

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale: Syrian Experience

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Abstract: The purpose of this study is to test whether the original form of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), which was documented in the study of Smith *et al.*, (1983), is reliable and valid for the working conditions of the private insurance sector during the wartime in Syria. To this end, we used Cronbach's alpha for checking the reliability and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) for checking the model fitting and the validity including the convergent and discriminant validity. The findings reveal a shorter version of OCB completely fitting the working conditions of the private insurance companies in Syria. This would virtually help the organisation to identify the most functional OCBs and to develop the tools promoting such behaviours during the difficult times. Disclosing the differences between the main and potential scale of OCB were discussed. Limitations and implications were also demonstrated in this study.

Keywords: *Organisational citizenship behaviour, confirmatory factor analysis, reliability, validity, private insurance companies, Syria, wartime.*

Introduction

Nearly four decades ago, Smith *et al.*, (1983) identified the concept of OCB. Since then, the literature has increasingly dominated on this topic. Brief and Motowidlo (1986) affirmed that OCB represents a functional prosocial Behaviour, while Organ (1988) finds OCB as a discretionary Behaviour that fosters the performance of an organisation and its members alike. In fact, OCB has been identified in various forms by virtually everyone who has worked in this area (e.g., Smith *et al.*, 1983; Farh *et al.*, 1990; Williams and Anderson, 1991; Niehoff and Moorman, 1993; Podsakoff *et al.*, 1997; Argentero *et al.*, 2008; Spector *et al.*, 2010; Thompson, 2015). This continuously growing interest in OCB might be attributed to the reason that the academic and professional communities have begun to realise the importance of the outcomes OCB involves. This is especially true for the Syrian experience where the HR managers of private insurance companies found that the pro-role behaviours, which are not contractually rewarded, would indirectly contribute to the organisational effectiveness and keep on the organisational survival.

On the one hand, Turnipseed and Murkison (2000) have claimed that national and organisational cultures appear to be significant determinants of OCB. Farh *et al.*, (2004), for example, have shown that Chinese formulation of OCB differs from that in the West, and is embedded in its unique social and cultural context. This drives one to believe that the prevailing forms of OCB in the Western literature might not necessarily fit the Eastern working conditions. In fact, one should not overlook the fact that the other societies have their own work ethic and culture. We, therefore, argue that the form of OCB, which was first developed by Smith *et al.*, (1983) and conducted in the banking sector in U.S., might not be completely valid for the working conditions of the private insurance sector in Syria. It seemed worthwhile to explore the version of OCB during the wartime in Syria and to disclose the reasons of the differences between the original and potential scales of OCB. This would, in return, help organisations to identify the most functional citizenship behaviors and to develop the tools

promoting such behaviours during difficult times. In this respect, we scanned all the databases of Web of Science using the following keywords: organisational citizenship behaviour, Arab, Syria, OCB scale, insurance, service sector, and business sector. We found that little is known about the formulation of OCB in Arab research community, but none of those studies aimed to develop a scale of OCB during the wartime in Syria.

Literature Review

During the great depression in the 1930s, the concept of "willingness to cooperate" has been clearly appeared in the work of Barnard (1938). Later, Katz (1964) somehow expressed this concept in three main behavioural patterns i.e., joining and staying in the organisation, meeting or exceeding the specific standard of performance and behaviours that go beyond specified role requirements. In the early of eighties of the last century, Smith *et al.*, (1983) presented the third pattern in a way revealing first the concept of OCB. They reported that there are at least two main kinds of OCB i.e. altruism and generalised compliance. Drawing on Barnard's concept of the "willingness to cooperate" and Katz's work, Organ (1988, p. 4) defined OCB as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation". According to Organ, discretionary behaviour means the behaviour which is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description. In other words, it is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable. Organ (1988), in turn, has classified the concept of OCB into five kinds i.e. altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue. While altruism benefits another individual, generalised compliance benefits the group as a whole. It is worth to note here that courtesy is much like altruism and civic virtue is much like generalised compliance and conscientiousness while sportsmanship is defined as a willingness on the part of employees to tolerate less than ideal circumstance without complaining and making problems seems bigger than they actually are. Furthermore, Brief and Motowidlo (1986), who identified first the concept of prosocial organisational behaviours, have indicated that altruism and generalised compliance are important kinds of prosocial organisational behaviours. They, however, have categorised altruism as prosocial organisational behaviour toward individual and generalised compliance as prosocial organisational behaviour toward organisation. Using a similar approach in terms of description of OCB, Williams and Anderson (1991) have labelled altruism as Organisational Citizenship Behaviour toward Individual (OCB-I) and generalised compliance as Organisational Citizenship Behaviour toward Organisation (OCB-O). In addition, Graham (1991) defined the generalised compliance as organisational obedience, while Organ (1988) termed it as conscientiousness.

On the one hand, several studies have devoted an increasing amount of attention to the consequences of OCB. Martinez and Tindale (2015) have indicated that helping behaviour, civic virtue and sportsmanship predict team performance. They reported that helping behaviour was the strongest predictor of OCB. Meanwhile, Braun *et al.*, (2013) have examined the impact of OCB on unit/team/firm-level measures of performance. They found that with a higher level of OCB, the quality of tasks increases, the tasks are completed within the given budget and according to the time schedule and the overall project success increases. Within similar context, Podsakoff *et al.*, (2009) have concluded that there is a strong relationship between engaging in OCB and improving the performance of the organisation, decreasing the costs and increasing the customers' satisfaction. In addition, Coyne and Ong (2007) have shown that sportsmanship negatively predicts turnover intention and reported that Malaysian employees exhibit more OCBs than German or English employees. Moreover, Lefkowitz (2000) have noted that engaging in OCB positively affects the evaluation process of the employees by their supervisors by rewarding them. Interestingly, Turnipseed and Murkison (2000) have revealed that with a higher level of OCB in the United States and Romania, the productivity increases in both countries but the links between OCB and productivity were stronger in U.S. As well,

Chen *et al.*, (1998) have deduced that subordinates who were rated by supervisor with low levels of OCB were more likely to leave an organisation in China than those who were rated with high levels of OCB. Over and above, Podsakoff *et al.*, (1997) have demonstrated that OCBs (especially helping behaviour and sportsmanship) influence the quantity of workgroup performance, while only sportsmanship effects on performance quality. Besides, Organ (1990) has indicated that OCB improves the performance of a member of the organisation.

On the other hand, Spitzmuller and Van Dyne (2013) have stated that the literature of OCB generally addresses two prominent approaches in the context of the antecedents of OCB: Social Exchange Theory (SET), an approach which means that employees engage in OCB to reciprocate positive treatment received from co-worker, supervisor or the organisation, and functional motives theory, an approach which emphasizes fulfilment of individual needs as a primary driver of helping. Using a critical review, Podsakoff *et al.*, (2000) have argued that there are four main groups of antecedents of OCB (including employee characteristics such as moral and dispositional factors, task characteristics, organisational characteristics, and leadership behaviours. In this respect, Organ and Ryan (1995) have underlined that the moral factor of the employee characteristics includes organisational justice, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment, while the dispositional factor includes the personality traits like agreeableness and conscientiousness. In this regard, several studies have demonstrated that these variables of employees characteristics (including employee attitudes ‘moral factor’ and dispositional variables) and leadership behaviors are most frequently considered by OCB researchers (cf. Podsakoff *et al.*, 2014; Arthaud-Day, Rode, and Turnley, 2012; LePine *et al.*, 2002; organ and Ryan, 1995). It seems worthwhile to shed some light on the relationships between these variables and OCB.

Lv *et al.*, (2012), for example, have argued that there is a positive relationship between organisational justice and each of altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. Interestingly, Elamin and Tlaiss (2015) have shown that interactional justice influences various dimensions of OCB (including courtesy, civic virtue, and altruism) in Arabian context, while Cheung (2013) has found that interpersonal and informational of organisational justice influence OCB-I and OCB-O in Hong Kong. Furthermore, Jain (2015) has claimed that personal development of the volunteerism, one of the motives of the volunteerism, predicts OCB in the Indian context. Foote and Li-Ping Tang (2008), on the one hand, have provided evidence that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB, as is the relationship between team commitment and OCB. They claimed that the first relationship was stronger when team commitment was high. Over and above, Koning and Van Kleef (2015) have argued that leaders' emotional displays play a role in encouraging or discouraging OCB. Their findings indicate that expressions of anger may hamper the motivation to perform OCB. With regard to both of conscientiousness and agreeableness, both are frequently addressed by many OCB scholars as predictors of OCB. Ilies *et al.*, (2009) argued that conscientiousness and agreeableness are two common predictors of citizenship. They found that conscientiousness was more closely related with OCB-O and agreeableness with OCB-I.

Hypothesis Development

Within the context of the above discussion, one could conclude that OCB plays an essential role in the organisational effectiveness and its formulation could be influenced by cultural settings. This would drive one to argue that OCB can take different forms within different contexts. More specifically, one could believe that the prevailing scales of OCB in the Western literature do not necessarily fit the Arab working conditions. We, therefore, suppose that the original model of OCB, that Smith *et al.*, (1983) developed, might not completely fit the working conditions of the private insurance companies in Syria. However, many of readers are avid to keep up with the developments in the domain of OCB especially during the wartime in Syria. Accordingly, this study tests the following main hypothesis:

Research Hypothesis: the original model of OCB, that Smith *et al.*, (1983) first coined, is not completely valid for the working conditions of the private insurance companies during wartime in Syria.

Methodology

Sample and Sampling

This study was conducted in the private insurance sector in the capital of Syria, Damascus, where there are twelve private insurance companies still work. Eight of which participated in this study. We could not restrict the target population in full (e.g., getting name lists, emails) because of the policies adopted by the private insurance companies and the Syrian Insurance Supervisory Commission (SISC) during the wartime. We, however, followed the study of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) to well determine the sample size. According to the annual report of SISC-2015, the target population of this study included (559) employees. This represents the majority of all the employees working in the private insurance companies in Syria that numbered (873) employees. By agreement, we could pass on (378) questionnaires using convenience sampling, but (234) of which were valid for statistical analysis. This would yield a response rate of (61.9 per cent) and this rate is good for management and behavioural sciences (Babbie, 1995. p. 262). On the one hand, respondent characteristics show the diversity in the sample of this study. For example, the sample states that (61.1 per cent; 143) are men, while (38.9 per cent, 91) are women. Also, the majority of respondents (69.7 per cent, 163) are between 25-34 years old. Furthermore, the sample shows that there are (67.1 per cent; 157) respondents have a bachelor's degree and (40.2 and 37.2 per cent; 94 and 87) of the sample size have records of service between 6-10 and 1-5, respectively. Table 1 describes the sample in detail.

Table1 : Sample Descriptive

| Variable | Options | Frequency | Percent |
|------------------------|------------|-------------|---------|
| Gender | Male | 143 | 61.1 |
| | Female | 91 | 38.9 |
| Age | 15-24 | 23 | 9.8 |
| | 25-34 | 163 | 69.7 |
| | 35-44 | 37 | 15.8 |
| | 45-54 | 10 | 4.3 |
| | 55-64 | 1 | .4 |
| | Experience | No | 2 |
| Experience | < One year | 24 | 10.3 |
| | 1-5 | 87 | 37.2 |
| | 6-10 | 94 | 40.2 |
| | > 10 | 27 | 11.5 |
| | Education | High School | 20 |
| Intermediate Institute | | 36 | 15.4 |
| University's degree | | 157 | 67.1 |

Data Collection Instrument

We used the original OCB scale, which was coined by Smith *et al.*, (1983), and followed the works of Brislin (1971) and Hazzi and Maldaon (2015) for back-translation (Arabic questionnaire available upon request). We used this scale because of its strong psychometric prosperities, length, and self-reporting adaptability. However, we reworded the items of the scale to allow employees to self-report. The used scale was measured with a 16-item, 5-point Likert-type scale that asked the respondents to express the extent of their agreement or disagreement with a series of statements regarding the dimension of altruism (e.g., "help others who have been absent", "volunteers for things that are not required"), and the dimension of generalised compliance (e.g., "attendance at work is above normal", "give advance notice if unable to come to work"). It is useful here to note that the literature indicates that there is no significant difference between five and seven-point Likert scales and there are only small differences between five-point Likert scale and the higher ratings (Dawes, 2008). However, a pilot study was conducted before embarking the main work to determine how well the research instrument works. In addition, self-rating of OCB was used rather than supervisor or co-workers rating. We tend to agree with the study of Folger and Greenberg (1985) which implies that rating the employees themselves increases the belief that the company's staff appraisal system characterized by integrity. In this respect, the literature indicates that there is no a significant difference between self-rating and other-rating of OCB (Carpenter *et al.*, 2014; Staufenbiel and Hartz, 2000).

The Procedures

We conducted pre-tests for handling the missing data. This would lead the researcher about the sound method to handle the problem of missing data. Even though the calculated missing values percentage was (0.684 per cent) less than (5 per cent), which is considered as the strict percentage to determine the problematic of missing values (Schafer, 1999), we conducted little's MCAR test to check the patterns of missing value and to adopt the best method to handle missing values. The initial findings showed that missing data took a form of Missing At Random (MAR). We, therefore, used Expectation and Maximization algorithm (EM method). We also conducted the following ways to check the normality (including comparing mean, median and mode, using skewness and kurtosis and examining the histogram). However, we followed the study of Curran *et al.*, (1996) to check the values of skewness and kurtosis. They proposed a recommendation of substantial departure from normality as an absolute skewness value < 2 and an absolute kurtosis < 7 . In addition, we conducted Cronbach's alpha to check the reliability of the OCB scale and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to check the model fitting and its validity including the convergent and discriminant validity.

Findings

The findings reveal that the overall Cronbach's alpha is (0.724), while the Cronbach's alpha of altruism and generalised compliance are (0.709) and (0.616), respectively. The following tables 2, and 3 show the values of Cronbach's alpha in details (including corrected item-total correction and the value of Cronbach's alpha if item deleted). These values are acceptable criteria (Nunnally, 1978; Hair *et al.*, 2010) and indicate to high reliability (Griffiee, 2012). Reid (1990) claimed that (0.7) is an appropriate value of reliability for questionnaire-based studies. In this regard, it is worth noting that the column of "corrected item-total correlation" in each table is considered the key to determining the possibility of deleting items. However, it would be better to not delete items including value less than (0.2), the value used widely for big samples (see Hazzi and Maldaon, 2015), especially when using CFA. Moreover, deleting items in this stage would be misleading. For example, the Cronbach's alpha of the item of (QOCBA12) would be (0.704) if item deleted, but its value of corrected item-total correlation

(0.423) is more than (0.2). That is, the issue here is rather a matter of checking again the reliability of the scale and showing the potential items which would be deleted later.

Table 2: Cronbach's alpha of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

| Items of OCB | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Cronbach's alpha if Item Deleted |
|--------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| QOCBA1 | .228 | .721 |
| QOCBGC2 | .407 | .705 |
| QOCBA3 | .359 | .707 |
| QOCBGC4RS* | .291 | .714 |
| QOCBA5 | .329 | .710 |
| QOCBGC6 | .147 | .733 |
| QOCBA7 | .408 | .703 |
| QOCBGC8RS* | .265 | .717 |
| QOCBGC9 | .335 | .709 |
| QOCBGC10RS* | .272 | .716 |
| QOCBGC11 | .246 | .722 |
| QOCBA12 | .423 | .704 |
| QOCBA13 | .326 | .711 |
| QOCBGC14 | .331 | .710 |
| QOCBA15 | .489 | .696 |
| QOCBGC16 | .423 | .700 |

* Reversed item

Table 3: Cronbach's alpha of Altruism and Generalised Compliance

| Dimensions | Items | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Cronbach's alpha if Item Deleted |
|-------------------------------|------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Altruism | QOCBA1 | .176 | .744 |
| | QOCBA3 | .514 | .650 |
| | QOCBA5 | .455 | .666 |
| | QOCBA7 | .492 | .657 |
| | QOCBA12 | .362 | .689 |
| | QOCBA13 | .421 | .676 |
| | QOCBA15 | .577 | .637 |
| Generalised Compliance | QOCBGC2 | .407 | .573 |
| | QOCBGC4RS | .421 | .557 |
| | QOCBGC6 | .022 | .665 |
| | QOCBGC8RS | .324 | .581 |
| | QOCBGC9 | .347 | .577 |
| | QOCBGC10RS | .284 | .592 |

| | | |
|----------|------|------|
| QOCBGC11 | .269 | .599 |
| QOCBGC14 | .364 | .570 |
| QOCBGC16 | .381 | .568 |

On the one hand, we used IBM SPSS AMOS V21 to perform CFA taking into account two main steps (including model fitting and checking the validity). Generally, Chi-squared (χ^2) is considered a traditional way of absolute fit indices to check the model fitting, but it is affected by the sample size (Jöreskog, 1969). Thus, we followed the study of Hu and Bentler (1999) to check the model fitting using the following metrics [Root Mean Square Error Approximate (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)]. The preliminary results of CFA showed that the overall OCB scale should be improved. We therefore had to delete some items from the two sub-scales of OCB. The results reported that (RMSEA = 0.039, CFI = 0.971 and TLI = 0.959), while chi-squared in terms of degrees of freedom (CMIN/DF = 1.354) with a p-value is less than (5 per cent).

Consequently, (Fig. 1) represents the most appropriate model of OCB and shows that all of the factor loadings > (0.3). According to Spector (1992), the values of factor loading (0.3 or 0.35) are acceptable thresholds. Unlike Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), CFA takes into account the measurement errors. This, in turn, supports using these values in this case. The figure also shows a strong correlation between the altruism and generalised compliance ($r = 0.49$). These two dimensions explain variance in items. For example, altruism explains about (29 per cent) of the variance in the statement number 3 (QOCBA3), while explains about (68 per cent) of the variance in the statement number 15 (QOCBA15). In addition, generalised compliance explains about (22 per cent) of the variance in the statement number 2 (QOCBGC2), while explains about (50 per cent) of the variance in the statement number 16 (QOCBGC16). Table 4, however, shows the values of factor loadings and the squared multiple correlation (R^2).

Table 4: Factor Loadings and Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2)

| Items* | Altruism | | Generalised Compliance | |
|----------|----------|-----------------|------------------------|-----------------|
| | R^2 | Factor Loadings | R^2 | Factor Loadings |
| QOCBA3 | 0.29 | 0.54 | | |
| QOCBA5 | 0.36 | 0.69 | | |
| QOCBA7 | 0.46 | 0.68 | | |
| QOCB12 | 0.14 | 0.37 | | |
| QOCBA13 | 0.24 | 0.49 | | |
| QOCBA15 | 0.68 | 0.82 | | |
| QOCBGC2 | | | 0.22 | 0.47 |
| QOCBGC9 | | | 0.32 | 0.57 |
| QOCBGC14 | | | 0.22 | 0.47 |
| QOCBGC16 | | | 0.50 | 0.71 |

Factor loadings (≥ 0.3).

*Acronyms are explained in the appendix 1.

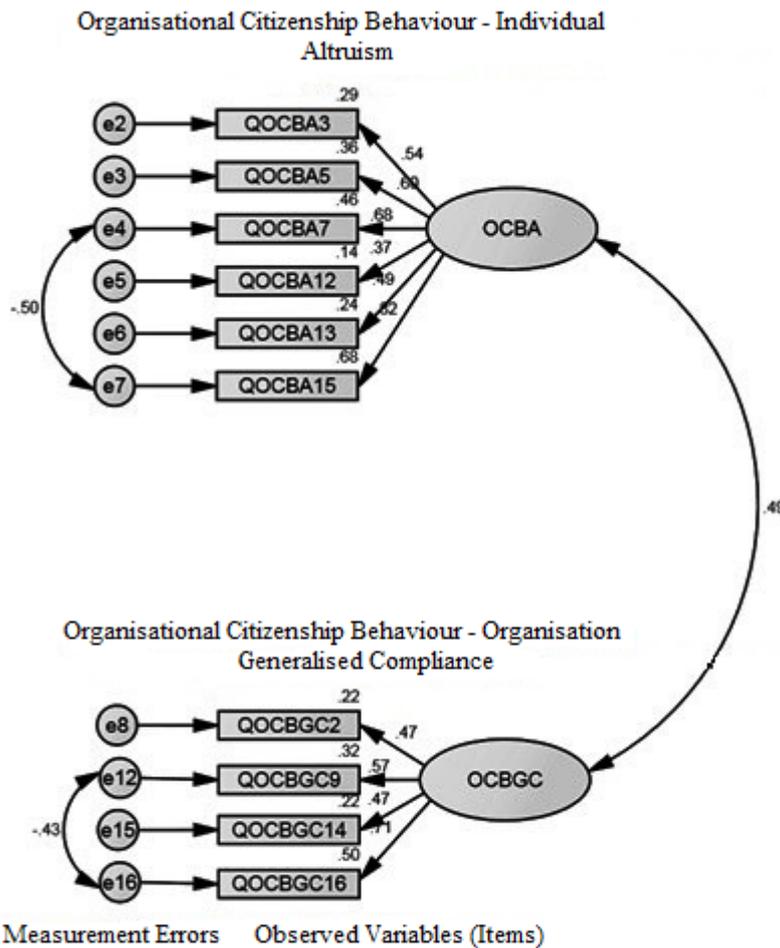


Figure 1: The New Model of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour ($p < 0.001$)

On the other hand, this study followed Hair *et al.* (2010) and Fornell and Larcker (1981) to check the construct validity of the scale by conducting the convergent and discriminant validity. Hair *et al.* (2010) argued that there are effective ways to check the convergent validity (e.g., factor loading $> (0.3)$, Composite Reliability (CR) $> (0.7)$, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) $> (0.5)$ and $CR > AVE$). On one hand, they argued that Maximum Shared Square Variance (MSV) and Average Shared Square Variance (ASV) are two ways to check the discriminant validity (e.g., $ASV < AVE$; $MSV < AVE$). However, table 5 reveals the results of checking the convergent and discriminant validity of the scale of OCB.

Table 5: Convergent and Discriminant Validity of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

| Organisational Citizenship Behaviour | CR | AVE | MSV | ASV | OCBA | OCBGC |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Altruism (coded as OCBA) | 0.761 | 0.362 | 0.240 | 0.240 | | |
| Generalised Compliance (coded as OCBGC) | 0.643 | 0.320 | 0.240 | 0.240 | 0.240 | |

The table shows that the sub-scales of OCB well meet the convergent and discriminant validity even though the values of AVE less than (5 per cent). Fornell and Larcker (1981) claimed that when ($AVE < 0.5$, but $CR > 0.6$), the convergent validity of the construct is still adequate.

Discussion

Limitations and Implications

One could debate that the extent to which the results obtained in this study can be generalised to Arab society is a difficult issue. Despite this caveat, the findings here argue for a model of OCB in which is reliable and valid for the private insurance sector during the wartime in Syria. In fact, the new model of this study can fulfill the need of HR managers of the private insurance companies to measure to which extent their subordinates engage in OCB. In other words, the HR managers could adopt the new model to separately/overall measure altruism and generalised compliance at their subordinates. This would eventually help the organisation to focus on the most functional OCBs and to develop the tools which would enhance such behaviours during the difficult times. From the perspective of management practices, we suggest that HR managers that wish to stimulate OCB should take GRID strategy of HRM into account (see Hazzi, 2016) and develop sound working conditions which would secure engaging in OCBs (e.g., job satisfaction, organisational justice, and cultural settings). Walz and Niehoff (2000) indicated that developing a work environment that promotes OCB performance may enhance a manager's personal productivity and success as well as the organisation's effectiveness.

Other possible limitations are the sample and sampling where convenience sample and non-probability sampling were used in this study. We suggest that future studies follow probability sampling by using, for example, systematic or stratified random samples. Within this context, possible implications for future research, though we argue that such thing needs empirical support, would be to use the new model in different sectors have similar activities (e.g., banking sector) and to adopt measurement invariance (i.e., factorial invariance) as a way to test whether the model is interpreted in a conceptually similar manner by different respondents in other service sectors. It also seemed worthwhile to investigate other types of the discretionary behaviours during the difficult times in order to identify the most behaviours functional for the organisational effectiveness. We tend to argue that the strong relationships between the measurement errors within an item would lead the further research about the potential models. For example, inserting items 7 and 15 of altruism dimension within one statement would help a researcher to develop a new model of OCB. Ultimately, we believe that the research community may experience in the future that the people will be evaluated on the value that they contribute to an organisation instead of their cost to the organisation. We suggest conducting works which would unveil the most organisational factors influencing OCB and help the organisation to better understand such behaviour.

On the one hand, many researchers debate that using self-rating of OCB could be considered as a limitation, though we believe that this way would increase the belief that the company's staff appraisal system characterized by integrity and there is no a significant difference between self-rating and other-rating of OCB as several previous studies mentioned (Folger and Greenberg, 1985; Carpenter *et al.*, 2014; Staufenbiel and Hartz, 2000). However, we suggest that future studies use other-rating of OCB (e.g., co-worker or supervisor rating). Furthermore, one could argue that this study only used Web of Science. We, therefore, find that it would be worth that future studies use other databases like EBSCO and Scopus to check the other relevant studies.

Executive Summary

As expected, the version of OCB, that Smith *et al.*, (1983) first coined, is not completely valid for the working conditions of the private insurance companies during wartime in Syria. As indicated in (Fig. 1), the new model of OCB works better than the original one during the wartime in Syria. That is, the model of OCB Smith *et al.*, (1983) developed is not tenable. The evidence here is more consistent with the idea that the prevailing forms of OCB in the Western literature do not necessarily fit the Arab working conditions. This is consistent to some extent with previous studies (Farh *et al.*, 2004; Organ, 2000). They demonstrated that Chinese

formulation of OCB differs from its Western counterparts. In this study, one could obviously conclude that the model of OCB in this study represents a shorter version from that in the study of Smith *et al.*, (1983), but what is harder to explain is the difference between the two scales. A reasonable reason can be traced back to the statistical issues (e.g., overstatement by the employees when rating themselves). This is especially true for the item "help others who have been absent". In fact, the literature and experience indicate that helping behaviour is rooted in the Arab working culture even if that is not required and attribute that to values dominant in Arab societies, like cohesiveness and self-respect (Wilkins, 2001). Nevertheless, the new model of this study did not report that item. Within this context, we also concluded that the working conditions play an essential role in the new model of OCB. For example, we reported that some employees did not support the item "do not take unnecessary time off work" because they claimed that the hard situations in Syria drove companies to adopt a different system of vacations. This supports somehow the findings of Organ (2000). He argued that the formulation of OCB is embedded in its social and cultural contexts. Furthermore, Paine and Organ (2000) suggested that different cultures/nations may lead to evaluate the OCB differently. A recent study noted that working conditions influence the degree to which employees feel on edge attributed to engaging in OCB (Bolino *et al.*, 2015). However, it is useful to note here that the concept of OCB has not been adequately researched in the Arab literature. This would drive to believe that the employees working in the private insurance companies are not aware enough or do not have enough experience regarding OCB. Thus, it is not surprising that the new model of OCB in this study differs from the original one.

In a nutshell, Smith *et al.*, (1983) is considered the main reference for many OCB studies, but their OCB model is not always tenable. This is specifically true during the difficult times such as wartime. Simple, OCB can take different forms within different contexts. Therefore, what is hoped for is to expand research on OCB from different perspectives and in different contexts.

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Appendix 1: The New Model of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*

Strongly
agree
Agree
Neutral
Disagree
Strongly
disagree

-
1. Punctuality (QOCBGC2)
 2. Volunteer to perform tasks that are not required (QOCBA3)
 3. Orient new employees even though it is not required (QOCBA5)
 4. Help the others who have heavy workloads (QOCBA7)
 5. Give advance notice if unable to come to work (QOCBGC9)
 6. Assist supervisor with his or her work (QOCBA12)
 7. Make innovative suggestions to improve department (QOCBA13)
 8. Do not take extra breaks (QOCBGC14)
 9. Attend functions not required but that help company image (QOCBA15)
 10. Do not spend time in unavailing conversation (QOCBGC16)
-

Source: Items were taken from Smith *et al.*, (1983).

Note: *Acronyms ending with the letters (A) and (GC) indicate to the terms of "Altruism" and "Generalised Compliance" respectively. This new model completely fits the working conditions of the private insurance companies during the wartime in Syria.