employees' OCB.

These findings highlight how norms around the performance of OCB can be a source of systemic inequity at work. Because engaging in OCB often leaves less time for task performance (Bergeron, 2007), when nondominant group members feel more compelled to uphold citizenship norms, it may cause their task performance to suffer, thereby holding back their careers. Marginalized employees may invest their time in OCBs to try and "catch up" to the others; however, engaging in non-promotable tasks in this way could backfire. It is imperative, then, that in the coming decade, more scholarly attention is given to the inherent inequity associated with being a good citizen at work. Indeed, if OCB contributes to unfairness, citizenship could play a more divisive role than a unifying one in the workplace.

Allyship, which bears some similarity to OCB, may hold potential for mitigating the harm we describe. Allyship behaviors are performed by dominant group members, but with the explicit intention to empower and advance the interests of nondominant group members (Cheng, Ng, Traylor, & King, 2019; Sabat et al., 2014; Washington & Evans, 1991). Over the past decade, the AOM has emphasized the need to better understand phenomena that are of societal importance, and editorial teams have encouraged management scholars to conduct work that contributes to important societal conversations (e.g., Tihanyi, Howard-Greenville, & DeCelles, 2022). Although engaging in good deeds at work has the potential to make a positive difference, it is also clear that many of us studying OCB have not fully considered the conditions where "going above and beyond" may contribute to inequity in organizations by reinforcing the existing power structures in organizations and society. For instance, many organizations have contributed to systemic discrimination against minorities and continue to do so (Amis, Brickson, Haack, & Hernandez, 2021), and OCB could be part of the problem if revering and rewarding citizenship perpetuates inequality and oppression.

In the next decade, it is critical for researchers to ask tough questions about the impact of OCB on society. If the benefits of OCB disproportionately accrue to dominant group members, the beneficial short-term boost to organizational performance may be more than offset by the detriment to nondominant groups it also causes. If that is the case, it calls into question whether we can consider OCB as a "good deed" (Klotz & Bolino, 2013) or an example of "positive organizational behavior" (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Overall, researchers should expound upon the long-term outcomes of OCB in relation to broader societal challenges. For example, what happens when employees are willing to invest their own time and efforts toward uplifting and empowering nondominant groups within an organization who historically receive little such support? These discretionary behaviors could harm the organization's image by highlighting shortcomings in relation to this matter. However, and more importantly, they would have long-term organizational (and potentially societal) benefits by helping dismantle systemic injustice (e.g., anti-racism; Prengler, Chawla, Leigh, & Rogers, 2023).

How can the concept of OCB be better used and understood in the "real world"?

The 2021 AOM conference emphasized the need for management research to better serve managers and for our science to be put into practice. Because OCB is a determinant of organizational effectiveness, managers should understand how OCB can benefit employees and organizations alike. However, while many managers recognize the importance of discretionary behavior like OCB, they are often unfamiliar with OCB terminology and theories. As we have described, the notion of citizenship is as timely and relevant as ever, and scholarly interest in OCB remains strong. Despite its relevance and academic popularity, there remains a disconnect between our scholarly understanding of OCB and the penetration and application of this knowledge in organizations. One factor that may contribute to this academic-practitioner gap

(Banks, Pollack, Bochantin, Kirkman, Whelpley, & O'Boyle, 2016) is the fact that the term "OCB" is not well known among workers and leaders. Indeed, while it has been one of the most widely investigated constructs in the organizational sciences for 40 years, the term is rarely mentioned in the business press, in conversations with leaders, or among business students. A Google news search of "organizational citizenship behavior" returns 491 results. The same search for "psychological safety," another well-established term in the literature (Edmondson & Lei, 2014), returns 13,500 results.

In directing the field toward a relational scholarship of integration with practitioners, Bartunek (2007) emphasized the importance of the language we use when communicating with practitioners and encouraged management scholars to include more pathos in our writing to better connect with them. Thus, given the continued relevance of OCB for workers and leaders, there is an opportunity for scholars working in this area to better disseminate their findings to practitioners by mixing academic terminology with more evocative everyday language. Doing so would involve more than using the terms OCB and citizenship when describing research and insights in executive education, in publications aimed at leaders, and on social media. Weaving the terms "OCB" and "citizenship behavior" with synonymous phrases like "going beyond the call of duty" and "going the extra mile" (as well as other non-English and non-Western equivalents for the behavior; Klotz, Swider, & Kwon, 2023) could further this aim as well. The purpose of such efforts is not to strengthen the OCB brand for the sake of branding, but to create a stronger pathway from this body of literature to the hands of those within organizations. Indeed, if managers and employees have a heightened awareness that a "new" trend has been noticed and studied by scholars for nearly half a century, there may be more interest in implementing such research among practitioners.

At the same time, such efforts may reveal that the term “citizenship” and the acronym OCB are not being, and will never be, popular outside of the academy. As authors, we have had both students and workers bristle at the notion that being a “good citizen” at least partly involves unpaid extra work. This feedback suggests that describing extra work as citizenship may actually cause a negative reaction among some people—the opposite of the pathos that Bartunek (2007) recommends we use more extensively in our communication. Such reactions potentially make the OCB label useful for facilitating research, but less effective (or even ineffective) when it comes to transferring knowledge about OCB to managers (Huff, 2000; Van De Ven & Johnson, 2006). Therefore, when it comes to how the OCB concept and its associated knowledge base can better inform and guide leaders and workers, we call for researchers to discuss, among themselves and with practitioners, the most compelling way to communicate the findings of citizenship research.

In what areas is the interplay between OCB and mainstream management concepts deficient?

Finally, the 2020 AOM conference was aimed at broadening our sight by seeing aspects and constructs of the management literature and profession more clearly. Over the past four decades, researchers have increased our knowledge of the relationship between OCB and other workplace constructs. For instance, studies have examined the links and interplay of OCB with well-established concepts, such as task performance and counterproductive work behavior (e.g., Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009; Koopman et al., 2016), as well as more emergent constructs, such as office chitchat (Methot, Rosado-Solomon, Downes, & Gabriel, 2021) and frenemies (Melwani & Rothman, 2022). Scholars have done a reasonably good job of keeping the OCB nomological network up-to-date; nevertheless, as we describe next, the rapid pace of

change in work and society over the past five years (e.g., Shapiro, 2021) has revealed areas of opportunity for potential interrelationships between OCB and other constructs, such as quiet quitting and employee engagement.

Quiet quitting. We are in an era where new terms about work emerge from social media on an almost daily basis. These terms often become trends that go viral and ignite discussion and debate among managers and workers (Molla, 2023). One of the most talked-about and polarizing of these trends was quiet quitting—a phrase that now returns over 400 million Google results. As described in the TikTok that took the term viral, quiet quitting is "not quitting your job but quitting the idea of going above and beyond at work" and happens when you are "still performing your duties but you're no longer subscribing to the hustle culture mentality that work has to be your life." Yet, quiet quitting is more than a fad and fills a void in our understanding of workers who choose not to engage in OCB. Recall that the term "good soldier" was first used by Bateman and Organ (1983) to describe employees who go above and beyond the call of duty at work. As such, this label implies that workers who do not perform OCBs are not "good soldiers." In other words, employees who go the extra mile are "good," and those who do not are "not good." This distinction is the source of tension between employees and employers regarding quiet quitting and OCB. From the organization's view, good employees are those who do extra. From the standpoint of workers, performing core job duties at an acceptable level should be enough to be considered a good employee and to make them eligible for pay raises, promotions, rewards, and recognition.

This tension may be felt between not only the employee and organization but also leaders and followers. Many leaders reject the notion that employees who engage in quiet quitting (i.e., refraining from OCB) should be seen positively. In speaking about quiet quitting directly, Kevin

O'Leary—a star of TV's Shark Tank—stated that employees who go home right when their workday ends at 5:00 PM will not be working for him. After purchasing Twitter, Elon Musk gave employees an ultimatum between working "long hours at high intensity" or leaving the company. Overall, the views of these organizational leaders seem to jibe with the notion of the "good soldier," whereby workers must do positive deeds for the company beyond their core job tasks in order to be seen as "good" in the eyes of their company.

When viewed through the lens of organizational citizenship, quiet quitting is really quitting OCBs. One potentially promising approach for shedding light on the dynamics surrounding quiet quitting, especially as it relates to OCB and task performance, is person-centered research (Gabriel, Campbell, Djurdjevic, Johnson, & Rosen, 2018; Wang & Hanges, 2011). This approach has already been used to understand patterns of citizenship; Klotz, Bolino, Song, and Stornelli (2018) identified different profiles of employees who engaged in different combinations of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and courtesy. Similarly, quiet quitting involves behaviors that may be enacted by employees to varying degrees: acceptable task performance combined with low engagement in OCB. Person-centered researchers would recognize this as a specific profile. Further, a profile approach is ideally suited not only for capturing the existence and prevalence of quiet quitting, but also for identifying other profiles of workers who tend to engage in different combinations of OCB and task performance. The simple exercise of crossing high and low levels of OCB and task performance reveals a 2x2 model that represents a potentially useful way to understand these positively correlated yet distinct behaviors. If those with good task performance and low OCB are quiet quitters, those who engage in high levels of task performance *and* OCB could be labeled "stars," given that stars have been defined as those who achieve visibly high levels of task performance

and social capital (Call, Nyberg, & Thatcher, 2015). Employees who engage in high OCBs but whose task performance is low could be labeled "sacrificers," based on Bergeron's (2007) aforementioned arguments that high levels of OCB often come at the expense of task performance and career success. Finally, those low in OCB and task performance could be labeled "miscasts," because some uniformly low "good behavior" at work is likely indicative of being in a role that does not match the incumbent very well. As this example of person-centered theorizing illustrates, the attention to quiet quitting has revealed an opportunity to advance our theoretical and empirical understanding of the relationships *between* OCB, task performance, and other critical behaviors, including impression management (e.g., Bolino, 1999), deviant behavior (e.g., Dineen, Lewicki, & Tomlinson, 2006), and creativity (e.g., Lin, Law, & Zhou, 2017).

Employee engagement. Originally introduced by Kahn (1990), engagement is a "motivational concept reflecting the simultaneous investment of an individual's physical, cognitive, and emotional energy in active, full work performance" (Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010: 619). It is also further defined as a state of mind in which workers experience work-related vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002) and has been conceptualized more broadly to include behaviors that reflect positive energy directed at one's work (Macey & Schneider, 2008). As such, engagement can be thought of as a powerful antecedent of OCB or a key manifestation of it. That is, when engagement is high, the associated energetic investments manifest in both task performance and OCB (Rich et al., 2010). It could thus be argued that engagement does not differentiate between these two types of performance. As employees invest their whole selves into their jobs, they look for ways to contribute positively within their formally prescribed roles at work and beyond those boundaries as well.

Although most organizational researchers recognize quiet quitting as refraining from OCB, practitioners and managers more often associate quiet quitting with disengagement. Indeed, in their 2023 "State of the Global Workforce" report, Gallup renamed workers previously labeled as "disengaged" with the "quiet quitters" label. Treating disengagement and quiet quitting as interchangeable concepts presents a problem for organizational scholars because disengagement is defined much more broadly than simply not performing OCB. Indeed, Kahn (1990) defined disengagement as the defense and withdrawal of the self—and one's corresponding energy—from one's work roles. For this reason, we would expect disengagement to manifest in reduced levels of task performance *and* OCB, especially given that these two aspects of performance may operate independently (e.g., Dalal et al., 2009). More generally, the conflation of refraining from OCB (i.e., quiet quitting) and disengagement suggests that the relationship between OCB and engagement needs to be revisited and clarified.

Finally, while performing OCBs is an indicator of employee engagement, it is not necessary that employees perform OCBs to be considered engaged. Employees who invest all of their energy into their task performance but not OCB would be considered highly engaged and a quiet-quitter at the same time. Likewise, an employee who performs OCB at the expense of their task performance (Bergeron, 2007) could be considered a "good soldier," but probably would not be seen as fully engaged. As these hypothetical combinations illustrate, the relationship between OCB and engagement is likely situational and dependent upon the interplay between OCB and task performance, as well as whose perspective is taken. For instance, employees who do not perform OCB may believe they are fully engaged by completing assignments exceptionally well. However, does their manager have the same belief about their engagement? Given the continued

emphasis on (dis)engagement by consultants and leaders, there are opportunities for scholars to add important precision concerning its relationship to, and complex dynamics with, OCB.

CONCLUSION

After 40 years of research, OCB is a central construct in the management literature that continues to be timely and relevant. While the articles curated in this collection represent only a fraction of the research conducted on this topic, they have played an outsized role in shaping our understanding of the origin, nature, and evolution of OCB. However, to ensure that the OCB construct stays relevant, scholars must also ensure that our conceptualization and understanding of OCB stays up to date in an era when attitudes about work, the nature of work, and the work itself are rapidly changing. Likewise, there remains an important opportunity to bridge the academic-practitioner gap and provide evidence-based guidance to leaders who seek to inspire their employees to go beyond the call of duty in a way that does not contribute to organizational injustice or undermine employee well-being.

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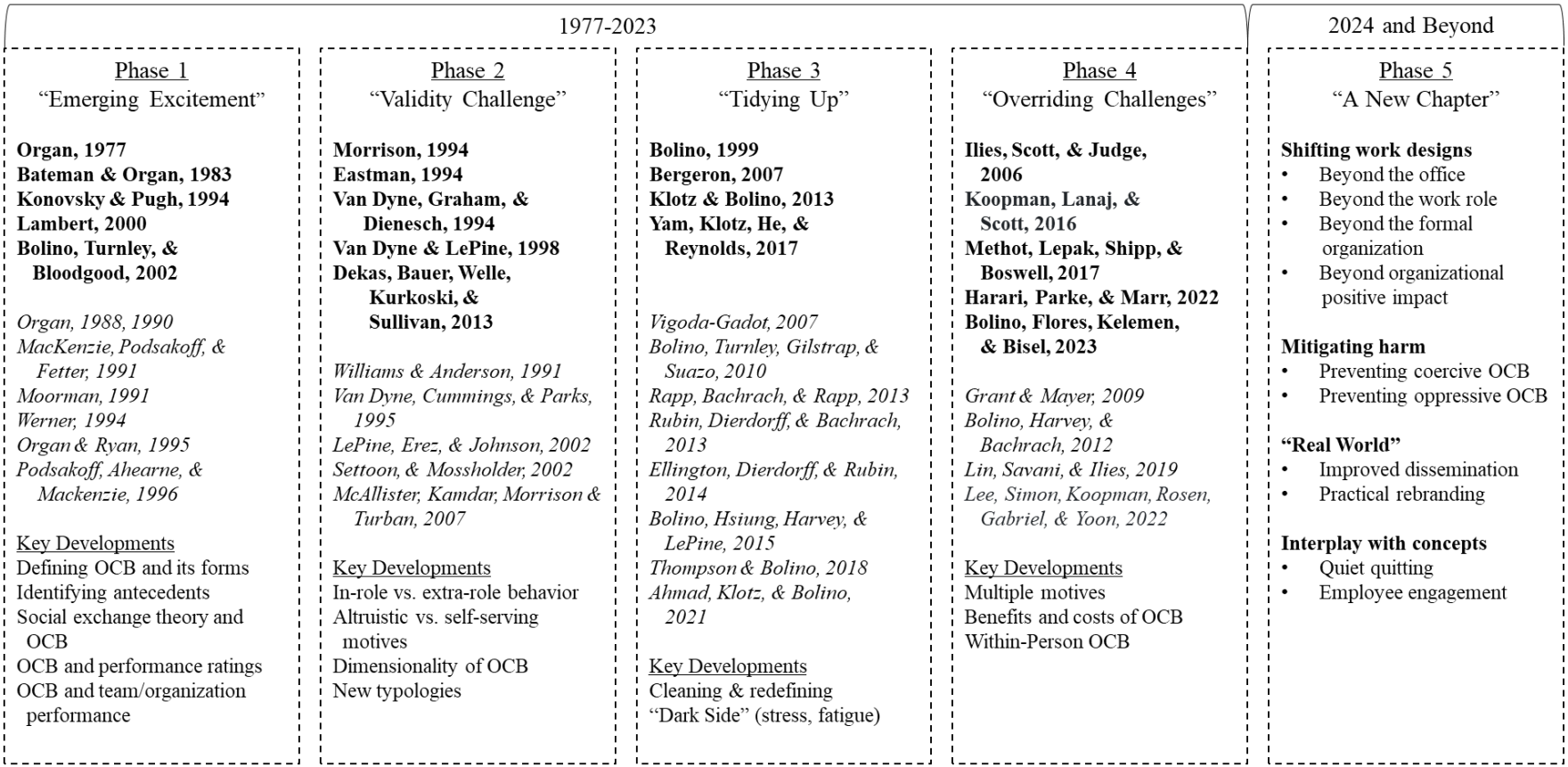
TABLE 1
Chronology of Academy of Management Papers Included in this Collection

Year	Journal	Author(s)	Title	DOI
1977	AMR	Organ	A Reappraisal and Reinterpretation of the Satisfaction-causes-performance Hypothesis	10.5465/amr.1977.4409162
1983	AMJ	Bateman and Organ	Job Satisfaction and the Good Soldier: The Relationship Between Affect and Employee "Citizenship"	10.5465/255908
1994	AMJ	Eastman	In the Eyes of the Beholder: An Attributional Approach to Ingratiation and Organizational Citizenship Behavior	10.5465/256678
1994	AMJ	Konovsky and Pugh	Citizenship Behavior and Social Exchange	10.5465/256704
1994	AMJ	Morrison	Role Definitions and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Importance of the Employee's Perspective	10.5465/256798
1994	AMJ	Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch	Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Construct Redefinition, Measurement, and Validation	10.5465/256600
1999	AMR	Bolino	Citizenship and Impression Management: Good Soldiers or Good Actors?	10.5465/amr.1999.1580442
2000	AMJ	Lambert	Added benefits: The Link Between Work-life Benefits and Organizational Citizenship Behavior	10.5465/1556411
2002	AMR	Bolino, Turnley, and Bloodgood	Citizenship Behavior and the Creation of Social Capital in Organizations	10.5465/amr.2002.7566023
2003	AME/AMP*	Bolino and Turnley	Going the Extra mile: Cultivating and Managing Employee Citizenship Behavior	10.5465/ame.2003.10954754
2006	AMJ	Ilies, Scott, and Judge	The Interactive Effects of Personal Traits and Experienced States on Intraindividual Patterns of Citizenship Behavior	10.5465/amj.2006.21794672
2007	AMR	Bergeron	The Potential Paradox of Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Good Citizens at What Cost?	10.5465/amr.2007.26585791
2013	AMP	Dekas, Bauer, Welle, Kurkoski, and Sullivan	Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Version 2.0: A Review and Qualitative Investigation of OCBs for Knowledge Workers at Google and Beyond	10.5465/amp.2011.0097
2013	AMR	Klotz and Bolino	Citizenship and Counterproductive Work Behavior: A Moral Licensing View	10.5465/amr.2011.0109
2016	AMJ	Koopman, Lanaj, and Scott	Integrating the Bright and Dark Sides of OCB: A Daily Investigation of the Benefits and Costs of Helping Others	10.5465/amj.2014.0262
2017	AMR	Methot, Lepak, Shipp, and Boswell	Good Citizen Interrupted: Calibrating a Temporal Theory of Citizenship Behavior	10.5465/amr.2014.0415
2017	AMJ	Yam, Klotz, He, and Reynolds	From Good Soldiers to Psychologically Entitled: Examining When and Why Citizenship Behavior Leads to Deviance	10.5465/amj.2014.0234
2022	AMJ	Harari, Parke, and Marr	When Helping Hurts Helpers: Anticipatory Versus Reactive Helping, Helper's Relative Status, and Recipient Self-Threat	10.5465/amj.2019.0049
2023	AMJ	Bolino, Flores, Kelemen, and Bisel	May I Please Go the Extra Mile? Citizenship Communication Strategies and Their Effect on Individual Initiative OCB, Work-family Conflict, and Partner Satisfaction	10.5465/amj.2020.0581

Notes: AME = *Academy of Management Executive;* AMJ = *Academy of Management Journal;* AMP = *Academy of Management Perspectives*; AMR = *Academy of Management Review*
*Effective February, 2006, AME changed its name to AMP.

FIGURE 1
Evolution of the OCB Construct



Note: Dashed boxes indicates each phase is not clearly demarcated across time. Bold indicates an AOM article curated for this collection. Italics indicates an article from a non-AOM journal.