Organisational Citizenship Behaviour: Conditional, Gendered, Obligatory, Silently Mandatory? An Examination of the Moderating Effect of Gender in the Relationship Between Income, Pay Satisfaction and OCB

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This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works, of other people has been attributed, cited and referenced.

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Abstract

The research presented in this dissertation explores the relationships between income, pay satisfaction, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) among women and men in low to middle-income employment. A descriptive research design was implemented using secondary, cross-sectional survey data (N = 1,566). The dataset included participants from each South African province. Per province, the number of participants was proportionate to the percentage of South Africa's population living there. The results indicated that differently to the expected two OCB dimensions, three OCB dimensions emerged: OCB-I (helping behaviour toward individuals), OCB-O (an absence of unproductive work behaviours which would harm the organisation), and OCB-I-O (consideration behaviours towards individuals and the organisation). As hypothesised, income was positively correlated with pay satisfaction, and greater income was related to greater levels of OCB. However, pay satisfaction and OCB were not correlated, and women and men had similar income levels, pay satisfaction, and OCB. Gender did not moderate the relationships between income and OCB, nor between pay satisfaction and OCB. The results highlight that regardless of how satisfied employees are with their pay, it is the actual income amount that is related to OCB. These findings indicate that employers could pay more to increase the chances that employees will perform OCBs that benefit the organisation.

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Table of Contents

1. Introduction 7

1.1. Research Topic, Rationale, and Problem Statement 7

1.2. Research Question 10

2. Literature Review 11

2.1. Conceptualisation 11

2.1.1. Conceptualising Income 11

2.1.2. Conceptualising Pay Satisfaction 11

2.1.3. Conceptualising Gender 12

2.1.4. Conceptualising Organisational Citizenship Behaviour 12

2.2. Theoretical Framework 13

2.2.1. Social Exchange Theory 14

2.2.2. Social Role Theory 18

2.3. Theoretical and Empirical Views on the Relationships Between Income, Pay Satisfaction, OCB, and Gender 19

2.3.1. Income, Pay Satisfaction, and Gender 19

2.3.2. Income, Pay Satisfaction, and OCB 21

2.3.3. Gender Differences in OCB 23

2.3.4. Gender, Income, Pay Satisfaction, and OCB 24

2.4. Hypotheses 27

3. Method 28

3.1. Origin of Empirical Data Used in the Study 28

3.2. Research Design 29

3.3. Sampling and Participants 29

3.4. Procedure 31

3.5. Data Analysis 31

3.6. Ethical Considerations 32

3.7. Measures 33

3.7.1. Gender 33

3.7.2. Income *33*
3.7.3. Pay Satisfaction *34*
3.7.4. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour *34*

4. Results **36**

4.1. Dimensionality and Internal Consistency 36
4.1.1. Pay Satisfaction Item *36*
4.1.2. OCB Scale *37*

4.2. Descriptive Statistics 40
4.2.1. Central Tendencies and Dispersions of Data *40*
4.2.2. Data Distribution *41*

4.3. Inferential Statistics 42
4.3.1. Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between income and pay satisfaction *42*
4.3.2. Hypothesis 2: Women residing in South Africa earn less than men *42*
4.3.3. Hypothesis 3: At equivalent income levels, women have higher pay satisfaction than men *43*
4.3.4. Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between income and OCB *44*
4.3.5. Hypothesis 5: There is a positive relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB *45*
4.3.6. Hypothesis 6: Women exhibit more OCB than men *46*
4.3.7. Hypothesis 7: The relationship between income and OCB is stronger in men than in women *46*
4.3.8. Hypothesis 8: The relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB is stronger in men than in women *48*

5. Discussion **51**

5.1. Main Findings 51
5.1.1. The Relationship Between Income and Pay Satisfaction *51*
5.1.2. Gender Differences in Income and Pay Satisfaction *51*
5.1.3. The Relationships Between Pay Satisfaction, Income, and OCB *52*
5.1.4. Gender Differences in OCB *54*
5.1.5. The Moderating Effect of Gender on the Relationships Between Income, Pay Satisfaction, and OCB *56*

5.2. Limitations 57
5.2.1. Study Design *58*
5.2.2. Use of Existing Data *58*
5.3. Theoretical and Practical Contributions 59
5.4. Directions for Future Research 60
5.5. Answering the Research Question 62
6. Conclusion 63
References 64
Appendix A: Living Wage Survey 74
Appendix B: Supplementary Descriptive Tables 86
Appendix C: Validity Tables 87
Appendix D: Reliability Tables 93
Appendix E: Assessing for Outliers 97
Appendix F: Boxplot Showing Income Outliers 98
Appendix G: Hypothesis 3 Assumption Testing 99
Appendix H: Hypothesis 7 Linearity Assumption 100
Appendix I: Hypothesis 7 Moderation Assumptions 103
Appendix J: Hypothesis 8 Linearity Assumption 106
Appendix K: Hypothesis 8 Moderation Assumptions 109

1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the research topic of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as the central construct of the research presented in this dissertation and provides the study context and rationale. This gives rise to the research question, which is presented at the end of the chapter.

1.1. Research Topic, Rationale, and Problem Statement

The title of this study, "*Organisational Citizenship Behaviour: Conditional, Gendered, Obligatory, Silently Mandatory?*" underscores the complex nature of OCB and the potential influencers shaping its manifestation. This research delves into the conditional aspects of OCB, exploring two potential antecedents: income and pay satisfaction. Further, it explores the gendered influences on OCB, considering whether gender norms silently obligate or mandate women to display OCB. These explorations hold paramount importance within the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology due to the evolving landscape of the discipline. Namely, in contemporary times, organisational success is intricately tied to understanding complex employee behaviours and evoking the most positive, productive behaviours, like OCB, while simultaneously navigating the rapidly changing gender climate encompassing issues such as gender inequality and shifting gender norms.

To unpack this, the roots of Industrial and Organisational Psychology as a discipline of study reach back to the beginning of the 20th century. In the early 1900s, the focus of study was primarily on selecting the appropriate candidates for specific tasks and roles, especially in the military, and increasing efficiency and production in manufacturing environments (Vinchur & Koppes, 2011). The 1920s Hawthorne studies, which were initially designed to examine the relationship between lighting conditions and worker productivity, marked a change to considering more complex behavioural phenomena when the studies evolved to explore the social and psychological factors that influence employee behaviour, such as observation, relationships with supervisors and co-workers, and group dynamics. Still, it was not until the 1970s that aspects such as equity, employee satisfaction, and retention arose, the 1980s that personnel commitment was considered, and the 1990s that employee stress and work-life balance became a focus of study (Vinchur & Koppes, 2011). From the late 20th into the 21st century, awareness of employee behaviour and treatment has been gaining attention, and

organisations are motivated to evoke positive behaviours from their employees that will best serve the success of the organisation (Anderson & Bolino, 2022).

One such positive behaviour is OCB. This is voluntary behaviour performed by employees over and above their formal job description without official recognition or reward that benefits an organisation (Organ, 1988). OCB is valuable to organisations as it can result in positive outcomes such as employee productivity and organisational profitability (Anderson & Bolino, 2022; Podsakoff et al., 2009). Numerous antecedents have been associated with OCB, including employee engagement, organisational commitment, human resource practices, self-efficacy, transformational leadership, organisational culture, and job satisfaction (Ocampo et al., 2018). Further, Johnson and Lake (2019) found that a dimension of job satisfaction, namely pay satisfaction, may also be associated with OCB. Thus, as individuals with higher incomes tend to report greater pay satisfaction, both income and pay satisfaction could influence the extent employees engage in OCB and may deserve more research (Heneman & Judge, 2000; Miceli & Lane, 1991).

While higher salaries come at a considerable cost to organisations, ensuring that employees receive a fair income and feel satisfied with their pay may be one way to extract their full potential and motivate them to display OCB to contribute to the success of the organisation (Johnson & Lake, 2019). Both income and pay satisfaction should thus be of concern to employers because employees who receive lower pay and are less satisfied with their pay may be less likely to "go the extra mile" and display OCBs that benefit the organisation (Johnson & Lake, 2019). Thus, this study may provide a rationale for employers to rethink the compensation they provide their employees and consider how ensuring better employee incomes and pay satisfaction may benefit both employees and the organisation. In this way, remuneration could be reframed to not just be considered a cost to organisations but rather an investment in employees to create a greater behavioural return that may result in greater profitability for the organisation.

Employee pay dissatisfaction may be particularly pertinent in South Africa as pay satisfaction can be influenced by employees comparing their pay with other employees, and statistics indicate South Africa has consistently rated amongst the countries with the highest income inequality (Judge et al., 2010; StatsSA, 2022c). Namely, a small percentage of the population earns high incomes, while most are in the low to middle-income sector. Thus, most South Africans are earning low incomes and judging their incomes compared to higher earners,

which likely impacts their pay satisfaction and behaviour at work. For example, according to Statistics South Africa's (StatsSA, 2023) Quarterly Employment Statistics (QES) report, the average monthly earnings in South Africa in the formal sector, including overtime pay and bonuses, was R26,032. However, hidden in this amount is a high dispersion of wages, with many individuals earning substantially less, some only the national minimum wage, which is the legislated minimum salary of R4,953.09 per month for a 45-hour work week (Bassier, 2023; South African Government, 2023). Thus, as income has shown to be positively related to pay satisfaction and pay satisfaction has shown to be positively related to OCB, it is questionable whether South African lower-income employees, in particular, are paid enough to curb pay dissatisfaction and evoke OCB.

South Africa's gender history may also be complexly intertwined with OCB. Historically, employment opportunities, compensation, and circumstances were unfavourable to women, and women in South Africa still earn 32% less than men (World Economic Forum, 2023). Further, as 42% of households in South Africa are solely headed by women, women often have to support their families alone (StatsSA, 2021). Simultaneously, they are pressured to fulfil their roles according to gender stereotypes and cultural customs, which encompass unpaid homemaking and caregiving (Ainslie & Kepe, 2016). For example, a study by Gordon et al. (2013) found that 55% of employed South African women always care for sick family members despite holding a formal job, compared to 11% of men, and 80% of employed women usually or always prepared household meals, in comparison to 10% of men. An additional 65% of employed women claimed they were solely responsible for household cleaning (Gordon et al., 2013). Insufficient income is thus likely an even more significant issue for women than men, suggesting that women might be less satisfied with their pay and consequently display less OCB. However, research has generally found that women tend to have higher pay satisfaction, even when paid less than men, and tend to engage in more OCB than men, which may reflect how women are culturally socialised to expect and accept less than men and pressured to show helpful behaviour (Guarino & Borden, 2017; Krukowski et al., 2022; Shi et al., 2021; Smith, 2009; Valet, 2018). Consequently, income and pay satisfaction may be less of a motivator to perform OCB for women than they are for men.

The above might suggest gender differences in income, pay satisfaction, and OCB; positive relationships between income and pay satisfaction and OCB; and that the relationships between income and OCB, and pay satisfaction and OCB, are likely moderated by gender, with

the relationships being stronger for men than for women. This led to the following research question being proposed:

1.2. Research Question

How are income, pay satisfaction, and gender related to OCB in low to middle-income employees in South Africa?

Exploring these relationships is important as the results could provide an impetus for South African employers to consider the importance of determining salaries not just in relation to different pay grades but also in a way that creates the greatest behavioural return and, subsequently, greater profitability for the organisation.

In the following chapter (Chapter Two), a review of the available literature is provided to gain an understanding of existing research on the topic and to embed the research in a theoretical framework. Specifically, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959) and social role theory (Eagly, 1987) are used to propose the likely relationships between the study variables. The chapter concludes with the study hypotheses. This is followed by a Methods chapter (Chapter Three), which outlines the procedures that were used in the study. Next, a Results chapter (Chapter Four) presents the psychometric properties of the study scales and the descriptive and inferential statistics. This is followed by a Discussion chapter (Chapter Five), which discusses the results of the statistical analyses in relation to academic literature and the context of the study. Finally, a Conclusion chapter (Chapter Six) concludes the dissertation.

2. Literature Review

The following chapter has four purposes. Firstly, the concepts relevant to this study, income, pay satisfaction, gender, and OCB, are defined (Section 2.1). Secondly, the theoretical framework, which focuses the scope of the research and provides guidance in approaching, conducting, and interpreting the research, is introduced (Section 2.2). Thirdly, an overview of what other studies relevant to the research question have found is provided (Section 2.3). Fourth, supported by the predictions exposed by the findings of existing literature and the theoretical framework, hypotheses are deduced and presented (Section 2.4).

2.1. Conceptualisation

2.1.1. Conceptualising Income

According to Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2023), income can be defined as "a gain or recurrent benefit usually measured in money that derives from capital or labor" and "the amount of such gain received in a period of time." In this study, income is measured in money (South African rand: ZAR) received from an employer in exchange for the goods or services an employee provides over a period of time. The nature of the employment for which income is received is permanent, contract or project-based, full-time or part-time, and the payment schedule is daily, weekly, fortnightly, or monthly.

2.1.2. Conceptualising Pay Satisfaction

Pay satisfaction is commonly understood to be a multidimensional construct that incorporates four dimensions: perceptions on pay level, benefits, raises, and pay administration, and thus requires measurement using multiple-item scales (Heneman & Schwab, 1985). However, pay satisfaction was measured by a single item in this study (see Section 3.7.3.). Thus, for this study, it was more congruent to conceptualise pay satisfaction as a unidimensional continuum that indicates the degree of positive (satisfied) or negative (dissatisfied) feelings employees have toward the pay or compensation they are receiving for their work (Miceli & Lane, 1991). Das and Akhilesh (1993) argued that conceptualising and measuring pay satisfaction as a unidimensional construct is appropriate when individuals receive consolidated amounts of money for their work with few extra benefits or other income avenues, which is likely in this study's low to middle-income sample.

In the unidimensional conceptualisation, pay satisfaction is likely influenced by pay level (income) and employees' perceived discrepancy between what they are receiving relative to what they believe they should be receiving, based upon their efforts and in comparison to others (Adriaans et al., 2023; Judge et al., 2010). Thus, recent research suggests that both absolute pay and relative pay (pay in comparison to an individual's chosen reference group, i.e. colleagues or employees in similar roles in other organisations) influence pay satisfaction levels (Hauret & Williams, 2019; Valet, 2023). Pay satisfaction is generally achieved when current employee pay corresponds with desired pay, and dissatisfaction occurs as these diverge (Adriaans et al., 2023; Schwab & Wallace, 1974).

2.1.3. Conceptualising Gender

The conceptualisation of gender in this study is inclusive of gender-diverse individuals and reflects the current understanding of modern psychology professionals that gender is a non-binary social construct (Cameron & Stinson, 2019; Hyde et al., 2018). Gender is thus self-identified by each individual and not defined by physical characteristics. It is best understood as a multifaceted spectrum that includes genders beyond men and women, such as transgender, gender fluid, gender neutral, and gender non-binary (Hyde et al., 2018). How individuals identify aligns with their unique sense of self and reflects the socially constructed social, cultural, psychological, and behavioural expressions associated with their gender of choice (Cameron & Stinson, 2019; Hyde et al., 2018). Despite this, most individuals in South Africa identify as either female or male and are viewed as such by others based on external characteristics, like physical features, attire, and one's name. For example, the prevalence of transgender and gender non-conforming individuals is estimated only to be 0.3% in South Africa (Tshuma et al., 2021). Consequently, behavioural expectations based on social norms about what it means to be a woman or man influence most individuals' ideas on how women and men should behave.

2.1.4. Conceptualising Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The term OCB was originally coined by Bateman and Organ (1983). They described OCB as discretionary employee behaviour that positively contributes to an organisation and is not formally rewarded or explicitly recognised. While there have been different definitions since, the core principles of OCB refer to voluntary behaviour that indirectly or directly benefits organisations (Tamunomiebi & Onah, 2019). These behaviours can come in many

forms, for example, spending extra time helping colleagues with emotional or work-related matters, taking on additional tasks outside of core responsibilities, or working outside of working hours (Das & Mohanty, 2021). Employees who exhibit OCB appear more willing to "go the extra mile" for the organisation's benefit despite not receiving recognition or rewards for these efforts (Thompson et al., 2020).

Organ (1988) separated the concept of OCB into the dimensions of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Altruism refers to selflessly voluntarily assisting others, courtesy refers to consideration for others that contributes to a positive work environment, conscientiousness refers to rule-following and performing behaviours that go above the minimum requirements of the role, sportsmanship refers to tolerance of less-than-ideal situations without displaying negative behaviours, and civic virtue refers to actively participating in the organisational activities and being positively invested in the organisation's well-being (Organ, 1988). Williams and Anderson (1991) categorised the first two dimensions, altruism and courtesy, into OCB-I, describing OCB that benefits the individual and, subsequently, indirectly benefits the organisation. The latter three dimensions, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue, form part of OCB-O, describing OCB that directly benefits the organisation (Williams & Anderson, 1991). An example of OCB-I could include helping colleagues with heavy workloads, while an example of OCB-O could include having excellent attendance at work.

This study adopts Bateman and Organ's (1983) original definition of OCB with Organ's (1988) OCB dimensions and Williams and Anderson's (1991) distinction between OCB-I and OCB-O for two reasons. Firstly, this conceptualisation has stood the test of time, and while different definitions have emerged since, these core principles have remained. Secondly, secondary data derived from Williams and Anderson's Organizational Citizenship and Task Performance (OCB-TP) scale was used to measure the construct of OCB in this study. Thus, OCB's conceptualisation is aligned with its operationalisation and measurement.

The theoretical framework against which the interrelations between income, pay satisfaction, OCB and gender are understood is outlined in the next section.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

Theoretical frameworks are essential to focus the scope of research and connect it to a body of existing knowledge, providing direction for the approach and interpretation of the

research (Kivunja, 2018). In this study, two psychological theories in combination, form the theoretical framework used to explain why income, pay satisfaction, and gender are likely related to the degree to which an individual displays OCB. These are social exchange theory and role theory, specifically Eagly's (1987) social role theory. Both theoretical approaches are described in the following sections.

2.2.1. Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory explains how cost-benefit exchange processes influence individuals' behaviour when interacting with others. According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), it is best understood as a family of conceptual approaches rather than a specific theory. The first conceptual approaches were developed in the late 1950s and early 1960s. In 1958, Homans proposed that individuals aim to maximise their benefits (rewards) and minimise costs (negatives) in interactions with others. Individuals invest less in relationships when the costs outweigh the benefits. In such cases, they either withhold reciprocal positive behaviours or enact negative behaviours. For example, employees who perceive they are being rewarded unfairly may passively or overtly behave in a manner that does not contribute to organisational success. Additionally, the theory explains how a positive, obligation-driven reciprocal response process also occurs when individuals receive benefits that they perceive as favourable in relation to costs in a relationship. As a result, an expectation of reciprocity can influence how individuals behave towards each other (Cropanzano et al., 2017; Homans, 1958). For example, employees who perceive they are being rewarded favourably may feel obligated to reciprocate with positive behaviours that assist their employers and contribute to organisational success, such as volunteering to work extra hours when needed.

Homans (1958) developed his social exchange theory through observations of individuals' behaviour in groups. He then applied existing psychological principles, such as operant conditioning, to explain these observations and developed his social exchange theory as a theory of individual behaviour. Thibaut and Kelley (1959), who are also part of the group considered to be the founders of social exchange frameworks, used individual-level psychological principles to explain social exchanges through a theory of group behaviour. They further argued that behaviour in social exchanges also reflects an individual's desire to establish superordination over another. For this reason, they considered power and status as additional variables relevant to explaining the nature of social exchanges. Namely, when an individual provides continued favourable exchanges to another to generate an ongoing

dependence on the rewards they offer, they can gain power (Homans, 1974). For example, an employee who consistently performs extra tasks crucial to the organisation's success and "goes the extra mile" at work may, over time, create a dynamic where their employer becomes dependent on their extra contributions. This may lead to the employer valuing the employee more and changing their behaviour to treat the employee accordingly, such as with more respect or promoting them. Thibaut and Kelley (1959) referred to this as obtaining behavioural power. Through behavioural power, an individual can change another individual's behaviour by changing their own. Behavioural power is not static and can vary over time in an exchange-oriented relationship, depending on the rewards each party offers, which fluctuates the degree of power each party obtains (Homans, 1974).

Differently to both Homans and Thibaut and Kelley, Blau (1964) focused on the importance of processes which emerge in social exchanges and on sociological, instead of psychological principles by considering broader social structures and institutions. For example, how an organisation's hierarchical structure establishes a framework for social exchanges. He also added a forward-looking utilitarian perspective on behaviour by considering how not just guaranteed but also anticipated rewards can influence individuals' behaviour. A summary of the premises of each theory is provided in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Commonalities and Differences Between Homans' (1958), Thibaut and Kelley's (1959), and Blau's (1964) Social Exchange Theories

	Homans	Thibaut and Kelley	Blau
Fundamental premise	*Individuals' desire to maximise benefits and reduce costs shapes behaviour in social exchange relationships*		
Additional influences on behaviour	• Reciprocity expectation	• Desire for superordination • Behavioural power	• Social structures • Institutions
Focus	• Individual behaviour	• Behaviour in interactions (groups)	• Processes emerging in interactions
Discipline	• Sociology	• Psychology	• Sociology

As reported by Cropanzano et al. (2017), since the 1960s, social exchange theory has become one of the most influential conceptual approaches in management studies, sociology and social psychology, with other disciplines, such as anthropology, also making use of it. Cropanzano et al. stated that contemporary literature which draws on social exchange theory tends to share the following three premises:

- Social life comprises a series of sequential transactions between at least two participants.
- These transactions are based on reciprocity: Positive actions are repaid through positive responses, and negative actions are repaid through negative responses.
- Sometimes, the relationship between the exchange participants influences the quality of exchanges:
  - Economic exchanges require less trust but more active monitoring.
  - Social exchanges tend to be open-ended and based on trust and flexibility.

This conceptualisation of social exchange theory forms the lens through which the research question is analysed in this dissertation. Social exchange theory applies to this study in the following manner:

- The parties in the exchange-orientated relationship are employees and employers.
- The transaction under consideration is money (in the form of income).
- This economic exchange (an employee receives money in exchange for performing a job for their employer) has a social element: pay satisfaction.
- A positive action = employers providing sufficient money (that sustains employees or evokes pay satisfaction). This is likely reciprocated by employees performing extra-role behaviour to benefit the organisation.
- A negative action = employers providing insufficient money (that does not sustain employees or evoke pay satisfaction). This is likely reciprocated by employees only performing their minimum job responsibilities or even performing behaviour detrimental to the organisation.

It would be amiss to omit that social exchange theory is not without criticism. Cropanzano et al. (2017), for example, raised four concerns. Firstly, the theory has overlapping constructs that are used to operationalise and represent initiating actions and reciprocating responses that require clearer distinguishing. For example, counterproductive work behaviour and negative workplace behaviours could each represent reciprocating responses but are

theoretically similar and correlate with one another (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Thus, psychometrically disentangling constructs can become difficult when testing the theory. However, this study uses the theory as a framework to understand the nature of relationships between variables (how income and pay satisfaction relate to OCB). Thus, this criticism is less relevant to this study. Secondly, Cropanzano et al. (2017) also noted insufficient appreciation of these constructs' hedonically positive or negative values. Namely, the theory considers the initiating actions of individual employers as either positive or negative but neglects that this depends on whose perspective one considers. Thus, different parties may perceive the same initiating action differently. However, this study focuses not on the individual employer but on the employer as a broader, abstract institution, which lessens the impact of this criticism.

Thirdly, the theory has an assumption of bipolarity, wherein it treats negative constructs (for example, abuse) as the same as the absence of positive constructs (for example, support). Thus, showing negative behaviour (action) is not differentiated from withholding positive behaviour (inaction), and the theory assumes the effects of both are the same, which is not necessarily the case (Cropanzano et al., 2017). However, in the context of this study, the negative construct (insufficient income / lower pay satisfaction) is equivalent to the absence of the positive construct (sufficient income / higher pay satisfaction), so this criticism is not a concern. Fourth, Cropanzano et al. (2017) suggest that, resulting from the aforementioned three criticisms, the behavioural predictive power of social exchange theory can be imprecise. Further, when considering social exchange theory, initiating actions and responses are considered; however, multiple actions occur at each point in time, and which ones are focused on may be arbitrarily chosen. For example, simultaneously to the initiating action of paying a fair income to an employee, an employer could be providing a supportive work environment. Thus, it is unclear whether an employee's reciprocating response of performing OCB is in response to income, a supportive work environment, any other initiating actions taking place simultaneously, or a combination of various initiating actions. Consequently, this criticism should be considered when interpreting the results of this study.

Another dominant critique of considering social behaviours as arising from cost-benefit processes is that it ignores the role of social norms in social exchanges (Ahmad et al., 2022; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). All social exchanges take place in a broader social and institutional system, meaning that the response shown by an individual would depend not only on the norm of reciprocity but also on the social norms that apply to that individual. This

matters as there are different social norms for women and men; for example, women are expected to give more selflessly in social exchanges than men. Research by Brañas-Garza et al. (2016) showed that women behaved more altruistically than men and were socially expected to behave even more altruistically than they already did. Thus, even in the relative absence of actual or anticipated rewards, female employees might demonstrate behaviour that social exchange theory would expect to be elicited due to social exchange expectations. For this reason, social role theory was considered in conjunction with social exchange theory.

2.2.2. Social Role Theory

Eagly's (1987) social role theory explains that behavioural differences and similarities between women and men are primarily socially created rather than biologically based. Thus, gender stereotypes give rise to specific social roles for women and men. Gender stereotypes represent a shared set of expectations about what constitutes typical and appropriate behaviour for women and men. For men, this includes agentic behaviours, such as being dominant and assertive, while women are expected to show communal behaviours, such as being nurturing and friendly (Anglin et al., 2022). After observing the gender-specific behaviours over time, most individuals adapt their behaviour to conform to the gender role applicable to them. Women and men thus tend to display the characteristics associated with their gender roles due to societal pressures and to avoid social repercussions (Diekman & Eagly, 2000; Eagly & Wood, 1999; Thompson et al., 2020). In this way, existing gender norms are reinforced. Individuals may also internalise gendered behavioural standards themselves and judge themselves accordingly. As a result, non-conforming behaviour can also lead to uncomfortable psychological incongruence, which can be remedied by conforming (Eagly & Wood, 1999). Eagly's (1987) theory thus highlights how individuals are pressured to align with gender-stereotyped social behaviours to avoid societal and internalised shame. The theory assumes relative stability of gender roles, but Diekman and Eagly's (2000) research supported the assumption that social roles are not entirely static and can change over time. For example, since more women have entered the paid labour force, a role historically reserved for men, the gender role of the man as the sole financial provider has started to shift (Diekman & Eagly, 2000).

However, despite more modern perspectives on gender emerging, Eagly's (1987) social role theory has continued referring to gender as a binary construct (Allen, 2006; Kidder, 2002; Krukowski et al., 2022; Shi et al., 2021; Thompson et al., 2020). As outlined in Section 2.1.3, the meaning of the construct of gender has undergone change, with gender now being seen as

a continuum rather than a dichotomous, static variable. However, while ascribing to the idea of gender as continuous and fluid, most individuals in contemporary society still identify as either female or male, which is why Eagly's (1987) social role theory was still appropriate to extend this study's theoretical framework. Thus, in addition to the nature of social exchange relationships, social gender roles should also affect the reciprocal behaviour an actor shows in an exchange relationship.

In the following sections, the relationships between income, pay satisfaction, and OCB, as expected by social exchange theory, and the potential differences between women and men based on their societal gender roles, are outlined.

2.3. Theoretical and Empirical Views on the Relationships Between Income, Pay Satisfaction, OCB, and Gender

In this section, the expected relationships between income, pay satisfaction, OCB and gender based on the premises of social exchange and social role theory are outlined and compared to available empirical evidence.

2.3.1. Income, Pay Satisfaction, and Gender

2.3.1.1. The Relationship Between Income and Pay Satisfaction. Based on social exchange theory (see Section 2.2.1.), individuals who earn greater income should be more satisfied with their pay. This is because greater income could be interpreted as a more positive initiating action than lower income.

Empirical evidence supports this theoretical assumption (e.g., Heneman & Judge, 2000; Hulin, 1991; Li-Ping Tang et al., 2005). Further, according to Bossler and Broszeit (2017), the strength of the relationship between income and pay satisfaction varies along the income spectrum, with it being particularly strong in employees earning around the minimum wage benchmark. Based on these theoretical and empirical considerations, the following hypothesis was developed:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between income and pay satisfaction.

2.3.1.2. Gender Differences in Income. Aligned with social role theory, women are likely to earn less than men. This is because gender stereotyping constitutes a major constraint to women's employment and work advancement (Kiaye & Singh, 2013). According to gender role stereotypes, women's role is to hold family responsibilities, which prevents them from devoting themselves fully to their jobs. Another assumption is that women cannot occupy positions of power due to their feminine traits, such as being too emotional or agreeable, which may cloud their ability to lead effectively or make managerial decisions (Judge et al., 2012; Mahasha, 2016). Thus, women are often not hired into higher-paying managerial roles, not because of a lack of skills but because of societal assumptions. Women are thus often underestimated in business, where even with the same qualifications, skills, and experience, they are seen as bringing less worth to the business. This suggests that women receive lower incomes than men as they occupy lower-level positions, but also because they are paid lower salaries even in equivalent positions (Mahasha, 2016).

Empirical evidence supports this. Currently, South African women earn approximately 32% less than men (World Economic Forum, 2023), and 68.8% of top managerial positions in 2022 were occupied by men (StatsSA, 2022a). This suggests the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Women residing in South Africa earn less than men.

2.3.1.3. Gender Differences in Pay Satisfaction. The existing income differentials between male and female employees might suggest women are less satisfied with their pay than men. Yet, based on social role theory, this would not necessarily be the case. Namely, women are likely to have been socialised into perceiving their work as low value because women's roles have historically been that of carers and nurturers (Smith, 2019). These roles, which include childcare or caring for ill family members, were typically unpaid and unrecognised as real work. Thus, women may have internalised that their work is undeserving of higher pay, especially as they might feel powerless to change the inequitable pay system (Smith, 2019). Additionally, as dominance and assertiveness are considered typical of male behaviours, men might value extrinsic rewards more than women, whose social role requires humility, and thus men may require more pay to be satisfied (Arya et al., 2017; Davison, 2014; Diekman & Eagly, 2000). For these reasons, at equal levels of income, women would be expected to be more satisfied with their pay than men.

Empirical findings in South African and other samples mostly support this assumption. Women tend to be more satisfied with their pay than men (Arya et al., 2017; Buchanan, 2005; Graham & Welbourne, 1999; Keaveny & Inderrieden, 2000; Li-Ping Tang et al., 2005; Smith, 2009; Valet, 2018). Crosby (1982) referred to this as the "paradox of the contented female worker": despite women being paid less for the same work as men, they tend to have equal (Davison, 2014) or higher pay satisfaction. Further, Graham and Welbourne (1999), Smith (2009, 2019), and Arya et al. (2017) found that the gender differences in pay satisfaction are especially pronounced among lower-income earners and that lower-paid women appeared particularly accepting of gender-related pay differentials. This hypothesis was thus stipulated:

Hypothesis 3: At equivalent income levels, women have higher pay satisfaction than men.

2.3.2. Income, Pay Satisfaction, and OCB

2.3.2.1. The Relationship Between Income and OCB. According to social exchange theory, the income amount an employer offers an employee can be seen as an initiating action. Depending on whether the income amount is regarded as a positive or negative action by the employer, employees should either show positive behaviour in response or not (Homans, 1958). With OCB being positive behaviour benefitting the organisation, which is not required according to the employment contract between employer and employee, it can be considered as behaviour shown when the monetary reward received by an employee is perceived as exceeding or at least meeting expectations (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Homans, 1958). It means the employee is willing to take on extra "costs" for the organisation's benefit. This is more likely to be the case the higher the income amount. Not only might employees be willing to take on the cost associated with OCB, but they might even feel obligated to do so when receiving benefits that they perceive as favourable in relation to costs in the employer-employee relationship. Thus, an expectation of reciprocity can also shape the employee-employer relationship and influence employee behaviour (Homans, 1958).

No empirical investigation of the relationship between the two variables could be found. Based on the theoretical argument for the nature of the relationship between income amount and OCB outlined in this Section, the related hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between income and OCB.

2.3.2.2. The Relationship Between Pay Satisfaction and OCB. For the same reasons outlined in section 2.3.2.1 concerning the relationship between income amount and OCB, based on social exchange theory, greater pay satisfaction should also be related to greater levels of OCB.

Johnson and Lake (2019) claimed to be the first to empirically explore the relationship between the two variables and remains the only published study to date. They found that individuals who were more satisfied with their pay tended to show more OCB-O, which benefitted the organisation as a whole. There was no relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB-I (citizenship behaviour shown towards individuals in their immediate work environment). This makes sense, given that income is provided by the organisation, not by direct line managers or co-workers, except in organisations with very few employees. The reciprocal action by the employee should thus target the organisation, not specific individuals.

While Johnson and Lake may be the only scholars who have studied the relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB empirically, there is conceptual and indirect empirical evidence for the positive relationship between both variables. For example, Tufail et al. (2017) found that when employees felt satisfied with their salaries, they were more likely to work passionately and exhibited behaviour that displayed their commitment to the organisation's success, which is congruent with OCB. Further, Batt (2002) argued that when individuals perceived their income as high relative to other employees, a common influencer of pay satisfaction, it increased their work commitment and productivity. Meyer et al.'s (2002) meta-analysis revealed that commitment and productivity, in turn, were related to OCB. In bringing these variables together, Schneider et al. (2003) proposed that OCB serves as the mediating variable between pay satisfaction and higher organisational performance (i.e. return on assets and earnings per share). They did not test their model empirically, however. Further, pay satisfaction contributes to employee-perceived organisational support, which, according to a meta-analysis by Kurtessis et al. (2017), is positively correlated with OCB-I and even more strongly with OCB-O. Thus, greater pay satisfaction is linked to greater employee investment and perceived support, which makes it more likely that employees will "go the extra mile" through exhibiting OCB (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Thompson et al., 2020). This suggests the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB.

2.3.3. Gender Differences in OCB

Social role theory suggests that men are socialised and expected to be emotionally strong, brave, heroic, courageous, lower in agreeableness, and career-orientated (Diekman & Eagly, 2000; Eagly & Wood, 1999; Judge et al., 2012; Ng et al., 2016). In contrast, women are socialised into being more nurturing and displaying helpful dispositions. As a result, women are stereotyped as innately sympathetic, high in agreeableness, sensitive, supportive, and helpful (Diekman & Eagly, 2000; Judge et al., 2012). These stereotypes are accompanied by a societal expectation to behave accordingly. As a result, women endure pressure to behave in a manner that aligns with these characteristics, which may drive OCB. For example, the characteristic of agreeableness has been found to correlate with OCB (Ercan, 2023). Thus, women may perform more OCB because it aligns with the characteristics that society expects of them (Diekman & Eagly, 2000). Showing socially acceptable behaviour in the form of OCB may allow women to avoid damaging judgements in the workplace and the socially entrenched and often internalised shame evoked when they do not behave according to expected gender norms (Eagly & Wood, 1999). For these reasons, women would be expected to display higher levels of OCB than men.

Empirical evidence tends to support this theoretical assumption. Most research in work environments over the last two decades has indicated that women show greater levels of OCB than men, are expected to help others and behave communally at work, and are more likely than men to be perceived negatively if they do not (Allen, 2006; Guarino and Borden, 2017; Kidder, 2002; Krukowski et al., 2022; Pavalache-Ilie, 2014; Shi et al., 2021). Further, an experiment by Heilman and Chen (2005) indicated that helping others in the workplace, a central component of OCB, raised the employee performance evaluations of men but not women. Similarly, withholding help lowered the employee evaluations of women but not men. This suggests that, while OCB is recognised as positive and appreciated behaviour, it may be so integrated into society's perceptions of women's identities that when women perform OCB, it is taken for granted and thus unrecognised as exerting effort above what is expected or required. On the other hand, as OCB is less aligned with male gender roles, it is noticed and deemed as above-expected and praiseworthy behaviour. Heilman and Chen's study indicates that OCB might not be optional for women but may actually be essential to maintain their work performance in the eyes of their employers.

However, some studies found that men and women tend to show equal levels of OCB (Chou & Pearson, 2011; Dirican & Erdil, 2016; Ng et al., 2016; Saerah et al., 2020; Wanxian & Weiwu, 2007). Some authors explained this finding by highlighting how different OCBs are associated with different genders; for example, women tend to engage in OCB-I that facilitates interpersonal relationships and harmony, while men engage in OCB-I that actively helps others do their tasks (Chou & Pearson, 2011; Wanxian & Weiwu, 2007). Due to this, Chou and Pearson (2011) suggested that studies that use aggregated OCB scales (i.e., OCB-I and OCB-O) but do not measure each component of OCB (i.e., altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) may not reveal significant gender differences. Further, Ng et al. (2016) hypothesised that men may equally perform OCB because they tend to be more career-orientated and, thus, are more motivated to try to obtain good performance reviews. Lin (2008) suggested that, aligned with their gender role of being courageous, men may also be more likely to participate in OCB when faced with risky or dangerous tasks.

While there is some variance in the available literature, the majority suggests women are more likely to engage in OCB than men. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 6: Women exhibit more OCB than men.

2.3.4. Gender, Income, Pay Satisfaction, and OCB

2.3.4.1. Gender as a Moderator in the Relationship Between Income and OCB. Using social role theory and social exchange theory, two arguments suggest that gender should moderate the relationship between income and OCB:

Firstly, according to social exchange theory, relationships are shaped by a sequence of exchanges between two parties, where positive actions are reciprocated with positive actions, and negative actions with negative actions (Homans, 1974). However, as women are socialised to be nurturing and helpful, social role theory might suggest that, generally, women's relationships may be more communal in nature, where positive actions are performed regardless of whether a good or a bad action has preceded it (Eagly & Wood, 1999). Communal relationships are characterised by a perceived non-reciprocal obligation to respond to the needs of others, regardless of what one expects to receive in return (Thompson et al., 2020). This might suggest that men maintain relationships based on social exchange and reciprocal obligation processes, sans the societal pressures women face to be helpful, while women

establish communal relationships with their employers (Eagly, 1987; Thompson et al., 2020). Thus, women's behaviour may be less determined by preceding initiating actions (like receiving sufficient income) than men's, with men requiring more in order to reciprocate. This might suggest that gender could influence the relationship between income and OCB, with it being stronger in men, as they are exchange-relationship orientated, than in women, who are communal-relationship orientated.

Secondly, social exchange theory proposes that interactions can be influenced by the desire to gain power (Homans, 1974). This may be pertinent for women in organisations who often occupy positions of lower status, facing discrimination at work, perpetuated by the stereotypes that portray them as less capable in business (Eagly, 1987). However, when women act out of accordance with these stereotypes, displaying "masculine" leadership characteristics, they are likely to face backlash. For example, a study by Judge et al. (2012) revealed that women are seen as less business-savvy because of their agreeable nature but are punished for their counter-stereotypical behaviour if they are lower in agreeableness at work. This results in a "no-win" situation, where women are disadvantaged whether they conform to or resist gender stereotypes. Faced with this situation, women may seek discreet paths to empowerment and career progression that do not involve behaving counter-stereotypically (Mahasha, 2016). Thus, women may perform more OCB, a behaviour congruent with the stereotypical expectations of women, in the hope that employers become dependent on their contributions. This enables a pathway to a position of power as it makes it unlikely and difficult to replace women in organisations without evoking resistance towards their behaviour. As a result, women may be able to change the behaviour of their employers (i.e. get them to treat them with more respect) by changing their own behaviour (performing more OCB), referred to by Thibaut and Kelley (1959) as obtaining behavioural power. Thus, women may be less motivated to engage in OCB by income and more because it is a way to gain power, status, or respect at work. This suggests that the relationship between income and OCB may be weaker in women, who have other motives to perform OCB, than in men, who are driven to perform OCB by what they receive in return (i.e. income).

While no empirical investigation of whether gender moderates the relationship between income and OCB could be found, Thompson and Bergeron (2017) and Thompson et al. (2020) studied whether gender moderates the relationship between perceived organisational support (POS) and OCB. The findings of their studies are relevant because when considering social

exchange theory, both income and POS can be categorised as initiating actions generated by the employer. They found that women's communal relationships with their employers made them more likely to respond to the organisation's needs and perform OCB, irrespective of whether they had high POS. Men, on the other hand, required higher levels of POS to reciprocate with OCB (Thompson and Bergeron, 2017; Thompson et al., 2020). This suggests that women would likely still reciprocate with OCB even if they had insufficient income, while men would require sufficient income to reciprocate with OCB. The following hypothesis was thus stipulated:

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between income and OCB is stronger in men than in women.

2.3.4.2. Gender as a Moderator in the Relationship Between Pay Satisfaction and OCB. For the same two theoretical arguments that suggest that gender moderates the relationship between income and OCB outlined in section 2.3.4.1 above, namely, (1) women forming communal relationships with employers, and (2) women's motivation to discreetly obtain power in the workplace through performing OCB; gender should similarly moderate the relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB in that the relationship is weaker for women than for men.

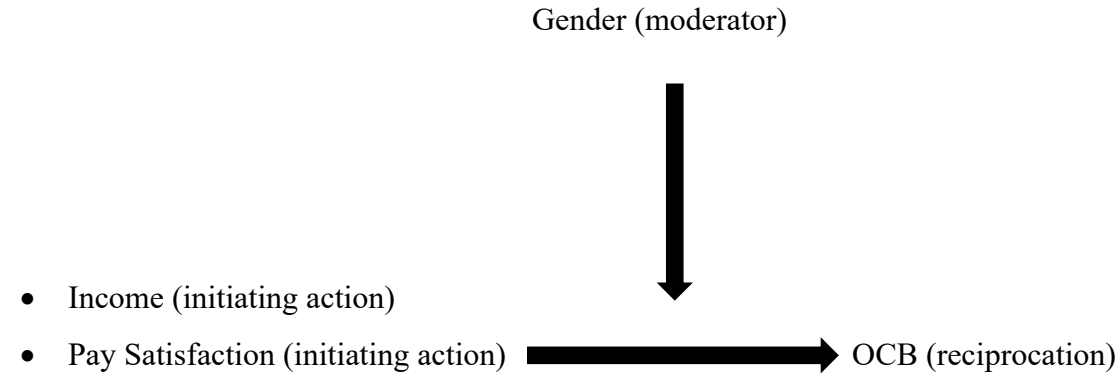
Again, no empirical investigation of whether gender moderates the relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB could be found. However, as pay satisfaction can be classified as an initiating action generated by the employer similar to POS, Thompson and Bergeron's (2017) and Thompson et al.'s (2020) studies described in Section 2.3.4.1. above suggest that men would require greater pay satisfaction to reciprocate with OCB. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB is stronger in men than in women.

Thus, the relationships between income and OCB (Section 2.3.4.1), and pay satisfaction and OCB (Section 2.3.4.2), respectively, are predicted to be moderated by gender, as shown in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1

The moderating effect of gender on the relationship between income + pay satisfaction and OCB



2.4. Hypotheses

After conceptualising the variables of interest, the hypotheses in this chapter were derived from social exchange theory, social role theory, and empirical findings. In conclusion to this chapter, the hypotheses presented in Sections 2.3.1 to 2.3.4 have been summarised below.

H^1: There is a positive relationship between income and pay satisfaction.
H^2: Women residing in South Africa earn less than men.
H^3: At equivalent income levels, women have higher pay satisfaction than men.
H^4: There is a positive relationship between income and OCB.
H^5: There is a positive relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB.
H^6: Women exhibit more OCB than men.
H^7: The relationship between income and OCB is stronger in men than in women.
H^8: The relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB is stronger in men than in women.

Chapter three outlines the methods and procedures used to test these hypotheses empirically.

3. Method

This chapter outlines the methods employed to test the hypotheses empirically. It starts with an explanation of the origin of the data in Section 3.1, followed by a description of the research design in Section 3.2, and a description of the sampling method and sample in Section 3.3. In Section 3.4, the research procedure is outlined, including an overview of the statistical procedures used to analyse the data. Details on data analysis are provided in Section 3.5, and ethical considerations are provided in Section 3.6, followed by an outline of the measures employed to assess the variables of interest in Section 3.7.

3.1. Origin of Empirical Data Used in the Study

The empirical data analysed to test the hypotheses was collected by Meyer et al. (2023) for their cross-sectional study titled "*'Living' Wages: Transforming Lives, Transforming Work? Determining a National Living Wage Benchmark.*" The dataset included a range of variables. For this study, socio-demographic variables and data on pay satisfaction and OCB were of interest. A few dominant reasons motivated the decision to use existing data.

Firstly, the OCB data had not yet been analysed, and there were two ethical reasons why it should be. First, to ensure that participants' time spent answering questionnaires in full was not futile (Nichol et al., 2021). Second, as per researchers' social responsibility, it is good practice to analyse the data to explore related findings and expose any potential to contribute to societal good (Barnes et al., 2018; Nichol et al., 2021). Exploring unused data is important because it may expose ways to benefit participants or the field of Organisational Psychology that otherwise would not be exposed, thus not maximising the social value of the research.

Thirdly, due to the time and financial constraints of a one-year Master's programme, obtaining a sample similar in size to the one collected by Meyer et al. (2023) would have been unrealistic. There was insufficient time to spend four months on data collection, as was available to Meyer et al. This was an important consideration because small sample sizes are commonly subject to Type II errors, meaning that research with small samples may not have the statistical power to identify significant relationships or differences that do exist, leading to the incorrect retention of null hypotheses (Barnes et al., 2018). Further, no funding was provided for data collection processes in the Master's programme; thus, only the researcher could collect data and would not have had the funds to travel across South Africa to obtain a sample representative of the South African population. In contrast, Meyer et al. employed

approximately 70 data collectors who could access participants in all nine South African provinces, increasing the geographic representativeness of the sample and enabling better population parameter estimates. In addition, the data was recently collected and is still current; thus, its use in this study could expose practically significant findings (Barnes et al., 2018). Therefore, using the unused data previously collected by Meyer et al. (2023) was justifiable because it portrayed respect for participants' time, increased the potential for the data collected to add social value, and enabled the use of a larger, representative sample.

3.2. Research Design

Meyer et al. (2023) and data collectors collected quantitative data via self-report hardcopy and online questionnaires administered to participants between November 2022 and February 2023. This study employed a cross-sectional, descriptive design. Descriptive designs are recommended when the research aims to identify or describe frequencies, relationships, or trends in populations or phenomena (Grimes & Schulz, 2002). As a result, a descriptive design was most appropriate to address the research question in this study. Further, descriptive designs do not attempt to infer cause-and-effect relationships and thus are aligned with the nature of this study and the statistical analyses used (Grimes & Schulz, 2002).

3.3. Sampling and Participants

The number of participants sampled per province was proportionate to the percentage of South Africa's population to ensure the representativity of the sample in terms of geographic distribution at the provincial level (see Appendix B, Table 1, for participant per province breakdown). Within each province, participants were accessed via non-probability convenience sampling due to limited time and funds.

Data collectors were requested to collect data predominantly from individuals who were likely to earn no more than R25,000 net/month as the sample was meant to reflect individuals who would be considered low to middle-income earners in so-called developed countries to allow for the purpose of the study: to determine a living wage benchmark. In South Africa, earners of R25,000 or less per month represent 90% of the population; thus, these individuals would not be considered low to middle-income compared to other South Africans (World Inequality Report, 2022). Data were collected from N = 1,648 working adults. The available funding determined the sample size, as data collectors were paid R75 per completed

questionnaire. A total of 82 cases who had completed less than 75% (= less than ten items) of the scale employed to measure OCB were deleted, as Hair et al. (2014) recommended deleting cases with higher levels of missing data on dependent variables to prevent compromising the scale's content validity. This provided a final sample of N = 1,566 cases.

Of the sample, 54.8% identified as female (n = 858), 42.2% as male (n = 661), 1% as gender non-conforming (n = 15), and .4% as transgender (n = 7), with 1% preferring not to reveal their gender (n = 15). The average age was approximately 34.38 years old (*min* = 18; *max* = 76; *SD* = 10.85). Participants' home languages varied widely, with 19.2% speaking isiZulu (n = 300), 14.9% speaking isiXhosa (n = 234), and 13.% speaking English (n = 204), with the remainder of participants in groups of <10% speaking Afrikaans, isiNdebele, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, or another language, respectively (n = 808) (see appendix B, Table 2, for a full breakdown of participants by language). This was comparable to the South African population as the two most commonly spoken languages are isiZulu (25.3%) and isiXhosa (14.8%) (Statista, 2023a).

The majority of participants, just more than one-third, had graduated high school (35.2%; n = 552) while a fifth of the participants (19.1%; n = 299) had attended high school but not graduated, 14.3% (n = 224) had obtained a degree, 14.2% (n = 222) had a college diploma, and 10.4% (n =163) had an uncompleted tertiary education, while 4.4% (n = 69) had obtained an Honours degree, 0.9% a Master's degree (n = 14), and 0.4% a Doctorate (n = 6). To compare these education statistics to those of the South African population, in 2021, for 31.9% a high school leaving certificate was the highest qualification, 39.2% had some secondary education, 5.9% had a degree, and 5.4% a diploma (Khuluvhe & Ganyaupfu, 2022). Thus, the sample was more educated than the population average, which could be expected as it only included individuals working for pay, and it is easier for individuals with higher education levels to find employment (Statista, 2023b).

The mean number of people supported by participants' salaries (including themselves) was seven (*min*: 3; *max*: 19; *SD*: 2.24), which is supported by South African statistics, which indicate that more than half (52.9%) of households have at least one child and one-third (33.6%) of households are extended beyond biological parents and their children (StatsSA, 2022b).

The most frequently reported occupations were security guard (5.3% of participants; *n* = 81), teacher or teaching assistant (4.5% of participants; *n* = 68) and educator (1.5% of participants; *n* = 23), domestic worker (4.3% of participants; *n* = 66) and cleaner (3.8% of participants; *n* = 58), cashier (3.8% of participants; *n* = 58), general labourer (2.3% of participants; *n* = 35), nurse (2.2% of participants; *n* = 34), and receptionist (1.7% of participants; *n* = 26). Each of the other job titles provided constituted less than 1% of the sample.

3.4. Procedure

This study was approved by the University of Cape Town's Commerce Faculty's Ethics in Research Committee. To collect data, University of Cape Town (UCT) students attended 2-3 hour training sessions in which they were introduced to the living wage concepts, research aims and questionnaire, and trained to administer the survey and capture the data. After the training, each data collector was given a target number of responses to collect and tasked with collecting data in the province where they indicated spending their university holidays between November 2022 and February 2023. The training intended to standardise the questionnaire administration for all participants to the greatest extent possible and to minimise interviewer-induced bias (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2018). Data collectors could use an electronic questionnaire set up in the cloud-based survey software, Qualtrics, on their electronic devices (cell phones, laptops, or tablets) or a paper version of the same instrument. The data was entered into the electronic questionnaire after responses were collected using hardcopy questionnaires. Data collectors were instructed to record the start and end times of each administration if they opted to use hardcopy questionnaires. Data collectors' names and any additional comments provided by participants were captured in both questionnaire versions. On average, participants took 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

3.5. Data Analysis

The data was analysed using the IBM Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) version 28. Negatively worded items were recoded, and the psychometric properties of the OCB scale were determined. The OCB, income, and pay satisfaction data were checked for outliers, and the score distributions in each variable were determined. Gender differences in OCB and income were analysed with independent samples t-tests; gender differences in pay satisfaction while holding income constant were analysed using analysis of covariance

(ANCOVA), the relationships between income and pay satisfaction, income and OCB, and pay satisfaction and OCB, respectively, were analysed with correlation analyses, and gender differences in the relationships between income and OCB, and pay satisfaction and OCB, respectively, with Hayes' (2022) PROCESS script for moderation.

3.6. Ethical Considerations

To ensure ethical principles were met in Meyer et al.'s (2023) study, the instrument and study procedure were reviewed and approved by UCT's Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee prior to data collection. For the purpose of this study, this meant that the following ethical research principles had been adhered to:

Participation was voluntary and anonymous. Participants had the option to provide a telephone number if they were willing to be contacted by the researchers in future waves of data collection. As per the cover letter (see Appendix A), research assistants explained the study to each participant in a mutually understood language, ensured participants were aware of their right to stop participating at any point, obtained informed consent, and clarified whether the participant felt comfortable completing the questionnaire alone or would prefer the research assistant to guide them. The informed consent page explained the nature of the research and the expected duration of the questionnaire, promised confidentiality, ensured participants could cease participation at any point, and provided the contact details of the lead researcher. Questionnaires were available in English and Afrikaans, and data collectors assisted those with low literacy to ensure their understanding and fair participation in the study. Where required, they translated the questionnaire content into another language. Meyer et al. (2023) stated that they were not aware of any ethical concerns that could arise during data collection.

For the study presented in this dissertation, data permissions, data management, and confidentiality were at the forefront of ethical considerations, as data from an existing study was used. Participants had provided informed consent for their responses to be used for research purposes. Thus, it posed no ethical concern for the data to be shared and utilised in this study after the original researchers had provided their permission (Oswald et al., 2020). Further, all data received was kept confidential through collecting, storing, and transferring it using only secure means. All digital data files were kept on password-protected devices, and Oswald et al.'s recommendation to consider their continuous security was followed by ensuring security applications remained updated on all devices. As the dataset merely identified

respondents by number and no names or other identifying information had been captured, participant anonymity was ensured.

A further ethical consideration was to conduct the research and analysis in an inclusionary and respectful manner. For this reason, in the write-up of this dissertation, discriminatory assumptions or language when discussing gender or socioeconomic status were consistently reflected upon and tried to be avoided. For example, gender was understood and measured as a nonbinary variable (Cameron & Stinson, 2019). Participants could choose from a selection of genders, including transgender and gender non-conforming. Participants could also choose "other" or "prefer not to say." The use of Eagly's (1987) Social Role Theory was deemed justifiable even though it takes a cis-gendered view of gender as N = 1,519 (97%) of the sample identified as either male or female. Only 37 participants had selected the options 'gender non-conforming,' 'transgender,' or 'prefer not to say' to describe their gender. Their data were not included in the analyses that used gender as a variable.

3.7. Measures

The primary purpose of Meyer et al.'s (2023) study was to determine a living wage benchmark using subjective indicators. For this reason, the questionnaire included a shortened version of Ellorenco et al.'s (2019) Living Wage and Capabilities measure (see Appendix A). For the study presented in this dissertation, however, only the items in the *Socio-Demographic Profile of the Respondent* block (Block 1), *Organizational Citizenship Behaviours + Task Performance* block (Block 4), and the pay satisfaction item in the *Empowerment* section (Block 5) were relevant.

3.7.1. Gender

Gender was measured via participants being asked, "What is your gender?" Participants could select their answer from six options: male, female, gender variant/non-conforming, transgender, other, or prefer not to say (see Appendix A, item 2).

3.7.2. Income

Income was measured by asking: "If you do not mind sharing, how much income do you get paid into your bank account or in cash?" (see Appendix A, item 18). If participants felt uncomfortable answering the question, they were given the option to indicate in which salary

range their income fell instead. The provided options were: less than R2,000, R2,000 to R3,500, R3,500 to R7,000, R7,000 to R10,000, R10,000 to R15,000, R15,000 to R25,000, and over R25,000. In order to include the largest number of participants possible in the study, the income of participants who had provided their actual monthly income amount was converted into the corresponding income category.

3.7.3. Pay Satisfaction

As outlined in Section 2.1.2 in the literature review chapter, there are various views on how best to conceptualise and measure pay satisfaction. In this study, pay satisfaction was measured through a single item: "I am satisfied with my pay." Participants answered the item by choosing one of six choices provided that described them best: never, almost never, sometimes, often, almost always, always (see Appendix A, item 69).

3.7.4. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

This variable was measured with the 13 OCB items of Williams and Anderson's (1991) 22-item Organizational Citizenship and Task Performance (OCB-TP) scale (see Appendix A, items 45 – 66). The scale measures OCB as directed towards the individual (OCB-I) and the organisation (OCB-O). It includes seven OCB-I items (items 45 – 51 in Appendix A) and six OCB-O items (items 52 – 57 in Appendix A). In the OCB-O scale, items 54, 55, and 56 were negatively worded and thus reverse-scored so that a high score always represented high levels of OCB-O. Participants provided their answers on 6-point Likert scales with the answer options never, almost never, sometimes, often, almost always, and always. A frequency scale was chosen as Carr et al. (2018) reported that Likert-type response scales that range from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" can be conceptually challenging, which can affect how participants engage with and respond to the items. Williams and Anderson (1991) found that the items loaded on the expected dimensions in exploratory factor analysis, thus indicating construct validity. Randall et al. (1999) and Williams and Anderson (1991) reported sufficient reliability with coefficient alpha values ranging from .61 to .88 for the two OCB subscales. Further, Soeker (2019) reported good reliability for the OCB-TP scale in a South African sample (Cronbach's alpha value of a = .78).

While the use of secondary data makes it impossible for the researcher to ensure that the best scientific practice was followed in terms of sampling, procedure, and measures

employed, the methods outlined in this chapter suggested that the dataset could be considered of adequate quality.

The following chapter presents the results of the validity and reliability analyses of the pay satisfaction item and OCB scale, the descriptive analyses, and the inferential analyses employed to test the study hypotheses.

4. Results

This chapter presents the psychometric properties of the pay satisfaction item and the OCB scale (Section 4.1), the descriptive statistics for pay satisfaction, income, and OCB (Section 4.2), and the results of the inferential statistics run to test the hypotheses (Section 4.3) to answer the research question: How are income, pay satisfaction, and gender related to OCB in low to middle-income employees in South Africa?

4.1. Dimensionality and Internal Consistency

In this study, only OCB was measured through a scale, and its psychometric properties were determined in Section 4.1.2 prior to descriptive and inferential analyses being conducted. Face validity was, however, determined for the pay satisfaction item and an analysis of its likely reliability, presented in Section 4.1.1 below.

4.1.1. Pay Satisfaction Item

For the single item measure used to indicate the pay satisfaction construct, only face validity could be established by assessing five components: (1) item relevance: the item directly and solely mentions pay and being satisfied; (2) ease of response: the item is easy to answer using the range of response options; (3) item ambiguity: the item is direct and cannot be interpreted in multiple ways; (4) item is not distressing: the item is tactful and does not ask for highly sensitive information; and (5) the item is not judgemental: the item has no judgemental tone (Allen et al., 2022; Connell et al., 2018). Further, research has indicated that the related construct of job satisfaction can be successfully measured with a single-item scale, indicating high correlations with job satisfaction scales (Dolbier et al., 2005; Fakunmoju, 2021). Thus, a single-item pay satisfaction measure may be similarly valid.

Regarding reliability, while the correction for attenuation formula can estimate minimum reliability, the only way to accurately calculate a single-item measure's reliability is through test-retest correlation (Wanous et al., 1997). This requires the single-item measure to be administered to the same sample at two points in time. However, as this study utilised secondary cross-sectional data, this was not possible. Thus, the reliability of the single-item pay satisfaction measure is unknown. However, according to Bergkvist (2014) and Wanous et al. (1997), provided a single item is unambiguous and not intended to measure a complex multidimensional construct, it can be just as effective as a multiple-item measure. Further,

single-item measures reduce the potential for respondent fatigue and have time and cost benefits, which are advantageous to studies (Bergkvist, 2014). Thus, the single-item measure was deemed reliable and acceptable for measuring pay satisfaction.

4.1.2. OCB Scale

The validity of the 13-item OCB scale was examined using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Principal axis factoring was chosen as the method of factor extraction as this method has been found to produce accurate results with nonnormally distributed data and thus can be employed without testing for the normal distribution of item responses first (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Direct oblimin rotation was employed, a nonorthogonal rotation method suitable when the factors underlying a dataset are expected to be correlated (Field, 2017). OCB-I and OCB-O have been shown to be strongly correlated in previous studies; thus, this method was deemed more suitable than orthogonal rotation, which assumes that factors are uncorrelated (e.g. Weikamp & Göritz, 2016; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

The data also met the three assumptions that enable EFA to produce meaningful results (Field, 2017). Firstly, the sample size exceeded the ratio of ten cases per item included in the analysis. Secondly, with a value of .88, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was sufficiently close to one, indicating sampling adequacy, in that there is a high enough distribution of scores in the sample. Kaiser (1974) stipulated that the value should be at least .5. Thirdly, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($X^2 = 6371.11$; $df = 78$; $p < .001$), indicating high item covariance (Field, 2017). In interpreting the EFA results, the criteria suggested by Field (2017) were used: (1) Kaiser's (1974) criterion of retaining factors represented by eigenvalues greater than one, and (2) a factor loading of at least .30 as an indication that the item loaded significantly onto a factor.

The EFA run across the 13 OCB items revealed three relevant factors. These had eigenvalues of 4.42 (explained variance: 34.02%), 2.00 (explained variance: 15.35%), and 1.07 (explained variance: 8.22%) (see Appendix C, Table 1). The OCB-O item, "I follow unwritten rules to maintain order at work," did not load significantly on any of the three factors in the pattern matrix and thus was deleted (see Appendix C, Table 2). It is likely that the concept of "unwritten rules" might have been difficult to understand for some participants, thus creating the result.

After rerunning the factor analysis with the remaining 12 items, three factors again emerged with eigenvalues of 4.42 (explained variance: 36.93%), 1.90 (explained variance: 15.79%), and 1.04 (explained variance: 8.70%) (see Appendix C, Table 3). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy remained sufficiently close to one (value of .88), and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (X^2 = 6,338.99; df = 66; $p < .001$). The OCB-I item "I go out of my way to help new employees" loaded significantly on two factors in the pattern matrix with loadings of .54 and .32, respectively, and was removed as it could not be clearly allocated to one of the factors (see Appendix C, Table 4).

The EFA across the remaining 11-item OCB scale revealed three factors with eigenvalues above one, with all items loading above .30 on only one of the factors (see Table 2 below and Appendix C, Table 5). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was adequate (value of .84), and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (X^2 = 5273.10; df = 55; $p < .001$). Three OCB-I items loaded significantly together (factor loadings: $.63 < r < .88$), as did the three reverse-coded OCB-O items (factor loadings: $.61 < r < .71$). The third factor consisted of three OCB-I items and two OCB-O items with factor loadings ranging from .35 to .74 (see Table 2 below and Appendix C, Table 6). Based on the wording of the items loading on each factor, the factor comprising OCB-I items was labelled as "helping behaviour" (referred to as OCB-I going forward), the factor comprising the reverse-coded OCB-O items as "absence of unproductive work behaviours" (referred to as OCB-O going forward), and the factor with OCB-I and OCB-O items as "consideration behaviours" (referred to as OCB-I-O going forward), as the five items it represented referred to positive behaviours that show concern for the well-being of co-workers and the organisation as a whole.

Table 2

Eigenvalues and Pattern Matrix for Final 11-item OCB scale

	Factor		
	Helping behaviour (OCB-I)	**Absence of unproductive work behaviour (OCB-O)**	**Consideration behaviour (OCB-I/OCB-O)**
(OCB-I) I help others who have been absent from work.	.749		
(OCB-I) I help others who have heavy workloads.	.882		
(OCB-I) I volunteer to assist supervisors with their work.	.626		
(OCB-O) I take work breaks that are not permitted. (R)		.610	
(OCB-O) I spend much time with personal phone conversations. (R)		.713	
(OCB-O) I complain about unimportant things at work. (R)		.614	
(OCB-I) I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.			.514
(OCB-I) I show concern to my co-workers.			.742
(OCB-I) I share information with co-workers.			.636
(OCB-O) My attendance at work is better than that of most others.			.352
(OCB-O) I give advance notice when I can't come to work.			.349
Eigenvalue	*3.87*	*1.90*	*1.04*
Explained variance	*35.16%*	*17.18%*	*9.46%*

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Reverse-scored items denoted with an (R).

The internal consistencies of the three OCB subscales were assessed using Cronbach's alpha. Generally, Cronbach's alpha values above .70 indicate an acceptable level of internal consistency (Field, 2017; George & Mallery, 2003; Hair et al., 2014; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). However, short scales are frequently subject to lower coefficient alpha values. Thus, Van Griethuijsen et al. (2014) recommended that values above .60 can be acceptable for scales with fewer items. Further, Briggs and Cheek (1986) recommended that average inter-item correlations be examined if scales possess fewer than ten items, which all the OCB subscales did. Average inter-item correlations should not be less than .20. All corrected item-total correlations were also examined, with Field's (2017) recommendation of retaining item-total correlations of greater than .30 being observed.

The 3-item OCB-I scale returned a good Cronbach's alpha value of a = .83. Corrected item-total correlations ranged from .63 to .74 (see Appendix D, Table 1). All inter-item correlations exceeded the minimum standard of .20 with values above .56 (see Appendix D, Table 2). Thus, the three-item OCB-I scale was deemed reliable.

The 3-item OCB-O scale returned a less-than-desirable Cronbach's alpha value of a = .68, with corrected item-total correlations ranging from .47 to .54 (see Appendix D, Table 3). However, this alpha value is close to the widely acceptable value of a = .70 and exceeds the absolute minimum value of a = .60 (Field, 2017; Van Griethuijsen et al., 2014). All inter-item correlations exceeded the minimum standard of .20 with values above .44 (see Appendix D, Table 4). Thus, the 3-item OCB-O scale was also deemed to have adequate reliability.

The 5-item OCB-I-O scale returned an acceptable Cronbach's alpha value of a = .73. However, the corrected item-total correlation of the item "I give advance notice when I can't come to work" was lower than .30 (r = .26) (see Appendix D, Table 5), and two inter-item correlations were below .20 (.18 and .19) (see Appendix D, Table 6). However, removing the item would only marginally increase the subscales' reliability to .75. For this reason, and as the item had been found to load significantly on its factor in the factor analysis, it was decided to retain it. The remaining corrected item-total correlations were acceptable, ranging from .37 to .68. Thus, the 5-item OCB-I-O scale was deemed reliable.

To determine overall OCB-I, OCB-O, and OCB-I-O scores, three new variables were calculated by averaging the responses provided on the OCB-I, OCB-O, and OCB-I-O items, respectively, to represent the total OCB-I, OCB-O, and OCB-I-O scores of each participant.

4.2. Descriptive Statistics

4.2.1. Central Tendencies and Dispersions of Data

OCB and pay satisfaction were measured on a 6-point scale. The scale's midpoint was thus 3.5. On average, participants were slightly unsatisfied with their pay (M = 2.94; SD = 1.64, min = 1; max = 6) and described themselves as often displaying helping behaviour (OCB-I) (M = 3.90; SD = 1.41; min = 1, max = 6), rarely unproductive work behaviours (OCB-O) (M = 4.90; SD = 1.00; min = 1; max = 6), and often showed consideration towards individuals and the organisation through their behaviour (OCB-I-O) (M = 4.56; SD = .96, min = 1; max = 6).

Most participants (30.5%, *n* = 478) earned between R3,500 and R7,000 per month, followed by 16.9% (*n* = 265) in the R15,000 to R25,000 income bracket. Similar numbers earned between R2,000 to R3,500 (11.6%, *n* = 182); R7,000 to R10,000 (13.1%, *n* = 205), and R10,000 to R15,000 (12.3%, *n* = 193). Some participants indicated earning less than R2,000 (10.6%, *n* = 166) or over R25,000 (4.5%, *n* = 71).

4.2.2. Data Distribution

The distributions of the data considered interval-level scaled (OCB and pay satisfaction) were assessed for outliers and normality to assess its suitability to be used in the hypothesis testing analyses. Only extreme outliers and deviations from normality were considered problematic because even though normality is an assumption of parametric tests, they tend to be robust against violations of normality (Field, 2017). Further, larger sample sizes, like in this study, reduce the likelihood of detrimental effects from nonnormality and outliers (Hair et al., 2014).

No statistically significant extreme univariate or multivariate outliers were detected across the OCB-I, OCB-O, OCB-I-O, or pay satisfaction data. Univariate outliers were assessed using boxplots where extreme outliers are indicated with a star symbol (*) (see Appendix E for boxplots of each variable depicting no extreme outliers). Multivariate outliers were assessed by determining Mahalanobis distances for each case in SPSS, which represent the distance of each case from the centroid of the data distribution in multivariate space (Field, 2017). At the .05 significance level, no Mahalanobis distances exceeded the critical value according to Tabachnick and Fidell's (2013) chi-square distribution table, indicating no multivariate outliers. Skewness and Kurtosis figures were examined, with values close to zero being preferable and indicating normal distribution (Field, 2017). The three OCB subscales were negatively skewed and platykurtic (OCB-I: skewness = -.17, kurtosis = -.85; OCB-O: skewness = -1.00, kurtosis = .93; OCB-I-O: skewness = -.44, kurtosis = -.13), and pay satisfaction was positively skewed (.39) and platykurtic (-1.01). These skewness and kurtosis values indicated minor to moderate deviations from normality and were not deemed problematic.

4.3. Inferential Statistics

4.3.1. Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between income and pay satisfaction

Income was measured using income categories (ordinal level of measurement) for hypothesis 1; thus, hypothesis 1 was analysed with Spearman's rank order correlation. Before conducting the analyses, the assumption of independence needed to be met. Namely, the observations in each income category needed to be independent, which was guaranteed as each participant answered the income item only once (Field, 2017).

Cohen's (1988) guidelines were used to interpret the results of correlation analyses, where coefficients ranging between .10 and .29 represent a small effect, coefficients between .30 and .49 represent a medium effect, and coefficients between .50 and 1 represent a large effect.

The analysis revealed a significant positive relationship between income and pay satisfaction (r = .25; p = <.001; n =1548; 95% CI [.20, .30]). Thus, this hypothesis was accepted, indicating that higher levels of income were correlated with higher levels of pay satisfaction. According to Cohen (1988), the correlation estimate indicated a small effect.

4.3.2. Hypothesis 2: Women residing in South Africa earn less than men

For exactness, income was measured using absolute income value for hypothesis 2; thus, it was analysed using an independent samples t-test. Prior to assumption testing, the variable of income had numerous extreme outliers that were removed (see boxplot in Appendix F, Figure 1, displaying the presence of extreme outliers indicated by the * symbol, and Figure 2, for boxplot after the removal of extreme outliers). The following assumptions were then tested. Firstly, the observations within each group should be independent of each other, which the data in the two gender groups were (Field, 2017). Secondly, the data should be normally distributed, but as mentioned above in Section 4.2.2, this assumption could be disregarded due to the robustness of parametric tests against violations of normality (Field, 2017). Thirdly, the groups should be approximately the same size, which the gender groups were for income: female (n = 592) and male (n = 445). Fourth, the variances of the two groups should be homogenous. However, Levene's Test for Equality of Variances confirmed this was not the case (F(1035) = .5.36, p = .02); thus, the results below were reported and interpreted from the "equal variances not assumed" column in SPSS to ensure this did not skew the results.

The analysis revealed no significant differences in income for women (*M*= 8,346.58; *SE*= 285,61; *n* = 592) and men (*M*= 9,165.42, *SE*= 371,63; *n* = 445) gender groups with *t*(890) = -1.75 and *p* = .08. Thus, this hypothesis was rejected, indicating that there were no gender differences in income between women and men.

4.3.3. Hypothesis 3: At equivalent income levels, women have higher pay satisfaction than men

Hypothesis 3 again used income measured as an absolute value and was thus analysed using Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) to compare group means while holding the income variable as the covariate constant to control for its potential influence. Before conducting an ANCOVA analysis, some assumptions needed to be met. Firstly, the observations within each group should be independent of each other, which the two gender groups were (Field, 2017). Secondly, the data should be normally distributed, but as mentioned in Section 4.2.2, this assumption could be disregarded. Thirdly, there should be no extreme outliers in the data. Pay satisfaction had no outliers (see boxplot in Appendix E, Figure 1), and income had numerous extreme outliers (see boxplots in Appendix F) that had been previously removed for the hypothesis 2 analysis above. Fourth, the covariate (income) and the independent variable (gender) should be independent. To test this assumption, the results from the t-test for hypothesis 2 above were consulted to see if there were any significant differences in income between women and men. As indicated in Section 4.3.2, the analysis revealed no significant differences in income levels in women and men. Thus, the covariate (income) and the independent variable (gender) were not related, and this assumption was met. Fifth, there should be homogeneity of the regression slopes between the covariate and the dependent variable. This means that the relationship between income and pay satisfaction should be the same for women and men; thus, the regression lines in the scatterplots should look similar. The scatterplots between income and pay satisfaction showed positive relationships between income and pay satisfaction for both women and men, with similar slopes to the regression lines (see Appendix G, Figure 1 and Figure 2). Thus, this assumption was met. Sixth, there should be a linear relationship between the covariate (income) and dependent variable (pay satisfaction), which was indicated in the aforementioned scatterplot; thus, this assumption was met. Lastly, the assumption of homogeneity of variance, or homoscedasticity, must be met. This means that the variances of the dependent variable (pay satisfaction) should be approximately equal across different levels of the independent variable (gender: levels of

women and men). To test this assumption, Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances was conducted in SPSS. The results indicated that the error variance of pay satisfaction was approximately equal across groups ($F(1, 1031) = .004$, $p = .95$). Thus, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met.

The ANCOVA analysis revealed no significant difference in pay satisfaction in women ($M = 2.75$, $SD = 1.63$, $n = 590$) and men ($M = 1.62$, $SD = 2.94$, $n = 443$) when controlling for the influence of income ($F(1) = 2.20$, $p = .14$). Thus, this hypothesis was rejected, indicating that there were no gender differences in levels of pay satisfaction between women and men. Both groups were, on average, unsatisfied rather than satisfied with their pay.

4.3.4. Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between income and OCB

Similarly to hypothesis 1, income was measured on an ordinal level of measurement for hypothesis 4; thus, the relationships between income and OCB were analysed with Spearman's rank order correlations. The assumption of independence was met for these analyses as each participant answered the income item only once. Hypothesis 4 was divided into three hypotheses representing each dimension of OCB, namely OCB-I, OCB-O, and OCB-I-O. The results are displayed in Table 3 below:

Table 3

Results from Spearman's Correlations Between Income and the OCB Dimensions

	OCB-I *Helpful behaviour*	**OCB-O** *Absence of non-productive work behaviours*	**OCB-I-O** *Consideration behaviour*
Income ($n = 1560$)	.10** 95% CI [.05, .15]	.06* 95% CI [.004, .11]	.15** 95% CI [.10, .20]
OCB-I		.13** 95% CI [.08, .18]	.61** 95% CI [.57, .64]
OCB-O			.19** 95% CI [.15, .24]

Note: * p <.05; ** p < .01

As shown in Table 3, the correlations between income and all three OCB dimensions were close to zero. However, due to the large sample size, the correlations were significant, indicating that there was a small trend for greater income to be related to more frequent helpful behaviour (OCB-I), an absence of non-productive work behaviours (OCB-O), and increased consideration behaviours (OCB-I-O).

4.3.5. Hypothesis 5: There is a positive relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB

The relationships between pay satisfaction and OCB were analysed with Pearson Product-Moment correlations. Before conducting the analyses, two assumptions needed to be met. Firstly, the data should contain no outliers, which was previously confirmed (see Section 4.2.2). Secondly, the data should be normally distributed. However, owing to the large sample size and statistical robustness of parametric SPSS tests, this assumption could be disregarded (see Section 4.2.2) (Field, 2017). Hypothesis 5 was divided into three hypotheses representing each dimension of OCB. The results are displayed in Table 4 below:

Table 4

Results from Pearson Correlations between Pay Satisfaction and the OCB Dimensions

	OCB-I *Helpful behaviour*	**OCB-O** *Absence of non-productive work behaviours*	**OCB-I-O** *Consideration behaviour*
Pay Satisfaction (n = 1553)	.001 95% CI [.05, .05]	<.001 95% CI [-.05, .05]	.02 95% CI [-.07, .04]
OCB-I		.09** 95% CI [.05, .14]	.61** 95% CI [.58, .64]
OCB-O			.15** 95% CI [.10, .20]

Note: * p <.05; ** p < .01

As shown in Table 4, the correlations between pay satisfaction and all three OCB dimensions were close to zero and not significant, indicating that greater pay satisfaction was not related to the display of helpful behaviours (OCB-I), an absence of unproductive work behaviours (OCB-O), or consideration behaviours (OCB-I-O).

4.3.6. Hypothesis 6: Women exhibit more OCB than men

Hypothesis 6 was analysed using independent samples t-tests. The following assumptions were tested and met. Firstly, the observations within each group should be independent of each other, which the data in the two gender groups were (Field, 2017). Secondly, the data should be normally distributed, but as mentioned in Section 4.2.2, this assumption could be disregarded (Field, 2017). Thirdly, the groups should be approximately the same size, which the gender groups were for OCB: female (n = 858) and male (n = 661). Fourth, the variances of the two groups should be homogenous. Levene's Test for Equality of Variances confirmed this for OCB-I ($F(1517) = .12$, $p = .73$), OCB-O ($F(1517) = 1.63$, $p = .20$, and OCB-I-O ($F(1517) = .26$, $p = .61$). Thus, all assumptions were met. The results of the analyses are displayed in Table 5 below:

Table 5

Results from Independent Sample T-Tests: Gender Differences in OCB

	OCB-I	**OCB-O**	**OCB-I-O**
Male	$M = 3.90$, $SE = .06$ $n = 661$	$M = 4.87$, $SE = .04$ $n = 661$	$M = 4.52$, $SE = .04$ $n = 661$
Female	$M = 3.82$, $SE = .05$ $n = 858$	$M = 4.93$, $SE = .03$ $n = 858$	$M = 4.59$, $SE = .03$ $n = 858$
Test statistic	$t(1517) = -1.03$ $p = .30$	$t(1517) = 1.14$ $p = .25$	$t(1517) = 1.42$ $p = .16$

As shown in Table 5, the independent sample t-tests revealed that there were no gender differences between women and men in OCB-I, OCB-O and OCB-I-O. Thus, the results indicated that women and men displayed similar amounts of OCB in the form of helpful behaviours, an absence of unproductive work behaviours, and consideration behaviours.

4.3.7. Hypothesis 7: The relationship between income and OCB is stronger in men than in women

Hypothesis 7 was analysed using Hayes' (2022) PROCESS script for moderation analyses in SPSS with gender as the moderating variable, income as independent, and the three OCB dimensions as criterion variables, and bootstrapping based on 10,000 samples employed. Before running the analyses, it was determined that the data met the required assumptions.

Firstly, the assumption of linearity, which means that the relationships between the independent variable (income) and dependent variable (OCB-I, OCB-O, and OCB-I-O, respectively) should be linear in each moderator (gender) group. This was tested via scatterplots (see Appendix H). All scatterplots indicated linear relationships aside from the relationship between income and OCB-O among female participants, which indicated little to no relationship between the variables. However, as this relationship was not curvilinear, it was not deemed problematic for analysis (Field, 2017).

Secondly, the assumption of normally distributed residuals could be disregarded because bootstrapping was employed in the analyses, which accounts for violating this assumption (Hayes, 2013). Thirdly, there needed to be an adequate sample size, which, according to Field (2017), is a few hundred cases if there is a single predictor and a small effect size is expected, which the sample of N = 1,017 participants well exceeds after outlier and listwise deletion of data.

Fourth, Cook's distances were used to determine if any outliers exerted undue influence over the parameters of the moderation models. For Model 1 (income – gender – OCB-I) and Model 3 (income – gender – OCB-I-O), the maximum Cook's distances were .002; and for Model 2 (income – gender – OCB-O), the maximum Cook's distance was .003. These values were below the critical cut-off point of one, indicating that no outliers were problematic (Field, 2017).

Fifth, the assumption of independence of residuals, which means that error terms are unrelated, needed to be met. This was tested using scatterplots that plotted the standardised predicted values against the standardised residual values for each model using the total sample, and again separately per gender group. This assumption is met if the data points on the scatterplots represent a roughly rectangular shape and predominantly fall in between three standard deviations on the X and Y axis (Field, 2017), which they did for all three models (see Appendix I). Sixth, the rectangular shape of the residual scatterplots also supports the assumption of homoscedasticity, which means the dispersion of the residuals is constant across all levels of the independent variable (Field, 2017).

Lastly, the assumption of no multicollinearity should be met, in that the independent variables should not be highly correlated, which in this case were income, gender, and the interaction between both. This was tested by analysing the variance inflation factor (VIF) and

tolerance statistic. To meet this assumption, the VIF value should be below 10 and the tolerance statistic 0.1 or above. (Field, 2017). A VIF value of 1.00 and a tolerance value of 1.00 were returned; thus, this assumption was met.

Gender did not significantly moderate the relationship between income and helping behaviour (OCB-I) (β = <.001, t = 1.32, p = .19, 95% BCa CI [.00, .00]) and consideration behaviour (OCB-I-O) (β = <.001, t = 1.50, p = .13, 95% BCa CI [.00, .00]), and 95% bootstrapped confidence intervals included zero, indicating that there was insufficient evidence to conclude that the moderation effect was different from zero (Field, 2017). While gender did significantly moderate the relationship between income and absence of non-productive work behaviours (OCB-O) (β = <.001, t = 3.36, p = <.001), the moderation effect was negligible because the confidence interval included zero (95% BCa CI [.00, .00]).

Thus, the results contradicted the hypotheses as they indicated no difference in the relationship between income and OCB between women and men, suggesting that gender does not influence this relationship.

4.3.8. Hypothesis 8: The relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB is stronger in men than in women

Like hypothesis 7, hypothesis 8 was analysed using Hayes' (2022) PROCESS script for moderation with bootstrapping, in which pay satisfaction served as the predictor variable, gender as the moderator and the three OCB dimensions as dependent variables. The same assumptions needed to be met.

The scatterplots between the predictor and criterion variable in each of the three models were inspected to test for deviations from linearity. They indicated weak to no relationships between pay satisfaction and OCB-I, OCB-O, and OCB-I-O in both gender groups (see Appendix J). However, as these relationships were not curvilinear, it was not deemed problematic for analysis (Field, 2017).

The sample size was adequate at N = 1,509. Cook's distances had a maximum value of .01 for Models 4 (pay satisfaction – gender – OCB-I) and 6 (pay satisfaction – gender – OCB-I-O), and .03 for Model 5 (pay satisfaction – gender – OCB-O), indicating no problematic outliers (Field, 2017). The assumptions of independence and homoscedasticity were met for all three models, as indicated by roughly rectangular distributions of scores in the scatterplots

of standardised predicted and standardised actual criterion values, which also fell predominantly within three standard deviations on the X and Y axis (see Appendix K). Lastly, the assumption of no multicollinearity was met as a VIF value of 1.00 and a tolerance statistic of 1.00 were returned (Field, 2017).

Gender did not significantly moderate the relationship between pay satisfaction and any of the OCB dimensions: OCB-I (β = .06, t = 1.20, p = .23, BCa CI [-.04, .15]), OCB-O (β = .002, t = .08, p = .94, BCa CI [-.06, .07]), OCB-I-O (β = .06, t = 1.80, p = .07, BCa CI [-.01, .12]).

Thus, the results indicated no difference in the relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB between women and men.

To conclude the chapter, a summary of the results of hypothesis testing is provided in Table 6 below. Overall, as expected, greater income was related to greater pay satisfaction, and greater income (but not pay satisfaction) was related to higher levels of OCB. Contrary to expectations, there were no differences between female and male employees in income, pay satisfaction, OCB, or the strength of the relationships between the variables.

Table 6

Summary of Results Relating to the Eight Study Hypotheses

Hypothesis	**Supported / Not Supported**
H^1: There is a positive relationship between income and pay satisfaction.	Supported
H^2: Women residing in South Africa earn less than men.	Not Supported
H^3: At equivalent income levels, women have higher pay satisfaction than men.	Not Supported
H^4: There is a positive relationship between income and OCB.	Supported
H^5: There is a positive relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB.	Not Supported
H^6: Women exhibit more OCB than men.	Not Supported
H^7: The relationship between income and OCB is stronger in men than in women.	Not Supported
H^8: The relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB is stronger in men than in women.	Not Supported

The following chapter discusses these results in relation to academic literature and the context of the study.

5. Discussion

This chapter explores the results of the statistical analyses presented in Chapter four in relation to the literature and the unique context of this study (Section 5.1). Further, the limitations of the study are recognised (Section 5.2), theoretical and practical implications are identified (Section 5.3), and recommendations for future research are presented (Section 5.4). Chapter five brings together the findings of prior academic literature and the empirical data to answer the overall research question: How are income, pay satisfaction, and gender related to OCB in low to middle-income employees in South Africa?

5.1. Main Findings

5.1.1. The Relationship Between Income and Pay Satisfaction

As expected, the results revealed that with increasing income, pay satisfaction increases. This reinforces the research on the robust relationship between pay level and pay satisfaction (Heneman & Judge, 2000). This relationship was further expected due to Bossler and Broszeit's (2017) findings that the relationship is particularly strong in samples with participants earning around the minimum wage benchmark, as the most common income bracket (30.5% of the sample) in this study was R3,500 to R7,000, which directly surrounds the South African minimum wage benchmark of R4,953.09 per 45-hour workweek (South African Government, 2023). As pay satisfaction results from the perception of what one receives relative to what one believes one should receive, it is congruent that the amount of pay (income) directly affects pay satisfaction (Judge et al., 2010). However, further results were not as expected.

5.1.2. Gender Differences in Income and Pay Satisfaction

No significant gender differences in income were revealed. This was unexpected as current statistics indicate an approximate 32% gender pay gap in South Africa that favours men (World Economic Forum, 2023). However, when examining the gender pay gap in different employment categories in South Africa, Adelekan and Bussin (2018) found that the gender pay gap was smallest among semi-skilled workers (4.2% gender pay gap) and employees working in senior management roles (3.9% gender pay gap). In this sample, most participants were low-skilled to semi-skilled workers, as indicated by their occupations, which might be the reason for the result.

Holding income level constant, it was also hypothesised that women would have higher pay satisfaction than men. However, no gender differences were revealed regarding pay satisfaction in this study. This may reflect more modern times where feminism is a dominant movement, and gender stereotypes are slowly being eroded. Historically, few women held paying jobs, and thus, when women were able to find employment, they were more appreciative of their pay and the opportunity to earn, compared to men, who tended to be accustomed to being well compensated (Arya et al., 2017). However, nowadays, having women in the workplace is considered the norm in South Africa, and women's standards and expectations may have adapted to reflect gender equality. Consequently, more women may believe they deserve to be paid well and thus have the same pay expectations as men, and as pay satisfaction is a product of pay received versus pay expected, this means they are no longer satisfied with lower pay than men. Further, due to the advancements in and advocacy for gender equality, women may have overcome the sense of powerlessness to change the gender-inequitable pay system that Smith (2019) noted may underly women's more accepting attitude towards lower pay. Additionally, with social roles changing in society, and women no longer being restricted to homemaking type roles and men to "breadwinner" type roles, both women and men may be valuing the importance of pay equally and requiring similar amounts of money to evoke the same levels of pay satisfaction. More than ever before, men are taking on more childcare responsibilities in the home, and more women are focusing on their careers, redefining traditional gender roles (Fedhealth, 2018). Thus, income may be equally as important to women in today's times, and many may be as career-orientated and as expecting of fair compensation as men.

The revealing of no gender differences in income and pay satisfaction may represent a welcomed positive shift in society that is more reflective of gender equality and has fewer pressures to align with traditional gender roles. However, pay satisfaction was generally low across women and men, which may also signify that the income amount in the low to middle-income sector might objectively be insufficient to evoke pay satisfaction, regardless of gender.

5.1.3. The Relationships Between Pay Satisfaction, Income, and OCB

While the central premise of this study was that greater pay satisfaction and income would be related to greater levels of OCB, the results did not support this assumption regarding pay satisfaction. It was predicted that as per Homans' (1958) social exchange theory (see Section 2.2.1), pay satisfaction would constitute employees' perception of their benefits (of the

exchange-orientated employer-employee relationship), which would aid their investment in their colleagues, employers, and the organisation's success, and this would subsequently influence employees' display of OCB. However, there are a few reasons this result may not have been evident in this study.

Firstly, given the sample in this study, one can deduce some reasons why pay satisfaction did not relate to the OCB dimensions of OCB-I (helping behaviour towards colleagues or supervisors) and OCB-I-O (consideration behaviours towards colleagues and the organisation). Namely, many of the most common occupations in the sample were jobs which would not provide an environment with colleagues or the feeling of being part of an organisation. For example, security guards (5.3% of participants), domestic workers (4.3% of participants), and general labourers (2.3% of participants) are unlikely to be surrounded by colleagues or supervisors and thus unlikely to be able to demonstrate helping or consideration-type behaviours towards them. Secondly, there may have been no relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB-I-O because the workers mentioned above are often part of agency-type companies and are outsourced to various areas, complexes, or homes. As a result, they would not have a sense of being part of an organisation because they are frequently sent out into different environments to work and spend little to no time within the actual company that employs them. Thus, showing or not showing consideration for the organisation that employs them would likely not be visible. Thirdly, it is possible that there may have been no relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB-O (an absence of unproductive work behaviours) because participants were hesitant to admit to performing unproductive work behaviours in front of data collectors, as the results indicated that the sample reported that they very rarely engaged in unproductive work behaviours overall.

Similarly to pay satisfaction, it was predicted that income would represent employees' benefits (of the exchange-orientated employer-employee relationship), which would aid their investment in their colleagues, employers, and the organisation's success, and this would subsequently influence their display of OCB (Homans, 1958). Indeed, the results regarding the relationship between income and OCB indicated that the greater the income, the greater the helping behaviour towards co-workers (OCB-I), absence of unproductive work behaviours (OCB-O), and consideration towards fellow employees and the organisation (OCB-I-O). However, these effects were very small (Cohen, 1988). Again, like with pay satisfaction and OCB, a likely reason could be that many participants in the sample did not work in interaction

with other employees, directly with supervisors, or worked as part of agency-type companies, limiting their opportunity to express OCB; or some may have felt uncomfortable admitting to performing unproductive work behaviours. Despite small effect sizes, the results suggest that it is employees' actual income, rather than pay satisfaction, that has a greater influence on citizenship behaviours in the workplace. There are several feasible reasons why this may be the case.

Firstly, it might have to do with the fact that increasing income makes it possible to meet basic needs. With basic needs being met, employees may perceive relief from financial stressors, which might make it possible to engage in OCB because they are not preoccupied with their own and their family's survival. For example, when income level is sufficient, employees may not need extra jobs to supplement their income and thus may have more time and energy to "go the extra mile" at work. They may also be able to live in a manner that supports positive work behaviour, such as having the proper nutrition and living environment to be healthy and energetic enough to go over and above expectations at work. Secondly, the relationship between income and OCB may be more direct (because income is tangible and objectively measurable, while pay satisfaction is perceived and subjective) in reflecting the obligation-driven reciprocal response that Homans (1958) describes as occurring when employees receive benefits that they receive as favourable in relation to the costs of the employer-employee relationship. Thus, employees who receive higher incomes may feel obligated to reciprocate with more OCB.

While only the positive relationships between income and OCB were as expected, the results provided some interesting insight into how income may influence employee citizenship behaviour more than pay satisfaction.

5.1.4. Gender Differences in OCB

While most research has indicated that women tend to display higher levels of OCB than men, the results of this study revealed no gender differences in any of the OCB dimensions (OCB-I, OCB-O, or OCB-I-O). The minority of research that similarly produced this result attributed it to the following factors:

Firstly, the social pressures on women and men may differ but may be equally likely to induce OCB. Initially, it was expected that women would perform higher levels of OCB because, due to gender stereotyping, women are expected to behave more communally at work

and are more likely to be negatively perceived if they do not. Thus, the social pressure to perform OCB may be more overbearing for women, and the consequences may be more severe if they do not (Allen, 2006; Eagly & Wood, 1999; Kidder, 2002; Krukowski et al., 2022; Shi et al., 2021). However, men may also suffer under societal pressures. Namely, as men are often expected to be strong, brave, heroic, and courageous, they tend to be more likely to engage in OCB when faced with risky or dangerous tasks (Lin, 2008). Eagly's (1987) social role theory explains how men might engage in these OCB tasks to conform to societal expectations of them. Further, it is possible that men's OCB levels may have increased to even out with women's in this study because the most common occupation in this sample was a security guard, which is a predominantly male occupation that would likely create many risky scenarios where bravery and courage could be shown through OCB.

Secondly, men are more often pressured to be the "breadwinners" in society, which socialises them to associate their value with career success. Consequently, men may engage in OCB to try to advance their careers, emphasise their contribution to the organisation's success, and obtain good performance reviews or promotions that will result in higher pay (Diekman & Eagly, 2000; Ng et al., 2016). In doing so, they can fulfil societal expectations according to the stereotypical social roles of a man and avoid judgements and embarrassment (Cameron & Nadler, 2013; Eagly, 1987). Thus, women and men may engage in the same amount of OCB because of unique social pressures still present in society. It is further possible that, due to the more progressive rise of feminism in society, the social pressures on women have decreased, and, thus, women may slowly be able to perform less OCB in organisations without facing the same extent of negative consequences as in the past.

Thirdly, some research suggests that in order to highlight gender differences in OCB, each component of the OCB construct must be measured separately, namely altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue (Chou & Pearson, 2011; Organ, 1988). This is because, due to the way women and men are socialised, they may engage in different types of OCB for different reasons; for example, women might engage in more altruistic behaviour, while men may be more conscientious, but both are reflective of OCB-I, which means that these gender differences are not distinguishable when measuring the commonly formed dimensions of OCB-I and OCB-O (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Consequently, Chou and Pearson (2011) suggested that studies that use commonly aggregated OCB scales (such as this study, which measured OCB-I, OCB-O, and OCB-I-O, but did not measure OCB in terms of

altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue individually) may not have the power to reveal significant gender differences.

Given most literature suggested that women perform more OCB than men, the finding that there were no gender differences in any of the OCB dimensions was unexpected. However, there was adequate alternative literature to explain why this may be the case in this study.

5.1.5. The Moderating Effect of Gender on the Relationships Between Income, Pay Satisfaction, and OCB

It was expected that the relationships between income and OCB, and pay satisfaction and OCB, respectively, would be stronger for men than women. However, the results of this study revealed that gender was not a significant moderating factor in these relationships. This finding may be due to women's changing beliefs and behaviours in a more modern South Africa, as shown in the explanations below.

Firstly, it was hypothesised that the relationships between income and OCB, and pay satisfaction and OCB, would be stronger in men due to the likelihood of women establishing communal rather than exchange or reciprocal-obligation-based relationships with their employers (Thompson et al., 2020). Based on this, it was thought that women would be more likely to respond to the organisation's needs and perform OCB irrespective of whether they had adequate income or pay satisfaction, weakening the relationships between income and OCB, and pay satisfaction and OCB. However, given feminist movements in recent times and activism surrounding what women deserve, women may be changing the communal relationships they used to have with employers in the past and establishing more exchange-orientated relationships. Within these exchange-orientated relationships, similar to men, women expect favourable benefits (such as satisfying pay) in return for their work and in order to "go the extra mile" and contribute to colleagues and the organisation. This is evident in Artz et al.'s (2018) study that found that women, as frequently as men, feel that they deserve pay raises.

The second reason the relationship between pay satisfaction and OCB was hypothesised to be stronger in men surrounded Thibaut and Kelley's (1959) contribution to the social exchange theory, which noted how social exchanges may be influenced by the desire to gain status, power, or establish superiority. It was thought that because women have historically held work positions of lower status to men and often well below their capabilities, women may

wish to perform OCB as a discreet path to empowerment and to progress in their careers. OCB would constitute a discreet way to gain power as it is congruent with women's expected helpful dispositions and would not be faced with backlash, as displaying more "masculine" leadership-type characteristics to gain power would be (Judge et al., 2012). Thus, it was thought that performing OCB may constitute a way for women to become and hopefully be seen as more valuable in an organisation, finally being respected and seen for what they are truly worth. However, in many instances in today's society, women are no longer taking the path of least resistance to try and assert themselves or keeping quiet when they feel they deserve more (Artz et al., 2018). Thus, this motivation for women to perform OCB (to gain rightful power) may be less significant. Now, many women overtly assert themselves, whether this makes their male counterparts uncomfortable with their behaviour or not, and open lines of discussion surrounding their progression in organisations.

In fact, Artz et al. (2018) found that in recent times, women are asking for raises as frequently as men, engaging in salary negotiations as often, and acting just as assertively in negotiations. This is in contrast to previous research by Amanatullah and Morris (2010), which found that women act less assertively in negotiations as they fear backlash and upsetting their superiors or colleagues. Deeper reasoning for this surrounded assertiveness being incongruent with women's stereotypical gender roles; thus, women managed how assertive they were to manage social impressions and reactions. Despite Artz et al.'s (2018) study suggesting that this has changed in recent years, sadly, women still do not receive the raises they ask for as often as men do. Their study showed that women received raises 15% of the time when they asked, while men received raises 20% of the time when they asked. However, this research reveals that women are going against the status quo and asserting themselves more in organisations, departing from the "agreeable" nature that is stereotyped to be innate to women (Judge et al., 2012). Consequently, strategic performing of OCB to progress in their careers may be less relevant for women today, deducting one motivator for women to perform OCB whether or not they receive a fair income or are satisfied with their pay. This may be another reason to explain why the relationship between income and OCB, and pay satisfaction and OCB, were not weaker for women than for men, as was initially expected.

5.2. Limitations

Several delimitations (limitations deliberately implemented) and limitations were present in this study, which need to be acknowledged to ensure that the results are interpreted

with the required caution.

5.2.1. Study Design

To set realistic goals for the scope of a study, some delimitations regarding the study's design were inevitable. Firstly, due to restricted funding, Meyer et al. (2023) chose not to implement randomised sampling, which could introduce sources of bias and reduce the generalizability of this study (Berndt, 2020). Specifically, the participants in this study may not be representative of the entire low to middle-income earning South African population. Secondly, implementing a descriptive design does not allow causation to be established (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). However, these delimitations were conscious decisions based on the study goal and the available resources.

5.2.2. Use of Existing Data

Using existing data presents some limitations. In this study, it is possible that questionnaire standardisation could have been compromised as a verbal translation was done for participants who spoke other African languages and could not complete the English or Afrikaans questionnaires. English contains many concepts that do not have equivalents in other languages, particularly nuanced or culturally specific terms; thus, verbal translation may not capture the exact intended meaning of questions, consequently not accurately measuring the constructs. This may be particularly relevant as only 13% of the sample's home language was English and only 7.3% Afrikaans. Thus, it is possible that not all participants received and interpreted the questionnaire in the same way, leading to response bias. Namely, participants who completed the questionnaire in English or Afrikaans may have had a more accurate understanding of the questions than those who relied upon verbal translations, which may have affected how they responded and the quality of the data captured. Further, participants may have felt uncomfortable for fear of judgement while responding to questions where sensitive information was asked, such as salary information, because data collectors were present during the completion of the questionnaire. Thus, possible response bias due to untruthful responses should be considered (Pannucci & Wilkins, 2010).

Due to these limitations, some key assumptions needed to be made. Firstly, there was an assumption that the data provided by Meyer et al. (2023) was sound and had been correctly recorded. This was reasonable to assume as the methods outlined in Chapter three and the

approval of the study by the University of Cape Town's Commerce Faculty's Ethics in Research Committee, including approval of the instrument and study procedure, suggested the data could be considered of adequate quality. Secondly, it was assumed that the data collectors were well-trained to the greatest extent possible and competent to perform their roles, which, given their stipulated 2-3 hour training sessions, was a reasonable assumption. Lastly, there was the assumption that the participants reported truthful answers despite some sensitive questions (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2018).

5.3. Theoretical and Practical Contributions

Despite some limitations, the findings in this study provide some important theoretical and practical contributions. Firstly, as no studies to date have explored the relationship between income and OCB, this study addressed a gap in the existing literature. Further, albeit only small relationships, the findings that showed a positive relationship between income and pay satisfaction, and income and OCB, contribute to existing literature on the importance of employers paying employees fairly, not only to evoke pay satisfaction but also for the success of the organisation as a whole. Thus, this study could motivate employers to pay their employees more, making employees more likely to perform OCB behaviours, which is likely to contribute to the organisation's productivity, competitiveness, and success. Justification for providing better salaries may thus be a product of the findings of this study.

Secondly, this study provides insight into using the organisational citizenship portion of Williams and Anderson's (1991) scale in a South African context. Previously, the scale was said to measure two dimensions of OCB, namely OCB-I and OCB-O. However, in this sample, three distinct OCB dimensions emerged. Namely, OCB-I representing "helping behaviour," where employees actively help their colleagues and supervisors; OCB-O representing an "absence of unproductive work behaviours," where employees do not engage in behaviours that hinder productivity in their organisation; and a new dimension of OCB-I-O representing "consideration behaviours," referring to positive behaviours that show concern for the well-being of co-workers and the organisation as a whole. There are a few reasons why a three-dimensional structure could have emerged. Namely, as mentioned in the limitations in Section 5.2.2, the translation of scales into local languages may have introduced variations in the interpretation of items, and some OCB items may not have had direct linguistic equivalents, potentially leading to the creation of a third OCB dimension to capture these nuances in understanding in the data. Alternatively, the organisational and societal context in this study's

sample may have given rise to OCB-type behaviours that are not captured by the usual two dimensions of OCB-I and OCB-O. For example, certain consideration behaviours may be more prevalent in the low to middle-income sample and the specific job roles that participants occupied in this study. Further, there could be cultural variations in how South Africans perceive and express OCB, which may also have contributed to the emergence of an additional dimension, suggesting that OCB may be culturally influenced. Thus, the emergence of three OCB dimensions could be attributable to this study's methodology, specific sample, or the general South African context, which warrants greater research to explore this finding.

Thirdly, the findings of this study provide a snapshot of the current status of the gender pay gap in South Africa in the low to middle-income section of the population. The results of no significant gender differences in income suggest that the prominent gender pay gap that national statistics reveal stands at approximately 32% may be attributable to other specific industries and salary bands (World Economic Forum, 2023). Thus, this may encourage more research to address the national gender pay gap and on which salary ranges and industries the focus needs to be when doing so.

5.4. Directions for Future Research

Firstly, using existing data limits the scope of this study to the data collected by another party, and these limitations illuminate what additional data would be preferable to collect in future research. For example, although there might be cultural differences in norms that may influence the type of OCB and how much OCB individuals show, they could not be explored in this study because the questionnaire did not include such data. Thus, it would be useful to conduct future research that collects cultural data and explores whether there are any relationships between culture and OCB. Further, as only quantitative data was available, the depth of understanding of the experiences, feelings, thoughts, and actions of participants that could be derived may be limited (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2018). Thus, deeper insight could be gained from collecting qualitative data, for example, interviews on what motivates employees to perform OCB. This may provide more insight into why pay satisfaction was not related to OCB, and income was only slightly related to OCB.

Secondly, it would be useful to apply the organisational citizenship portion of Williams and Anderson's (1991) scale in other South African samples to determine whether the three-factor result of the scale was unique to this study or visible in other South African contexts.

This could illuminate whether the three dimensions of OCB (OCB-I, OCB-O, and OCB-I-O) are applicable to diverse South African samples. Thus, this could expose whether cultural and societal contexts influence the types of OCB shown.

Thirdly, as this study revealed no significant gender pay gap in low to middle-income South African employees, more research could be conducted to determine within which income brackets and industries the gender pay gap is most prevalent in 2023, as the last study illuminating this was conducted in 2018 by Adelekan and Bussin. This could not only expose inequality in certain job positions and industries but also allow a more focused approach to addressing the gender pay gap, because future efforts to promote gender equality could be aimed at the correct income brackets and industries. This may allow faster progress toward closing the gender pay gap in South Africa.

Fourth, as this study revealed small positive relationships between income and OCB, more detailed research could be conducted regarding this relationship to better advise and inform employers. Namely, future research could explore whether this relationship is evident in different South African samples and focus on the trend of this relationship to illuminate if there is a point where the relationship between income and OCB evens off. This may indicate a minimum income amount that is suggestable to employers to evoke the most productive behaviours from their employees. Future research could also be conducted in higher income samples to investigate if the relationship between income and OCB is stronger at higher income levels. If greater effect sizes are found between income and OCB in future studies, the findings from such research could provide support for employers to increase their employees' salaries or at least pay living wages.

Fifth, many of the justifications for not finding gender differences in the hypotheses in this study were based upon the rise of feminism and women no longer ascribing to stereotypical gender roles to the same extent as before. Thus, it would be helpful to do further research to investigate whether the social pressures on women to behave according to gender stereotypes have indeed decreased, and whether, in modern times, women are less inclined to behave according to societal expectations of them. Such research could reinforce the justifications behind some of the findings in this study.

5.5. Answering the Research Question

The results discussed in the discussion chapter answer the research question: "How are income, pay satisfaction, and gender related to OCB in low to middle-income employees in South Africa." It was found that, overall, there were very few relationships between these variables, with only small trends for income to be related to pay satisfaction and OCB. However, the results could provide an impetus for South African employers to consider the importance of determining salaries in a way that evokes the most OCB and, subsequently, greater profitability for the organisation.

6. Conclusion

This study quantitatively explored the relationships between income, pay satisfaction, gender, and OCB in low to middle-income employees in South Africa. Overall, it found few relationships between these variables, with only small trends for income to be related to pay satisfaction and OCB. Even though no cause-and-effect conclusion can be drawn from the data given the study's descriptive design, it is likely that compensation shapes employees' satisfaction with their pay and that providing an income which provides financial stability may influence employees' engagement in citizenship behaviours. Unexpectedly, no gender differences were apparent in income, pay satisfaction, or OCB, and the influence of gender on the relationships between these variables was not significant either. This might represent the changing landscape of gender roles in South African society in which women are expecting equal treatment to men.

As no studies had yet been conducted on the relationship between income and OCB, this study addressed a gap in the existing literature. It revealed that income might influence employees' display of OCB. Though the effects were very small, the results highlight that further research on income as a variable of importance in reaping behavioural returns like OCB could be beneficial. If future studies similarly reveal positive relationships between income and OCB, the perspective on compensation could start to be shifted. Paying employees could be seen as more than just a cost that is aimed to be minimised, but rather as an investment in employees that should be maximised to bring about positive mindsets (pay satisfaction) and behaviours (OCB) that best serve employees, employers, and organisations as a whole.

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Appendix A: Living Wage Survey

SURVEY ON SOUTH AFRICANS' WELLBEING AT WORK AND IN LIFE

Respondent No. _____ Ward _____

Interviewer _____

Good morning/afternoon. I am _____ from the University of Cape Town. We are conducting research that looks into the quality of living and quality of work of South Africans. We would like to know what South Africans consider important in having a good life and how possible it is for them to achieve this.

Yours was one of the households chosen to participate in this study. If there is someone living in your household who works and who is willing to assist us, I will be asking the person questions regarding their work, household, health, and other aspects of daily living. This should take no more than 30 minutes.

All information you share with me will be treated confidentially and will only be used for research purposes. We are not recording your name, address or phone number. It will not be possible for us to say which answers were given by which household.

The research is led by Professor Ines Meyer from the Section for Organisational Psychology. If you have any questions you can contact her on ines.meyer@uct.ac.za or 021 650 3829. It is important that you know that you can also stop participating in this study at any point.

Would you be willing to participate in this study?

Yes ☐ **No** ☐

Date of Interview _____**Time Started** _____ **Time Ended**_____

Comments _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

BLOCK 1: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENT

1. What is your age? _____ *(write down age in years)*

2. What is your gender?

Male	☐
Female	☐
Other	☐
Prefer not to say	☐
Gender variant/non-conforming	☐
Transgender	☐

3. How many family members live in your house? _____

4. How many people do you support with your salary? _____

5. What is the highest level of education that you completed? _____

6. What jobs do you have? Position(s) _____

How long have you been with your employer(s)? *(write down the number of years)*

7. Employer 1 _____
8. Employer 2 _____
9. Employer 3 _____
10. Employer 4 _____
11. Employer 5 _____

Nature of main employment:

12. _____ Permanent _____Contract _____ Project-Based

13. _____ Full-time _____Part-time

14. How many people are employed by your main employer?

_____ less than 10 _____ 10 to 49 _____50 to 149 _____150 to 499 _____ 500 or more

15. Is there an employee union in the workplace?

_____ Yes _____No _____ I don't know

16. Are you a union member? _____ Yes _____ No _____ I don't know

17. Do you get paid **daily**, **weekly**, **fortnightly** or **monthly**? *(circle the applicable one)*

18. If you do not mind sharing, how much income do you get paid into your bank account or in cash? _____

19. How many days did you work in the last month? _____

BLOCK 2: PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF SPECIFIC DOMAINS OF LIFE

Now I am going to read a list of things in a person's life that may or may not be important to you to have a good life. For each thing that I will mention, please indicate if this is ***not at all important***, ***not really important***, ***important***, or ***very important***.

(give respondent a card with the answer options on it)

Encircle the appropriate number:

	Not at all important	Not really important	Important	Very Important
20. How important is **HOUSING** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to having a place that is near your place of work, school, etc.; that it is safe from fire and floods; clean and strong, with electricity, water and toilet facilities.*	1	2	3	4
21. How important is **QUALITY OF NEIGHBOURHOOD** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to having a safe place to live; where you have good relations with your neighbours.*	1	2	3	4
22. How important is **EMPLOYMENT** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to having a regular, permanent and legal employment; a place to work that gives you adequate pay.*	1	2	3	4
23. How important is **QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to having a safe place to work; that is suitable to your education, and where you enjoy good relations with your boss and peers.*	1	2	3	4
24. How important are **SAVINGS, WEALTH AND BELONGINGS** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to having your own house, appliances, savings and being free from debt.*	1	2	3	4
25. How important are **SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to being with your (spouse, child/children, friends), and enjoy the love of your relatives and friends.*	1	2	3	4
26. How important are **LEISURE AND SPARE TIME ACTIVITIES** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to having time for yourself, being able to rest, relax, and have fun with your loved ones.*	1	2	3	4

	Not at all important	Not really important	Important	Very Important
27. How important is **PHYSICAL HEALTH** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to being free from sickness and disability, being able to exercise regularly, having regular & nutritious food, enough sleep, and a long life.*	1	2	3	4
28. How important are **PSYCHOLOGICAL/ MENTAL HEALTH & EMOTIONAL WELLBEING** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to giving importance to oneself, having a clear mind, being calm and at peace, and the ability to make personal decisions. This also refers to being respected by your family and other people; the ability to handle your problems and face changes.*	1	2	3	4
29. How important are **RELIGION AND SPIRITUAL LIFE** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to having the opportunity to worship, pray, give to the church/synagogue/mosque/temple, and do good to others.*	1	2	3	4
30. How important are **INFORMATION AND KNOWLEDGE** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to having the ability to read and write, finish school, learn in different ways aside from school (e.g. watching TV or reading the newspaper), study in a good school (if you plan to study again) and being able to use your education.*	1	2	3	4
31. How important is **POLITICAL PARTICIPATION** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to knowing what is happening in the country, voting in the election, joining community organizations, and being free to express political opinion.*	1	2	3	4
32. How important is **GOVERNMENT PERFORMANCE** for you to say that you have a good life? *This refers to having a country that is peaceful, crime-free, has good public service and stable economy, where citizens are united, and where there are equal justice and opportunities to everyone.*	1	2	3	4

BLOCK 3: PERCEIVED FREEDOM TO ATTAIN SPECIFIC DOMAINS OF LIFE

I have asked you how important certain things are for a good life. Now I would like to ask you how possible it is for you to achieve these. For every point that I will mention, please say if for you it is **completely impossible, almost impossible, quite possible, completely possible**.

(give respondent a card with the answer options on it)

Encircle the appropriate number:

	Completely impossible	Almost impossible	Quite possible	Completely possible
33. How possible is it for you right now to get **HOUSING** that allows you to have a good life? *This refers to having a place that is near your place of work, school, etc.; that it is safe from fire and floods; clean and strong, with electricity, water and toilet facilities.*	1	2	3	4
34. How possible is it for you right now to get the **QUALITY OF NEIGHBOURHOOD** that allows you to have a good life? *This refers to having a safe place to live; where you have good relations with your neighbors.*	1	2	3	4
35. How possible is it for you right now to get **EMPLOYMENT** that allows you to have a good life? *This refers to having a regular, permanent and legal employment; a place to work that gives you adequate pay.*	1	2	3	4
36. How possible is it for you right now to get the **QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE** that allows you to have a good life? *This refers to having a safe place to work; that is suitable to your education, and where you enjoy good relations with your boss and peers.*	1	2	3	4
37. How possible is it for you right now to get the **SAVINGS, WEALTH AND ASSETS** that allow you to have a good life? *This refers to having your own house, appliances, savings and being free from debt.*	1	2	3	4
38. How possible is it for you right now to get the **SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS** that allow you to have a good life? *This refers to being with your (spouse, child/children, friends), and enjoy the love of your relatives and friends.*	1	2	3	4
39. How possible is it for you right now to get the **LEISURE AND SPARE TIME ACTIVITIES** that allow you to have a good life?	1	2	3	4

	Completely impossible	Almost impossible	Quite possible	Completely possible
This refers to having time for yourself, being able to rest, relax, & have fun with your loved ones.				
40. How possible is it for you right now to get the **PHYSICAL HEALTH** that allows you to have a good life? *This refers to being free from sickness and disability, able to exercise regularly, having regular & nutritious food, enough sleep, and a long life.*	1	2	3	4
41. How possible is it for you right now to get the **PSYCHOLOGICAL/ MENTAL HEALTH & EMOTIONAL WELLBEING** that allow you to have a good life? *This refers to giving importance to oneself, having a clear mind, being calm and at peace, and the ability to make personal decisions. This also refers to being respected by your family and other people; the ability to handle your problems and face changes.*	1	2	3	4
42. How possible is it for you right now to get the **RELIGIOUS AND SPIRITUAL LIFE** that allows you to have a good life? *This refers to having the opportunity to worship, pray, give to the church/synagogue/mosque/temple, and do good to others.*	1	2	3	4
43. How possible is it for you right now to get the **INFORMATION AND KNOWLEDGE** that allow you to have a good life? *This refers to having the ability to read and write, finish school, learn through different ways aside from school (e.g. watching TV or reading the newspaper), study in a good school (if you plan to study again) and being able to use your education.*	1	2	3	4
44. How possible is it for you right now to **PARTICIPATE POLITICALLY** in a way that allows you to have a good life? *This refers to knowing what is happening in the country, voting in the election, joining community organizations, and being free to express political opinion.*	1	2	3	4
45. How possible is it for you right now to get the **GOVERNMENT PERFORMANCE** that allows you to have a good life? *This refers to having a country that is peaceful, crime-free, has good public service and a stable economy*, where citizens are united, and where there are equal justice and opportunities to everyone.	1	2	3	4

BLOCK 4: ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOURS + TASK PERFORMANCE

Now I would like to ask about your experiences at work. For this part, there will be 6 choices for your answer namely

Never, Almost never, Sometimes, Often, Almost always, and **Always**

(give respondent a card with the answer options on it)

Encircle the appropriate number:

		Never	Almost never	Some-times	Often	Almost always	Always
45.	I help others who have been absent from work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46.	I help others who have heavy workloads.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47.	I volunteer to assist supervisors with their work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48.	I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49.	I go out of my way to help new employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50.	I show concern to my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51.	I share information with co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
52.	My attendance at work is better than that of most others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
53.	I give advance notice when I can't come to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
54.	I take work breaks that are not permitted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
55.	I spend much time with personal phone conversations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
56.	I complain about unimportant things at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
57.	I follow unwritten rules to maintain order at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
58.	I only put minimal effort into my current job because I really feel that I'm wasting my time at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
59.	I don't know why I'm doing this work; it's pointless work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
60.	I put a great deal of effort into my current job because I have fun doing my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
61.	I put a great deal of effort into my current job because what I do in my work is interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Never	Almost never	Some-times	Often	Almost always	Always
62. I do little work in my current job because I don't think this work is worth putting a great deal of effort into.	1	2	3	4	5	6
63. I put a great deal of effort into my current job because the work I do is interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6
64. Overall, I am content with my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
65. I am content with the important aspects of my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
66. I like the work that I do in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6

BLOCK 5: EMPOWERMENT

In this section of the survey, we will use a different scale to almost every question.

67. Empowerment at work means you feel you **have some control over how you do your work**, and in workplace decisions that directly affect you personally. On a scale from 0 to 10 how 'empowered' do you feel at work in general? 0 means not empowered at all, 10 means completely empowered

*(*Please indicate *how empowered you feel. 10 is full empowerment and 0 is zero.)*

0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 9 ☐ 10 ☐

	Never	Almost never	Some-times	Often	Almost always	Always
68. I am satisfied with my job in general.	1	2	3	4	5	6
69. I am satisfied with my pay.	1	2	3	4	5	6
70. My work makes me feel proud.	1	2	3	4	5	6
71. I am stressed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
72. I am physically well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
73. I am satisfied with life in general.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Very Unfair	Unfair	Quite Unfair	Neither Unfair or Fair	Quite Fair	Fair	Very Fair
74. Overall, how fair would you say your pay is?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Do you think your wage is a 'fair rate'…?			
75. For the job	Yes	No	Don't Know
76. Compared to your effort?	Yes	No	Don't Know
77. Compared to your qualifications	Yes	No	Don't Know
78. Compared to similar jobs elsewhere	Yes	No	Don't Know
79. Compared to your direct supervisor in your organization	Yes	No	Don't Know

80. Does your pay provide enough for your basic needs?	Yes	No
81. Does your income exceed what you consider to be your basic needs (e.g., enable you to have some savings, to enjoy some leisure activities, to enjoy the occasional treat)?	Yes	No

82. Do you feel that your employment income contributes not only to your own life but also to others in your household (parents, dependents)?	Yes	No	Not Applicable

BLOCK 6: LIVING ARRANGEMENTS

To finish, just a few more questions about your household.

83. What best describes your living arrangements?

- Rent home (formal structure) ☐
- Rent home (informal structure) ☐
- Home owner (formal structure, **with bond**) ☐
- Hone owner (informal structure, **with bond**) ☐
- Home owner (formal structure, **bond free**) ☐
- Home owner (informal structure, **bond free**) ☐

84. How many people live in your household?

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐

5 ☐ 6 or more ☐

85. How many children live in the household?

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐

5 ☐ 6 or more ☐

86. What is the total number of (working) incomes in your household?

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐

5 ☐ 6 or more ☐

87. How many of these incomes are full-time?

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐

5 ☐ 6 or more ☐

88. How many other dependent adults live in your household?

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐

5 ☐ 6 or more ☐

BLOCK 7: INTERVIEWER CHARACTERISTICS

We at the University care about your experience with our interviewer. Please rate your experience with our interviewer?

	Very poor	Poor	Quite poor	Neither poor or good	Quite good	Good	Very Good
89. Overall, how would you rate your experience of our interviewer?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

We are concerned that our interviewer might have affected our responses. Please rate your interviewer's physical appearance (all responses are kept anonymous from the interviewer.)

	Very poor appearance	Poor appearance	Quite poor appearance	Not good or poor appearance	Quite good appearance	Good Appearance	Very good appearance
90. Overall, how would you rate the **physical appearance** of our interviewer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

91. To understand our interviewer performance, we are interested in what makes our interviewers successful. Try and describe our interviewer in no less than five points?

(1) _____

(2) _____

(3) _____

(4) _____

(5) _____

This is the end of the interview. Thank you very much.

(To the Interviewer: Indicate TIME ENDED on the first page.)

Appendix B: Supplementary Descriptive Tables

Table 1

Participants Per Province and Percentage of South African Population Residing in Province

Province in which the participant resides	*n*	%	% of South African population which resides in province
Gauteng	427	27.3%	25.3%
KwaZulu Natal	255	16.3%	19.6%
Eastern Cape	212	13.5%	11.5%
Western Cape	164	10.5%	11.5%
Limpopo	159	10.2%	10.2%
Mpumalanga	113	7.2%	7.9%
North West Province	85	5.4%	6.8%
Free State	83	5.3%	5.1%
Northern Cape	57	3.6%	2.1%

Table 2

Breakdown of Participants by Language

Language	*n*	%
isiZulu	300	19.2%
isiXhosa	234	14.9%
English	204	13.0%
Setswana	137	8.7%
Sesotho	125	8.0%
Thivenda	118	7.5%
Afrikaans	114	7.3%
Sepedi	112	7.2%
Xitsonga	77	4.9%
siSwati	52	3.3%
isiNdebele	40	2.6%
Other	33	2.1%

Appendix C: Validity Tables

Table 1

First Iteration of Factor Analysis

Total Variance Explained							
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings
Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	4.423	34.024	34.024	4.004	30.804	30.804	3.206
2	1.996	15.350	49.374	1.399	10.764	41.568	1.399
3	1.070	8.229	57.603	.515	3.958	45.526	3.328
4	.889	6.839	64.442				
5	.770	5.923	70.364				
6	.750	5.767	76.132				
7	.606	4.665	80.796				
8	.527	4.051	84.848				
9	.477	3.668	88.516				
10	.461	3.547	92.062				
11	.409	3.147	95.210				
12	.335	2.579	97.788				
13	.288	2.212	100.000				

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation.

Table 2

Pattern Matrix for First Iteration of Factor Analysis

Pattern Matrix			
	Factor		
	1	2	3
OCBI1 I help others who have been absent from work.			-.756
OCBI2 I help others who have heavy workloads.			-.880
OCBI3 I volunteer to assist supervisors with their work.			-.627
OCBI4 I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.	.520		
OCBI5 I go out of my way to help new employees	.516		-.341
OCBI6 I show concern to my co-workers.	.742		
OCBI7 share information with co-workers.	.624		
OCBO1 My attendance at work is better than that of most others.	.371		
OCBO2 I give advance notice when I can't come to work.	.359		
OCBO3 I take work breaks that are not permitted. (R)		.611	
OCBO4 I spend much time with personal phone conversations. (R)		.682	
OCBO5 I complain about unimportant things at work. (R)		.615	
OCBO6 I follow unwritten rules to maintain order at work.			

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation. Reverse-scored items denoted with an (R).

Table 3

Second Iteration of Factor Analysis After OCB-O Item 6 Deletion (Did Not Load Significantly on Any of the Three Factors in the Pattern Matrix)

Total Variance Explained							
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings
Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	4.432	36.931	36.931	4.015	33.458	33.458	3.279
2	1.895	15.790	52.721	1.326	11.051	44.509	1.379
3	1.044	8.698	61.419	.511	4.262	48.771	3.246
4	.776	6.463	67.882				
5	.757	6.308	74.190				
6	.606	5.051	79.241				
7	.524	4.367	83.608				
8	.477	3.978	87.586				
9	.461	3.838	91.423				
10	.409	3.404	94.828				
11	.335	2.789	97.617				
12	.286	2.383	100.000				

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation.

Table 4

Pattern Matrix for Second Iteration of Factor Analysis

Pattern Matrix			
	Factor		
	1	2	3
OCBI1 I help others who have been absent from work.			-.738
OCBI2 I help others who have heavy workloads.			-.863
OCBI3 I volunteer to assist supervisors with their work.			-.610
OCBI4 I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.	.546		
OCBI5 I go out of my way to help new employees	.539		-.322
OCBI6 I show concern to my co-workers.	.766		
OCBI7 share information with co-workers.	.648		
OCBO1 My attendance at work is better than that of most others.	.364		
OCBO2 I give advance notice when I can't come to work.	.343		
OCBO3 I take work breaks that are not permitted. (R)		.612	
OCBO4 I spend much time with personal phone conversations. (R)		.712	
OCBO5 I complain about unimportant things at work. (R)		.618	

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation. Reverse-scored items denoted with an (R). Factor loadings below .30 removed.

Table 5

Third Iteration of Factor Analysis After OCB-I Item 5 Deletion (Loaded Significantly on Two Factors in the Pattern Matrix)

Total Variance Explained							
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings
Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	3.868	35.160	35.160	3.450	31.363	31.363	2.911
2	1.890	17.179	52.339	1.324	12.038	43.401	1.375
3	1.041	9.462	61.802	.503	4.576	47.977	2.685
4	.774	7.036	68.838				
5	.744	6.765	75.602				
6	.607	5.519	81.122				
7	.522	4.750	85.871				
8	.475	4.315	90.187				
9	.446	4.054	94.241				
10	.349	3.170	97.411				
11	.285	2.589	100.000				

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation.

Table 6

Pattern Matrix for Third Iteration of Factor Analysis

Pattern Matrix			
	Factor		
	1	2	3
OCBI1 I help others who have been absent from work.	.749		
OCBI2 I help others who have heavy workloads.	.882		
OCBI3 I volunteer to assist supervisors with their work.	.626		
OCBI4 I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.			.514
OCBI6 I show concern to my co-workers.			.742
OCBI7 share information with co-workers.			.636
OCBO1 My attendance at work is better than that of most others.			.352
OCBO2 I give advance notice when I can't come to work.			.349
OCBO3 I take work breaks that are not permitted. (R)		.610	
OCBO4 I spend much time with personal phone conversations. (R)		.713	
OCBO5 I complain about unimportant things at work. (R)		.614	

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation. Reverse-scored items denoted with an (R). Factor loadings below .30 removed. Items that loaded on more than one factor removed.

Appendix D: Reliability Tables

Table 1

OCB-I Scale: Corrected Item-Total Correlations

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
OCBI1 I help others who have been absent from work.	7.60	8.636	.703	.752
OCBI2 I help others who have heavy workloads.	7.61	8.763	.741	.718
OCBI3 I volunteer to assist supervisors with their work.	7.96	8.555	.632	.828

Table 2

OCB-I Scale: Inter-Item Correlations

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	OCBI1 I help others who have been absent from work.	OCBI2 I help others who have heavy workloads.	OCBI3 I volunteer to assist supervisors with their work.
OCBI1 I help others who have been absent from work.	1.000	.707	.562
OCBI2 I help others who have heavy workloads.	.707	1.000	.607
OCBI3 I volunteer to assist supervisors with their work.	.562	.607	1.000

Table 3

OCB-O Scale: Corrected Item-Total Correlations

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
OCBO3 I take work breaks that are not permitted.	9.81	4.535	.481	.609
OCBO4 I spend much time with personal phone conversations.	9.82	4.638	.539	.536
OCBO5 I complain about unimportant things at work.	9.82	4.694	.470	.622

Table 4

OCB-O Scale: Inter-Item Correlations

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix			
	OCBO3 I take work breaks that are not permitted.	OCBO4 I spend much time with personal phone conversations.	OCBO5 I complain about unimportant things at work.
OCBO3 I take work breaks that are not permitted.	1.000	.453	.366
OCBO4 I spend much time with personal phone conversations.	.453	1.000	.439
OCBO5 I complain about unimportant things at work.	.366	.439	1.000

Table 5

OCB-I-O Scale: Corrected Item-Total Correlations

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
OCBI4 I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.	18.74	14.382	.555	.653
OCBI6 I show concern to my co-workers.	18.35	14.262	.677	.604
OCBI7 share information with co-workers.	18.41	14.217	.589	.638
OCBO1 My attendance at work is better than that of most others.	18.10	17.498	.368	.724
OCBO2 I give advance notice when I can't come to work.	17.56	19.066	.263	.754

Table 6

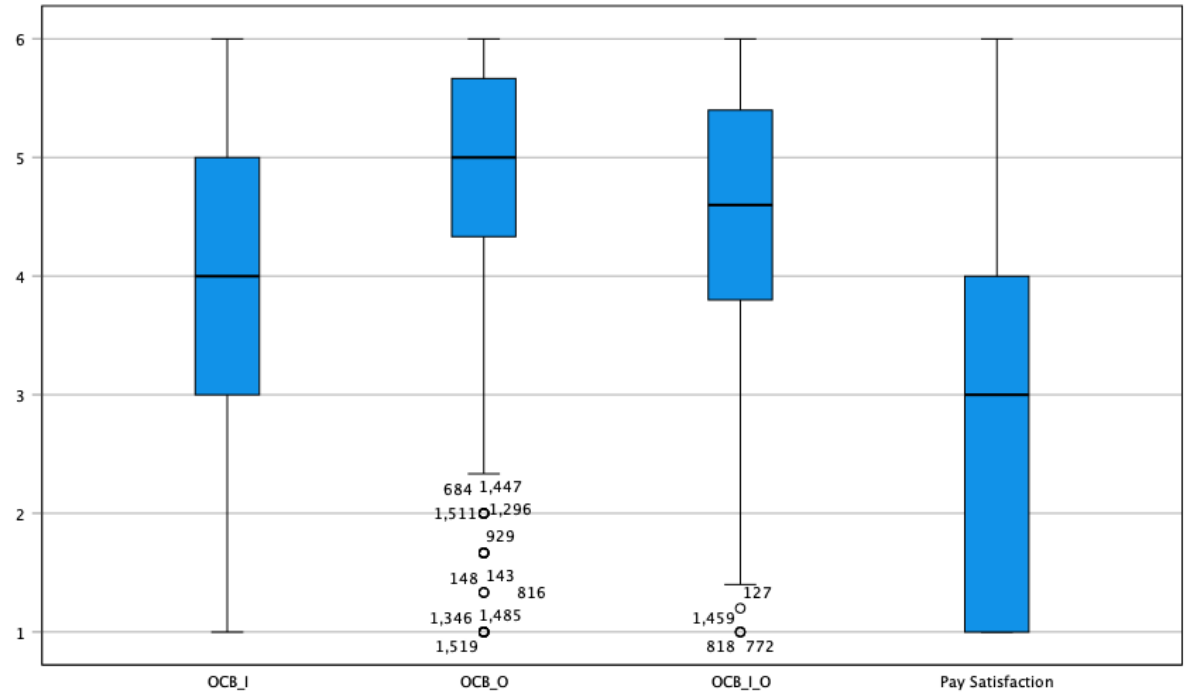
OCB-I-O Scale: Inter-Item Correlations

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix					
	OCBI4 I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.	OCBI6 I show concern to my co-workers.	OCBI7 share information with co-workers.	OCBO1 My attendance at work is better than that of most others.	OCBO2 I give advance notice when I can't come to work.
OCBI4 I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.	1.000	.599	.500	.226	.188
OCBI6 I show concern to my co-workers.	.599	1.000	.611	.340	.221
OCBI7 share information with co-workers.	.500	.611	1.000	.303	.176
OCBO1 My attendance at work is better than that of most others.	.226	.340	.303	1.000	.220
OCBO2 I give advance notice when I can't come to work.	.188	.221	.176	.220	1.000

Appendix E: Assessing for Outliers

Figure 1

Boxplots Indicating No Extreme Outliers for OCB-I, OCB-O, OCB-I-O, and Pay Satisfaction



Appendix F: Boxplot Showing Income Outliers

Figure 1

*Boxplot Indicating Extreme Outliers in the Income Data (Depicted by the * symbol)*

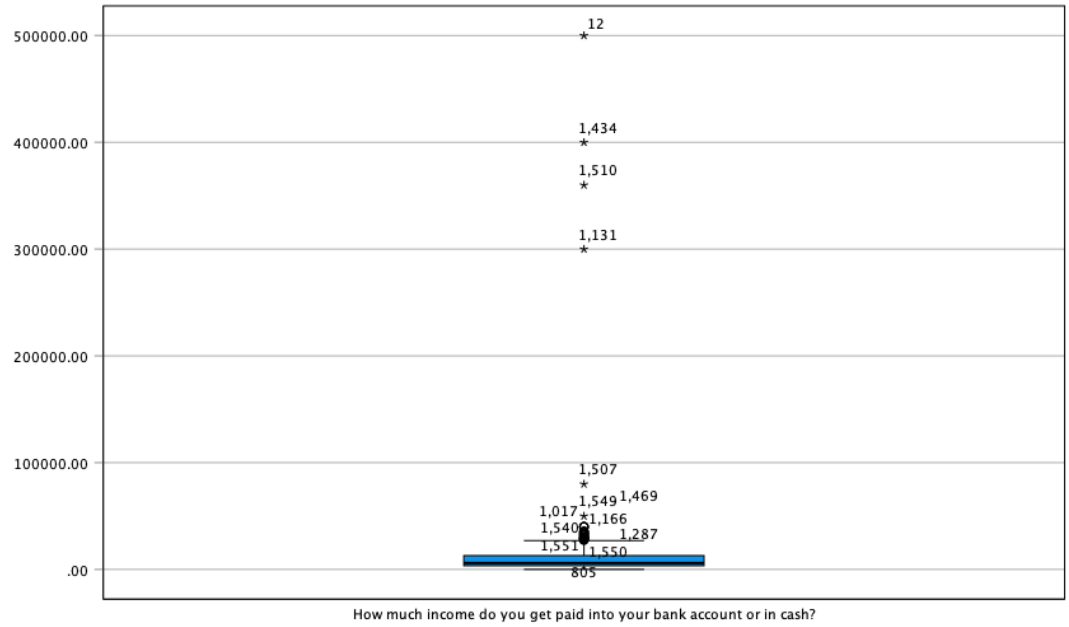
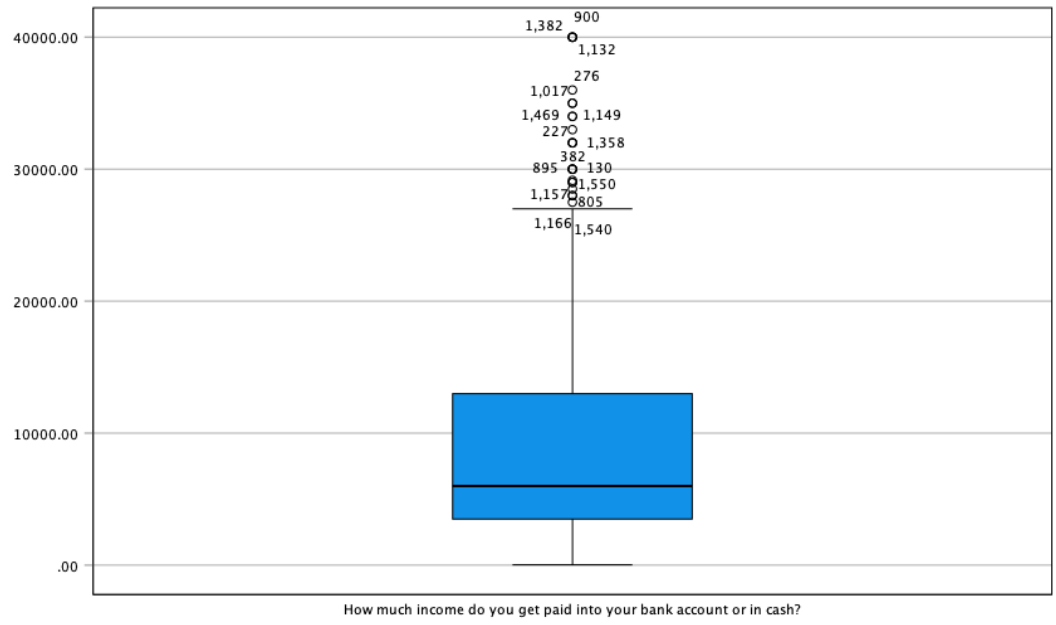


Figure 2

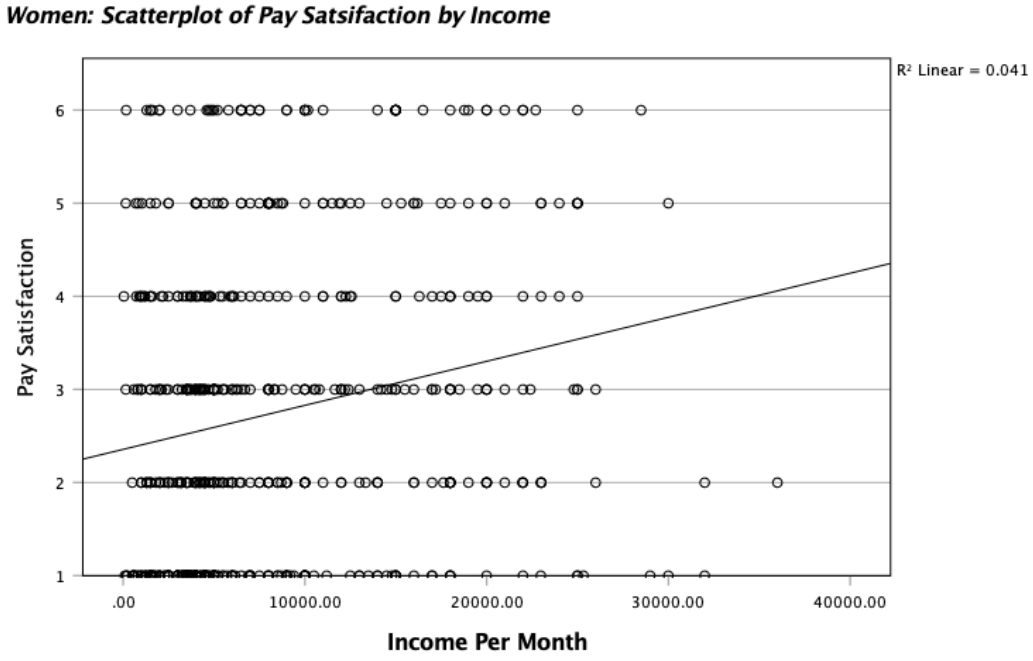
Boxplot of Income After Extreme Outliers Removed

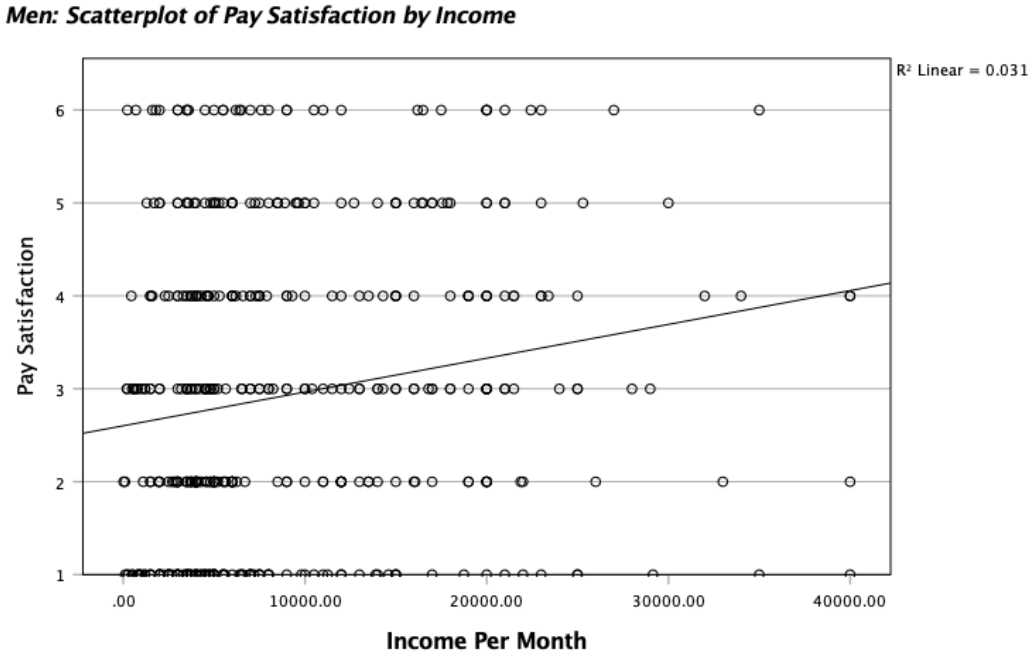


Appendix G: Hypothesis 3 Assumption Testing

Figure 1 and Figure 2

Scatterplots Showing a Positive Relationship Between Pay Satisfaction and Income with a Similar Slope for Both Women and Men





Appendix H: Hypothesis 7 Linearity Assumption

Figure 1

Scatterplot Between Income and OCB-I for Women

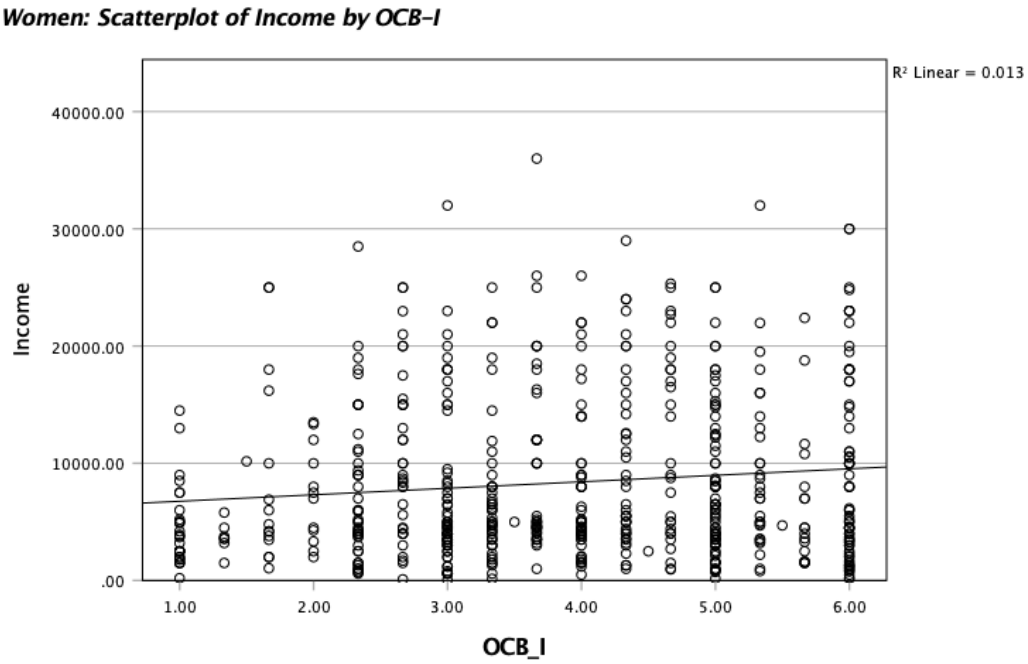


Figure 2

Scatterplot Between Income and OCB-I for Men

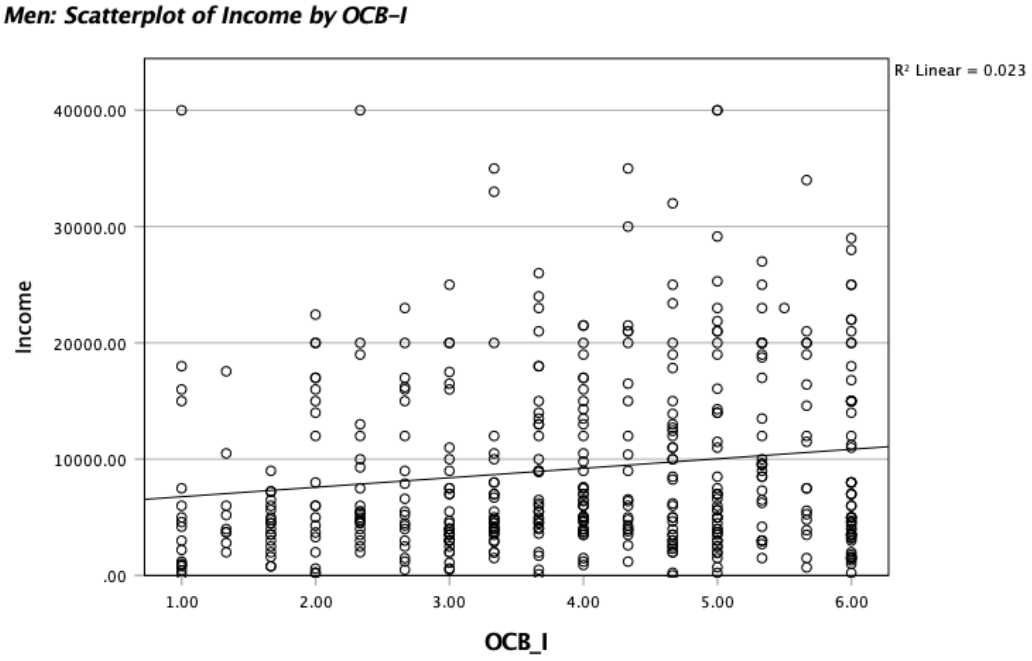


Figure 3

Scatterplot Between Income and OCB-O for Women

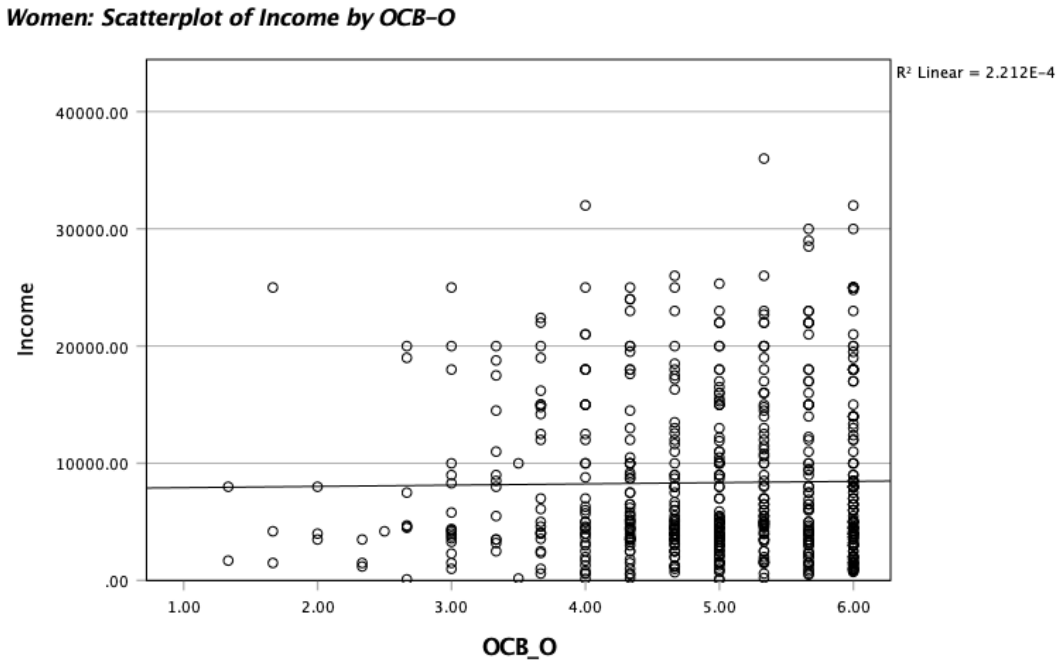


Figure 4

Scatterplot Between Income and OCB-O for Men

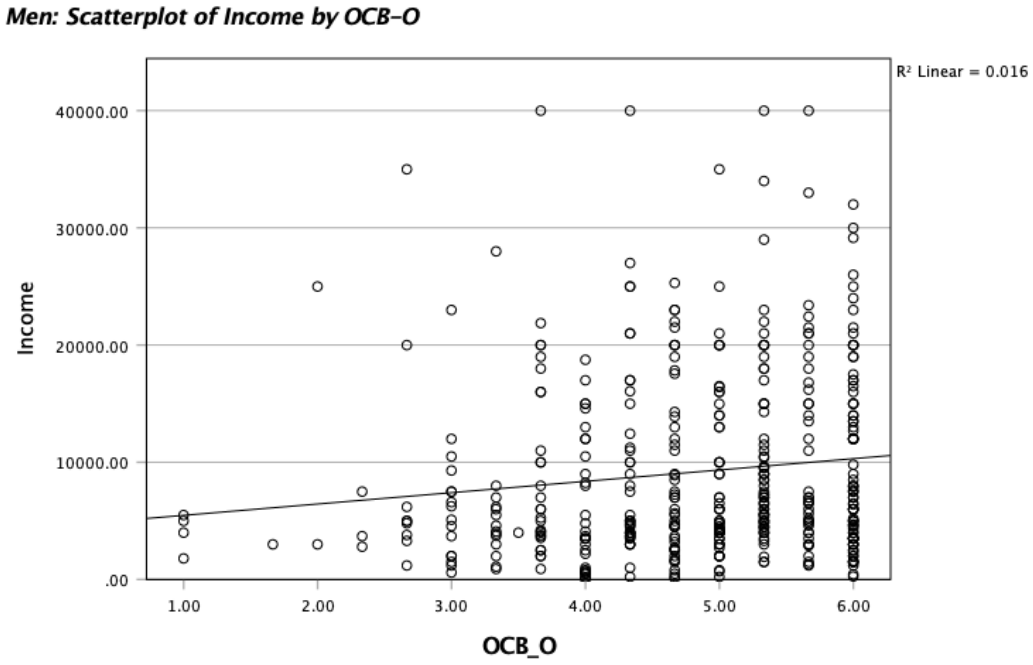


Figure 5

Scatterplot Between Income and OCB-I-O for Women

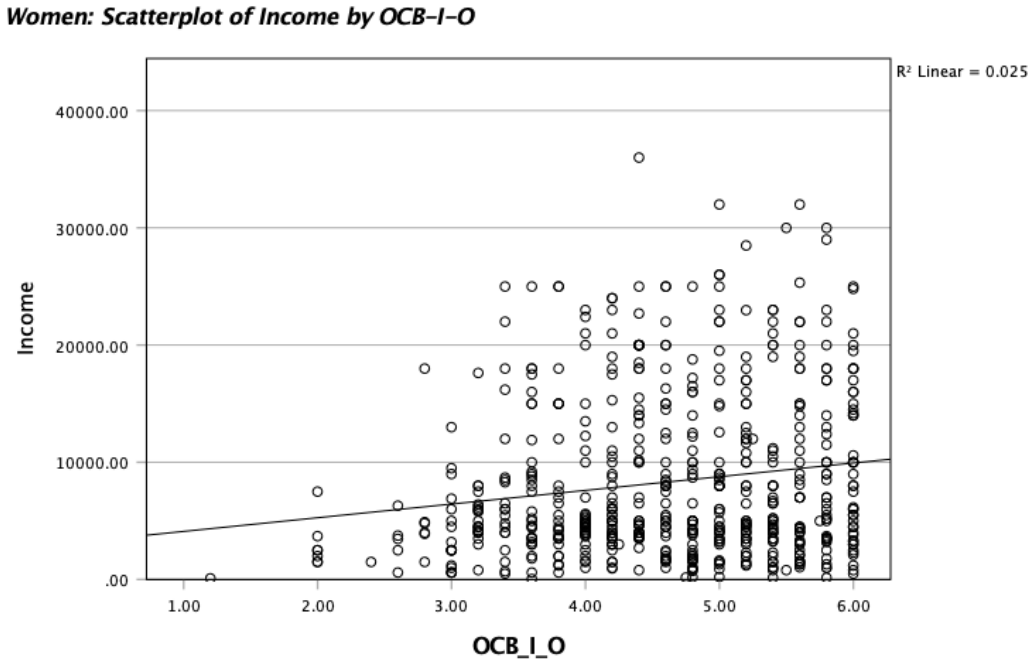
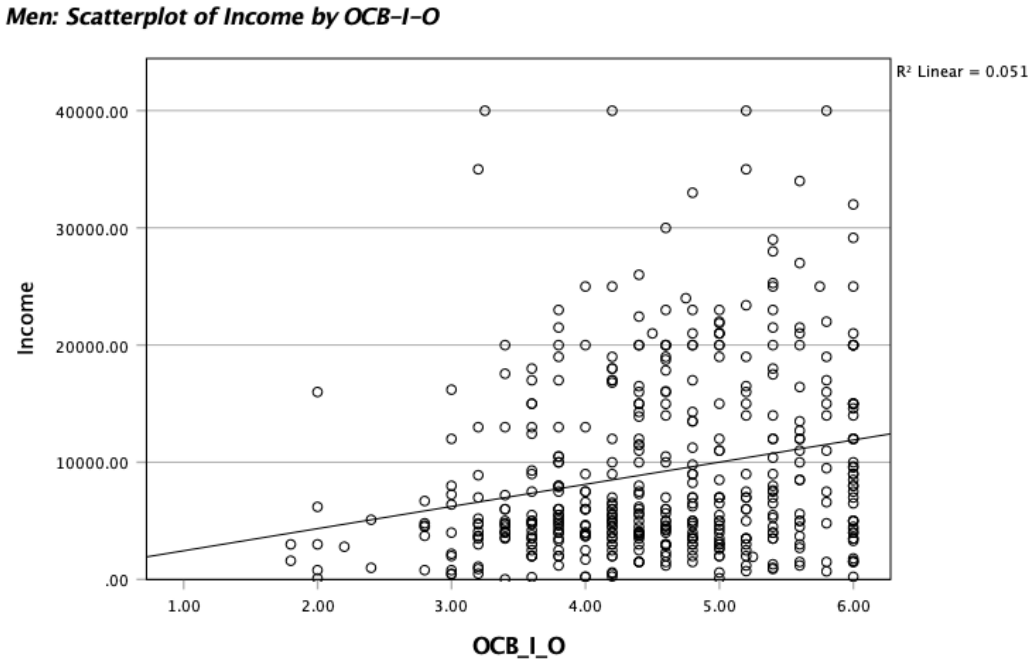


Figure 6

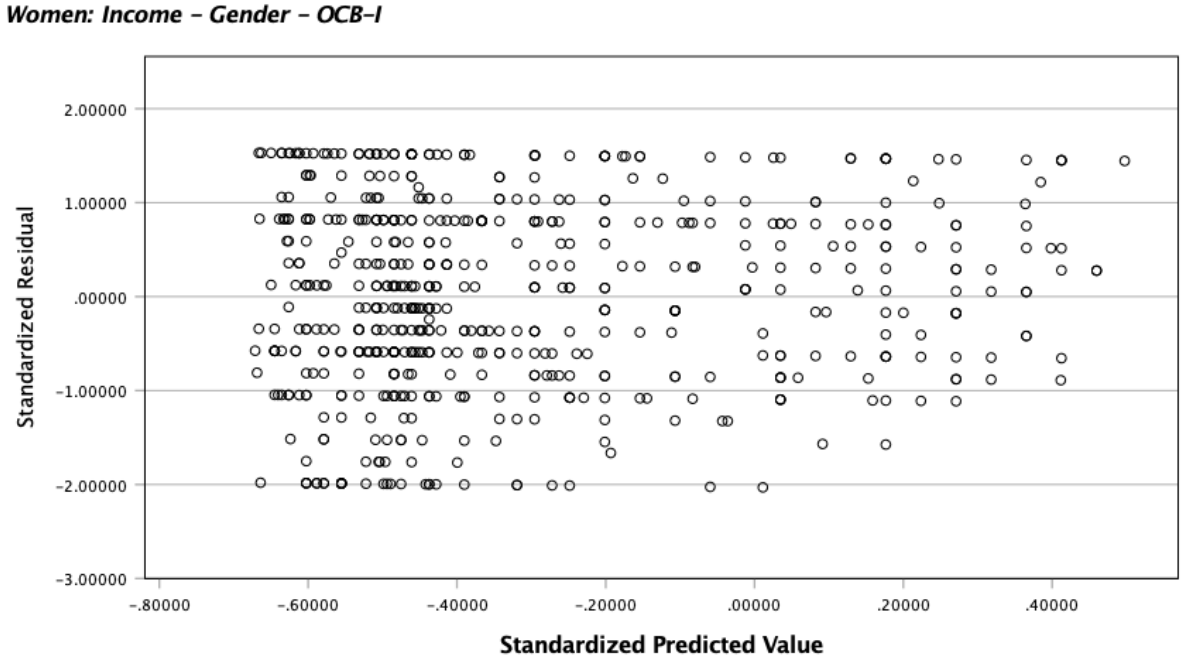
Scatterplot Between Income and OCB-I-O for Men



Appendix I: Hypothesis 7 Moderation Assumptions

Figure 1 and Figure 2

Scatterplots: Standardised Predicted Values Plotted Against Standardised Residual Values for Women and Men, for Model 1 (Income – Gender – OCB-I)



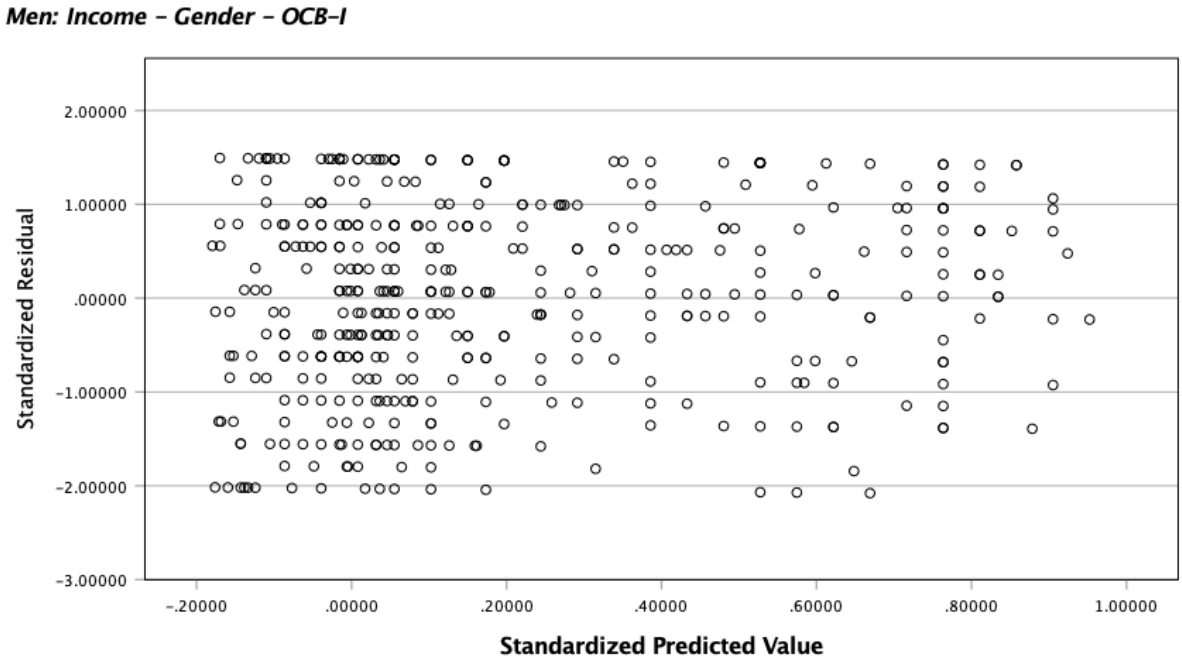
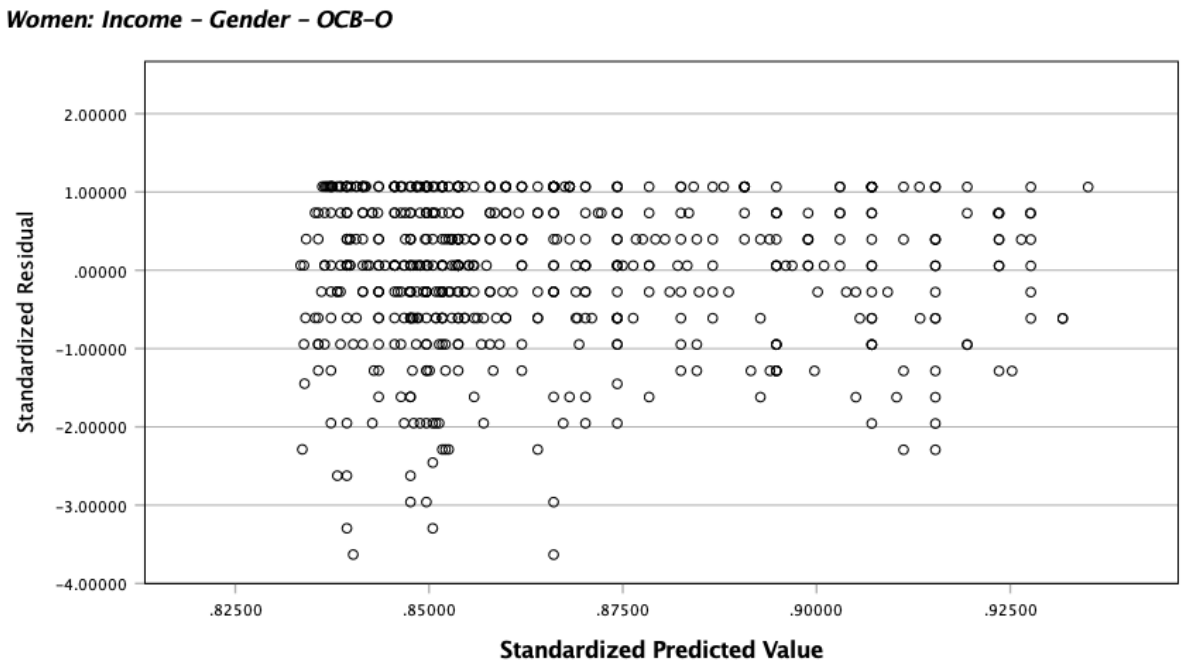


Figure 3 and Figure 4

Scatterplots: Standardised Predicted Values Plotted Against Standardised Residual Values for Women and Men, for Model 2 (Income – Gender – OCB-O)



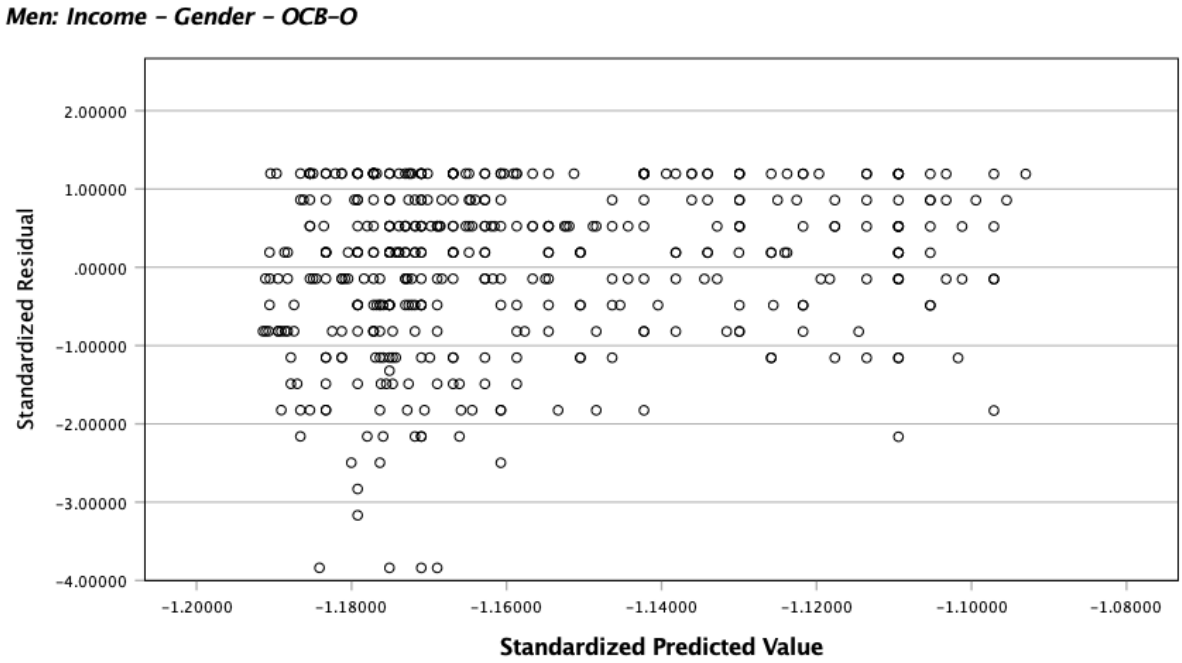
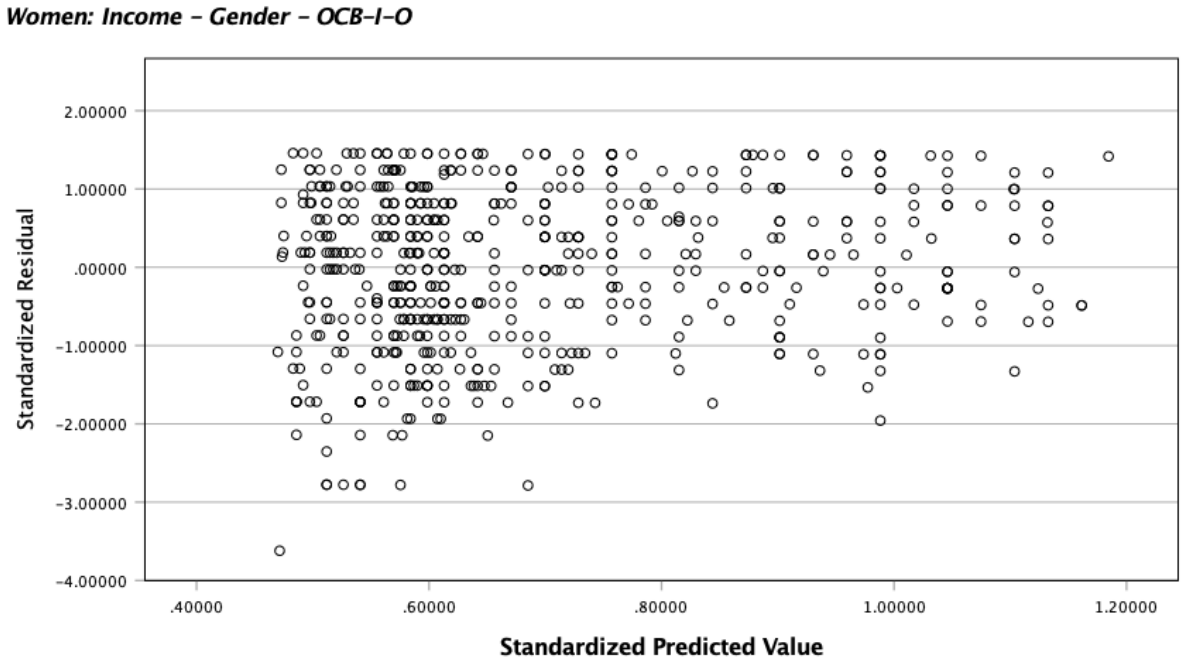
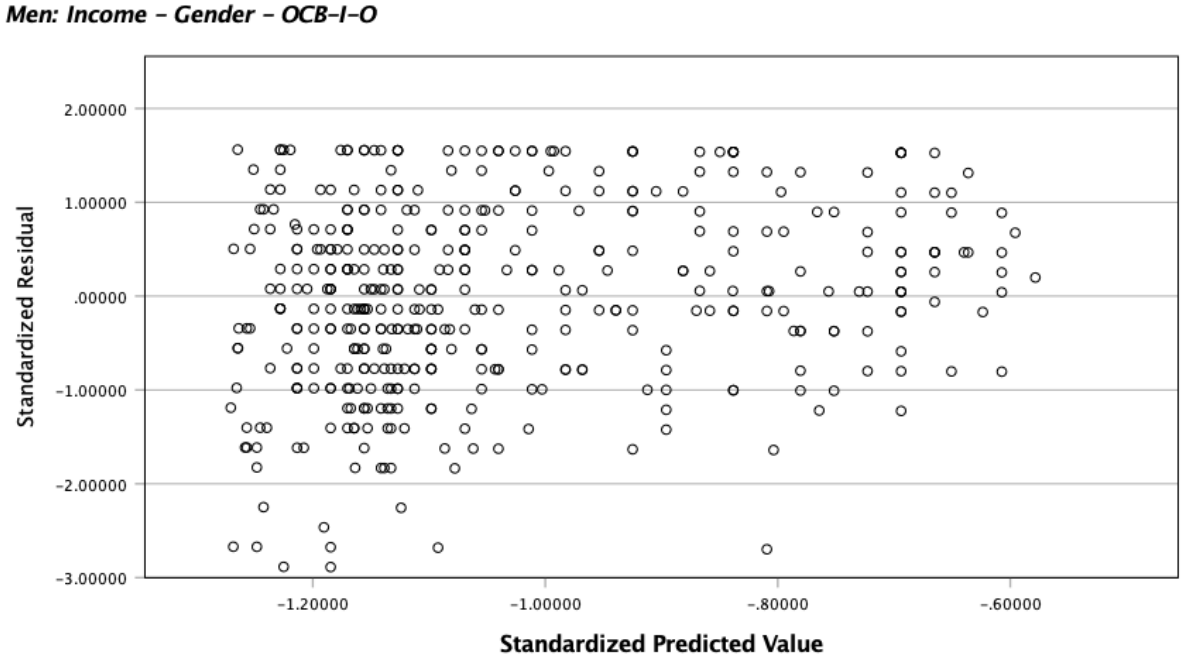


Figure 5 and Figure 6

Scatterplots: Standardised Predicted Values Plotted Against Standardised Residual Values for Women and Men, for Model 3 (Income – Gender – OCB-I-O)





Appendix J: Hypothesis 8 Linearity Assumption

Figure 1

Scatterplot Between Pay Satisfaction and OCB-I for Women

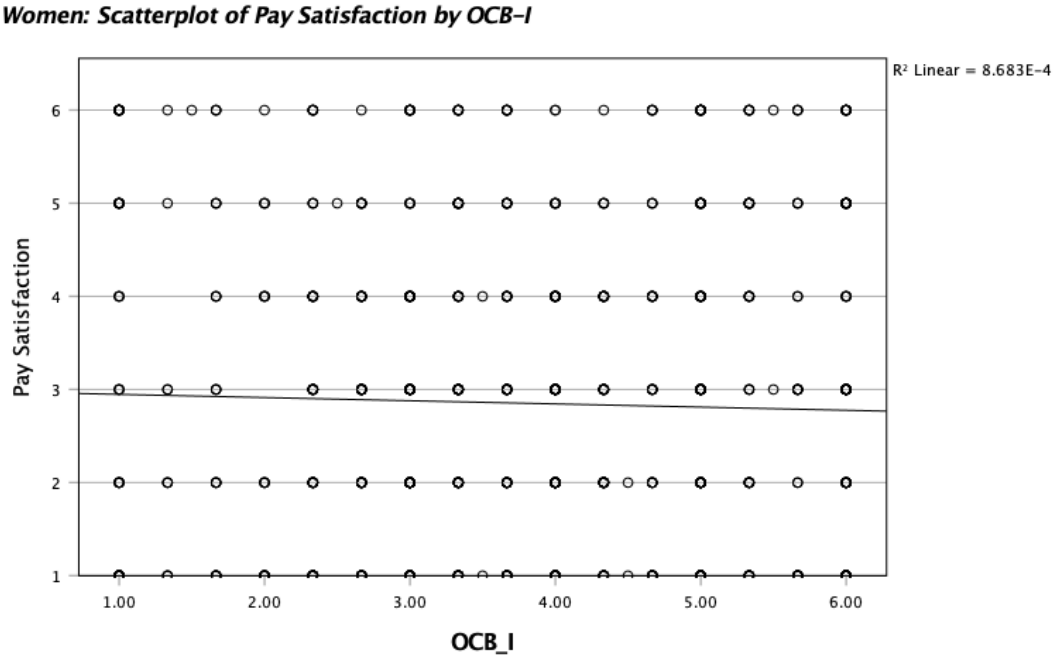


Figure 2

Scatterplot Between Pay Satisfaction and OCB-I for Men

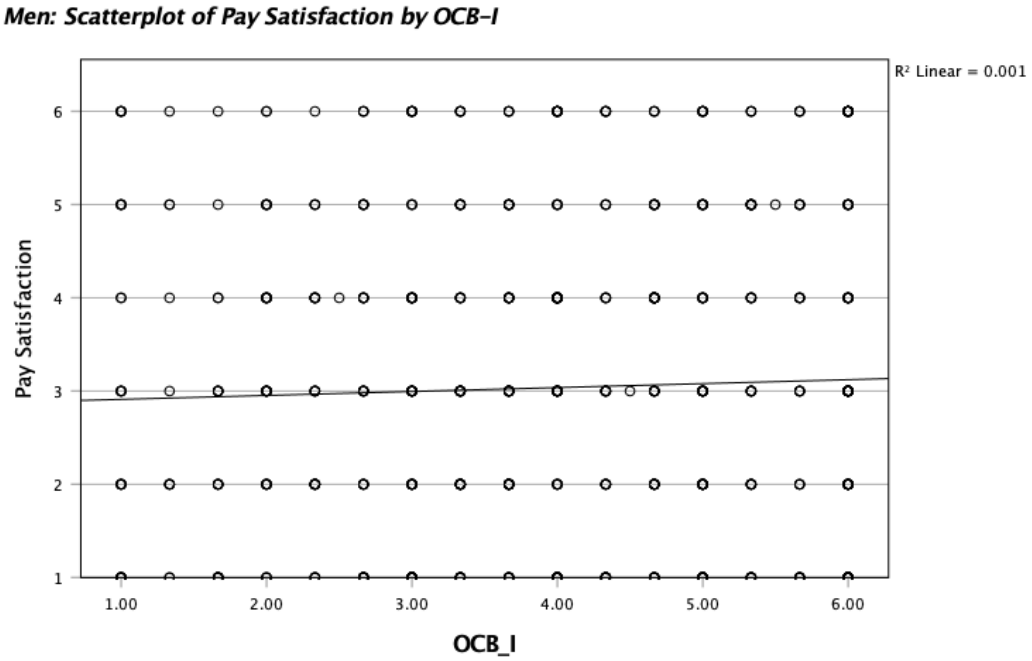


Figure 3

Scatterplot Between Pay Satisfaction and OCB-O for Women

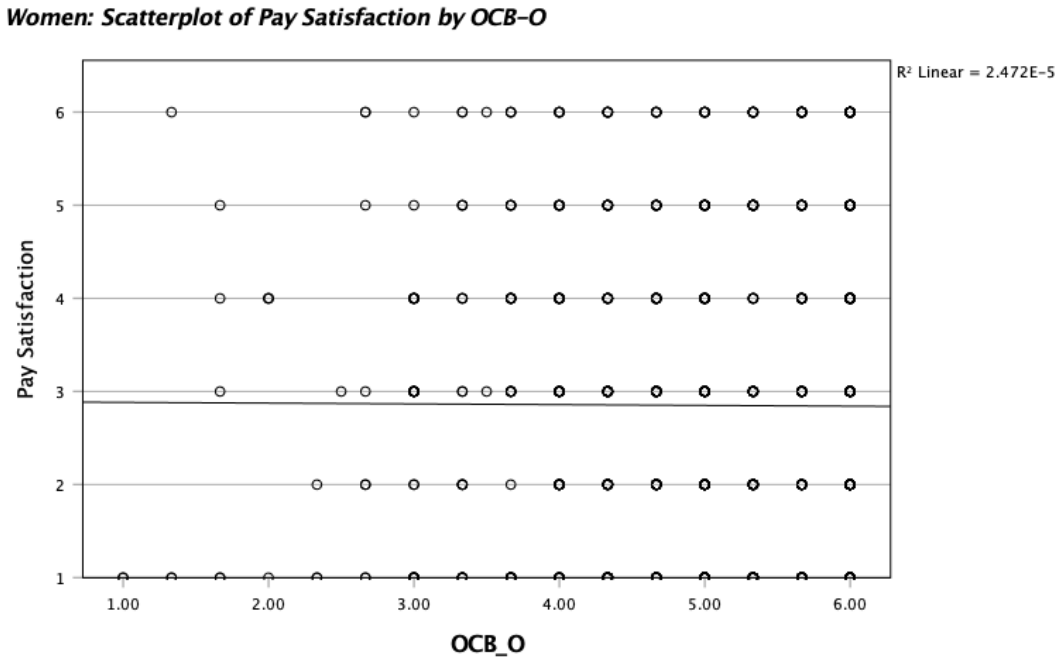


Figure 4

Scatterplot Between Pay Satisfaction and OCB-O for Men

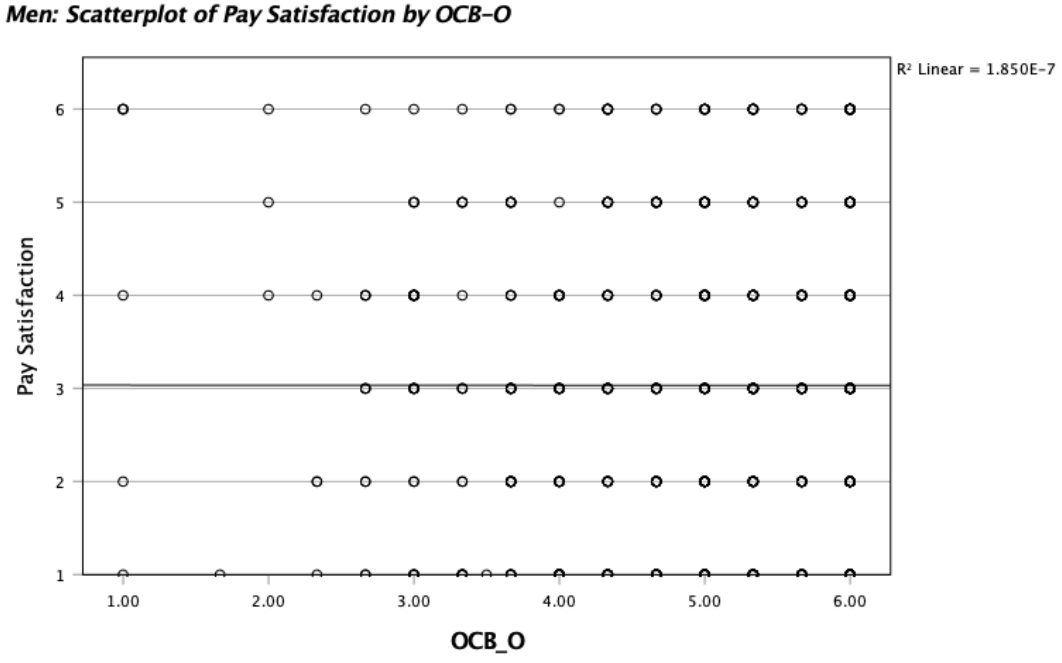


Figure 5

Scatterplot Between Pay Satisfaction and OCB-I-O for Women

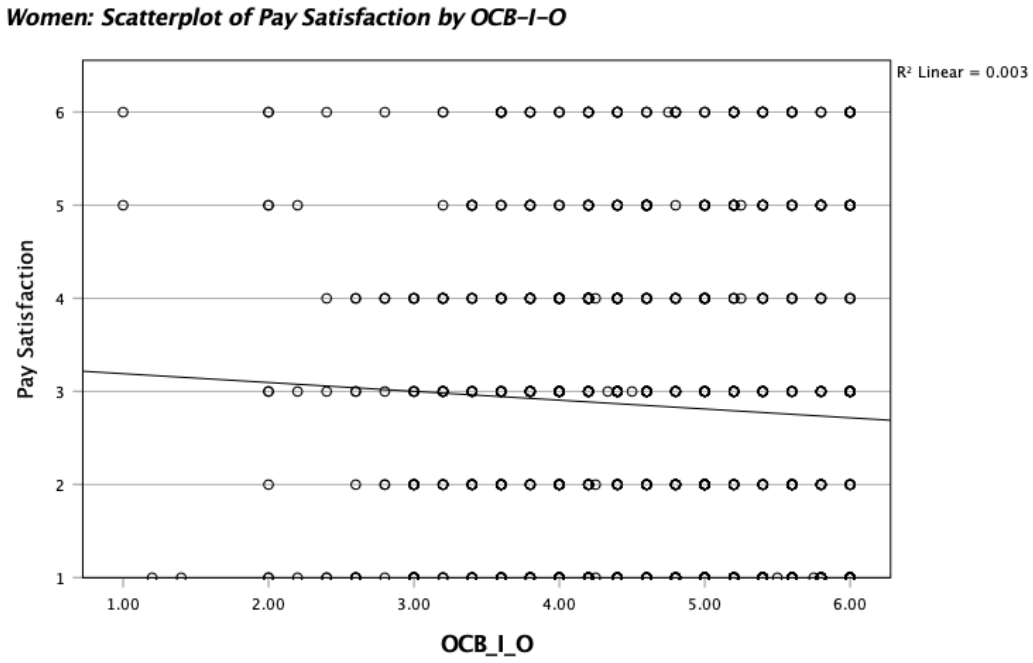
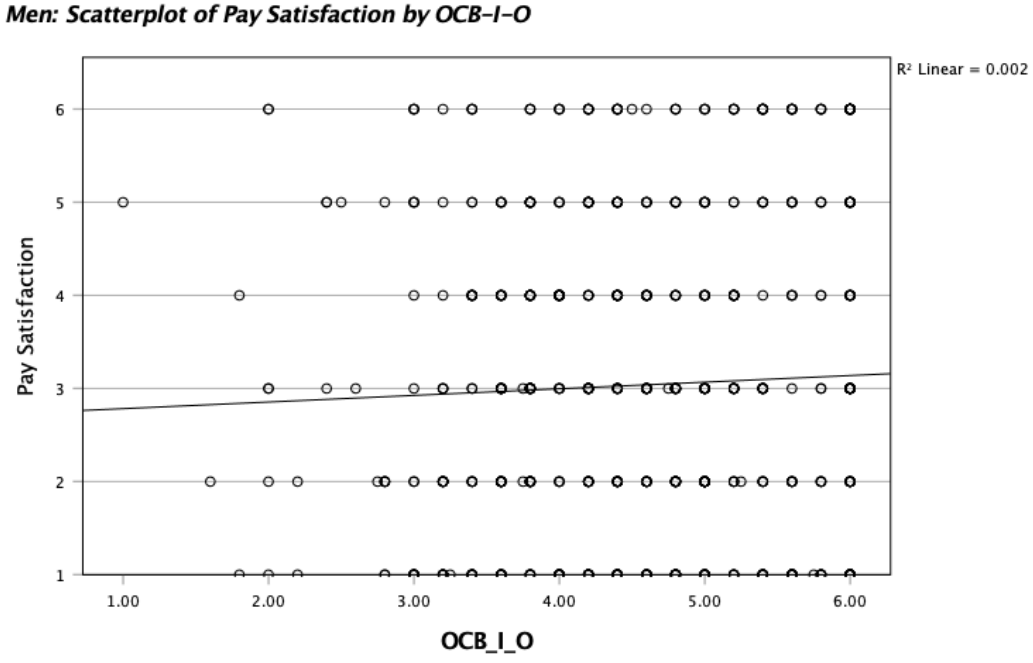


Figure 6

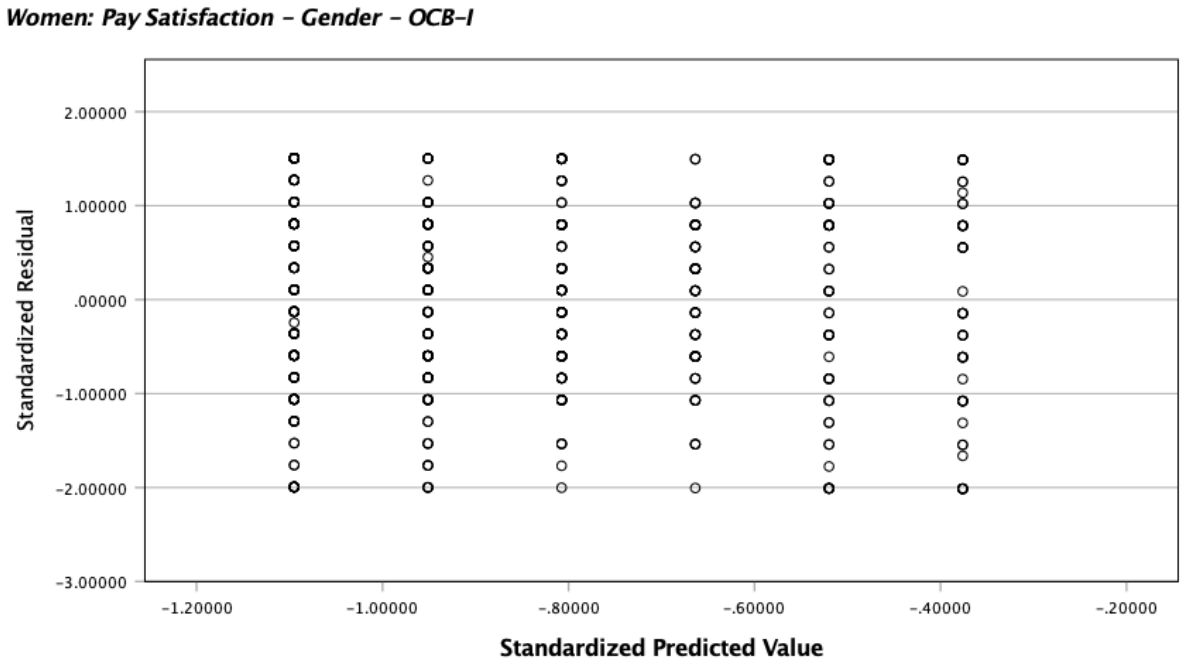
Scatterplot Between Pay Satisfaction and OCB-I-O for Men



Appendix K: Hypothesis 8 Moderation Assumptions

Figure 1 and Figure 2

Scatterplots: Standardised Predicted Values Plotted Against Standardised Residual Values for Women and Men, for Model 4 (Pay Satisfaction – Gender – OCB-I)



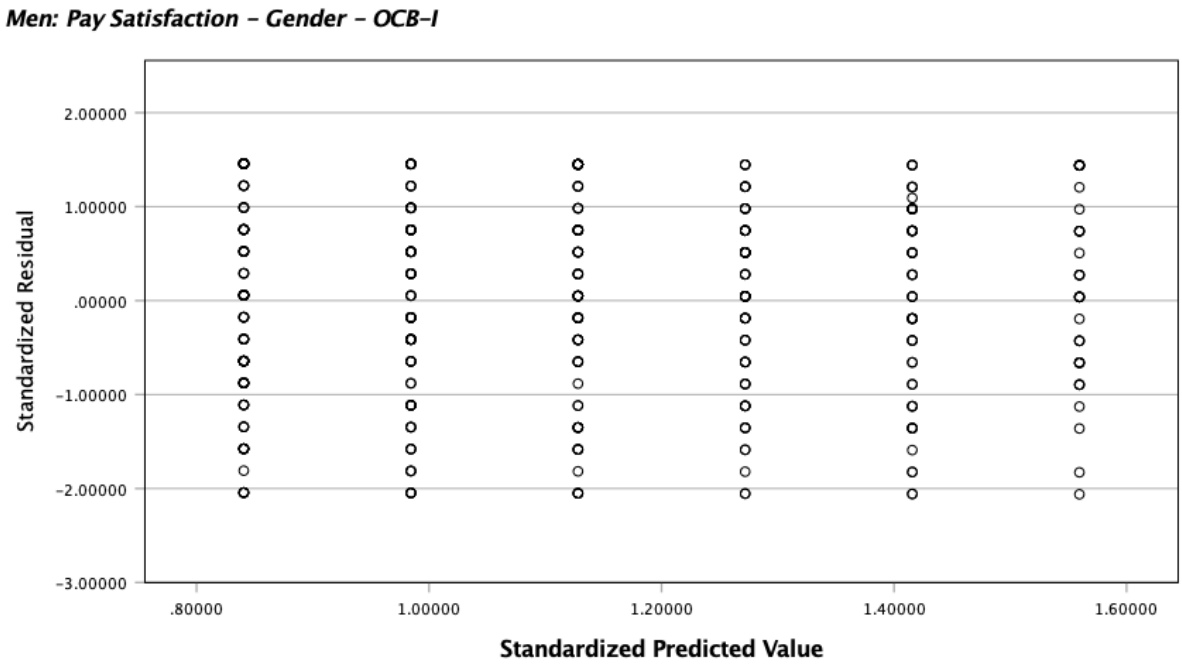
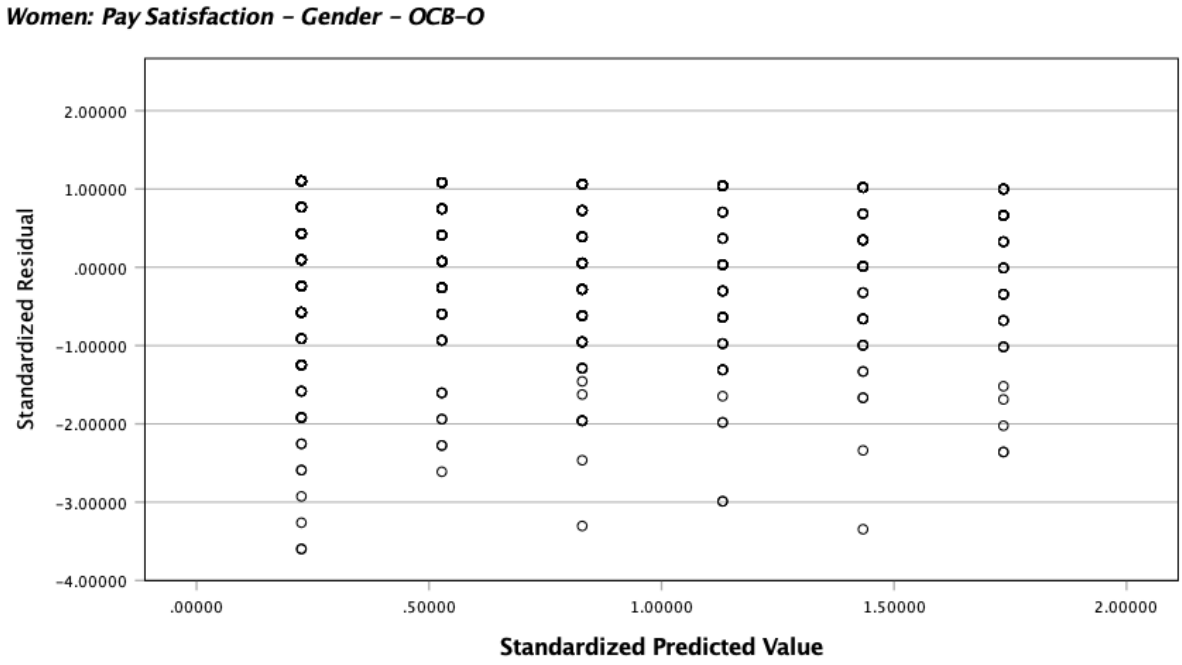


Figure 3 and Figure 4

Scatterplots: Standardised Predicted Values Plotted Against Standardised Residual Values for Women and Men, for Model 5 (Pay Satisfaction – Gender – OCB-O)



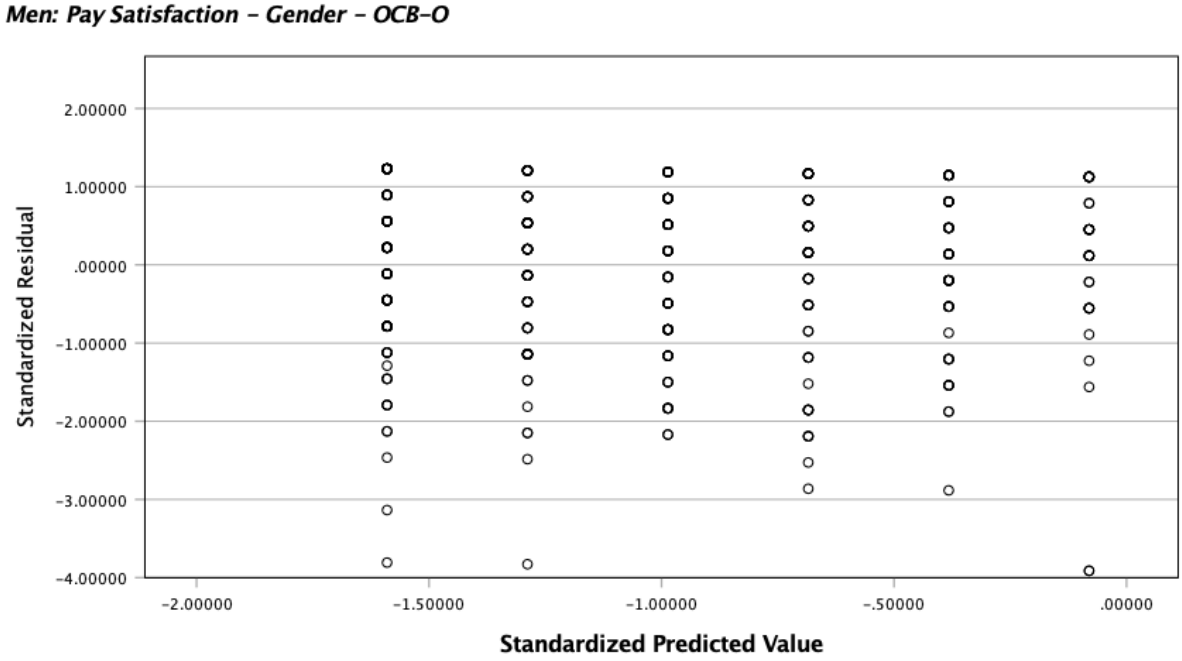


Figure 5 and Figure 6

Scatterplots: Standardised Predicted Values Plotted Against Standardised Residual Values for Women and Men, for Model 6 (Pay Satisfaction – Gender – OCB-I-O)