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The Social Exchange and Instrumental Perspectives on Employees' Response to Job Insecurity*

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Abstract

Job insecurity has become an important topic for western organizations in the past decade due to uncertain economic conditions, global competition and the advancement of information technology. According to the perspective of social exchange theory, job insecurity may have negative impact on organizational citizenship behaviors but this detrimental effect will be buffered by trust in organization. We propose that employees response to job insecurity may also be affected by the consequences of their responses. We label this as the instrumental perspective. In this study, we carefully chose a joint venture and a SOE sample in China to test these two perspectives. In the joint venture sample, we hypothesized that the social exchange perspective would be applicable because increasing organizational citizenship behaviors in response to job insecurity would have little impact on positive consequences. On contrary, employees of the SOE may reduce their chance of being laid-off or able to bargain for better after lay-off arrangements by improving their performance and organizational citizenship behaviors. Thus, the instrumental perspective would be more appropriate. Data from 295 and 253 supervisor-subordinate dyads were collected in the joint venture and the SOE, respectively. Results supported our hypotheses. Implications are discussed.

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1. Relationship between Job Insecurity and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In the last decade, as the economic conditions are becoming more and more uncertain due to global competition and the impact of information technology, downsizing has become one of the popular strategy for organizations to reduce costs and stream line operations (Greenhalgh, 1991; Greenhalgh, Lawrence & Sutton, 1988). Some researchers have raised serious concerns for the impact of job insecurity in the workplace. Two perspectives on employee reactions to job insecurity have been proposed. The first perspective concentrates on the impact of job insecurity on employee health and well being and views job insecurity as a source of stress that produces deviations from normal physiological, psychological and behavioral responses. Empirical studies have shown that job insecurity is related to psychological distress (e.g., Dooley, Rook & Catalano, 1987; Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990), psychological adjustment (e.g., Kuhnert & Palmer, 1991; Kuhnert & Vance, 1992), job dissatisfaction (e.g., Borg & Elizur, 1992; Dijkhuizen, 1980), nonconforming behaviors (Lim, 1996) and poor health (e.g., Cobb & Kasl, 1997; Greenhalgh & Jick, 1989).

The second perspective concentrates more on the impact of job insecurity on organizational outcomes (i.e., work attitudes and behaviors). For example, Greenhalgh and Sutton (1991) proposed that job insecurity would lead to propensity to leave, resistance to change, and reduced work effort and commitment. The relationships between job insecurity and these organizational outcomes have been demonstrated by empirical studies (e.g., Abramis, 1994; Ashford, Lee & Bobko, 1989; Brog & Elizur, 1992; Hartley, 1991; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996; Schweiger & Lee, 1993).

Based on the above research findings of job insecurity, Bultena (1998) proposed the application of social exchange theory to conceptualize the impact of job insecurity on organizational outcomes. According to the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), one party's receipt of a benefit obligates another party to reciprocate or return the favor (Gouldner, 1960). This obligation is closely tied to the concept of psychological contracts. According to Schein (1980), psychological contracts are depiction of the exchange relationship between the individual and the organization. Continued receipt and reciprocation create increasing obligations between the parties of an exchange relationship because of the fulfillment and reinforcement of the psychological contract (Balu, 1964; Homans, 1961; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). In the context of job security, employees are expected to perform satisfactorily in exchange for continuous employment and related rewards and this constitutes the psychological contract between the two parties. However, when organizations could not fulfill its usual obligation, employees would reduce their efforts and commitment in return. Employees will most likely withhold extra-role behaviors from the organization because they are easily curtailed with little risk to the employee (Parks & Kidder, 1994). According to Organ (1988), organizational citizenship behaviors include extra-role behaviors that go above and beyond that dictated by organizational policy and one's job description. Meyer and Allen (1997) further point out that organizational citizenship behaviors typically include such things as "providing extra help to coworkers, volunteering for special work activities, being particularly considerate of coworkers and customers, being on time, and making suggestions when problems arise" (p.33). As these behaviors are not prescribed by organizational policy and job description, they may have less impact on the employees' formal performance evaluation and their chance being laid off. Thus, when employees perceive the

organization is violating its obligation in reducing job security, they would probably withhold some of their extra-role behaviors.

Bultena (1998) further points out that the strength of this job insecurity-organizational citizenship behavior relationship may depend on the original social exchange relations between employees and their organization. For example, if employees feel that their employer is trustworthy, they may be more tolerant of short-term inequities in their exchange relationships (Folger, 1986; Rousseau & Parks, 1993; Parks & Kidder, 1994). Thus, they may have a higher chance to continue their efforts and commitment despite periodic threats to job continuity arising from changes in business conditions.

The effect of job insecurity on job performance is less clear than organizational citizenship behaviors. Employees' reduced work efforts and commitment may not manifest in their in-role performance because by lowering their performance level, employees may have a higher chance to be laid off. This is particularly true when job performance is one of the criteria for making lay-off decision. Thus, employees would try to maintain or even improve their performance level when job security is lowered. Empirically, studies conducted in western countries found mixed results concerning the impact of job insecurity on job effort and performance. While some studies found a negative effect (e.g., Abramis, 1994; Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990), other studies found no significant relationship (e.g., Ashford, Lee & Bobko, 1989; Hall & Mansfield, 1971). Interestingly, some studies even found a positive effect of job insecurity on job effort and performance. For example, after the announcement of plant closings and faced with a complete lack of job security, Sutton's (1987) found out that workers increased their job effort and productivity to earn extra cash and a good recommendation in preparation for job loss. Thus, job effort and performance may not be simple reactions to employer's not fulfilling their psychological contract in providing job security. Employees may carefully calculate the consequences of their decreased or increased job effort and performance in facing job loss situation.

This calculated act in response to job insecurity may lead to another perspective in understanding the consequences of job insecurity that has relatively been neglected by existing literature. We may label this as the "instrumental" perspective. In the management literature, this perspective has a long tradition in explaining employees' motivation in the work place. For examples, the various Needs theory of motivation postulate that employees will engage in behaviors that can lead to the satisfaction of their needs (e.g., Maslow, 1943; McClelland & Burnham, 1978; Murray, 1938). The expectancy theory of motivation postulates that employees will increase their job efforts if these efforts have a high chance in leading to subsequent rewards (e.g., Vroom, 1964). According to these theories, if the subsequent rewards are large and important enough, employees will attempt to improve their performance and organizational citizenship behaviors so far as these behaviors are contingent on the rewards. Thus, in response to job insecurity, employees may still attempt to improve their performance and organizational citizenship behaviors if these attempts can lead to important rewards.

In short, according to the social exchange perspective, job insecurity should have negative effects on organizational citizenship behaviors and probably job performance. Furthermore, this detrimental effect on organizational outcomes may be buffered by situational factors such as the high level of trust between employees and their employer. According to the instrumental perspective, employees may still improve their job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors in response to job insecurity if the improvements can lead to important rewards. In the

next section, we will describe the specific situation in China that may provide a good research site to test these two perspectives. Then we will describe an empirical study to test the two perspectives in a joint venture and a State-Owned Enterprise (SOE) in China.

2. Joint Ventures and State Owned Enterprises in China

China may provide a good research site to test the social exchange and instrumental perspectives on job insecurity because of the specific combination of private and public business organizations in its economy. Before adopting the open door policy in 1978, no private business organizations existed in the Chinese economy. After 1978, China has allowed the establishment and development of private business organizations. Nowadays, there are a lot of joint ventures, township enterprises and private companies owned by local Chinese people. Of these various forms of business organizations, the operations and management of joint ventures should be most similar to western business organizations. It is because joint ventures are usually formed with the purpose of utilizing foreign management systems and styles by allowing the foreign partners to be responsible for the management of the company. It has become a major form of foreign investment in China and most of them have adopted western human resources practices (Warner, 1998). Thus, the employment conditions of workers in joint ventures differ significantly from that in SOEs (Chow, Fung and Ngo, 1999). For examples, unlike most SOEs, joint ventures adopt a performance-based reward system and so employees should have a clear understanding concerning the distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviors. Furthermore, joint ventures hire and terminate employees according to market forces and so employees are under periodically threat of job loss. As these conditions are similar to western organizations, we expect the argument of social exchange theory concerning the relationships among job insecurity, organizational citizenship behaviors, and trust in organization should be applicable. These relationships are shown graphically in Figure 1(a) and the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: In joint ventures, job insecurity would have negative effect on organizational citizenship behaviors but this detrimental effect would be reduced by employees' trust in organization.

Insert Figure 1 about here.

For job performance, we expect a minimal effect from job insecurity because employees may face greater risk to be laid off if they deteriorated their job performance in joint ventures. As the distinction between job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors is clear, employees' withholding efforts and commitment will manifest mainly in their extra-role rather than in-role behaviors.

The situation for SOEs may be very different. Despite the great advancement in the establishment of private business organizations, unlike western economies, there is still a large number of SOEs in China. They are typically relatively large organizations, concentrating in the sectors that were given priority under the central planning system. The operations and management of these SOEs are still very different from private business organizations. They are

structured quite differently from their typical western counterpart (Henley & Nyaw, 1986). These enterprises face conditions with an authority structure that lends a unique "Chinese" character to the organization (Perkins, 1994). Managers of SOEs share a common concern for security and tend to avoid proactive and risk-taking decisions when faced with uncertain environments (Adler, Brahm & Graham, 1992). In SOEs, employees traditionally enjoy strong security and have so-called "three irons"-- guaranteed salary, life-positions, and "iron rice bowl" (i.e. guaranteed pay regardless of performance). Under such employment situation, employees are less clear about the distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviors and they have never been threatened by job insecurity.

Because of the inefficiency in the majority of SOEs, the Chinese government has initiated a lot of efforts to reform them. In fact, to reform these SOEs so that they can operate like private business organizations is one of the major goals as well as challenges for the Chinese economy. However, despite various initiatives to remove these "three irons", SOEs' operations are still significantly constrained with a wide range of obligations to the bureaucracy (Lu & Child, 1994). For example, even if employees were laid off, individual SEO may still need to be responsible for some of their benefits such as housing and pension scheme. These after lay-off arrangements may vary among SOEs as managers are now given more autonomy and responsibility to reform their enterprises. Thus, employees may exert some influences over the lay-off arrangements by impressing their organization. Employees facing job insecurity in SOEs may not regard withdrawing their efforts and commitment simply as an exchange to the failing fulfillment of their organizations. The instrumental perspective may be more applicable to predict SOEs' employees in response to job insecurity because these employees may be more conscious and calculative in their behaviors in order to obtain more positive consequences.

Furthermore, when SOEs' employees trust that their organization will try its best to take care of them, they will have feel less pressure to impress their organizations. They will therefore simply continue their level of work efforts and commitment. However, if employees do not trust their organization, they may probably engage in more extra-role behaviors to impress their management. In so doing, they would have a lower chance to be laid off or they could bargain for better lay-off arrangements. As the distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviors is not so clear in SOEs, employees may also improve their job performance as an attempt to impress their organization. Thus, for SOEs, we hypothesize the following relationships among job insecurity, organizational citizenship behaviors, job performance and trust in organization that are shown graphically in Figure 1(b):

Hypothesis 2: In Chinese SOEs, when employees have strong trust in their organization, job insecurity would have little effect on job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors. However, when employees have little trust in their organization, job security would have a positive effect on job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors.

3. Methods

3.1 Samples and Procedures

Samples. To test the two hypotheses, we selected a joint venture and a SOE in the manufacturing sector in Guangdong Province, a southern province in the People's Republic of

China. To make the two samples more comparable, we only selected employees from their factories (i.e., production-line workers, clerks, technicians, foreman, and production supervisors). Respondents of the joint venture sample consisted of 295 employees and their immediate supervisors while the sample size of the SOE employees was 253 and their immediate supervisors.

The two organizations were selected carefully. For the joint venture, it has adopted the management system and practices of the foreign partner since its establishment. There is no guarantee on life-time employment. Employees may be fired if their job performance is unsatisfactory although there has never been downsizing program. Immediate supervisors were responsible for job performance evaluation and they were provided with clear instructions concerning the dimensions of job performance. For the SOE, it abolished the life-time employment guarantee for about five years before this study was conducted. Although no downsizing program had been implemented, some employees were laid off from time to time because they received very bad evaluation. Because the negotiation between individual employees and SOE were different, the detailed laid-off arrangement varied among employees. In this SOE, the distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviors was not clearly defined. Employees were evaluated according to their overall contribution to the organization instead of clear definitions of performance dimensions. Thus, it appears that this joint venture and SOE was appropriate research site to test the social exchange and instrumental perspective, respectively.

Procedures. Two questionnaires were prepared by back-translation (Brislin, 1970). The first questionnaire contained organizational citizenship behavior and job performance items that would be completed by immediate supervisors. The second questionnaire contained job insecurity, trust in organization and other controlling variables that would be completed by the employees. Data collection involved a number of personal trips by one of the authors to each data collection site. During the first two trips of interviewing production managers, production officers, supervisors and technical workers, the two questionnaires were presented to a small group of employees to gather final input about the proper use of words, and the ease of understanding. After the questionnaires were finalized, each staff and workers in the factories was contacted personally to invite them to participate in this study. For those who were willing to participate, the questionnaires were collected immediately after completion. Their immediate supervisors were then contacted and they completed the supervisors' questionnaire evaluating the participants' job performance and organizational citizenship behavior.

3.2 Measures

Organizational citizenship behavior. The twenty-two items used by Farh, Earley and Lin (1997) were slightly modified and adopted. An example of item is: "Willing to stand up to protect the reputation of the company".

Job performance. The six items developed by Becker, Billings, Eveleth and Gilbert (1996). An example of item is: "completed work in a timely and effective manner".

Job insecurity. The four items used by Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison and Pinneau (1975) were modified and adopted. An example of item is: "How certain are you about your job security in this factory?"

Trust in organization. The employee's trust in the organization was measured with the two-item scale developed by Ashford, Lee and Bobko (1989) and six-item scale developed by Cook and Wall (1980) with some modifications to render the scales more appropriate for the context of Chinese joint ventures. There were two reasons for combining these two scales in this study. Firstly, the concepts and measurement of trust in organization and trust in management are often used interchangeably in the trust literature (e.g. Ashford et al., 1989; Cook and Wall, 1980). Secondly, after the discussions with the Chinese workers in the research sites, it was found that the workers often consider their trust in management and trust in organization is nearly to be one and the same, and cannot be distinguished clearly. An example of item is: "I trust this organization to look out for my best interests."

Controlling Variables. Two sets of controlling variables were measured. The first set included demographic and job positional variables. Specifically, these include tenure with the organization (in terms of number of years), gender, marital status and organizational rank according to job position (from factory worker to production supervisors). The second set included the two most important antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors identified in the literature. They are organizational commitment (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988; Moorman, 1993; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Weiner, 1982; Williams & Anderson, 1991), and procedural justice of the organizations (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990; Moorman, 1991; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). Thus, in this study, we measured organizational commitment by the eight items developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) and procedural justice by the four items used by Balkin and Gomez-Mejia (1990).

3.3 Analyses

To test the two hypotheses, moderated regression analyses were conducted. Specifically, we entered all the independent variables in the first step and the interaction term (i.e., the product term between job insecurity trust in organization) in the second step. If a significant interaction term was found, then it provided evidence for the moderating effect of trust in organization on the job insecurity-organizational citizenship behavior or the job insecurity-job performance relationship. To examine the exact form of interaction, we used Cohen and Cohen's (1983) graphical method. According to this procedure, the sample is divided into two subgroups – those with trust scores one standard deviation above the mean trust score and those with trust scores one standard deviation below the mean trust score. Separate regression analyses are then performed to examine the job insecurity-organizational citizenship behavior or the job insecurity-job performance relationship in each group.

4. Results

Descriptive statistics, correlation coefficients among all variables, and coefficient alphas are shown in Tables 1 and 2, respectively for the joint venture and the SOE sample. Several points may be noted from these two tables. First, coefficient alphas of all the measures appear to be acceptable. All of them are above the .70 level. Second, as expected, respondents of the SOE sample have longer tenure with the organization because the SOE had longer history than the joint venture. Thus, this SOE sample also has higher organizational commitment level and more organizational citizenship behaviors. Third, the job insecurity level of the SOE sample is not lower than the joint venture sample and the level of procedural justice and trust in organization are similar for the two samples. These may indicate that the employees of SOE had appropriate

understanding concerning the reform undertaken by their organization. Finally, as expected, the correlation between job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors was much larger for the SOE ($r=.62$) than the joint venture ($r=.30$) sample. This confirms the expectation that the joint venture sample has clearer distinction between job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Insert Tables 1 and 2 about here.

Results of the moderating regression for the two samples are shown in Table 3. As expected, the interaction terms between job insecurity and trust in organization on organizational citizenship behavior are statistically significant for both the joint venture and the SOE sample. Using the Cohen and Cohen's (1983) method, we found out that the forms of interaction are as hypothesized in both samples. That is, the plots of regression lines confirmed the forms of interactions as shown in Figure 1. For the joint venture sample, the beta coefficients for the high and low trust group were .08 and -.37, respectively. For the SOE sample, they were -.07 and .23. For job performance, as expected, no significant relationship was found for the joint venture sample. For the SOE sample, the interaction term was statistically significant and the beta coefficients for the high trust and low trust group were -.13 and .11, respectively. These results provide support to both hypotheses 1 and 2.

Insert Table 3 about here.

5. Discussion

In understanding the effects of job insecurity on organizational outcomes, the social exchange theory is a very useful perspective. According to this perspective, employees will withdraw their efforts and commitment as an exchange to the employers' failure in providing job security. In this study, we argue that employees' responses to job insecurity will also depend on the consequences. If some types of responses can lead to large and important enough rewards, employees will choose those responses. We labeled this as the instrumental perspective. The differential relationships among job insecurity, trust in organization, job performance and organizational behaviors in a joint venture and a SOE in China provide support to these two perspectives. Specifically, in the joint venture sample, there is no clear reward for increasing organizational citizenship behaviors as a response to the threat of job loss. Thus, for those employees who have little trust in their organization, job insecurity has a negative impact on organizational citizenship behaviors. For job performance, as it may be one of the criteria for lay-off decisions, employees will maintain their performance level to avoid increasing their chance of being laid off. In the SOE sample, there are clear rewards for increasing both organizational citizenship behaviors and job performance as a response to the threat of job loss. Thus, for those employees who have little trust in their organization, they will try to improve

their job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors when facing job insecurity. In so doing, even if they were laid off, they could bargain for a better after lay-off arrangements.

Results of this study have both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, although the social exchange and instrumental perspectives may make different prediction about the exact relationship between job insecurity and organizational outcomes, they should not be regarded as competing theories. Instead, they are supplementary in identifying different forces that determine employees' actual responses to the threat of job insecurity. The social exchange perspective concentrates on the psychological drives in light of violation of psychological contract while the instrumental perspective identifies the rational attempts to maximize one's positive gains during an unfavorable situation. Both the psychological and rational forces will determine the actual behavioral reactions to job insecurity. When there were little positive consequences, employees would reduce their efforts and commitment. However, when the positive consequences were large and important enough, employees may overcome their psychological drives and improve their performance and organizational citizenship behaviors. Thus, in understanding job insecurity, researchers may need to integrate both perspectives in making appropriate explanations and predictions.

Practically, results of this study indicate that it is possible to maintain or even improve organizational outcomes even when downsizing is necessary. When downsizing is unavoidable, organizations should try to offer positive consequences (e.g., good recommendations, out placement services, monetary compensation, etc.) contingent on their job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors or other desirable outcomes. Although our findings indicate that in the SOE sample, positive relationships between job insecurity and organizational outcomes were found for employees with low trust in organization, it should not be interpreted as beneficial to the organization by lowering employees' trust. Instead, this should be interpreted as the necessity to ensure employees' believe about the relationship between their improvement in desirable organizational outcomes and the positive consequences. In the SOE sample, employees with high trust in organization did not think that it is necessary to improve their job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors in order to get better after lay-off arrangements. Thus, instead of lowering employees' trust, organizations should raise the trust level of their employees in offering better arrangements if employees can produce desirable organizational outcomes.

Finally, two important limitations of this study must be noted. First, although we chose the joint venture and SOE sample carefully, we did not actually manipulate the conditions of the two organizations. Also, we could not randomly assign respondents into the two organizational situations and we need to control potential differences of the two samples by measuring the controlling variables and entered them into the regression analyses. This study has utilized the specific situation in Chinese joint venture and SOE to test the two perspectives. More persuasive evidence may be provided if future study can use true experimental design in examining the relative or even interactive effects of psychological drives and instrumental incentives on employees' reactions to job insecurity.

Second, this study concentrates on the effects of job insecurity on job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors. Employees' health and well being under the threat of job loss were not investigated. When organizations offer important incentives and make them contingent on desirable organizational outcomes in job insecurity situation, it is unclear whether

this will have detrimental effects on employees' health and well being. Future research may be conducted to investigate this issue.

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Table 1. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Variables for Joint Venture Sample

	Mean (S.D.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. OCB	3.64 (.36)	(.77)									
2. PERFORMANCE	3.67 (.55)	.30**	(.81)								
3. TRUST	3.53 (.60)	.30**	.11	(.79)							
4. JOB INSECURITY	2.98 (.75)	.18**	.02	.35**	(.72)						
5. OC	3.44 (.54)	.21**	.04	.44**	.36**	(.74)					
6. PJ	3.29 (.76)	.19**	.03	.33**	.19**	.14*	(.71)				
7. TENURE.	4.39 (3.28)	.22**	.05	-.04	.12*	.01	.06	--			
8. POSTITION	3.92 (.53)	-.24**	-.10	-.17**	-.11	-.10	-.11	-.31**	--		
9. GENDER	1.63 (.48)	.15*	.03	.09	-.10	-.03	.03	-.04	-.01	--	
10. MARITAL STATUS	1.38 (.49)	.20**	.07	.20**	.15*	.10	.03	.39**	-.18**	.12*	--

Note: OCB=Organizational Citizenship Behavior; OC=Affective Organizational Commitment;
 PJ=Procedural Justice;
 Coefficient alphas for multiple-item measures are reported in the diagonals; For Gender, male is coded as 1
 while female as 2;
 For Marital Status, married is coded as 1 while single as 2; N=295; *p<.05; **p<.01

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Variables for S.O.E. Sample

	Mean (S.D.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. OCB	3.97 (.57)	(.70)									
2. PERFORMANCE	3.68 (.63)	.62**	(.86)								
3. TRUST	3.56 (.70)	.18**	.05	(.89)							
4. JOB INSECURITY	3.14 (.78)	.16*	.10	.44**	(.81)						
5. OC	3.76 (.50)	.19**	.11	.45**	.32**	(.76)					
6. PJ	3.25 (.90)	.17**	.16*	.46**	.17**	.14*	(.86)				
7. TENURE	10.01 (54.46)	-.05	-.05	-.01	.02	.03	-.04	--			
8. POSTITION	3.71 (1.13)	-.08	.00	.22**	.07	-.03	.02	-.07	--		
9. GENDER	1.42 (.52)	-.12	-.06	-.16**	-.06	.04	-.13*	-.04	-.14*	--	
10. MARITAL STATUS	1.59 (.49)	.09	.05	-.06	-.13*	.21**	-.02	.10	-.30**	.21**	--

Note: OCB=Organizational Citizenship Behavior; OC=Affective Organizational Commitment; PJ=Procedural Justice;

Coefficient alphas for multiple-item measures are reported in the diagonals; For Gender, male is coded as 1 while female as 2;

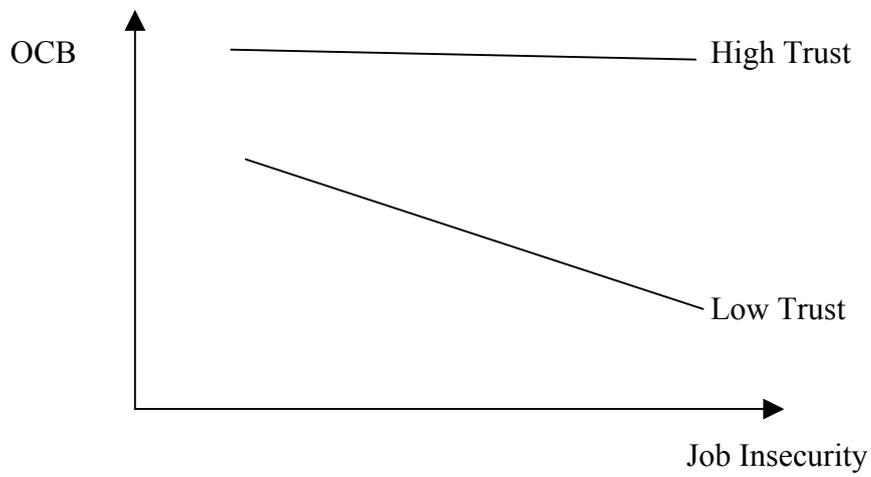
For Marital Status, married is coded as 1 while single as 2; N=295; *p<.05; **p<.01

Table 3. Results of Moderated Regression Analysis

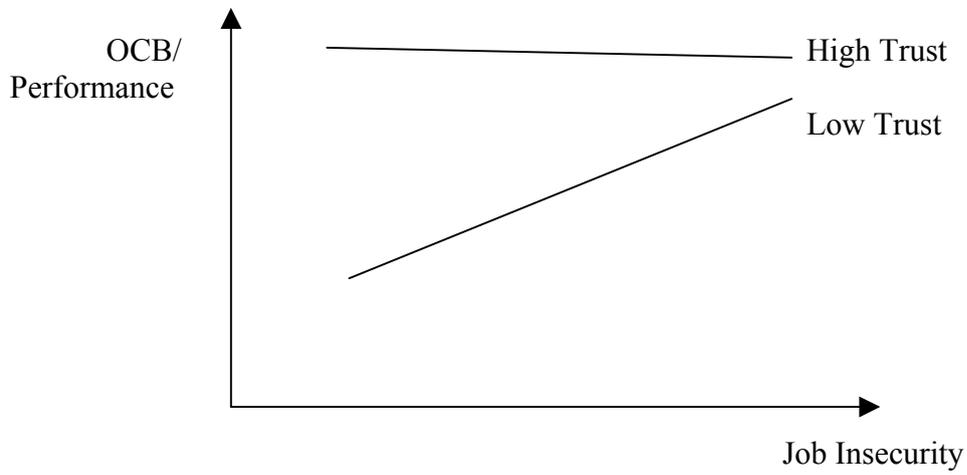
Independent Variable	OCB (Joint Venture)			OCB (S.O.E.)			Performance (Joint Venture)			Performance (S.O.E.)		
	β	R ²	ΔR^2	β	R ²	ΔR^2	β	R ²	ΔR^2	β	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1		.188**	.188**		.106*	.106*		.023	.023		.082*	.082*
Gender	.139*			-.09			.014			-.064		
Marital Status	.042			.143			.030			.103		
Tenure	.150*			-.072			.017			-.053		
Position	-.123*			-.076			-.063			.058		
Organizational Commitment	.085			.068			-.015			.092		
Procedural Justice	.048			.124			-.037			.253**		
Job Insecurity	-.688*			.692*			-.521			.600*		
Trust in Management	-.258			.567*			-.173			.331		
Step 2		.202**	.014*		.127**	.021*		.029	.006		.101*	.019*
Job Security x Trust in Management	.994*			-.937*			.669			-.895*		

Note: N (Joint Venture)=295; N (S.O.E.)=253; *p<.05; **p<.01.

Figure 1. Hypothesized Relationship among OCB, Trust in Management and Job Security



(a) Hypothesized Relationships in Joint Ventures



(b) Hypothesized Relationships in S.O.E.