Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Job Performance:
A Case-based Research of Medical Personnel in Jiangsu Province

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Doctor of Management

Supervisor:
PhD Ana Margarida Passos, Associate Professor,
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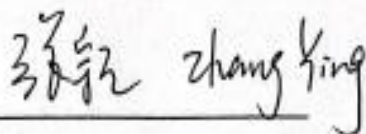
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Abstract

With the development of network technology and the advent of knowledge economy trends which push the organization to change management mode to suit the outer environment. More flexible flat organizational structure is an important direction of the current organizational reform. In China, as hospital restructuring picks momentum, hospital managers need to adopt scientific management philosophy and approaches from modern enterprises to improve hospital management. This research shows that Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is the power source for hospitals to adapt to the complex and changeable environment.

This research, set in Chinese medical institution, is to figure out the impact of OCB on medical staff's task performance, the process of which is seldom seen in previous researches. Therefore, starting from the social exchange theory, the Core Self-Evaluation (CSE) of the medical personal was taken as the intermediate variable between OCB and the task performance of medical staff. According to the characteristics of teamwork among hospital staff, this research put forth a hypothesis: team relationship conflict can moderate the relationship between OCB and CSE of medical personnel, and thus formed a complete pathway from citizenship behavior to task performance. Then, we picked out variables from the established measurement scales to design a questionnaire, distributed them among medical staff of Hospital S in Jiangsu province, and finally recovered 507 valid questionnaires. SPSS 21, AMOS 23, PROCESS 3.3 and other statistical software were used to analyze the data and verify the hypotheses one by one based on the data analysis results. Finally, we explained and summarized the research results, and pointed out deficiencies of the research and the future research direction.

In this research, OCB, CSE, task performance and team relationship conflict are integrated to build a mediated model. Based on the social exchange theory, and with reference to work context, we have provided a detailed explanation on the correlation between OCB and the task performance, and the mediating effect of CSE as a moderated mediator.

Keywords: organizational citizenship behavior, core self-evaluation, team relationship conflict, task performance

JEL: I12; C81

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Resumo

O desenvolvimento da tecnologia e da economia do conhecimento tem levado as organizações a alterar o seu modelo organizativo no sentido se adaptarem mais facilmente ao ambiente exterior. Muitas organizações têm vindo a adotar uma estrutura organizacional menos hierárquica e mais flexível. Na China, à medida que a reestruturação hospitalar ganha ímpeto, os gestores hospitalares precisam de adotar uma filosofia de gestão científica e abordagens modernas para melhorar a gestão hospitalar. Esta investigação mostra que o Comportamento de Cidadania Organizacional (OCB) constitui uma forma dos hospitais se adaptarem ao ambiente complexo e mutável.

Esta investigação, realizada em instituições médicas chinesas, tem como objetivo analisar o impacto da OCB no desempenho de tarefas do pessoal médico, cujo processo raramente foi analisado em pesquisas anteriores. Por conseguinte, partindo da teoria da troca social, a Auto-avaliação básica (Core self-evaluation - CSE) do pessoal médico foi considerada como variável mediadora entre a OCB e o desempenho de tarefas do pessoal médico. De acordo com as características do trabalho de equipa entre o pessoal hospitalar, foi colocada a hipótese que o conflito relacional da equipa modera a relação entre o OCB e CSE do pessoal médico, e assim formar um caminho completo desde o comportamento de cidadania até ao desempenho de tarefas. Foi desenvolvido um questionário tendo por base escala já validadas na literatura e aplicado a 507 profissionais do Hospital S na província de Jiangsu. A análise dos dados e o teste das hipóteses foi realizado com recursos ao SPSS 21, AMOS 23, PROCESS 3.3. Finalmente, explicámos e resumimos os resultados da investigação, e assinalámos as deficiências da investigação e a direção futura da investigação.

Nesta investigação, propomos um modelo mediado que integras o OCB, CSE, o desempenho de tarefas e o conflito relacional das equipas. Com base na teoria da troca social, e com referência ao contexto de trabalho, fornecemos uma explicação detalhada sobre a correlação entre OCB e o desempenho de tarefas, assim como o efeito mediador do CSE e moderador do conflito relacional.

Palavras-Chave: comportamento de cidadania organizacional, auto-avaliação básica, conflito relacional da equipa, desempenho das tarefas

JEL: I12; C81

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摘 要

网络技术的发展及知识经济的到来使组织不得不转变管理模式，顺应时代的变迁。更具有弹性的扁平化的组织结构是目前组织改革的重要方向，在我国，医院改制越发的频繁，医院管理者们也需要尝试用现代企业的科学管理思想和方法对医院进行管理。研究认为组织公民行为是医院适应复杂多变的环境的动力源泉。

本文在中国医疗机构的背景下，研究组织公民行为对医护人员的任务绩效的影响。之前很少有研究解释组织公民行为影响任务绩效的过程，因此本文从社会交换理论入手，以核心自我评价作为组织公民行为与医护人员任务绩效的中介变量。并根据医院医疗工作团队的工作特点，提出团队关系冲突能够调节组织公民行为与医护人员核心自我评价之间的关系，并提出本文的研究假设。通过问卷调查法，面向 S 人民医院的医护人员发放问卷，最后使用 SPSS 21，AMOS 23，PROCESS 3.3 等统计软件对数据进行分析，根据数据分析结果一一验证本文提出的假设，最后解释和概括研究结果，并指出研究的不足和未来的研究方向。

总的来说，本文通过检验一个有调节的中介模型，将组织公民行为、核心自我评价、任务绩效和团队关系冲突有机的统一在一起，在社会交换理论的基础上，将组织公民行为与任务绩效的关系以核心自我评价的中介作用进行具体的阐释，并加入了工作情景进行深入剖析。

关键词：组织公民行为，核心自我评价，团队关系冲突，任务绩效

JEL: I12; C81

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Acknowledgements

My study in ISCTE-IUL and Southern Medical University will soon come to an end. Looking back, this period of study is a very precious and impressive memory for me. I went back to the classroom, learned systematic management theory under the guidance of a supervisor from Portugal, during which I have acquired fresh perceptions with combination to my existing life experience. Now, when encountering management problems at work, I can apply the knowledge to find a better solution. Through this period of learning, my thinking method and problem-solving ability have been greatly improved, which is the biggest harvest of this learning journey.

I would like to thank my supervisor, Professor Ana Margarida Passos. She is a good teacher, who has offered careful guidance in my study, answered my questions in my thesis writing, patiently pointed out the problems in my thesis and urged me to correct them timely. Without her, I could not have finished my thesis so smoothly. I admire her rigor towards research, which I am still trying to learn from. It is my great honor to get her guidance.

I would also like to thank all the teachers and classmates I have met in the past four years. Each one of you is excellent, kind and lovely, enlightening me and making me happy. Your companion makes my learning process warmer and I also have learned a lot from you.

Finally, I would like to express my gratitude to my family. Thank you for your care, your encouragement, your companionship, as well as your unconditional support during this period. You're my greatest support, my biggest comfort and my strongest motivation.

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致 谢

　　在 ISCTE-IUL 和南方医科大学联合教学的学习生涯马上就要结束了，回想这段学习时光，是一段非常宝贵和让我印象深刻的回忆。在这段时间，我回到了久违的课堂，在中葡的导师的引导下对接触以往有些陌生的系统的管理知识，并在这个过程中结合自己的生活经历，有了以往没有的体会和感悟，在工作过程中遇到管理问题，也能代入学到的知识，去寻找更好的解决问题。可以说，通过这段时间的学习，我的思维方式和解决问题的能力有了很大的提升，这是我这段学习之旅中最大的收获。

　　在这里还需要感谢我的导师 Ana Margarida Passos 教授，她不仅是一名良师，在学习上给予我指导，在我论文写作过程中为我答疑解惑，耐心地指出我论文中存在的问题并督促我及时改正，在她的悉心教导之下我才能顺利的完成这篇论文。她严谨的治学态度让我敬佩不已，也成为我最好的榜样，得到她们的教导，是我的荣幸。

　　然后我还要感谢在这段学习过程里遇到的每一个老师和同学，你们每一个人都很优秀，善良，可爱，给我带来了知识和快乐，你们一路陪伴，让我的学习过程更有温度，在你们身上我也学到了很多东西。

　　最后还想要对我的家人表示感谢，这段时间感谢你们的照顾和鼓励和陪伴，以及无理由的支持，您们的支持是我最大的护盾。

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Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter introduces the research background and problem and puts forward research questions. Based on these, it further elaborates on the research purpose, research approach, and the framework of the study.

1.1 Research background

The development of network technologies and the arrival of knowledge economy add up to three major trends for the current organizations: the ever-changing environment, the networked organizational structure and employees in pursuit of self-fulfillment . Under these circumstances, organizations are driven to change their management models in order to keep up with the times. The flat organizational structure of much flexibility, evolved from the traditional bureaucratic one, can not only adapt to the ever-changing external environment, but also give full potential to the competences of knowledge employees, who are expected to innovate often, routinely coming up with new and better ways of doing things, by promoting communication and mutual learning.

In a flat organization, employees are given a great deal of autonomy and held responsible for their outcomes (D. Katz & Kahn, 1970). The given freedom serves to help employees adapt to the flexible organizational structure — they are required to behave beyond descriptions of their work roles. The concept of "Extra-role behavior" was originally proposed by Katz and Kahn to describe this "discretionary behavior", considered one of the most important behavior for organization's development (D. Katz & Kahn, 1978). In other words, employees with such behavior volunteer to contribute to the organization. Although such behavior goes beyond official job requirements and fails to be recognized by the formal reward system, it can improve the efficiency of the organization. Based on the theory of social exchange, Bateman and Organ defined this behavior as "Organizational Citizenship Behavior," OCB (Bateman & Organ, 1983). In the era of knowledge economy, OCB has a crucial influence on performance in an organization. It serves as the impetus for enterprises to adapt to the complicated and ever-changing environment of the 21st century (Ke et al., 2017).

Hospitals are organizations with specific characteristics. From the perspective of national healthcare, Chinese hospitals are non-profit social organizations for the public welfare.

However, from the perspective of management, they also must demonstrate special characteristics in production and operation (Lv, 2013). In the reform process of socialist market economy in China, a large number of foreign-funded, joint-venture and private hospitals have sprung up, gradually forming a competitive market pattern in which the hospitals of multiple ownerships compete with and promote each other. In addition, people's increasing demands and greater expectations for medical services, as well as the integration of network technology into the health service industry, have greatly promoted the technological development of healthcare industry.

Based on the influence of the above situation, hospital managers have begun to try to use the scientific management methods and management strategies of enterprises to manage hospitals. First, they use scientific analysis methods to analyze the internal and external environment and development process of the hospital, and combine the uncertain factors in the current environment to formulate the hospital's scientific development strategy; second, the hospital pays more attention to building the hospital's brand image and reputation, providing better Finally, they pay more attention to the discipline construction of the hospital, such as investing more energy to build scientific competitiveness and innovative talent echelon, which are the direction of the transformation and development of modern hospitals. Medical personnel are the foundation and core of the talent system and modern competition in the medical and health system. As stated in previous studies, stimulating more organizational citizenship behaviors of medical personnel plays a crucial role in the operation of the entire medical system. Therefore, organizational citizenship Behavior is also a research direction that cannot be ignored for hospital managers. This study introduces the concept of organizational citizenship behavior in the West and puts it into medical institutions with special characteristics in China. It is of great practical significance for the reform and development of my country's medical and health services and the reform and development of medical care.

1.2 Research problem

In the research background, we mentioned that OCB is of great significance to modern enterprises, however it must first be acknowledged that OCB was first proposed in the context of Western culture. Organ (1997) defined OCB in three aspects: (1) OCB is extra-role behavior; (2) OCB has nothing to do with the organization's formal reward system and is not within the scope of the standard rewards or punishments; (3) OCB exerts a positive effect on the overall efficacy of the organization. The last aspect has been repeatedly verified by the academic

community while the first two have generated a great deal of criticism. Through empirical research, Morrison (1994) found that different employees have different perceptions of job roles and vague understanding of OCB as an in-role or extra-role behavior. Allen et al. (1994) found that in the practice of organizational management, OCB often relates to management decisions such as employee promotion, training and bonus distribution. Those studies illustrate that OCB in the context of western individual culture is not clearly defined—some OCBs are more like in-role behaviors. Therefore, in China, a typical collectivist society, there is every reason to believe that employees are more likely to deem OCB as an in-role behavior (Paine & Organ, 2000).

1.2.1 OCB in the context of China

In our research, on one hand, the Chinese culture values collectivism and relationship, which can be seen from the Chinese ancient virtues: "governing without going against nature" and "kindness, righteousness, propriety, wisdom and trust". The characteristics of Chinese culture are very different from the individualistic nature of Western culture. Differences in cultural background can lead to people's different behaviors, which derives into differences between in-role and extra-role behaviors in specific organizations. On the other hand, medical institutions are significantly different from governmental administrative organizations, charities or enterprises. First of all, the Chinese notions about healthcare like "life-saving and rescue efforts", "benevolent doctors" and "altruism" not only affect the belief of medical personnel, but also become the common sense for the whole society (D. Li & Yang, 2009).

Secondly, among its organizational behaviors, a medical institution provides public welfare services like disease-relieving treatments and social health services, as well as seeking profits for improving the medical facilities and the benefits of medical employees. In summary, the first research question is that there are certain differences between the OCB of medical staff in the Chinese cultural context and the OCB of organizational members in other cultural contexts.

1.2.2 The core self-evaluation

The relationship between OCB and performance improvement of organizations and employees has been verified by scholars for numerous times (D. Liu et al., 2017). In meta-analysis conducted by Podsakoff et al. (Podsakoff et al., 2009), the authors stated that the reason why OCB can improve organizational performance primarily lies in its role as a "lubricant" in organizational operation which reduces friction between individual "components" in the

organization and thus enhances the overall efficiency of the whole organization. However, the meta-analytical assessment of OCB indicates that only few researchers have investigated the mediating variables that link the OCB of an organizational member to changes in that member's task performance. Hence, the second research problem is to clarify and study how a medical worker changes the core self-evaluation. This potential psychological mechanism helps explain the relationship between OCBs of medical personnel and their job performance. T. A. Judge et al. (1997) proposed the concept of core self-evaluation (CSE) and defined it as the most basic self-evaluation of one's ability and value, a potential and general personality structure. The CSE of the medical personnel could subconsciously influence the individual evaluation and estimation of oneself, the external world and other persons. Although people may be unaware of CSE's influence at that moment, they can abstract it in the form of self-report through introspection after such behaviors.

At present, the OCB of members in the organization is becoming a trending research topic, but some problems in the research are still ignored or not valued by researchers. The concept that the organizations exist as a multi-level system is widely known, but it is often ignored by most researchers. While the number of studies on the relationship between OCB and team-level results has increased (Lin & Peng, 2010; Nielsen et al., 2012), the role of team-level influence in the relationship between OCB and individual-level results is still worthy of academic attention.

1.2.3 The relationship conflicts

It is worth noting that for more than 20 years, an important trend in modern organizations has been to reorganize labor into teams to generate synergies and increase productivity (N. Li et al., 2014; Stephens et al., 2013). Teams are composed of many individuals who collaborate and help each other, share responsibilities, and complement each other's skills. They share information and make decisions together to achieve common goals in the team. However, it is inevitable that conflicts emerge between members due to their varied personalities, habits and values in a team (De Dreu & Gelfand, 2008).

Scarce resources, divergent values, and the need for cognitive alignment each can lead to certain forms of corresponding process conflict, relationship conflict, and task conflict (DeDreu & Gelfand, 2007). Relationship conflict, in particular can negatively impact team development, performance, and atmosphere. It is precisely because of the independence and complexity of organizational activities that relationship conflicts are unavoidable in teams and organizations

(Amason, 1996; Jehn, 1995). Group members do not conduct OCB in isolation, and OCB of organizational members is affected by their social and psychological environment (Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000). This study argues that relationship conflict not only destroys the team's cooperative atmosphere and brings negative emotions, but also affects the OCB of team members. Therefore, the third research challenge of this study is to develop and test multi-level models to examine how team-level variables (i.e., relationship conflict) alter the individual-level relationships between team members' OCB and changes in CSE. Focusing on relationship conflict, this thesis discusses the necessity for a multi-level study of the OCB of individual medical workers in the group context and intends to provide relevant research contributions on the cross-level interaction between the OCB of individual group members and the team environment.

1.3 Research questions

In summary of the research questions, although scholars generally believe that OCB has a positive impact on the task performance of employees, but more of the OCB as a complete concept, the impact of each dimension of OCB on task performance is not discussed in terms of Chinese-specific dimensions. Moreover, little attention has been paid to the mechanism between OCB and employee task performance. Therefore, this article will explore the impact of OCB on employee performance from multiple dimensions of OCB, and according to the theory of social exchange, citing the "Core self-evaluation" of medical staff as an intermediary variable, to explain the process of organizational citizenship behavior affecting task performance and reveal its internal mechanism. Previous studies have rarely included the organizational environment in the research model, but employees in the organization cannot be an island, they are very close to each other, in the hospital, health care workers often form one after another of the departments, therefore, this paper discusses the moderating role of relationship conflict in the process of teamwork from the working form of hospital team. In the following research, we mainly answer the following questions to solve the main difficulties of this study:

(1) In the Chinese context and medical background, has the connotation of OCB changed, is OCB an out-of-role behavior in the Chinese characteristic culture, and what are the characteristics of OCB?

(2) Can the core self-evaluation of medical personnel serve as a potential psychological mechanism by which organizational citizenship behavior affects the performance of medical

personnel?

(3) Whether the relationship conflicts between team members can affect the CSE of employees through the interaction with OCB, and then affect the employees work performance.

1.4 Research purpose

The main purpose of this study is as follows:

1. This study hopes to analyze the connotation of organizational citizenship behavior and its influence on the organizational citizenship behavior of medical personnel through the research on the organizational citizenship behavior of medical staff in the Chinese cultural context and the organizational context of medical institutions, and to clarify its role in Chinese culture. Is there a difference between the situation and the Western cultural situation?

2. To analyze the core self-evaluation of medical staff, to explore its role as a potential psychological mechanism for the improvement of medical staff's organizational citizenship behavior and work performance, and to reveal the deep connection between organizational citizenship behavior and medical staff's work performance.

3. From the perspective of hierarchical theory and according to the characteristics of the working environment of hospital medical staff, this paper attempts to build a multi-level model to examine the impact mechanism of organizational citizenship behavior from the individual level and the team level, in order to provide evidence for hospital managers in my country based on empirical research results. Provide evidence. Provide constructive opinions on how to guide medical personnel to perform organizational citizenship behavior, and promote the reform process of human resources and management of medical and health institutions.

1.5 Research framework

The framework of this research is as represented in Figure 1.1:

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│        Introduction         │
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│      Literature review      │
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│     Model and Hypotheses    │
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│       Research design       │
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│      Data analysis and      │
│      hypothesis testing     │
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│   Discussion and conclusion │
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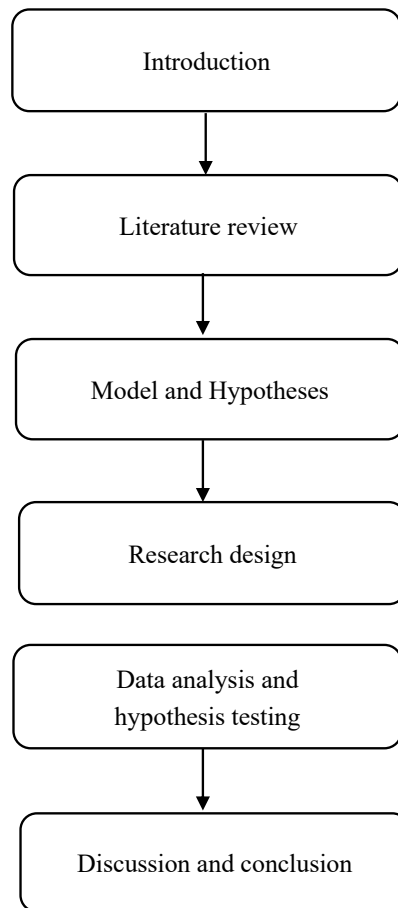
Figure 1.1 The research framework

The structure of this thesis is as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction. This chapter mainly expounds the research background of this research, mainly including the practical background and theoretical background. From the background of modern social, economic and cultural development, we will look at the problems existing in the development of medical institutions in my country, as well as the problems existing in the background of theoretical research in related fields. Explanation of these two backgrounds, find the research dilemma of this paper, put forward the research question and research purpose, expound the research significance of this paper, and finally introduce the research content, research method and technical route of this paper.

Chapter 2: Literature review. This chapter mainly reviews the theories and literatures related to the research issues in this study, including the interpretation of the connotation of social exchange theory, the connotation of organizational citizenship behavior, the differences in research progress and research results at home and abroad, the connotation of core self-evaluation and its causes and consequences. , as well as the research on the connotation of relationship conflict and its antecedents and consequences, the connotation of employee work performance and the summary and sorting out of its antecedents and consequences, to build a

theoretical foundation for the research of this paper.

Chapter 3: Theoretical models and research hypotheses. Based on the social exchange theory, this paper sorts out the research ideas of this paper, puts forward the research hypotheses about organizational citizenship behavior, core self-evaluation, relationship conflict and employee performance relationship, and proposes the research model of this paper.

Chapter 4: Research methods. This paper uses the method of questionnaire survey, and selects mature domestic and foreign scales to form the questionnaire of this paper with reference to previous research, and conducts a large-scale questionnaire survey, and then conducts descriptive analysis and reliability and validity tests on the collected samples.

Chapter 5: Hypothesis testing. This chapter uses SPSS 22, AMOS 21 and PROCESS 3.3 analysis software to first perform multicollinearity test and common method deviation test on the data to ensure that the collected data can better reflect the real situation, and then verify the hypotheses proposed in this paper one by one. Determine whether the research model proposed in this paper is valid, and get the research results of this paper.

Chapter 6: Research conclusion and prospect. In this chapter, we first discuss the results of hypothesis testing, and then put forward suggestions based on the results of the research and the actual situation. Finally, we summarize the shortcomings of this study and put forward some ideas for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The logical thinking of this thesis lies in "OCB--employee CSE--employee performance" and this study mainly employs the social exchange theory to explain the relationship between various constructs, mainly involving four core constructs of OCB, employee CSE, team member exchange and employee performance. In this chapter, a brief introduction to social exchange theory and the connotation of four constructs will be presented and the theoretical basis will be summarized through the collecting and combing of previous related research.

2.1 Social exchange theory

Social Exchange Theory is one of the most influential conceptual paradigms adopted to explain workplace behaviors. It is not a solitary theory but a family of conceptual models. In addition, it is also a fairly long-existing theory, whose origin can be traced back to the 1920s in many subjects, such as sociology, social psychology and anthropology. As time goes by, different conceptual branches of social exchange theory emerged (Homans & George, 1958; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Some researchers believe that social behavior is made for the exchange of not only commodities and material goods, but also immaterial goods for the purpose of obtaining certain benefits among people-to-people interactions, such as symbols of recognition and prestige (Homans & George, 1958). Other researchers hold that "Many things we need and value in life (such as goods, services, companionship, recognition, status, and information) can only be obtained from others. People depend on each other regarding such precious resources, which in turn are provided through the exchange process" (Molm, 1997). Finally, Braun (1993) indicated that "The exchange (control) of scarce resources is an essential feature of economic and social life. People exchange material goods, services, time, social recognition, respect, attention, courtesy, greetings, and favors", on which subsequent research is built. Although their focuses differ, they have all enhanced the general exchange theory.

Blau's research laid the foundation for the development of structure theory in the field of SET (Blau, 1964). In his book Exchange and Power in Social Life, Blau pointed out that the source of social exchange is that people expect corresponding returns from others, which is a voluntary behavior. In fact, social exchanges can indeed obtain corresponding rewards. Although theories on social exchange vary, researchers have reached a consensus that the

process of social exchange involves a series of interactions with obligations (Emerson, 1976). In SET, such interactions are generally considered to be interdependent, and they depend on the behavior of another person as well (Blau, 1964). All social exchange theories regard social life as a series of consecutive transactions between two or more parties. People exchange resources in a reciprocal process (Gergen, 1969; Gouldner, 1960), and the quality of the exchanged resources is often affected by the relationship between the interacting parties (Blau, 1964).

The main principle of social exchange theory is that human behavior is essentially an exchange, especially the exchange of rewards or the exchange of primary material resources (Homans, 1961). Researchers believe such exchange permeates all social phenomena, including group processes and inter-group relations, and is considered as the aggregation or joint outcome of reward-induced voluntary individual behaviors (Blau, 1964). According to this view, exchange transactions form the basis of social life, especially group processes and relationships, and open secrets. It can be said that social behavior is an exchange of rewards/costs between activities (tangible or intangible) and individuals, on the grounds that people always explain their behaviors in terms of their benefits and costs. Exchange, which prevails in the society in general, is the basis of human behavior (Homans, 1961). If we suppose exchange transactions are reciprocal, without reciprocity, such transactions will eventually be terminated. Social exchange "involves the principle that one person helps another, although there is a general expectation of future rewards, its exact nature is certainly not specified in advance" (Blau, 1986). Therefore, in psychological terms, exchange is defined as a social interaction characterized by mutual stimulation or reinforcement. In other words, an exchange relationship "is reciprocal by definition, and if such reciprocity is sabotaged, the relationship will disappear over time". Among the attributes of reciprocity and reinforcement, the concept of exchange relationship includes "merchandising ratio" (Emerson, 1962).

Some researchers believe that social exchange can be classified according to whether the exchange is reciprocal or negotiated, and whether it is productive, direct, or indirect (Molm, 1997). Reciprocal exchanges are non-negotiated and voluntary, with no specifications for the content or timing of exchange. In contrast, negotiated exchanges are controlled by an explicit negotiation of the exchange terms, based on a negotiated and binding arrangement in which both parties agree on the terms of a discrete bilateral transaction (Molm et al., 2003). In direct exchanges, parties A and B directly benefit from each other. In indirect exchanges, B can return the benefits obtained from A to other members (such as C) in the social system other than A. Research shows that reciprocal exchanges produce lower levels of power employment and

inequality (Molm et al., 1999), stronger sense of trust, fairness, and emotional commitment from the parties involved (Molm et al., 2003). In a reciprocal exchange, explicit bargaining over the nature and timing of reciprocity is banned. Rather than discussing the terms of exchange and the value of the exchanged goods, individuals have an implicit expectation of reciprocity -- an actor begins the process not sure when and whether he or she will be rewarded (Heath, 1976). In reciprocal exchange, compared with negotiated exchange, the result of exchange has great uncertainty. Exchange partners are not obligated to return gifts or engage in reciprocal behaviors. Over time, as successful exchange relationships emerge, this lack of certainty leads participants to develop feelings of trust in their partners (based on credible trust signals) and other positive emotional orientations. In addition, as the level of behavioral commitment increases, the actor's level of positive influence on the exchange partner also increases (Molm et al., 1999). Especially in the context of interdependent tasks, reciprocal exchange provides employees with a means of gaining cooperation even if they lack authority. By giving and receiving help over time, employees obtain valuable resources or services that contribute to their productivity. Such process is completed not through hierarchical authority or contractual obligations, but due to the fact that reciprocity is firmly upheld (Flynn, 2003). Researchers also pointed out that reciprocal exchange and negotiated exchange are convertible, that is, when a party's outcome depends on the other party's outcome, through mutual cooperation and appreciation of the outcome of exchange, the negotiated exchange will become a reciprocal one, and vice versa (Lawler et al., 1999).

More research hold that the general social exchange can be divided into two types: economic exchange and social exchange. Such division can be explained by sociologists' varied assumptions about whether people are rational. Traditional social exchange theories, especially those of rational choice, explain non-economic exchange processes through the operation of economic men and other economic laws, especially marginal utility, supply and demand, and relevant market principles (Emerson, 1976). Traditional view of social exchange is rooted in economic rationality, regarding the exchanged resources as the object of maximizing self-interest. Therefore, traditional exchange theory holds that fundamental and economic principles are the main motivations for exchange. For example, Homans and George (1958) argue that social behavior can be explained by the economic calculation of exchanges, and they emphasize the importance balanced contributions made from distributive justice (or the perception of fairness received through exchanged resources) and each exchange party.

However, some exchange theorists argue that social interaction is distinct from economic

transaction, and they place social interaction in the middle of pure calculation of interests and pure expression of love (Blau, 1994). Scholars who hold this view argue that the difference between social exchange and economic exchange is that social exchange produces decentralized obligations, whereas economic exchange has explicit obligations. The proliferation of obligations means that large-scale social exchanges are unlikely to occur unless trust-based social bonds are established. Some scholars believe that economic exchange is a short-term exchange involving weaker interpersonal attachment in the exchange relationship. However, social exchange is long-term, more open, and accompanied by stronger interpersonal attachment in the exchange relationship. Individuals participating in high-quality social exchanges demand less immediate rewards and are more generous than individuals in economic exchanges (Marie et al., 2012). Common interests of social groups strengthen their social ties, which is the most important product of social exchange though appearing like a by-product. Economic exchanges usually involve material exchanges and are less related to trust and sustainability, while social exchanges are more open and more related to trust and flexibility (Organ, 1988, 1990).

Researchers offered rather vague descriptions of how the act of exchange begins. Blau (1986) argues that social exchange "involves one person helping another, although there is a general expectation of future rewards, its exact nature is certainly not specified in advance". The process begins when at least one participant makes a "move", and if another participant responds, a new round of exchange begins. Once the process begins, each outcome forms a self-reinforcing cycle, which may be continuous, making it difficult to verify discrete steps. When the actor has an initial action (good or bad) towards the target, the social exchange process begins. Good initial actions like caring and organizational support (Riggle et al., 2009) can form good exchange relationship, in response, the target will take good acts to reciprocate such actions. Whereas bad initial actions such as abuse and bullying will receive the opposite response.

The study by Homans and George (1958) constructs social exchange behavior from the perspective of reward and punishment. Typically, the reward-earning behavior continues (up to the limit of diminishing marginal utility). Their first proposition, the success proposition, states that actions that produce positive outcomes are likely to be repeated. The second proposition, the stimulus proposition, states that behaviors rewarded in a certain situation in the past can occur in similar situations. The value proposition, also the third one, states that the more valuable the outcome of an action is to the actor, the more likely it is that the action will be

performed.

Blau believes that exchanges need to comply with several principles. The first is the principle of rationality, that is, the more people pay attention to exchange resources, the more likely they are to engage in exchange behavior. The second is the principle of reciprocity, according to which reciprocity is the basis for continuous exchange behavior, and the exchange behavior cannot be maintained without intact reciprocity. The principle of reciprocity is also the SET principle that researchers are most concerned about. It is generally believed that reciprocity is divided into three types: (a) Reciprocity is a transaction model featuring interdependent exchange; (b) Reciprocity is a folk belief; (c) Reciprocity is an ethical norm. Then there is the third one, principle of fairness. With the in-depth development of the exchange relationship, the two parties of exchange are more constrained by the principle of fairness. The fourth is the principle of marginal utility, that is, when people obtain more exchange resources in an exchange behavior, the value of the resources decreases. Therefore, the possibility of people engaging in this exchange behavior shrinks. The last one is the principle of disequilibrium, which means that exchange relationships are not all balanced. Within a social unit, some exchange relationships are stable and balanced, and others are unbalanced and unstable, which lays the foundation for the stability of the social system, the division of labor, and power (Blau, 1964).

Foa and Foa proposed six exchange resources in their research: love, status, information, money, goods, and services. These resources are organized into a two-dimensional matrix. One dimension refers to the particularism of the resource (as opposed to the universality), which means that the value of the resource varies depending on its source (Foa & Foa, 1980). Money has relatively low level of particularism -- its monetary value is constant, no matter who provides it. However, love is highly particularistic, and its importance depends on its source. The second dimension refers to the concreteness of resource, that is, how tangible or specific the resource is. Most services and goods are at least somewhat concrete. Less concrete resources provide token benefits. Symbolic resources convey a type of significance that transcends objective values. In general, the more concrete and universal an exchange resource is, the more likely it is to be exchanged in short term. By contrast, highly particularistic and symbolic interests are exchanged in a more open manner. It is not rare to expect to pay money for a particularistic item, but it is less likely to put a clear price tag on love or status.

Similarly, they argue that these six resources tend to follow different exchange patterns. Specifically, abstract and particularistic items, such as love and respect, are exchanged differently than concrete and universal items, such as money. Concrete and universal resources

are often negotiated in advance, and are specific and definite, while symbolic and particularistic resources are generally not negotiable and take a longer time to develop. For example, love is not a quid pro quo, it can be given without an expectation or exact reward. In fact, the same resource may follow different rules due to contextual dynamics. In short, different types of benefits are exchanged in different ways. Research suggests that employees view role behavior, OCB, and organizational commitment as acceptable commodities in exchange. For example, extra efforts in performing duties are one way an employee fulfills his or her obligations to the employer. Likewise, OCB is seen as a social resource that can be exchanged by individuals who receive social rewards. The discretionary nature of extra-role behaviors such as citizenship behavior means that these behaviors can be easily given or rejected, making them ideal tools for reciprocity (Settoon et al., 1996).

2.2 The connotation of OCB

2.2.1 The definition of OCB

Many studies hold that if employees in an organization lack spontaneity and job innovation beyond the requirements of their job roles, blindly follow the rules, and work according to the written job description, the organization may not be quite stable, and it may even be described as fragile (D. Katz & Kahn, 1966). The willingness of participants to go beyond the formal obligations attached to their position has long been recognized as an important component of effective organizational performance. For example, some scholars believe that the willingness of individuals to make cooperative efforts for the organization is essential for the effective achievement of organizational goals, and employees must not only strive to perform functions that contribute to the achievement of the organizational goals, but also work hard to maintain the organization itself. Maintaining an organization can be interpreted as enhancing an organization by exercising discretionary ownership (Barnard, 1938). With regard to cooperative systems, D. Katz and Kahn (1970) extended the discussion, pointing out that in any organization, the system would collapse without the countless cooperative actions of employees, and further clarified that the motivation which stimulates such spontaneous, informal contributions is different from that of stimulating task proficiency. Other similar constructs of positive work behavior were subsequently proposed, such as organizational behavior -- a set of spontaneous employee behaviors regulated by organizational needs, priorities, and goals (George & Brief, 1992); and extra-role behavior -- spontaneous and positive employee behaviors beyond their

duties (Vandyne et al., 1995). Among which OCB (Organ, 1977) and contextual performance have attracted most attention.

Although the existence of OCB has been a consensus, there is little agreement on the conceptual basis of these desired behaviors. Barnard (1938) first proposed a related concept of OCB -- willingness to cooperate, which refers to the willingness of individuals in an organization to cooperate. Later, he defined cooperation as true self-restraint, actual unpaid volunteering, or even compromising personal gain for the betterment of the organization. Indispensable to Barnard's view is that such cooperation is the individual's exercise of liberty. Katz later defined OCB as "innovative and spontaneous behavior" rather than the more obligatory role-playing. Such interpretation is based on the division of behaviors specified in the individual's job description (in-role performance), and the others that support the organization but are not described in detail in the individual's job description (extra-role performance) (Katz, 1964). Examples of OCB include collaborating with others, volunteering to take on additional tasks, training new employees, volunteering to help others with their jobs, and volunteering to do more than the job requires (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Organ firstly proposed the definition of OCB, holding that the research on such concepts as "willingness to cooperate" (Barnard, 1938) and "informal organization" (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1964) can be considered as the origin of OCB studies, and "informal" and "cooperate" are exactly the essence of OCB (Organ, 1977). OCB is defined by Organ as "individual behaviors that employees voluntarily demonstrate, are not directly or obviously recognized by the formal compensation system, and can improve the organization's effectiveness as a whole" (Organ, 1988).

From Organ's definition, the following major points can be extracted: (1) OCB is a voluntary behavior; (2) OCB is not clearly stipulated in the job description or organizational norms, and goes beyond the job role itself; (3) The formal reward or punishment system in the organization cannot be used to assess OCB, that is to say, whether the OCB is completed or not will not affect the organization's reward and punishment for individuals. The definition of OCB is based on the notion that there is no formal mandate to promote altruistic behaviors by the individual (Organ, 1990), which has not been challenged by any literature published in the previous decade.

After the concept of OCB was proposed, there has been a large number of studies on various predictors of OCB, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, sense of justice (R. H. Moorman et al., 1993; Morrison, 2010; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), organization and personality traits (George, 1991; R. H. Moorman & Blakely, 1995), and leadership behavior

(Farh et al., 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Even so, those studies lack a reasonable framework to discuss the causes of OCB, that is, researchers cannot explain why OCB occurs in organizations, which is due to the inconsistent definitions of OCB. This thesis explores the relationship between OCB and employee performance, whose premise is that OCB exists in the organization, which has been verified in many studies, but this thesis primarily explores whether OCB in China is different from that in other countries. There are different characteristics from foreign OCB. Therefore, we first need to discuss the difference in the connotation of OCB in Chinese and Western research.

According to Organ (1988), OCB is the behavior not clearly stipulated in the job description or organizational norms. It goes beyond the job role itself and can effectively promote the operation of the organization. Despite the growing number of studies in this area, the debate on the precise definition of OCB continues. This is partly because most OCB research focused on understanding the relationship between OCB and other constructs, rather than carefully defining the nature of the construct itself. Nonetheless, a prominent feature is that managers cannot require or force their subordinates to perform OCB. Likewise, employees do not or cannot expect formal rewards of any kind for these casual behaviors. Another important assertion, especially in Organ's founding work on OCB, is that these behaviors are often driven by intrinsic motivation, generated within the individual, and sustained by the individual's intrinsic need for accomplishment, competence, and belonging (Organ, 1988).

As mentioned earlier, researchers have proposed many concepts that are similar to or overlap with OCB, such as prosocial behavior, organizational spontaneity, extra-role behavior, and relationship performance. Among them, the concept of relationship performance has been most concerned by human resource scientists and organizational psychologists. Organ found that the construct of "situational behavior" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993) provided a more reasonable definition for OCB in his later study. Based on the progress mentioned in the study, Organ redefined OCB from the perspective of "social and psychological environment performance that supports the occurrence of task performance", which not only distinguishes OCB from task performance but also allows it to be formally assessed or rewarded. He gave a new definition of OCB, arguing that there are similarities between OCB and relationship performance, both of which can maintain and enhance the social and psychological environment of an organization. Such definition clarified the meaning of OCB and relationship performance (Organ, 1997).

At present, the research results of OCB in the West have not been conclusive, and there is no unified view on its connotation. In such case, the research of OCB in the context of Chinese

culture has to be more cautious. Individual's OCB is influenced to a large extent by cultural factors. Potential cultural factors such as science, education, and industrial culture may all affect the formation of individual's OCB (George & Jones, 1997). Different from Western culture, Chinese culture is deeply influenced by Confucianism and agricultural civilization, emphasizing that the relationship between people features mutual dependence and mutual trust. Moreover, Chinese culture emphasizes collectivism rather than individualism, which is very different from the Western cultural background, hence it is irrational to copy the research results of the West completely. Now, the question lies to what are the specific characteristics of OCB in China.

Although Chinese researchers are paying increasing attention to and engaging in the research on OCB, in general, the research on OCB in China is in its infancy, and Chinese scholars' research on OCB is more focused on comparing OCB in the context of Chinese culture to that in Western contexts. Such research begins with constructing an indigenized dimension of OCB.

Chinese scholars Farh from Taiwan made a great contribution to the localization of OCB research. They constructed an OCB scale in Chinese cultural background, which divides OCB into five dimensions, including three dimensions that are culturally indistinguishable from those in the West -- identification with the organization, altruism to colleagues, and professionalism, and two dimensions with Chinese cultural characteristics -- interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources (Farh et al., 1997). And these two unique dimensions are due to the existence of family-oriented value and collectivism in Chinese culture.

In subsequent cross-cultural research under Farh long term pointed out that there are indeed differences in OCB under Chinese and Western cultures. They divided OCB in Chinese culture into five dimensions: commitment to the organization, assistance to colleagues, job responsibility, interpersonal harmony, and company resources protection. Among them, commitment to the organization, assistance to colleagues, and job responsibility are similar to "civic virtue, altruism, and conscientiousness" in Western OCB studies, while interpersonal harmony and company resources protection are unique dimensions in Chinese culture, and "sportsmanship" and "courtesy" are the unique ones in Western culture (Farh et al., 2004). Judging from the current research results, the connotation of OCB is generally applicable, but there are cultural differences in the specific manifestations.

Qin and Zhu (2003) found that the traditional Chinese culture, namely the culture of peace and harmony, the notion of hierarchy, family-oriented value, and collectivism, has created China's unique OCB that values interpersonal harmony, virtue of hard-work and

industriousness, actively protects public resources, and features society-oriented attributes and non-absolute personal initiatives. Xu and Shi (2004) believe that the unique cultural atmosphere and management system in China should be brought into the study of OCB. Considering their impacts on OCB, and from the perspective of social relations, the integration of OCB with other concepts should be put in an important position, thereby deepening the research on OCB from the perspective of transformative organizational culture, and providing theoretical basis for the construction of organizational culture and social culture in the period of China's economic transformation.

To sum up, with regard to the differences in OCB between China and the West, studies have pointed out that they are manifested not in the varied connotations of OCB, but in the specific behavioral differences, namely being proactive, participating in group activities, assisting colleagues, protecting company resources and maintaining interpersonal harmony, which are typical forms of OCB in Chinese scholars' research (Farh et al., 2004). Judging from the current research results, the connotation of OCB is generally applicable, but there are cultural differences in terms of specific manifestation.

2.2.2 The dimensions of OCB

There are many views concerning the division of the dimensions of OCB, including two-dimensional structure, three-dimensional structure, five-dimensional structure, seven-dimensional structure and ten-dimensional structure.

The dimension studies of OCB first divided it into a two-dimensional structure (Smith et al., 1983), and regarded it as a concept composed of 1) altruism and 2) generalized compliance. Bachrach et al. (2007), in the cross-cultural research between China and the United States, holds that OCB can be divided into a two-dimensional structure as well, namely 1) helping behavior and 2) civic virtue.

In addition, there are also studies that divide OCB into two dimensions based on different behavior orientation objects: organization-oriented citizenship behavior OCB-organization, or OCBO) and individual-oriented citizenship behavior OCB-individual, or OCBI) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). OCBI benefits certain colleagues and indirectly contributes to the organization, including such behaviors as helping a new employee complete his or her workload, and considering the impact of one's own behavior on others. OCBO is generally beneficial to the organization, such as being punctual, having a positive attitude, and offering suggestions for organizational improvement. Most scholars discuss specific connotations of it based on the

OCBO-OCBI framework. Other scholars explore OCBO and OCBI in a more detailed approach on the basis of previous research. The categories of OCBI include altruism, maintaining the peace, cheerleading behaviors, interpersonal helping, interpersonal relationship, relationship with coworkers, and interpersonal harmony, all of which demonstrate the intention to help others; OCBO includes conscientiousness, civic virtue, sportsmanship, organizational allegiance, endorsement and commitment to the organization's objectives, job dedication, taking charge, and promoting the company image (Harper, 2015). Such division is still popular in many studies.

More researchers believe that OCB is a five-dimensional concept whose main research basis is the five-dimensional model of organizational citizenship proposed by Organ in his early research, which divides OCB into altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Organ's five-dimensional model exerted far-reaching influence in Western academic circles, and has been employed by many subsequent studies. Organ (1988) also developed a 22-item OCB scale, which is the most widely used OCB scale in the field of organizational behavior research in the West. In their cross-cultural research on OCB, Farh et al. (2004) believe that the five dimensions of identification with the company, helping colleagues, initiative, interpersonal harmony, and protecting company resources constitute OCB in Chinese contexts. Chinese scholars J. G. Liu et al. (2017) modified and adjusted the scale developed by Farh et al. （2004）, using 18 items to measure OCB, which is more in line with China's cultural background.

Other discussions on the dimension of OCB include more manifestations. Podsakoff et al. (2000) divided OCB into seven dimensions: helping behavior, organizational allegiance, hard work, organizational compliance, initiative, civic virtue, and self-improvement. Farh et al. (2004) discussed the possibility of more dimensions of OCB, combining five dimensions featuring Chinese cultural characteristics, namely "employees' self-improvement, participating in public welfare activities, protecting company resources, maintaining clean and tidy workplaces, and interpersonal harmony", with five others similar to those proposed in Western research, namely "individual initiative, helping behavior, expressing opinions, participating in group activities, and promoting organizational image", to form a ten-dimensional model of OCB. Of course, although many studies hold that many dimensions of OCB are also applicable in Chinese cultural context, the connotations are still different. For example, researchers believe that the dimension of helping colleagues is similar to altruism in Western studies. But in fact, helping colleagues in China actually includes helps outside of the required work, which in the

West is not a part of altruistic behavior. It can be seen that individuals in Chinese cultural background tend to confuse personal life with work role, and incorporate behaviors beyond work role into OCB.

2.2.3 Relevant research on OCB

(1) Antecedent variables of OCB

Based on the summary of the research results of previous scholars, it is possible to divide the antecedent variables affecting OCB into two distinct levels: the individual level and the organizational level.

In terms of personal traits, previous studies found that employees' Big Five Personality is positively related to OCB, which is mainly manifested in the fact that conscientiousness has a positive impact on OCB and agreeableness in the Big Five Personality positively promotes OCB. Some researchers believe that extroverts are positive, sociable, energetic, prone to excitements, and report higher levels of self-efficacy; in contrast, introverts tend to be more conservative, less outgoing, and less sociable. Therefore, extroverted employees are more willing to perform OCB than introverted employees (Harper, 2015).

Studies have shown that individuals with strong self-efficacy, optimism, and challenging attitudes are capable of implementing additional role behaviors for the organization's prospects and growth (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Therefore, employees' expectation, self-efficacy and optimism play an important role in the generation of employees' "Good Soldier Syndrome" (Golestaneh, 2014). Researchers also believe that employees with high emotional intelligence can effectively monitor not only their own emotions, but also the emotions of others. Emotional intelligence is one of the abilities to distinguish and use the guiding tools for shaping one's own mind, serving as the "soft component" of overall intelligence and involving an individual's personal and professional life. The emotional intelligence of an employee does contribute to his or her behaviors and performance towards the organization (Turner, 2004).

In terms of employees' age, researchers believe that younger employees are more flexible in coordinating their own needs with that of the organization, while older employees tend to be more rigid in this regard. As a result, young and old employees may have different expectations for themselves, for other people, and for work environment. These differences may lead to differentiated external motivations for OCBs among younger and older employees (Chahal & Mehta, 2011).

Many researchers have pointed out that there is an important relationship between

employee's motivation and OCB. Studies indicate that people's organizational interests and value motives share a crucial relationship with OCB. People with high intrinsic motivation scores are those who enjoy work and have a sense of high responsibility. Therefore, these people can create a pleasant working environment (LePine et al., 2002). Clearly, employees who seek a pleasant work environment are much more likely to create a work culture that features to help people, thereby leading to employees' OCB. Research also suggests that physical benefits and rewards significantly weaken/threaten intrinsic motivation (Sussman & Rivera, 2008). Relative to value motives, materialistic attitudes have a negative impact on OCB (Barbuto et al., 2003). However, there are also studies suggesting that material motivation plays an important role in the reinforcement of OCB. A positive employee management by encouraging employees to actively participate in decision-making can help coordinate the efforts of team members and improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the entire team. However, the effect of material incentives will be greatly reduced when an individual is promoted to a high enough position (Chahal & Mehta, 2011).

Employees' emotions also affect OCB -- positive emotions have a positive impact on OCB while negative emotions have a negative impact on OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). However, there are also studies showing that when employees are emotionally exhausted because of negative emotions, they will be more inclined to perform OCB in exchange for the support from others in the organization, so they will perform more OCBs (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007). There are also many scholars who have studied the impact of self-monitoring in personality traits on employees' OCB. Research suggests that, self-monitoring employees are more willing to give advice in order to promote themselves and improve their work performance perceived by colleagues and bosses. And they are more willing to actively adjust their emotions and performance and maintain interpersonal harmony with the same purpose of meeting colleagues' and bosses' expectations (Fuller et al., 2007).

Some researchers believe that, according to social exchange theory, social relationships are not contractual relationships, so the contributions and obligations of individuals in social exchange are not clearly defined. Hence the emergence of OCBs is accompanied by the belief that individuals have personal obligations in social exchange relationship (Kamdar et al., 2006). Consistent with economic exchange, social exchange relationship contains expectations of future rewards for contributions. However, the exchange obligations in social exchange relationships are not as clear-cut as that in economic exchange, so trust is crucial in social exchange given the ambiguity of obligations in social exchange relationships (Blau, 1964). In order to obtain more work resources from the organization, superiors and colleagues, employees

may take the initiative to perform OCBs (Tillman et al., 2015). Especially when employees trust the organization, that is, when employees have high level of identification with the organization, they will be willing to perform OCBs because they believe that efforts always pay off. Many studies believe that the identification with organization is an important factor promoting employees' OCBs (Van, 2000). Similarly, when employees' organizational commitment is relatively high, they are more willing to perform OCBs. On the contrary, when employees' organizational commitment is relatively low, they are unwilling to waste their own resources to take the lead in performing OCBs (Sun & Liu, 2019).

Organizational justice, as an important concept in the field of organization studies, also plays an important role in the research field of OCB. Studies have found that the perceived organizational justice of employees will be converted into their positive work attitude, which means that they will repay the organization with their positive work attitude and extra-role behaviors. However, if employees feel that they are being treated unfairly, they will correspondingly reduce the implicit work engagement, i.e. OCB, to offset the dissatisfaction caused by the sense of injustice (Niehoff & Mooman, 1995). Organ argued that social exchange is a relation that exists outside of a formal contract, therefore the contributions of different parties to the exchange are undefined. In contrast to economic exchange, which involves contractually agreed contributions, social exchange involves decentralized and informal agreements in which one party's contribution can be interpreted individually. Organ also believed that organizational practices that bring positive notions of justice create a sense of obligation to compensate the organization in a manner consistent with social exchange relations, so that employees will gain fair treatment through OCB. These contributions are not part of the formal role requirements and reward structure, and thus are structurally similar to the social rewards the employees enjoy when they are well treated. In other words, employees who are treated with justice express their sense of responsibility by performing their obligations, while employees who are treated with injustice express their dissatisfaction by refusing to perform their obligations (Organ, 1990).

Although most studies believe that OCB of employees comes from positive personality and social exchange motivation, some scholars believe that OCB is actually an impression management behavior that employees implement to enhance their portrait in the eyes of others. In addition to the traditional motivations for OCB (i.e., social exchange and personality), employees will also perform OCB when they believe that acting as a good citizen will help them achieve instrumental and self-serving goals. Therefore, people who conduct intense self-monitoring or have ambitions on work will selectively participate in highly visible OCB to

promote their own career success (Bolino, 1999).

In terms of organizational characteristics, some studies have pointed out that organizational environment influences individual attitudes and behaviors through interaction. Besides, the group cohesiveness theory explains that individuals in a group tend to perform OCB toward their team members. In a work team with cohesiveness, individuals are more sensitive toward each other and show a greater willingness to help and support other members (Schacter et al., 1951). In addition, reciprocal relations may also develop as part of normal and expected interactions in teams with cohesiveness (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), which will also affect members' OCB. In this case, social exchanges within the team may take place with the expectation that these behaviors can be conducted with coordination between team members in the long run (Organ, 1990). Others have also found a correlation between group cohesiveness and behavior facilitation, which shares similarities with OCB and is based on the desire of group members to support each other (Vandyne et al., 1995).

Mohanty and Rath highlighted how culture, as an important concept, shapes employee behaviors and attitudes. They further identified cultural characteristics, such as belief & norms, conflict and risk tolerance, structure, and individual responsibility, that exhibit altruism, sportsmanship and consciousness in guiding employees' attitudes toward their organizations (Mohanty & Rath, 2012). According to a study by Subramanian and Yen (2013), organizational culture has few characteristics concerning supervision and guidance in a way like parents' guide and supervise their children, thus making the culture a powerful facilitator that can influence and shape employees' beliefs and inject extra efforts into their work outcomes (Subramanian & Yen, 2013).

The research on social psychology also shows that employees are more willing to conduct OCB in a united and harmonious organizational atmosphere (F. O. Walumbwa et al., 2010). On the other hand, OCB is less likely to occur in teams with a strong atmosphere of exclusion, therefore workplace exclusion has a negative impact on OCB (Sun & Liu, 2019). In addition, team leaders with rich psychological capital can actively and efficiently interact with their team members. Such interactions can solve misunderstandings and contradictions between team members more effectively, which in turn can help building of a healthy and mutual team atmosphere. Therefore promoting the transformation of team members' psychological capital into OCB (Ren et al., 2012).In addition to organizational atmosphere, researchers have also paid close attention to the influence of leadership characteristics on OCB. Some studies pointed out that ethical leadership can encourage employees to conduct OCB, because ethical leaders care, encourage and support their subordinates, but also reward those who conform to the ethical

code. According to the social exchange theory, in order to reward the goodwill of leaders and maintain a good relationship with leaders, employees will also give corresponding feedback to ethical leaders, contributing more OCBs and showing a higher morality. Moreover, such social exchange is transferable.

Employees will not only release goodwill to leaders, but also carry out such OCBs to others in the organization (Z. Wang et al., 2012). Research suggests that transformational leaders persuade followers into giving up their personal interests for the collective interests. When followers equate their own success with the success of the organization and identify with the values and goals of the organization, they will be more willing to collaborate to make a positive contribution to the work environment (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Transactional leadership will set clear work goals for employees and reward those who achieve the goals, in return employees will perform extra-role behaviors after receiving rewards (Connelly & Ruark, 2010). Through empirical studies, Chinese scholars concluded that among various leadership styles, the transformational leadership can best promote the OCB of employees, while the laissez-faire leadership might have negative effects on employees' motivation to perform extra-role behaviors (Z. Liu et al., 2014). Some scholars also studied the influence of corporate social responsibility on employees' OCB, with a research result showing that an organization with social responsibility, especially the social responsibility concerning employees, is more likely to provoke the moral identity and positive moral concepts of employees, and stimulate their OCBs (F. J. Liu et al., 2017).

Certainly, in addition to the factors within the organization that have an impact on an individual's OCB, studies also show that the social and cultural environment will affect the OCB of individuals. There are also studies on this aspect. Some research has studied the relationship between psychological contracts and the organizational behavior of Chinese citizens, arguing that Chinese culture provides an environment in which employees experience employment relations based on mutual trust and support, where employees can be expected to have enough motivations to behave in ways that will strengthen their relationship with the employers (Hui et al., 2004). There are also few studies that have attempted to explore the relationship between culture-related beliefs, values and/or orientations and OCBs at the individual level in the United States. With individualism and collectivism beliefs of American individual samples as research objects, the research discussed whether American individuals who exhibit more beliefs, values, and norms in collectivism are more likely to self-report citizenship behaviors (R. H. Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

(2) Outcome variables of OCB

Research results showed that OCB is positively correlated with employee performance evaluated by leaders, rewards given by leaders, customer satisfaction, organizational effectiveness and organizational productivity; however, it is negatively correlated with absenteeism, resignation, and turnover tendency (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Some studies believed that in real life, employees will regard OCB as a requirement of individual performance because the boundary between OCB and job requirements is blurred. Moreover, in real work, some managers do include the performance of organizational citizenship conducts into the assessment of employees. Whether implicit or explicit, OCB has become an important indicator of employee evaluation, promotion and salary increase (Werner, 2000). In some organizations, OCB even has more influence on the performance appraisal than some objective performance indicators (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

In addition to influencing the performance appraisal, employees can gain more social capital through their OCBs. For example, actively participating in company dinners and team-building activities, which seem to do no good to formal work, can actually expand the work network among employees, build connections between once unfamiliar work partners, and increase the stickiness of employee relations. Secondly, employees may take the initiative to make concessions for the organizational interests, make efforts to maintain the organizational harmony and actively help others. These OCBs are not clearly defined in the job description but can increase the trust and recognition of managers in employees and among colleagues, which can enhance the relational dimension of employees' social capital. Finally, when employees conduct OCBs like providing suggestions and helping colleagues, they can promote the sharing and dissemination of knowledge and language within the organization, thus improving the cognitive dimension of employees' social capital (Bolino et al., 2002). Also, in the process of helping colleagues, making suggestions and maintaining organizational harmony, employees will enhance their self-identification and learn more knowledge and skills. Therefore, some scholars believed that OCB can promote employees' innovative behaviors (Zhu & Zhang, 2020).

Studies have pointed out that the two dimensions of OCB, namely altruism and sportsmanship, can improve organizational performance by improving its ability of attracting and retaining excellent talents, and ultimately improve employees' loyalty to the organization. It also helps to create a positive organizational environment, improve the morale and create a sense of belonging to a working group, making the organization a more attractive place to work. Employees with higher sportsmanship complain less about trifles, and are more willing to take on or learn new responsibilities, and thus improve the ability to adapt to new changes in the

work environment. This then creates a sense of loyalty and commitment among employees to the organization, which improves the effectiveness of the organization (Podsakoff & Scott, 1997). The dimensions of altruism and conscientiousness in OCB can improve employees' job satisfaction. When experienced employees show altruism in helping inexperienced employees complete their work more effectively, it will improve the work quantity and quality of inexperienced employees. Moreover, employees with a sense of responsibility do not need more supervision to complete tasks, and will not resist more tasks assigned by management (Chughtai & Sohail, 2006).

Another important outcome variable of OCB is performance, including individual performance and organizational performance. In terms of individual performance, most researchers believe that OCB has a positive effect on employees' job performance. First, employees can get more resources and opportunities from OCB and thus have more ways to improve their job performance. Secondly, employees improve themselves, enhance their sense of identity with the organization, and constantly learn new skills and knowledge when conducting OCBs, which indirectly affect their job performance(Chen, 2013). In the study of OCB, virtuous employees will show more performance of organizational citizenship conducts, which are definitely considered as "good soldiers" behaviors because of their deep moral foundation, but are not considered as "good actors" behaviors for personal gain motives. According to the research, employees will gain good mood and psychological advantage in the process of helping others and of being "good soldiers", so the relationship between OCB and self-efficacy is positive (Li, 2010). It can be inferred that this is good for promoting job performance. Moreover, there are studies that take OCB as a part of contextual performance in employee performance, which can provide supportive functions for employee task performance. Therefore, OCB can promote employee task performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

However, some researchers believe that OCB does not have a completely positive impact on individual performance. In real workplace, since employees cannot clearly distinguish between OCBs within and outside job requirements, too much pressure outside the job requirements will bring role ambiguity and role pressure to employees, adding too much stress to them. The time and energy of a person are limited, and any time spent on OCB is at the expense of task performance. While task performance gains more reward, time spent on OCB is likely to adversely affect individual-level outcomes, such as personal rewards and career development. Therefore, spending time on OCB may be good for the organization, but it costs high for the individual, and failure to balance OCB with work can negatively affect job performance (Tepper et al., 2001).

Some studies believe that although many previous studies have shown a positive correlation between OCB and employee performance, the reason behind this positive correlation may be the fact that researchers did not control the length of working hours. That is, if time is controllable, OCB and task performance forms a zero-sum relationship, and people are likely to see a negative correlation between OCB and task performance (Bergeron, 2007). In addition, some scholars have found that not only employees themselves will blur the boundary between OCB and their job roles, but also some managers will easily mistake OCB for an employee's job assignment. The cognitive inconsistency will easily lead to conflicts between leaders and subordinates (Lam et al., 1999). Moreover, extra-role requirements will lead to excessive work pressure. Dedicated employees are likely to conscientiously complete the OCB, which will lead to higher levels of emotional exhaustion and work-family conflict. The resulting emotional exhaustion and work-family conflict can also weaken employee job performance (Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

In terms of the negative impact of OCB, we found that while many scholars opposed to the positive impact of OCB on organizations and individuals, some scholars begin to focus on the negative impact of OCB. The research argues that in some cases, employees don't see OCB as truly voluntary but a mandatory behavior, hence bringing the concept of mandatory OCB. From the feedback in the work environment, OCB is viewed as something employees should do, and thus becomes an additional pressure for them. For example, an organization may demand employees to "do more with less money" (Van Dyne & Ellis, 2004), a supervisor may expect employees to engage in these behaviors to help the organization (Vigoda, 2006), or employees may believe that OCB is not something they do voluntarily, but part of the job assignment (McAllister et al., 2007).

Previous research has suggested that employees may carry out OCBs out of fear of losing their jobs for poor economic conditions, layoffs or other uncertainties, and that they may outstrip the competition with their OCBs. By engaging in OCBs, employees send a signal that they can not only fulfill their in-role responsibilities, but also contribute in ways that go beyond their in-role requirements. Over time, however, performing organizational citizenship conducts on a regular basis can have adverse consequences for employees. Employees may experience an escalating citizenship identity, with participation in performing an OCB becoming so normative that they must constantly do more OCBs to prove their hard work. They argued that the escalating citizenship identity could make it harder for employees to actually get out of work, potentially increasing competition and friction among those who want to be seen as the most loyal employees (Bolino & Turnley, 2003).

In terms of the relationship between OCB and organizational performance, most research results show that OCB can help improve organizational performance. It is like the lubricant of the organization, which can reduce the friction in work, improve work efficiency, coordinate the relationship between managers and employees, and that among employees. The resources previously consumed in repairing friction can be saved and applied to work, which will save the cost needed to keep the organization running and enable the organization to invest more resources to adapt to the rapidly changing environment (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Other studies believe that although OCB is a kind of individual behavior, but due to the transitivity of social exchange theory, OCB can improve the relationship and cooperation among members of an organization, thus improving the harmonious atmosphere within the organization (Li, 2010). Still, some scholars pointed out that OCB also has negative effects on organizational performance. While impression management is disguised in the form of OCB, its true intention is to leave a good impression on leaders and gain benefits from the exchange with colleagues. In the long run, once he/she can get a richer reward from performing organizational citizenship conduct than their own hard work, the employee will devote more energy to OCB but less effort in fulfilling the job requirements, which is harmful for the organizational performance (Hui et al., 2000).

2.3 Employee performance

2.3.1 Connotation of job performance

Employee performance is employees' realization of specific objectives. There are different viewpoints regarding the definition of employee performance, which are mainly divided into three schools: 1) outcome-oriented view of job performance, 2) behavior-oriented view of job performance, and 3) comprehensive view of job performance. According to the analysis of Bernardin and Beatty , the concept of outcome-oriented view of job performance regards the performance as the output record generated by specific job functions or activities at a given time range (Bernardin & Beatty, 1984).

But this viewpoint receives the doubt of more and more researchers because the outcome-based employee evaluation is one-sided and many factors influencing work outcomes in real life are uncontrollable for employees. Based on the analysis of Murphy and Kroeker , the concept of behavior-oriented view of job performance believes that performance is the synonym of behavior and it is considered as a set of people's behaviors related to the organizational

objectives (Murphy & Kroeker, 1989). According to Campbell , the performance is composed of the behaviors that are controlled by individuals and related to the objectives, including cognitive, physiological, mental and interpersonal behaviors (Campbell, 1990). Some scholars believe that job performance refers to those measurable indicators showing that employees can help the organization to accomplish its goals (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Coelho (2009) emphasized that performance is closely related to actions that will help achieve organizational goals. Therefore, not all behaviors of the individuals can be transformed into performance, but only those behaviors required by the executing office, and those related to the requirements and effect of the task can be turned into performance.

Individual job performance refers to the behaviors of employees in order to accomplish organizational goals (Coelho, 2009). Scholars holding similar views believe that job performance includes the skills and expertise applied in performing duties or tasks in the work environment, or the way individuals behave in terms of efficiency and performance, which ultimately will help the organization obtain the expected results. Job performance refers to a conscious action carried out by an individual guided by predetermined results, or in other words, an action with a conscious purpose or a motivation in advance (Sonnentag & Frese 2002).

However, this view also raises some questions, such as how to define which behaviors of employees are "performance behaviors"? The last view derives from the comprehensive performance theory, which emphasizes that an employee's performance should be measured not only by what he/she contributes now, but also by what he/she can contribute in the future. The performance not only refers to the behavior and results of employees, but also should include their ability, attitude, and work style (Chiang & Hsieh, 2012; Levy & Williams, 2004), as well as their knowledge structure, individual external skills, values and self-concept (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Researchers have tried to explain the connotation of job performance from a comprehensive perspective. For example, job performance is defined as the motivation and ability to innovate, learn, share and apply knowledge (Sydänmaanlakka, 2002). However, due to the late emergence of this perspective, the research in this field is still relatively deficient.

2.3.2 Dimensions of job performance

Employees' job performance is more than a polysemic concept. The division of its dimensions is also very controversial.

The research on the dimensions of job performance initially started with a unidimensional perspective of job performance, with researchers holding that performance appraisal is merely

the assessment of the results of work tasks. Then the multi-dimensional discussion of job performance has emerged with profound changes in organizational structure. As the organizational structure flattened, scholars and practitioners realized that unidimensional work performance overlooks some major elements in the performance field (Motowidlo, 2000). That is, while scholars and practitioners focused on work that supports or directly facilitates the transformation of organizational inputs to outputs, they neglected the activities that support the social and psychological environment embedded at the core of organizational technology (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowildo et al., 1997). Especially after Organ put forward the concept of OCB, scholars gradually realized that the unidimensional connotation of job performance does not include the extra-role behaviors of employees in real life. If we want to evaluate this kind of behavior, it is urgent to redefine the connotation of job performance. Therefore, more and more scholars divide job performance into task performance and contextual performance.

Task performance includes two forms: 1) Activities that directly transform raw materials into enterprise products and services; 2) Activities that involve servicing and maintaining the core of technology, including replenishing its supply of raw materials, distributing its finished products, or providing important planning, coordination, supervision or personnel functions that enable it to operate effectively and efficiently (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). When these activities are performed effectively, they are behavioral events with positive expected organizational value because they promote the production of organizational goods and services. However, they can have negative expected value when executed inefficiently, as they may hinder the production of organizational goods and services. Motowidlo and other scholars believed that contextual performance refers to the behaviors employees voluntarily undertake as per extra-role requirements in addition to fulfilling the in-role behaviors, such as actively helping colleagues, maintaining work order and safeguarding the interests of the organization, which can promote the tasks and processes, and effectively improve the efficiency of an organization (Motowidlo & Scotter, 1994; Motowildo et al., 1997). Later, researchers also discussed the definitions and dimensions of contextual performance. Some results showed that contextual performance could be divided into interpersonal facilitation and job dedication (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). These two constructs are similar to the interpersonal oriented factors and organizational oriented factors of the OCB respectively, which will be discussed in the section of OCB dimensions.

The starting point of the multi-dimensional structure of job performance is the Eight-Factor Performance Model (Campbell et al., 1990). These eight dimensions are: 1) task familiarity

(including specific tasks and non-specific tasks), 2) supervision (including the written and the oral), 3) positive attitude, 4) work discipline, 5) coordination and mutual assistance in work, 6) leadership, 7) management and 8) execution. Based on the eight-dimension study, Borman et al. has further divided the structure into two dimensions: i) task performance and ii) contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), and explained their connotation respectively. Task performance refers to the direct job performance of employees fulfilling the goals of products and services set by the organization through production behaviors. It includes the process of turning raw materials into products and services and the act of supplying, distributing, processing, and redeploying raw materials for the smooth operation of the organization. Contextual performance is a voluntary behavior of contributing extra efforts to work by creating a work environment (including social and psychological) needed by the organization (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Researchers believed that contextual performance can play a separate role in organizational performance, including the role in interpersonal facilitation and job dedication (Motowidlo & Scotter, 1994).

Although the mainstream research holds that job performance is mainly divided into task performance and contextual performance, subsequent studies attempted to propose new performance dimensions on this basis, such as the adaptive performance of measuring employees to adapt to environmental changes (Allworth, 1997), learning performance (Chris, 2004), innovative performance (Janssen & Yperen, 2004), relationship performance and dedicative performance (Han, 2008). Murphy described four dimensions of job performance: task-oriented behaviors, interpersonal oriented behaviors and destructive or dangerous behaviors (Murphy, 1989). Koopmans et al. identified job performance as four main dimensions, including task execution, situational performance, counterproductive behavior and adaptive performance (Koopmans et al., 2011). Some scholars proposed the generic work behavior as a classification of job performance, which is defined as a behavior that contributes to the performance of virtually any job independent of technical job roles. Through a specific analysis of employee behaviors in retail settings, eight specific dimensions of generic job performance were proposed, including industriousness, thoroughness, schedule flexibility, attendance, off-task behavior, unruliness, theft, and drug misuse (Hunt, 1996).

Job performance has always been an important concept in the organization research field, and the division of its dimensions have been constantly updated. However, at present, most studies still use the two-dimension division of job performance. It is a well-established and most widely applied divisional structure, i.e. dividing job performance into i) task performance and ii) contextual performance.

2.3.3 Related research on job performance

As job performance of employees has always been an important outcome variable of organization studies, current research mainly focuses on antecedent variables of job performance. According to studies, changes in employee job performance mainly result from: 1) Long-term changes such as learning process and 2) Temporary changes such as working capacity. Three types of perspectives of performance are usually mentioned to explain the individual work performance: 1) Individual differences perspective, 2) Situational perspective and 3) Performance regulation perspective (Ramawickrama et al., 2017).

The individual differences perspective focuses on performance differences between individuals, including individual factors like personal capability, personality, cognitive ability, motivation, and professional experiences. Research results on individual characteristics of employees show that narcissistic employees are less likely to learn and restrain themselves, and the degree of employees' narcissism is negatively correlated with contextual performance (Timothy et al., 2006). Quite a few studies have analyzed the personality determinants of job performance from the individual level and found that both the individual's ability and work experience can significantly affect job performance (Campbell et al., 1990; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

The study identified conscientious individuals as thorough, responsible, organized, diligent, disciplined and achievement-oriented in the Big Five Personality: extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism. Regardless of task requirements, conscientiousness is the strongest and the most consistent predictor of an individual's job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). A large number of studies have proved that personality has significant differences in situational performance (Motowidlo & Scotter, 1994). Extroversion and affinity are correlated with interpersonal facilitation dimension of situational performance (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Employees with higher EQ have better task performance, and they are good at avoiding the harmful emotional effects and persisting in completing tasks when encountering difficulties in fulfilling tasks (Nicola et al., 2000). Employees with more psychological capital like hope, optimism and resilience will perform better (Zhong, 2007). The self-efficacy of employees will have an important impact on their work performance. The higher the self-efficacy of employees is, the higher the work goals will be set for themselves, thus leading to higher performance (Meng et al., 2002).

The enthusiasm of employees is related to their job performance. Enthusiastic employees are more productive than those who are less motivated. In general, employees who are proactive

at work will take the initiative to express their opinions and improve the way they work, so as to prevent future problems, which will have a positive impact on their colleagues (Thompson, 2005). Adaptability is another important factor affecting job performance (Griffin et al., 2007). Employees' adaption to a new workplace (and/or new work requirements and demands) and irregular situations may have a positive impact on their job performance. In other words, employees who have no particular difficulty in coping with different work requirements and circumstances may be more productive than other employees (Pulakos et al., 2002).

Work engagement is also an antecedent variable closely related to job performance. Employees with high work engagement are more willing to work for a long time, pay more attention to their work responsibilities and associate their emotions with the tasks because they can devote more physiological and emotional resources to work. In addition, employees with high work engagement will have stronger motivation to pursue higher task performance and are willing to help other colleagues. Therefore, researchers believe that employees with high work engagement will have higher job performance than those with low work engagement. Many empirical studies have also proved that employees with high work engagement have higher task performance and contextual performance (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Christian et al., 2011; Erickson, 2005).

Job satisfaction is also an important antecedent variable of job performance. When employees are satisfied with the status quo, they will engage in a series of behaviors to better maintain or support the status quo, which means that their job performance will be improved (T. A. Judge et al., 2001). Similar to job satisfaction, employees' emotional commitment to the organization reflected in their affection and attachment to the organization can lead to the improvement of their in-role and extra-role performance (Chen & Francesco, 2003). There is also a negative correlation between normative commitment and employee performance. Scholars argued that this happens because employees with a high normative commitment are stuck in situations where they have no choice, such as staying in the company even if they don't want to. Thus, they get the job done passively and have a gradual decline in performance (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The situational perspective refers to the factors in the individual environment that stimulate, support or hinder performance. In other words, "Under what circumstances do employees exhibit the best performance?" Job characteristics, role stress sources and situational constraints may affect individual job performance (Ramawickrama et al., 2017). Research on leadership characteristics holds that different types of leadership characteristics are mainly achieved by influencing the leader-member exchange and the team atmosphere, as well as by affecting

employees with different styles of leadership. For example, ethical leadership and transformational leadership both promote work engagement and job identification to a certain extent, thus promoting employees' job performance (F. O. Walumbwa et al., 2011).

Researches have shown that transformational leaders tend to help subordinates solve challenging problems while teaching them how to solve problems in similar situations. Also, transformational leaders are often very charismatic. Therefore, in teams led by transformational leaders, the leaders inspire and motivate their employees, and team members encourage each other in different ways and have a smooth communication with each other so that it is easier to achieve organizational goals and long-term plans (Chen et al., 2005). Moreover, in a work environment with intense changes, transformational leadership can provide employees with a clearer role description. In this way, employees can understand what they should do and have positive expectations about their work, which will lead to a higher level of job satisfaction and thus effectively improve their job performance (Biswas & Varma, 2013). Therefore, it is believed that transformational leadership is highly correlated with high employee job performance.

Researches have shown that transactional leadership is beneficial to employees' job performance but detrimental to their innovative performance. This is because the rewards-based system of transactional leadership is designed to motivate subordinates, but it also punishes employees who make mistakes through a punishment mechanism. As a result, employees may give up working on new projects or learning new skills and knowledge for fear of making mistakes. In contrast, employees with the best job performance can get motivated because of rewards, giving them motivations to work harder (Mohammed & Wang, 2018).

In addition to the characteristics of leaders, the leader-member exchange also has an important impact on employees' job performance. High leader-member exchange will increase employees' trust in leaders and thus get more support and help from leaders. As a result, these employees will have more positive emotions and attitudes at work, which can stimulate higher job performance (Engle & Lord, 1997). Leader-member exchanges bring leaders and employees together. High-quality leader-member exchange can create an atmosphere of trust, openness and communication that leads to better performance (F. O. Walumbwa et al., 2011). It is believed that participatory management, such as open communication and participatory leadership, will lead to a higher level of employee performance, including both the in-role and out-of-role performance. It is because that participatory management will increase employees' job satisfaction, thus contributing to better performance (Biswas & Varma, 2013).

In terms of job characteristics, the research believes that the higher the degree of employees'

embedment into their jobs, the higher chance they will match the enterprise and the position, and the more harmonious their relationship with colleagues will be. These employees may pay a high price if they leave their organization, so they are more engaged in their work to achieve better job performance (Allen, 2006). The research also believes that jobs with higher levels of authorization, including job discretion, diversity and complexity, can make employees more engaged in their work, thus improving job performance (Bakker et al., 2006). Job discretion reflects the degree of freedom and independence employees have in making decisions about the way they perform their jobs (Noe et al., 2006). As a result, employees with more job discretion have more flexibility in their work because they can choose how to perform their jobs more effectively, which improves their organizational commitment and initiative, as well as their performance (Morgenson et al., 2005).

Organizational justice, as the perception of fairness in the organizational environment (Greenberg, 1990), is considered to be an important factor that affects employee work performance. Most studies agree that organizational justice contributes to employees' job performance. Equity theory by Adams points out that when individuals perceive that the outcome/input ratio is unfair, they can change the quality and quantity of work to restore equity (Adams, 1966).

Other studies have pointed out that when the salary is too low, individuals will reduce work engagement by lowering performance, but they will increase work engagement by improving performance when the salary is too high (Greenberg, 1982). Employees often adjust the input-output ratio to calm the psychological balance caused by the perceived inequity of distribution. In other words, if an employee thinks the distribution is unfair, his/her work motivation will be discouraged and become dissatisfied with the organization. To regulate their negative emotions, employees are more likely to slow down or even quit their jobs (Qian et al., 2014).

Some studies believe that the management support experienced by employees in the organization is an important condition to improve their performance (Armstrong, 2012). When employees feel that the management recognizes their work efforts, their performance is likely to improve. Researchers also believe that the organizational atmosphere can affect employees' adaptability, work initiative, work attitude and work behavior, and then affect employees' work performance (Chatman et al., 2014).

Studies on performance management believe that performance improvement programs, such as exploring specific experience and training programs, will improve individual performance. This perspective focuses on the performance process itself and conceptualizes it as a process of action. However, this view holds that organization-level activities can improve

job performance, including goal setting, training and job design, behavior modification, action process, feedback intervention. Therefore, by correctly understanding its dynamic nature, employees can adjust and improve job performance (Ramawickrama et al., 2017). Reward management systems help organizations attract, capture, retain and motivate employees with high potential to achieve high levels of performance. Compensation management system includes external compensation and internal compensation. The former includes financial rewards such as salary and bonus, while the latter includes non-economic rewards such as recognition, safety, title, promotion, appreciation, praise, decision-making participation, flexible working hours, workplace comfort, feedback, work design and social rights (Yang, 2008). Studies also find that the employee job performance is directly affected by internal rewards. Because when they are given internal rewards, they understand their own performance and work harder to be appreciated (Edirisooriyaa, 2014).

Due to the rapid development of globalization and technology, enterprises are facing new changes and challenges. Technological progress brings new requirements of the capabilities and competencies to perform specific tasks. Therefore, in order to cope with these challenges, all enterprises need better and more effective training programs. According to the research of Wright et al., employees can improve their abilities through effective training programs. Training can not only improve the overall performance of employees and enable them to effectively complete current tasks, but also strengthen their knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for the future work, thus contributing to excellent organizational performance. Through training, employees' abilities are developed so that they can effectively perform work-related tasks and achieve the company's goals in a competitive manner (Wright & Geroy, 2001). Employee training is like an asset, because if the employees are capable, then the company's performance will grow significantly and the company will get long-term benefits compared to its competitors (Ameeq-ul-Ameeq. & Hanif, 2013).

Research shows that team learning is a continuous process of collective reflection and action characterized by exploration, which can help members reflect and discuss the unexpected consequences of mistakes and actions, so that they can ask for feedback and make progress. In this way, we can say that team learning enables the team to grow and provides opportunities for its members to experiment, communicate and spread knowledge and acquire team skills (Koohang & Paliszkiewicz, 2013). Results of studies indicate that team learning can positively promote employee performance (H. Sun et al., 2017).

2.4 Core self-evaluation

2.4.1 The connotation of CSE

This research believes that employees' CSE can serve as an intervening mechanism of OCB and employee performance to cover the research vacancy. Why choose CSE as a mediator? Can it be competent for this role? To answer these questions, we should first understand the connotation of CSE. CSE means people's basic evaluation of their own self-value and capability (T. A. Judge et al., 1997). According to Judge and his colleagues., core self-evaluation will influence people's evaluation of themselves, the world and others, and such influence is at the unconscious level. As a result, the specific evaluation of situations (for example, the evaluation of one's job or colleagues) is subject to the influence of more profound and basic self-evaluation even though most people do not realize the influence of self-evaluation on their perception and behaviors when it arises.

Individuals may have core self-evaluation in several fields (such as evaluation of one's own, evaluation of others and evaluation of the world), but the core self-evaluation in the early stage proves that CSE is the most important (T. A. Judge et al., 1998). In their initial expression of CSE, Judge et al. found three qualified standard features: self-evaluation (core features should include self-evaluation instead of description of one's own or others), fundamentality (core features should be fundamental instead of superficial), and range (the range or basic feature of core features should be general) (T. A. Judge et al., 1997). Judge and his colleagues found three features that met these standards: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, and neuroticism. Additionally, they considered that locus of control might be qualified. The later CSE studies mainly focused on these four aspects.

Next, however, Judge and his colleagues discussed the possibility for other features to be regarded as CSE indicators. Specifically, they discussed the optimistic character and positive and negative affectivity. It is proven that optimistic character (T. A. Judge et al., 1998) and negative emotion are CSE indicators. But there are few systematic research linking these extra features with CSE of the medical personnel. Although other features might be included in the CSE structure, so far, the majority of studies have only focused on self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism and locus of control (Judge & Heller, 2002). Three out of the four features are studied most widely in the psychological field (Judge & Bono, 2001). In CSE theories, on the whole, the core concepts include self-esteem, locus of control, neuroticism and generalized self-efficacy. Conceptually, these concepts are highly similar to each other. As the affirmation

of one's own, self-esteem is the level of one's belief of own capability, significance, success and value (Coopersmith, 1967). Generalized self-efficacy is an evaluation whether one could cope with challenges in life (Locke et al., 1996). Obviously, the difference between one's beliefs in own capability, success, value (self-esteem) and generalized self-efficacy is subtle. Generalized self-efficacy is also highly similar to locus of control. Locus of control is one's belief that he or she has the capability to control the environment (Rotter, 1966).

Based on the literature review, the following conclusions on CSE of the medical personnel can be drawn: self-esteem, locus of control, and generalized self-efficacy boast many conceptual similarities; although CSE is widely studied, the similarities of these concepts are almost neglected. In the end, neuroticism is a tendency towards negative attitude and negative self-ego (Watson, 2000), which is different from the other three concepts. Although the core traits are almost universally treated as separate and distinct, a meta-analysis of the relationship between the traits was completed, using studies from the ten psychology journals most likely to include trait pairs. Their analysis of 127 articles revealed the following estimated, population level correlations between the traits. It was found that the average correlation among the traits is 0.60, while without locus of control, the average intercorrelation is 0.70, providing evidence of substantial overlap in the personality space assessed by measures of the four traits (T. A. Judge et al., 2002).-

Though the four sub-traits of CSE of the medical personnel share strong similarities and close correlation, many confirmatory and exploratory studies have found that the four core traits indicate a higher factor loading, and that a single-factor model fitted the data well, which means that putting these four traits together can get a better predictor of outcomes than using any of them alone (T. A. Judge et al., 2002). However, the four personality traits: self-esteem, locus of control, generalized self-efficacy and neuroticism, cannot be completely covered by CSE of the medical personnel. Instead, CSE is a higher-order personality trait than the four traits and actually affects them. In different cultural backgrounds, CSE usually presents a unitary structure, which means that CSE is universal.

2.4.2 Research on CSE

(1) Antecedents of CSE

Overall, CSE is the basic assessment one makes about one's self-worth and capabilities. CSE is conceptualized as a higher-order construct composed of broad and evaluative traits (self-esteem, locus of control, neuroticism, and generalized self-efficacy) that are relatively stable

and developed. Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller believed that CSEs have temporal invariance ((Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2011). CSEs must not vary greatly within the same person over a long period of time. McCrae and his colleagues held that in shaping personality, innate conditions are stronger than acquired cultivation ((McCrae et al., 2000). Personality has long been considered as a stable antecedent that affects consequences. But recently, some studies have replaced personality studies with environmental studies, with the view that personality is dynamic. Personality theorists are increasingly concerned with the ways in which personality traits change over time through interaction with life experiences. Li and his colleagues held that individual CSE will be affected by personality factors. For example, extroverts are less likely to be affected by negative emotions or events than introverts, thus affecting CSE (H. Y. Li et al., 2000). And individuals with pleasant personalities usually have high interpersonal quality and are more likely to receive praises from others in interpersonal communication, thus improving CSE. Using the longitudinal approach, Wu and Griffin observed that even when CSE stability was high (the test-retest reliability of CSE was 0.63), CSE scores varied over time, suggesting that the environment may influence CSE (Chia-Huei & Griffin, 2012).

Although CSE has genetic possibility, the influence of environmental factors on CSE is strong and lasting. It is possible to make meaningful changes to CSE by providing favorable working conditions and creating a good organizational climate (Mccrae, 2002). The research indicated that individuals with more social support tend to have higher CSEs (Brunborg, 2008). Song and his colleagues studied the influence of organizational support on employees' CSEs in the field of work, and the research showed that love, care, respect and mutual assistance perceived by employees have positive effects on their CSEs (Song et al., 2013). The perceived organizational support is a kind of positive situational factors, which intrinsically motivate employees, and they are driven to work hard by intrinsic motivation. High core self-evaluators have better emotional experiences (job, career and life satisfaction) and job performance (personal performance) in situations with high organizational support, because they enjoy the work and desire to work in such situations (Judge & Hurst, 2007).

(2) Consequences of CSE

CSE is usually regarded as an antecedent in research. How do OCBs affect the consequences such as job satisfaction and job performance? Judge and his colleagues proposed four processes through which CSE influences outcomes (T. A. Judge et al., 1997). First, CSE may have a direct impact on outcomes through a process of emotional generalization, wherein positive self-views spill over to influence other outcomes. Second, CSE may indirectly affect outcomes by influencing the cognitions people possess and appraisals they make regarding

different attributes (such as of job characteristics). Third, CSE may indirectly affect outcomes by influencing the actions individuals engage in (for example, persisting on tasks). Finally, CSE may moderate the relation between variables, such that reactions to events (such as receiving a raise) are influenced by how worthy one views oneself.

Another kind of research, with the approach-avoidance framework, argued that personality traits affect actions through the impact on approach-avoidance motivational mechanisms (Elliot & McGregor, 1999). In other words, CSE should be related to employees' avoidance and approach in the workplace, which in turn is related to job outcomes such as job performance. Approach/avoidance frameworks suggest that personality traits represent orthogonal biologically based approach-avoidance temperaments and can be classified in terms of sensitivity to positive or negative information (Chang et al., 2012). For example, extroverts are more sensitive to positive information, while highly neurotic people are more sensitive to negative information. Related to this, Ferguson and Bargh has found that when deciding whether to engage in certain actions, individuals with approach temperament tend to focus on relevant benefits rather than possible costs (Ferguson & Bargh, 2008). High levels of CSE are associated with a strong approach temperament and weaker avoidance temperament. Therefore, high-CSE individuals are sensitive to positive information and insensitive to negative information (Ferris et al., 2011). On the contrary, low-CSE individuals are sensitive to negative information and insensitive to positive information. Therefore, the research believes that approach/avoidance frameworks are very helpful to explain the relation between employees' CSE and outcomes.

Job satisfaction is a variable with high correlation with CSE. The research indicated that employees' CSE is based on specific situations. Therefore, the higher employees' CSE is, the better they evaluate the situations, which is accompanied by positive emotions. On the other hand, high-CSE employees usually mean that they are competent for complex jobs. A meta-analysis shows that CSE is a predictor of burnout (Alarcon, 2009). Individuals with high CSE perceived fewer stressors, experienced less strain and are more involved in effective coping strategies (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2009). In addition, such employees are more willing to help others, thus helping to establish a friendly working environment. The optimism when faced with difficulties, the confidence in coping with difficulties, the sense of achievement after successfully overcoming difficulties, and the self-improvement in the process of overcoming difficulties, all effectively promote employees' job satisfaction (T. A. Judge et al., 1998).

Another variable with high correlation with employees' CSE is job performance. Erez and Judge (2001) held that individual motivation plays an intermediary role. In other words, the

higher the individual's CSE is, the stronger one's motivation to complete the job will be. As motivation is the main determinant of job performance, individuals with positive CSE can accomplish jobs more successfully. Some studies also suggested that if an employee has high CSE, he/she will show both high approach orientations and low avoidant orientations. Meanwhile, an employee only needs limited self-regulatory resources, while the remaining resources enable one to eliminate irrelevant impulse when dealing with tasks (Ferris et al., 2011), so one has enough resources and energy for work.

Some scholars also argued that according to the approach/avoidance framework, CSE enables employees to approach the positive aspects of job (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2009) and seek positive results (T. A. Judge et al., 2005). This process involves one's cognitions and perceptions regarding the job, judgments or estimations of how other things relate to the self, as well as the development of the person's implementation of job-related tasks (Chang et al., 2012). Therefore, people with high CSE can effectively carry out self-assessment and quickly focus on important issues. Moreover, by focusing on those who positively evaluate them, they can trigger the self-regulation processes and maintain their external focus on performance (Zhang et al., 2014). These high-CSE individuals have more confidence in their ability to effectively respond to challenging environments, resulting in less negative emotional and behavioral responses to negative work attitudes. Because they have the necessary initiative and confidence and are more flexible, high-CSE people try to change the working environment. When encountering difficulties, they will be more persistent rather than trying to escape.

Therefore, in the event of being dissatisfied with the job and the organization, people with low CSE are less likely to cope with the situation and are more prone to thinking of detaching themselves from the situation and the organization (Chhabra, 2018). People with high CSE pay more attention to the acquisition of positive information and tend to focus on the pursuit of the success of tasks and cultivate the persistence of goals. The study also indicated that with the rapid development and change of society, an employee's job may sometimes require skills outside one's current knowledge domain. In this case, high-CSE people tend to react to job requirements with positive attitudes. That is, they will first evaluate the gap between the knowledge required by job tasks and the knowledge they have. Secondly, they tend to improve themselves by seeking knowledge from various sources and learning from their own experience. Therefore, high-CSE employees can achieve higher job performance (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Besides job performance and job satisfaction, researchers have gradually turned their attention to other job concepts. Chinese scholars found that employees with high self-evaluation usually have positive attitudes and are more willing to get involved in jobs. Therefore, there is

a positive relationship between CSE and job involvement (L. L. Sun et al., 2012). Similarly, the study pointed out that there is a positive correlation between high-CSE employees with motivation, indicating that individuals with high CSE tend to set more challenging goals, which may be due to their strong approach motivation. CSE is positively correlated with goal commitment and intrinsic motivation. These results show that individuals with high CSE are more committed to the pursuit of goals and more likely to have autonomous motivation, which means that individuals with high CSE focus on the positive aspects of the task at hand, so as to cultivate more motivation of internal supervision, goal commitment and persistence (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Other scholars thought that high-CSE employees are more likely to produce innovative ideas, because high-CSE individuals are more sensitive to positive stimuli and insensitive to negative stimuli (or low-CSE individuals are more sensitive to negative stimuli and insensitive to positive stimuli). Therefore, high-CSE people may be "excited" to see more positive aspects of creativity-related activities, as they are also more confident in achieving positive results (T. A. Judge et al., 1998). They are more likely to engage in actions conducive to creativity. Additionally, high-CSE employees will engage in more actions to obtain work-related knowledge and have stronger intrinsic motivation.

In the process of preparing to share the knowledge with their coworkers, individuals can deepen their understanding of the knowledge. The time spent in helping others with their own knowledge may enable them to acquire new insights and skills (Bolino & Grant, 2016). What's more, knowledge sharing is a good way to elevate enjoyment and increase personal reputation (Svetlik & Lin, 2007). However, knowledge sharing also has risks. The research believes that inconsistent perspectives may occur in the process of knowledge sharing. These inconsistencies may not only reveal the mistakes made by knowledge sharers or recipients, but also lead to differences and conflicts, which can destroy their social relationship if not handled well (S. Wang & Noe, 2010). When evaluating the decision whether to participate in knowledge sharing behavior, driven by strong approach and weak avoidance, high-CSE individuals pay more attention to the positive aspects of knowledge sharing (T. A. Judge et al., 2005) and less attention to the negative aspects. For them, the benefits of knowledge sharing may be more prominent, and their choices are more driven by the benefits related to knowledge sharing than the related costs. This is positively correlated with higher creativity (Chiang et al., 2014). Employees with high CSE have stronger intrinsic motivation and are more willing to study complex job tasks (J. M. Sun et al., 2011).

A research by Li held that high-CSE employees have higher organizational commitment

and job satisfaction, and lower job burnout (Li, 2017). In the more detailed research on CSE and organizational commitment, it includes affective organizational commitment (AOC), continuance organizational commitment (COC) and normative organizational commitment (NOC). There is a significant positive correlation between CSE and affective commitment, which may be because it is consisted of strong approach motivation (Johnson et al., 2010). This relationship is stronger for participants from collectivist cultures. There is a significant negative correlation between CSE and continuance commitment, indicating that high-CSE employees are unlikely to feel that they have no choice in their current job. The relationship between CSE and normative commitment is not significant.

Furthermore, it is generally believed that there is a negative correlation between employees' CSE and turnover intentions (Chang et al., 2012; Harris et al., 2009). Employees with high CSE are confident of their ability and competence and are less influenced by external or societal cues. Their thoughts, emotions and actions are less likely to be governed by workplace events and other external factors. Therefore, they are less likely to search for alternate job opportunities and are more likely to continue with their existing organizations (Chhabra, 2018). The study also pointed out that self-efficacy is one of the four characteristics of CSE. Employees with high self-efficacy can better adapt to adversity and are more likely to continue to devote themselves to their organizations in helping customers and completing tasks. While the lack of self-efficacy will lead to sense of helplessness and the reduction of commitment, generating turnover intentions (Krishnan et al., 2002).

2.5 Relationship conflicts

2.5.1 The connotation of relationship conflict

The third research question of this thesis is whether the relationship conflicts in the team can affect employees' CSE through the interaction with OCB, and then affect their job performance. First, we need to clarify what a relationship conflict is. Team relationship conflict is an important concept in organizational behavior research. (Wall & Callister, 1995) thought that conflict is a process in which one party perceives that its interests are being opposed by another party. Tjosvold et al. (2004) believed that conflict is the disagreement of team members on task objectives. Conflict may also occur at the behavioral level. Alper et al. (2000) defined conflict as the behavior of one-party interfering with or hindering the other party. Research suggested that conflict can occur between individuals, within groups, and between groups (DeDreu &

Gelfand, 2007). However, the core of conflict is an individual-level phenomenon, as the experience of conflict, the perception and emotional response to incompatibility, is an internal individual phenomenon (Smith-Crowe et al., 2007).

In the past decades, numerous literatures have conducted theoretical and empirical research on relationship conflict. It has received widespread attention from scholars, which is inseparable from the current increasingly fierce competition environment. If an organization wants to stand out and establish competitive advantage, relying on doing it alone is unlikely to work. This is the need to use the strength of the team. A team is a formal group composed of individuals who are committed to achieving common goals and work together, undertake certain responsibilities and have complementary skills. In this team, group members share information and make decisions. However, in the team, the inconsistency among group members' personalities, practices and values often leads to some conflicts (De Dreu & Gelfand, 2008). Due to the independence and complexity of organizational activities, conflicts are difficult to avoid in the team and organization (Amason, 1996; Jehn, 1995). Especially when the organization is faced with complex tasks, group members are easy to have different understanding of the tasks being performed due to different ways of thinking, resulting in some conflicts (Janssen et al., 1999), i.e. team conflict. As team conflict is a common phenomenon within organizations, the research on it has attracted extensive attention among scholars and management practitioners (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003).

Relationship conflict is an important part of team conflict. It is generally believed that team conflict can be divided into relationship conflict and task conflict. Task conflict is defined as disagreements among group members about the content of the tasks being performed, including differences in viewpoints, ideas, and opinions (Jehn, 1995). Task conflict is usually classified as cognitive conflict, while relationship conflict is usually classified as affective conflict. Relationship conflict originates from interpersonal relationship. It is an awareness of interpersonal incompatibilities, such as differences in personality, values and preferences unrelated to work, including affective components such as feeling tension and friction. Relationship conflict involves personal issues, such as dislike among group members, interpersonal style, and emotions, such as annoyance, frustration, irritation and disgust. Relationship conflict is affective conflict (Amason, 1996).

Some studies also argued that relationship conflict and emotional conflict were not enough to summarize team conflict. On this basis, the concept of process conflict was proposed. Process conflict is "disagreements about assignments of duties or resources" (K. Jehn, 1997). It represents how the team manages two important types of coordination activities, deciding how

to manage the logistics of the task (strategy) and how to coordinate people to complete the task, as well as the conflicts arising in the process (Marks et al., 2001). Teams often have conflicts on task strategies, such as task distribution and schedules, logistics and time limits of workflows (Gevers et al., 2006).

2.5.2 Research on relationship conflict

(1) Antecedents of relationship conflict

Some studies indicated that there are three major sources of workplace conflicts: scarce resources, differences in values and the desire for cognitive consistency. Each reason will lead to the unique form of corresponding process conflict, relationship conflict and task conflict. Therefore, from this perspective, relationship conflict originates from differences in values (DeDreu & Gelfand, 2007). Researchers with this view believed that relationship conflict mainly comes from interpersonal disharmony and diversity of group members (Ruuska & Teigland, 2009), the diversity of organizational culture (Iorio & Taylor, 2014), the uncertainty of project tasks (Anthony et al., 2014; J. Y. Liu et al., 2011), and the misconduct of group members (Koza & Dant, 2007). All of these are the potential drivers of disharmony among group members, resulting in relationship conflict.

The internal diversity of individuals includes gender, education and work experience. The researchers held that the differences of cognitive styles between males and females lead to different ways of dealing with job tasks, interpersonal relationships and leaderships. In male-dominated groups, females are more willing to cooperate and maintain harmony. While in female-dominated groups, males are more likely to deny female decisions, so female-dominated groups are more likely to have relationship conflicts (Foo et al., 2005). And the heterogeneity on gender of group members increases relationship conflict (Pelled et al., 1999). The heterogeneity on age and educational background of group members lead to cognitive differences.

The lack of common language and knowledge background, and the way of thinking and dealing with tasks of each member will inevitably cause differences among them. Therefore, the research concluded that the higher the difference of group members' age and educational background is, the more likely it is to trigger relationship conflict (Hendriks, 2009). Some studies also suggested that the effects of diversity depend on diversity type. Harrison and Klein (2007) argued that "separation on an attribute", a form of diversity that can capture deep-level differences, is associated with negative outcomes, including distrust, reduced cohesiveness, and

conflict. Perceived deep-level dissimilarity may increase the risk of relationship conflict because dissimilar people are less likely to validate their counterparts' beliefs and values.

Many experiences proved that the influence of personality on conflict depends on situational factors. The most studied traits related to relationship conflict come from the Big Five personality. The specific related personalities include agreeableness, conscientiousness and neuroticism. Agreeableness refers to a person's tendency of empathy, likeability, trust and cooperation, which is negatively correlated with the behaviors that provoke conflicts (Venkataramani & Dalal, 2007). What's more, as agreeable people do not respond strongly to negative stimuli (Jawahar, 2002), agreeable individuals should ease the relationship conflict caused by procedural injustice in the group (Skarlicki et al., 1999). Similarly, individuals with low conscientiousness, especially those with low self-control, tend to have stronger and more counterproductive reactions to provocative situations (Douglas & Martinko, 2001).

At the team level, uncertainties of project task include uncertainty of risks (Hanna et al., 2013; Jawahar, 2002), and uncertainty of job demand (J. Y. Liu et al., 2011). Organizational cultural diversity includes organizational regulations and norms and group communication strategies (Iorio & Taylor, 2014). Inappropriate behaviors of group members include abusive supervision (Tepper et al., 2011), and lack of communication among group members and distrust among group members (Smith & Edmondson, 2006) are all sources of relationship conflicts.

Research on organizational cultural diversity and relationship conflict noted that cultural diversity is positively correlated with intragroup conflict (Iorio & Taylor, 2014). C. Liu et al. (2007) investigated the differences in the degree and form of conflict between the East and the West. They found that for being more individualistic, American citizens interpret interdependence as a conflict of interests, and express conflicts more openly than their collectivistic Chinese counterparts. Other factors may mitigate or exacerbate the influence of diversity on conflict (Amason & Schweiger, 1994). For example, Jehn and Mannix (2001) found no relationship between values diversity and conflict during the initial weeks of a group's life; however, during the middle stages, deep-level diversity was associated with greater relationship conflict.

The attributes of group tasks determine the nature of group interaction (Pelled et al., 1999), which is an important source of intragroup conflict. Reasoning in uncertain tasks requires more deliberation and stimulates more debate. Therefore, research showed that uncertainty of goals is positively correlated with task and relationship conflict (Mooney et al., 2007). Similarly, considering that routine tasks have low information processing requirements and set procedures,

it is not surprising that task routineness is negatively correlated with task and relationship conflict (Pelled et al., 1999). The study also reported that when group tasks are highly interdependent, the conflict may be greater when the goals of both sides are incompatible (Komorita & Parks, 1995). And goal incompatibility is not purely objective. Individuals may perceive non-existent goal incompatibility, which leads to conflict and subsequent uncooperative behaviors (Thompson & Hrebec, 1996). Individuals who describe tasks as competition rather than cooperation tend to perceive more conflicts and less cooperative behaviors (Ohbuchi & Suzuki, 2003).

Some scholars also believe that in China, because the boundary between "people" and "things" is not clear enough, task conflict often turns into relationship conflict in the end. Even though the essence of conflict is task-based conflict, group members often mistake the source of conflict as interpersonal conflict, produce negative emotions, and further transform it into relationship conflict. Especially when task conflict is not handled and solved in time, it is likely to be misinterpreted as relationship conflict.

Many studies suggest that task conflict and relationship conflict do not represent the types of conflict, but the causality, a process that unfolds over time. For example, in the qualitative research on intragroup conflict, task conflict can easily turn into relationship conflict (K. Jehn, 1997). Similarly, research held that task conflict can be personalized, especially when personal interests are threatened, individuals may see other members' task-based differences as an attempt to take advantage of this situation for their own benefits. This implies a process of dissent, in which expressing dissenting opinions may make individuals question other members' motives for dissent (Amason & Schweiger, 1994). Several studies supporting this view found that in the low-trust condition, group members tend to question each other's motives for dissent (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001), and that task conflict triggers relationship conflict (Simons & Peterson, 2000).

Simons and Petersons argued that group atmosphere plays an important role in relationship conflict (Simons & Peterson, 2000). Negative group atmosphere often makes employees doubt other group members' motives for dissent, leading to irrational affective conflict. On the contrary, if a positive group atmosphere is formed within the team, the openness, the inclusiveness and the active cooperation among group members are conducive to promoting communication among the members, and thus reaching consensus, eliminating unnecessary misunderstandings, forming a good interactive environment and avoiding adverse conflicts (Amason & Sapienza, 1997). On the other hand, the effective display of team leadership is crucial to the formation of a good group atmosphere, which can make employees focus on job

tasks and effectively curb the generation and ferment of relationship conflict (Simons & Peterson, 2000).

Other studies note that process conflict is easy to be confused with relationship conflict, and then turn process conflict into relationship conflict. In these studies, it can be clearly seen from the respondents' score of affective conflict that there is no distinction between process conflict and relationship conflict. This phenomenon is mainly reflected in the statements about free-riding and the low-quality output of members. All these process conflicts brought setbacks to the group. Process conflict, whether about how to spend the time or resources of the group or about free-riding or contribution, seems to trigger a sense of injustice, which often leads to frustration and annoyance (M. Korsgaard et al., 1995).

Therefore, although the statements clearly represent the challenges involved in coordinating the group in the process, it is understandable that the unfairness and frustration caused by the conflict can also be interpreted as relationship conflict, as it involves the human aspect of resource coordination. Due to the high correlation between relationship conflict and task conflict and process conflict, recent studies have begun to explain the high correlation, and proposed that relationship conflict is usually the result of mismanaged task or process conflict, rather than the cause (DeChurch & Marks, 2001). The management of team conflict, especially process conflict, will affect the expression of negative emotions and the perception of their severity, and then become relationship conflict (Jehn et al., 1997).

(2) Consequences of relationship conflict

Relationship conflict is an awareness of interpersonal incompatibilities, which includes feelings of tension and friction (Jehn, 1995). Relationship conflict is probably the most indistinguishable team conflict, both in theory and in practice. Interpersonal friction is highly correlated with negative emotions. Research held that relationship conflict is often highly negatively correlated with outcomes such as satisfaction, commitment and coordination, which can better predict these outcomes (and performance) than task or process conflict (M. Korsgaard et al., 2008). The research findings on this effect indicated that anxiety produced by interpersonal animosity may inhibit cognitive functioning (Roseman et al., 1994), as well as disperse team members from the task, causing them to work less effectively and produce suboptimal products (Kelley, 1979).

Considerable studies focus on the relationship between relationship conflict and personal performance. Research indicated that employees undergoing relationship conflict exert their cognitive attention on interpersonal issues which limits the use of their cognitive resources for task-related issues, and divert their behavior, energy and time away from the job, thus lowering

their task performance. Due to the loss of social associations at work, employees may lose their concentration and focus because they pay more attention to interpersonal incompatibilities (Bouckenooghe et al., 2014). Relationship conflict with coworkers is socially damaging and consequently negatively impacts employees work performance (Van der Kam et al., 2014). The social loss may dampen their resolve to perform because they may lose their interest in work.

Research demonstrated a negative association between relationship conflict and task performance (Kacmar et al., 2012). When individuals face social stressors such as relationship conflict, they may undergo exhaustion because researchers contend that exhausted employees believe that their energy resources are not sufficient to meet their job demands. Exhausted employees feel cognitive fatigue and have problems related to perception, memory retention and failure to perform task at hand and it has been linked with poor job performance (Sonnentag et al., 2014). When individuals come across relationship conflict, they are expected to consume their energy and time to cope with the conflict, hence utilizing more resources (Gilboa et al., 2008). This further depletes their energy resources and reduces their ability to perform by diverting effort away from performing job functions.

Besides, the existing research reveal that relationship conflict has negative influences on not only task performance, but also individual-led citizenship behaviors. This is because relationship conflict impedes social processes at work, whereby individuals tend to engage in antagonistic attributions for others' social behaviors at work (Kacmar et al., 2012). The study noted that once employees lose their relationship with coworkers because of relationship conflict, their cooperation and support decrease owing to their hostile attitude towards each other, and their discretionary behaviors for the overall benefit of the organization may diminish which are crucial for maintaining a facilitative work environment, in other words, OCBs outside of job requirements (Rakovec-Felser, 2011). Some studies also found that relationship conflict will lead to differences in tasks and relationships among group members. Employees are unwilling to devote their own resources for some members and also rarely get resources from them, which makes it difficult for them to make behaviors beyond the role requirements, such as helping behaviors in OCBs (Lu et al., 2012).

In the relationship between supervisors and subordinates, the higher the relationship conflict is, the easier it will be for supervisors to see performance issues, because they have a negative aura and cannot reconcile the conflict between performance and supervisors. Therefore, managers are likely to believe that employees who have conflicts with them perform poorly. What's more, research indicated that conflicted relationships encourage people to hurt their coworkers (Struch & Schwartz, 1989). It is considered that supervisors use performance

evaluation procedures to hurt the subordinates who have conflicts with them. Thus, the study agreed that relationship conflict caused by the perceived deep-level dissimilarity will in turn be related to lower performance evaluation of subordinates. In addition to the research on relationship performance and employee job performance, at the personal level, the research also focused on relationship performance and employee turnover intention. The research suggested that once employees lose their social commitment to their coworkers due to relationship, they are more likely to pay stronger attention to other favorable working environments and are more likely to turn to other organizations, which leads to higher turnover intention (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004).

Previous studies have paid more attention to the influences of relationship conflict on the group. When relationship conflict occurs and becomes the focus of a group, group members may become uncooperative and get involved in meaningless human struggles, thus affecting the overall goal and project performance of the group (Song et al., 2006). The reason for it may be that the existence of relationship conflict may reduce the cognitive motivation of group members. For example, a recent meta-analysis showed that relationship conflict is negatively correlated with group members' commitment to the group (De Wit et al., 2012). Therefore, when the relationship conflict exists (or not), group members may leave group tasks and ignore what other members want to say. The existence of relationship conflict may not only reduce the cognitive motivation of group members, but also affect their social motivation. More specifically, the existence of relationship conflict leads to more competitive social motivation, thus reducing the motivation of members to pay attention to information that helps to reach consensus and integrate perspectives (Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2002). It would create hostile environment, where group members are reluctant to share their different views, and differences can result in obstacles in information processing, thus adversely affecting the decision-making process. Low-quality working relationships involve more conflicting interaction, which affects one's view of the opponent's ability and efficiency.

In addition to this motivation explanation, the prejudice of group members against their own information and views may also be caused by the anxiety due to the existence of relationship conflict. That is, when group members feel unable to cope with workplace conflict, it may cause anxiety (Dijkstra et al., 2005), especially when the conflict becomes personal and emotional (K. A. Jehn, 1997). Therefore, the existence of relationship conflict may impair cognitive function, because the anxiety caused by it may reduce the attention range of group members and reduce the number of information channels they use (Kamphuis, 2010). The research pointed out that this anxiety will make individuals more attached to their initial views

and unwilling to adjust views, reducing the possibility of accepting others' views (De Wit et al., 2012). Based on similar views, the research thought that relationship conflict has negative influences on organizational performance, which is mainly based on the following: firstly, the limited cognitive process caused by relationship conflict affects members' judgment of the information provided by others; secondly, relationship conflict makes members unwilling to accept the ideas of others; finally, organizations need to spend more time discussing, repairing or ignoring relationship conflict (Pelled et al., 1999).

Relationship conflict is also associated with a high level of negative effects among group members (Jehn, 1995), which leads to their negative emotions, including anger, depression, uneasiness, resentment and hatred (Bendersky, 2003), and they may do negative behaviors when in conflicting situations, such as shouting, waving fists, crying, or talking loudly and in angry tone (K. A. Jehn, 1997). Relationship conflict can also reduce innovative behaviors by weakening group members' affective commitment (Chen et al., 2011).

Most studies agree that conflicts have negative influences on individuals, groups and organizations, interfere with group performance and reduce group satisfaction, as conflicts produce tension and confrontation and distract group members. Empirical evidence also approved a negative relationship between conflicts and group productivity and satisfaction. However, there are still a few scholars trying to look at the other side of conflicts. Some studies put forward that low-level conflict in the group may be beneficial. When in conflicts, people face issues and learn to adopt different views, and creativity is demanded (Tjosvold, 1997). Without conflicts, the group may not be aware of the existence of inefficiency. The research also indicated that when the preferences of group members are inconsistent before the discussion, the group makes better decisions (Schulz-Hardt et al., 2002). Although a pre-discussion disagreement appears to stimulate the quality of group decision making, this positive effect breaks down quickly when conflict becomes more intense. Compared with a control condition in which no conflict was induced, participants were more flexible in their thinking and more creative in their problem solutions when they anticipated a cooperative negotiation (low conflict) with another individual. When participants anticipated a competitive and hostile negotiation (high conflict), however, cognitive flexibility and creative thinking decreased substantially.

All in all, this information-processing perspective suggests a moderate negative correlation between conflict and team performance: a little conflict stimulates information processing, but as conflict intensifies, the cognitive system shuts down, information processing is impeded, and team performance is likely to suffer (Carnevale & Probst, 1998). However, these studies did

not clarify the specific type of conflict.

2.6 Summary of literature review

2.6.1 Social exchange and organizational citizenship behavior

The source of social exchange is that people expect corresponding rewards from others. It is a voluntary behavior, and social exchanges can indeed obtain corresponding rewards in reality. The process of social exchange involves a series of interactions with obligations(Emerson, 1976) . The employee's organizational citizenship behavior can be regarded as the initial action of the social exchange relationship in essence. According to the social exchange theory and the principle of reciprocity, the employee's organizational citizenship behavior is expected to get good returns from the receiver. People exchange resources in a process of reciprocity (Gergen, 1969; Gouldner, 1960), and the quality of the exchanged resources is often affected by the relationship between the interacting parties (Blau, 1964). Therefore, the social exchange behavior of employees will be supported accordingly, which will become the material and spiritual resources of employees' follow-up work.

2.6.2 The classification of OCB

In studies related to OCB so far, it is generally regarded as a whole, and its classification is rarely concerned. OCBO and OCBI are the most common classifications of OCB, and studies on their different effects only started in recent years. Gradually getting the attention of researchers, it should also be the main direction of future research. Studies on the differences of OCB in Chinese and Western culture have pointed out that this difference does not appear as a difference in the connotation of OCB, but as a specific behavioral difference. That is to say, the connotation of OCB is universally applicable, but there are cultural differences in the specific form of expression. Therefore, this thesis pays special attention to the selection of the research scale.

2.6.3The variability of CSE

Whether the core self-evaluation of employees will change under the combined impact of time and environment is still controversial in the academic world, and there is not enough empirical data to prove its correctness. If employees are provided with favorable working conditions and a favorable organizational atmosphere, it is possible that CSE will make a meaningful

difference (Mccrae, 2002). Some studies suggest that individuals with more social support tend to have higher core self-evaluation (Brunborg, 2008). Some scholars have studied the impact of organizational support on employees' core self-evaluation in the workplace, and the results of the study indicate that employees' perceived love, care, respect, and mutual support have a positive effect on their core self-evaluation (Song et al., 2013). Although this study adopts the view that personality changes as time and environment change, there is still the unknown, and this view will be further examined in future research.

2.6.4 OCB as a part of performance

Reviewing the literature of employee performance shows that some scholars have integrated OCB into employee. The most widely accepted contextual dimension of task performance and contextual performance is conceptually overlapping with OCB. For example, Motowidlo and other scholars argue that contextual performance is the behavior that employees voluntarily undertake beyond the requirements of their roles in addition to completing in-role behaviors, such as actively helping colleagues, maintaining work order, and defending organizational interests. These are all contributors to promoting work tasks and processes, and can effectively improve the efficiency of organizational operation (Motowildo et al., 1997). However, it has not been concluded whether OCB is part of performance. To avoid misunderstanding, this thesis only measures the impact of OCB on employees' task performance.

2.6.5 The relationship conflicts

Relationship conflict is an important component of team conflict and is a relatively common phenomenon within organizations. Research on team conflict has attracted widespread attention among scholars and management practitioners (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Relationship conflict is a type of perception of interpersonal incompatibility, including emotional components such as tension and friction. Relationship conflict involves dislike between group members, interpersonal disharmony, and negative emotions such as annoyance, frustration, irritation, and disgust. Relationship conflict is an emotional conflict (Amason, 1996). Unlike task conflict, relationship conflict is often associated with a variety of negative consequences, and there is substantial evidence that relationship conflict is harmful to both the individuals involved in the conflict and the group in which the relationship conflict takes place.

It has also been found that relationship conflict causes disagreement among team members on tasks and relationship, and that employees are reluctant to give their resources to and receive

few resources from certain team members, making it difficult for them to engage in behaviors other than those required by their roles, such as helping behaviors in organizational citizenship (Lu et al., 2012). Therefore, relationship conflict is chosen as a moderate variable in this study.

Chapter 3: Research Hypotheses

3.1 Research model

From the literature review, it can be known that the discussion of organizational citizenship behavior so far has taken it as a whole, and little attention has been paid to its classification. Dividing organizational citizenship behavior into OCBO and OCBI is a relatively common classification of organizational citizenship behavior. There are also five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior: altruism, civility, sense of responsibility, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. There are relatively few studies on the influence of different dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior on other variables, so the model of this paper divides organizational citizenship behavior into five dimensions to discuss their impact on the task performance of medical staff. And through literature review, Chinese researchers have also proposed different classifications of organizational citizenship behavior in the Chinese context, and the different effects on it have gradually attracted the attention of researchers in recent years, and should be the main direction of future research. Therefore, this paper divides organizational citizenship behavior into five dimensions and explores its different effects on task performance.

According to social exchange theory, organizational citizenship behavior can be used as the beginning of a good social exchange. According to social exchange theory and the principle of reciprocity, employees' organizational citizenship behavior is expected to get good returns from the receiver, and people exchange resources in the process of reciprocity. According to relevant research on core self-evaluation, this exchange of resources helps to improve employees' core self-evaluation, and employees' core self-evaluation is closely related to their task performance. Therefore, this paper believes that core self-evaluation can be used as an intermediary variable of organizational citizenship behavior affecting task performance, and explores the impact mechanism of organizational citizenship behavior on employee task performance.

Due to the previous research on the impact of environmental factors on organizational citizenship behavior, but in the organizational environment, especially in the hospital, which is dominated by high-knowledge talents, the environmental impact is essential. Therefore, this paper introduces team relationship conflict as an important environmental variable to explore the impact mechanism of organizational citizenship behavior on task performance. The

theoretical model of this paper is shown in Figure 3.1. In summary, the research model of this paper is as follows:
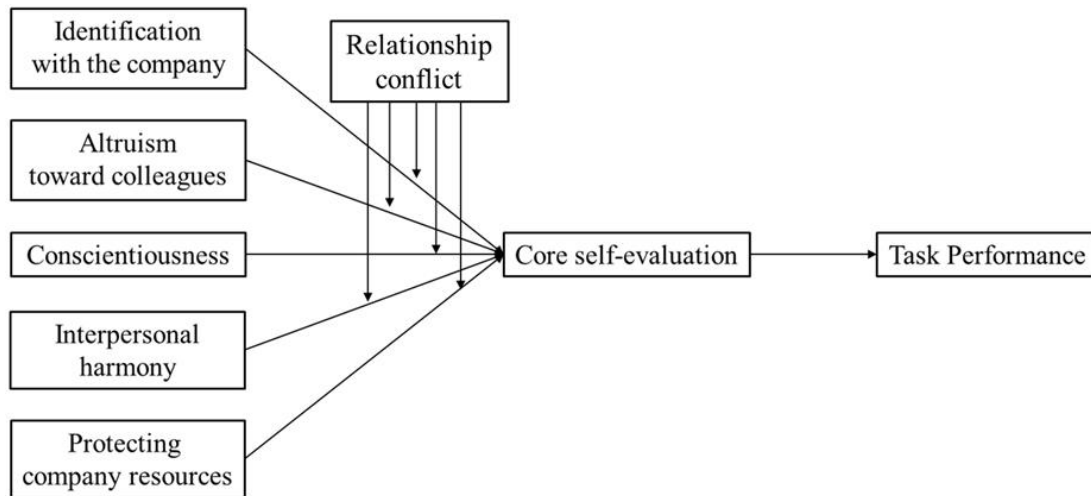
Figure 3.1 The research model of the thesis

3.2 The impact of OCB on employees' CSE

As mentioned earlier, most studies tend to believe that employees' core self-evaluation is a fixed trait, and the innate effect is stronger than the acquired effect on this trait. However, this thesis is inclined to think that there is an important state component in addition to the trait component in employees' CSEs. The State CSEs are short-lived panoramas of CSEs and have the same emotional, behavioral, and cognitive content as the corresponding Trait CSEs (Fleeson, 2012). For example, Judge and others suggest that CSEs can change with changes in work events within minutes, hours and days, such as feedback reception, past performance and work rewards (T. A. Judge et al., 2012). The research in this thesis starts with this changeable CSE to see if it will play an intermediary role between employees' OCB and their task performance. There is no direct evidence to confirm the relationship between employees' OCB and their CSE. However, some studies have pointed out that individuals with more social support tend to perform higher CSE (Brunborg, 2008). Empirical research on this point of view has shown that the love, care, respect, and mutual assistance that employees perceive have a positive role in promoting their CSE (Song et al., 2013). A member's participation in OCB can help him or her accumulate valuable resources by the creation of a sense of responsibility among other members, behavioral support, constructive oral feedback, or useful information (Rapp et al., 2013). Therefore, the more OCBs a team member performs, the more resources he or she may accumulate. According to the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001), these accumulated,

reciprocal and exchange-based resources in the workplace may help OCB performers fulfill their job duties, thereby improving their CSE.

The social exchange theory emphasizes that individuals do not return all beneficial behaviors equally, but allocate more resources to reward those behaviors that are more directly beneficial to themselves (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). OCB studies also emphasize that different forms of OCB may trigger different degrees of reciprocity. Compared with corporate recognition, the protection of work resources and initiative, helping colleagues and promoting interpersonal harmony are more suitable for fostering an immediate sense of debt and getting rewards from other members. Although the corporate recognition, protection of work resources and initiative may eventually prove to be helpful to the group one belongs to, their benefits are likely to be far more dispersed and remote than helping colleagues and promoting interpersonal harmony, and less likely to motivate in the group immediate gratitude or promote mutual social communication (Organ & Paine, 1999; Rubin et al., 2013). In addition, because the corporate recognition, protection of work resources and initiative are directly beneficial to the organization, and the tools for achieving organizational goals are clear, it is directly related to organizational rewards (Ilies et al., 2009). A member in the team may even conclude that the organization should bear the primary responsibility for civic behavior such as corporate recognition, protection of work resources and initiative in return for members. Based on these reciprocal social exchange principles (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), we suggest that members more actively reward others for the civic behaviors like helping their colleagues and promoting interpersonal harmony, rather than those of a member's corporate recognition, protection of work resources and initiative. Therefore, a team member's corporate recognition, protection of work resources, and initiative are not as strong as interpersonal harmony and helping colleagues for his or her CSE.

Therefore, the first hypothesis of this thesis is proposed:

H1: OCB has a positive impact on the CSE of medical staff.

H1a: Corporate recognition has a positive impact on the CSE of medical staff.

H1b: Initiative positively affect the CSE of medical staff.

H1c: The protection of work resources positively affects the CSE of medical staff.

H1d: Helping colleagues positively affect the CSE of medical staff.

H1e: Interpersonal harmony positively affect the CSE of medical staff.

H1f: Compared with corporate identification, initiative and protection of work resources, the interpersonal harmony among members and helping colleagues have a stronger relationship with their positive CSE changes.

3.3 The mediator role of employees' CSE

The research by (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2009) points out that citizenship is rooted in social exchanges and forms the basis for continued reciprocity with others. Employees' CSE also connects the relationship between the exchange in the environment and their job performance. Therefore, this thesis believes that employees' CSE can be used as an indicator for the relationship between employee's OCB and task performance, which has been demonstrated in existing studies. First of all, the study believes that if an employee has a high instantaneous CSE, then he or she will also show high approach-oriented and low avoidance-oriented behavior. Meanwhile, employees only need limited resources for self-regulation, and the remaining resources will enable him or her to exclude impulses that are not related to tasks when dealing with tasks (Ferris et al., 2011). Thus, better task performance can be achieved.

Conversely, when an employee has a low instantaneous CSE, his/her typical characteristics are low approach-oriented and high avoidance-oriented motivation, which consumes his or her self-regulating resources. As a result, these resources can no longer be used to actively control the employee's behavior in completing the task. They can reduce the level of task performance. According to the approach/avoidance framework, CSE enables employees to approach the positive aspects of the job (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2009) and seek positive outcomes (T. A. Judge et al., 2005). This process includes the perception and awareness of one's work, the judgment or estimation of how other things relate to the self, and the development of the way the individual performs work-related tasks (Chang et al., 2012). Therefore, individuals with high CSE are able to evaluate themselves effectively and quickly focus on important issues. In addition, by focusing on people who evaluate them positively, they can trigger the process of self-regulation and maintain an external focus on performance (Zhang et al., 2014). These high CSE individuals are more confident in their ability to respond effectively to challenging situations, resulting in fewer negative emotional and behavioral responses to negative work attitudes. Since they have the necessary initiative and confidence as well as being more flexible, they attempt to change their working environment and are more persistent rather than trying to escape when faced with difficulties.

In summary, based on the above discussion and the theoretical derivation of H1a to H1f, the OCB of a member can help the member to accumulate valuable resources and useful information (Rapp et al., 2013). This kind of reciprocal social interaction of OCB should correspondingly improve the CSE and thus the task performance of group members.

Therefore, we propose Hypothesis 2:

H2: The CSE of medical staff will have a significant positive impact on their task performance.

And the Hypothesis 3:

H3: CSE mediates the relationship between OCB and task performance.

H3a: The corporate recognition of medical staff will actively promote their CSE, and cause a change in their task performance.

H3b: The initiative of medical staff will actively promote their CSE, and then cause a change in their task performance.

H3c: The protection of work resources of medical staff will actively promote their CSE, and then cause a change in their task performance.

H3d: Medical staff's helping colleagues will actively promote their CSE, and then cause a change in their task performance.

H3e: The interpersonal harmony of medical staff will actively promote their CSE, and then cause a change in their task performance.

3.4 Moderator role of relationship conflicts

Research on organizations shows that individuals working in the organization are most closely related to their work groups which have a great influence on their personal behavior and attitudes (Kidwell et al., 1997). Relationship conflicts can cause disagreements over tasks and relationships among members. Employees are reluctant to supply their own resources to some members of the team, and they rarely get resources from those members either, making it difficult for them to perform extra-role behaviors such as helping others in organizational citizenship (Lu et al., 2012). The social exchange theory also shows that social communication is connected to the entire group through an indirect chain (for example, the relationship between member A and member B may be indirectly caused by the conflict between member C and member B). This influence will quickly exacerbate the relationship conflicts within the group, resulting in more profound mistrust OCB that affects individual gains) and a lack of common goals OCB that affects organizational gains), thus reducing the OCB of the whole group (Qi & Armstrong, 2019).

As mentioned earlier, an important reason why OCB affects employees' CSE is that OCB helps members obtain "resources" and "opportunities". "Opportunities" refer to the access to resources, a good working environment and support from leadership. The "opportunities"

include work tools, equipment and work-related information. OCB is conducive to employees to obtain "resources" and "opportunities", which can be explained with the social exchange theory. According to the "reciprocity principle" in the social exchange theory, members conduct OCB in return for the salary and job support provided by the organization. In turn, the organization will give more support to maintain the exchange. However, this explanation ignores that the principle of reciprocity in social exchange is actually an folk belief, and people may not always follow this standard. Therefore, OCB may be subject to the employees' interpretation of OCB (Jiao et al., 2011) and their recognition of their roles (Tepper et al., 2001). However, the research concluded that relationship conflict could lead to hostile environment where team members were reluctant to share their different views and disagreement could affect information processing. This would have a bad influence on decision-making. Low-quality working relationship involves more conflicting interaction, which affects individuals' views of the competence and efficiency of their counterparts. In addition to this motivational explanation, group members' bias toward their own information and perspectives may also be a source of anxiety due to the presence of relationship conflict. In other words, it may trigger anxiety when team members feel unable to cope with conflict in the workplace (Dijkstra et al., 2005), especially when the conflict becomes personal and emotional (K. A. Jehn, 1997). Thus, the presence of relationship conflict may impair cognitive functioning process because the anxiety triggered by the presence of relationship conflict may narrow the attention span of group members and reduce the number of information channels they use (Kamphuis, 2010). The influence of role recognition is largely caused by environmental factors. Among the members in a team with a serious relationship conflict, distrust as well as negative emotions and behaviors prevail, challenging the principle of reciprocity in exchanges. In such environment, not only will OCB decrease, but its effect on the CSE of medical staff will also decline.

In summary, we propose the following hypotheses:

The general H4 is:

Relationship conflict moderates the relationship between OCB and CSE in such a way that when relationship is strong, such a relationship will be weaker.

H4a: Relationship conflicts moderate the positive relationship between a member's corporate recognition and his or her CSE. When the relationship conflict is strong, such a relationship will be weaker.

H4b: Relationship conflicts moderate the positive relationship between a member's initiative and his or her CSE. When the relationship conflict is strong, such a relationship will be weaker.

H4c: Relationship conflicts moderate the positive relationship between a member's protection of work resources and his or her CSE. When the relationship conflict is strong, such a relationship will be weaker.

H4d: Relationship conflicts moderate the positive relationship between a member's helping colleagues and his or her CSE. When the relationship conflict is strong, such a relationship will be weaker.

H4e: Relationship conflicts moderate the positive relationship between a member's interpersonal harmony and his or her CSE. When the relationship conflict is strong, such a relationship will be weaker.

3.5 Mediation moderation

From the mediator role of CSE and the moderation role of team relationship conflicts, it can be further seen that there is mediation moderation relationship, or in other words, team relationship conflicts moderate the mediation role of medical staff's CSE in OCB and task performance. In other words, when the team conflicts are stronger, the relationship between OCB and CSE is weaker, and the CSE of medical staff cannot well convey the effect of OCB on task performance. Conversely, when the relationship conflict is weaker, the relationship between CSE and task performance is stronger, and CSE can better convey the effect of OCB on task performance. Based on this, this study makes assumptions as follows:

I will suggest first a general hypothesis:

H5: Team relationship conflicts moderates the mediation role of CSE between OCB and task performance.

H5a: Team relationship conflicts moderates the mediation role of CSE between corporate recognition and task performance. The stronger the team conflict, the weaker the intermediary role of CSE.

H5b: Team relationship conflicts moderates the mediation role of CSE between initiative and task performance. The stronger the team conflicts, the weaker the intermediary role of CSE.

H5c: Team relationship conflicts can regulate the intermediary role of CSE between the protection of work resources and task performance. The stronger the team conflicts, the weaker the intermediary role of CSE.

H5d: Team relationship conflicts can regulate the intermediary role of CSE between helping colleagues and task performance. The stronger the team conflicts, the weaker the intermediary role of CSE.

H5e: Team relationship conflicts can regulate the intermediary role of CSE between interpersonal harmony and task performance. The stronger the team conflicts, the weaker the intermediary role of CSE.

Chapter 4: Research Design

4.1 Research methods

In this research, we sorted out and summarized existing literature at first, and then we carried out an empirical study based on the results of field questionnaire survey at a hospital.

In order to solve research questions, clarify the internal relations among OCB, core self-evaluation of employees, individual's performance and team relationship conflict, we searched databases such as EBSCO, Web of Science, Google Scholar and CNKI for previous research. Based on extensive literature review, finally the theoretical framework was formed combined with research questions.

Then empirical research based on questionnaire survey was adopted to verify the theoretical framework and research hypotheses proposed in this research. The respondents were from the working teams of a private hospital in Jiangsu Province. Firstly, we designed a questionnaire (with reference to mature measurement scales in and beyond China) in line with the research model and distributed them on-site in the hospital. Then with the help of SPSS 22.0, AMOS, PROCESS and the likes of data analysis software, we adopted a series of method to analyze the data collected, including confirmatory factor analysis, correlation analysis, regression analysis and structural equation model, so as to testify the hypotheses and research model.

4.2 Research design and samples

This chapter was dedicated to the process of data collection, descriptive statistics of data and reliability and validity analysis of data.

Firstly, we introduced in detail the selection of research sample, the process of data collection and the sample size.

Secondly, we conducted descriptive statistical analysis on the collected data, including demographic distribution and variance analysis.

Finally, exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were conducted to verify the reliability and validity of the data to ensure the scientific nature and stability of research data.

4.2.1 Selection of research samples

This research focused on the influence mechanism of OCB of medical staff in private hospital on their work performance. Therefore, we chose medical staff at Hospital S in Jiangsu Province as research object. Medical staff were invited to fill in the questionnaires on a voluntary basis.

4.2.2 Collection of research data

In this research, questionnaire survey method was used to collect data. We distributed questionnaires on the spot to medical staff, to whom we explained its only use for academic research and promised to keep confidential of private information. Based on that, we asked them to fill in questionnaire truthfully. The survey process consisted of three phases: questionnaire in Phase I aimed at collecting data on employee's self-efficacy (Question 1-8, disturbance), team relationship conflict (Question 9-12), OCB (Question 13-32), employee's core self-evaluation (Question 33-42) and employee's basic information, including job number, gender, age, tenure and educational level. Questionnaire of Phase II aimed at collecting data on employee's core self-evaluation (Question 1-12), active personality (Question 13-22), job satisfaction (Question 23-25) and transformational leadership (Question 26-38), with the latter three as disturbance. At the end of the questionnaire are questions on respondents' basic information as the above mentioned. Questionnaire for Phase III was a supervisor evaluation questionnaire, consisting of employee-created role identity (Question 1-9) and their task performance (Question 10-14). Job number will be the clue to match data among the three phases. All variables were measured against the 5-point Likert Scale, with 1 representing completely disagreement and 5 representing completely agreement.

4.2.3 Descriptive data analysis

A total of 862 questionnaires were collected in Phase I and 798 in Phase II. All questionnaires collected in the three phases were filled on a voluntary basis. After data matching between Phase I and Phase II, 516 questionnaires turned out to be valid (see Table 4.1). It can be seen from Table 4.1 that the subjects in the hospital include 410 women, accounting for 79.5%, and 106 men, accounting for 20.5%; 203 of them received undergraduate education, accounting for 39.3% and 214 of them received postgraduate education, accounting for 46.7%. The overall educational level of the hospital is relatively high. 224 subjects are aged between 21 and 30, accounting for 43.4% of the total, 199 subjects are aged between 31 and 40, accounting for 38.6%, and only 28 subjects are aged over 50, accounting for 5.4%. Among the subjects, 371

have worked within 10 years, accounting for 71.9%, and the number of employees who have worked for 10-20 years is 116, accounting for 22.5%. It can be seen from the age and working years of the subjects that medical staffs in the hospital are relatively young.

Table 4.1 Composition of valid samples

Variable	Category	Quantity	Percentage
Sex	Female	410	79.5%
	Male	106	20.5%
Education	High school and below	56	10.9%
	Junior colleges	203	39.3%
	Undergraduate	241	46.7%
	Postgraduate	16	3.1%
Age	21-30	224	43.4%
	31-40	199	38.6%
	40-50	65	12.6%
	Over 50	28	5.4%
Length of service	Less or equal to 10 years	371	71.9
	11-20	116	22.5
	21-30	14	2.7
	Over 30 years	15	2.9

4.3 Measures

The questionnaire of this study has been designed and discussed for several times, and the basic principles are as follows. First, the questionnaire items use questions that are clear, short and easy to understand, avoiding ambiguous words and phrases. The questions are pertinent without personal and emotional tendency and the objectivity of answers is guaranteed in the question items. Second, a confidential statement and the explanation of purpose of the questionnaire and survey results are attached at the beginning of the questionnaire so as to reduce the respondents' defense. Third, put the more important topics and items in the front of questionnaire and control variables involving gender, age and education in the back.

The questionnaires used in this study were selected after reading a large amount of excellent literature in China as well as other countries to ensure the rationality and authority. The measurement of each variable is relevant, and the measurement method is simple and easy to operate. The measurement is reliable and valid. Before formally selecting the questionnaire, the author classified the scales selected in the literature. By analyzing the strengths and weaknesses of the scales and considering actual situation and the subjects of the study, the most suitable scale for this study was selected.

After the initial conception of the questionnaire, we consulted some scholars and professors, drew on their research experience and further improved the structure of the questionnaire based on their suggestions. After discussing for several times, the details of the questionnaire were added and adjusted to form the final one. Also, the time schedule and steps of the research were also initially discussed in this process.

We contacted the hospital manager to discuss the time, targeted groups, location, research method and research steps to ensure that the final research plan was determined without disturbing the work and rest of the medical staff. In the process of visiting the hospital manager, in order to check the operability and readability of the questionnaire and to ensure that the questions could be accurately understood by the medical staff, the questionnaire was distributed to the medical staff in a small scale. We collected their opinions on the questions and inquired them whether there were any ambiguities in the questions in order to get reliable and authentic results when the questionnaire is distributed on a large scale.

After several revisions, the questionnaire of this study consisted of four main variables, OCB, relationship conflict, task performance and employee core self-evaluation. To avoid offense on privacy, the questionnaire placed control variables involving gender and age at the end of the questionnaire. Scales in the questionnaires were adopted by most researchers in China and around the globe, therefore they were reliable. All questionnaires used the Likert scale.

4.3.1 Measurement of OCB

Organ's five-dimensional OCB scale is the most representative of all OCB scales (Organ, 1988). Most of the scales beyond China are revised on the basis of Organ's scale with dimensional modifications, and most of the foreign studies also use Organ's scale to measure OCB. Research in China is more likely to choose the five-dimensional scale based on the Chinese cultural context revised by scholar Farh from Taiwan (Farh et al., 1997). This study considers OCB as the behavior of employees that transcends the requirements of formal duties. It is not identified by the organization's formal compensation system, and can contribute to organizational effectiveness. It includes identification with the company, altruism towards colleagues, conscientiousness, interpersonal harmony, and protecting company resources (Farh et al., 1997). C. Liu et al. (2017) modified and adjusted the scale based on the scale developed by Farh et al. （1997）, which is more in line with Chinese cultural background.

The scale is based on the Likert scale and measures the following entries.

Dimension 1: Identification with the company

- Be willing to speak up for the reputation of the hospital;
- Proactively tell people the good news about the hospital and clarify their misconceptions about the company;
- Make some constructive suggestions to improve the operation of the hospital;
- Attend hospital meetings earnestly.

Dimension 2: Conscientiousness

- Comply with hospital rules and regulations even when no one is present or there are no rules to follow;
- Work conscientiously and rarely makes mistakes;
- Be willing to be challenged or to take on new tasks;
- Study hard to improve the quality of work;
- Often arrive early and start to work immediately.

Dimension 3: Protecting company resources

- Do personal things during working hours (R);
- Do something of my own by taking advantage of hospital resources involving telephone, copier, computer and car (R).
- Take sick leave for some personal issues (R).

Dimension 4: Altruism toward colleagues

- Be willing to help new colleagues adapt to the working environment;
- Be willing to help colleagues with work-related issues;
- Be willing to share the work of colleagues when needed;
- Be willing to interact and collaborate with colleagues.

Dimension 5: Interpersonal harmony

- Personal influence and interests are more important than interpersonal harmony (R).
- Take the advantage of my position to do something for my own benefit (R).
- It is not necessary to pay much attention to the criticism and advice from others for my own benefit (R).
- Complain about other colleagues behind my supervisor or colleagues (R).

4.3.2 Measurement of core self-evaluation

This research adopted the concept of core self-evaluation (CSE) proposed by T. A. Judge et al. (1997) that CSE refers to people's basic evaluation of their own self-value and ability, and treated core self-evaluation as a single-dimensional concept. The scale developed by T. A. Judge et al. (2003) was adopted, which had 12 items and good reliability. Most of the subsequent studies also used Judge's scale and these studies all tested that this scale could measure the level of employees' core self-evaluation well.

The scale measures the following entries.

1. I have the confidence to achieve the success in life that I deserve.

2. Sometimes I feel frustrated.

3. In general, I can succeed if I try hard.

4. Sometimes, I feel useless when I fail.

5. Most of the time, I am successful in finishing my tasks.

6. Sometimes I feel that I am not in control of my work.

7. In general, I am satisfied with myself.

8. I have doubts about my competence.

9. I believe that my life is determined by myself.

10. I feel that I have no control over my success or failure in my career.

11. I am capable of coping with most of the problems encountered.

12. Sometimes, I feel that things look bleak and hopeless.

4.3.3 Measurement of team relationship conflict

During a team conflict, an uncoordinated or contradictory perception occurs between the team members, and the task conflict, relationship conflict, and process conflict that are found in reality. The medical staff team also comes from different fields of knowledge. They are composed of employees with diverse expertise and abilities. Each member has his own expertise. Too many conflicts will make these knowledge employees feel that their abilities are challenged, resulting in negative emotions In this research, team relationship conflict refers to emotional friction and tension, as well as disharmony in interpersonal relations, such as feelings of dislike, disgust and anger towards other organization members(Amason, 1996) .Research generally examines relationship conflict as a single dimensional construct, and the intra-team conflict scale developed by Jehn (1997) used five question items to measure relationship conflict in teams. This study uses the more recent scale of Tjosvold, which has good reliability

and measures relationship conflict as a single dimensional variable with four items (Tjosvold et al., 2006).

The scale measures the following entries.

1. There is a lot of friction among members in our team.

2. In our team, personality conflicts among team members are obvious.

3. In our team, there is tension between team members.

4. In our team, there are frequent emotional conflicts among team members.

4.3.4 Measurement of task performance

In this research, task performance refers to direct job performance of the employee who provides products and services to the organization through direct production activities (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993) . The measurement of task performance can be divided into four types according to the distinction of measurement subjects: supervisor evaluation, colleague evaluation and employee self-evaluation and customer evaluation, each of which has a well-established scale. This study adopts the supervisor evaluation and measures it by using a well-established scale that has been measured by previous authors. The scale has five question items and has a good reliability (Methot et al., 2015) .

The scale measures the following entries.

1. He/she has fully completed the assigned tasks.

2. He or she performs his or her job duties conscientiously.

3. He/she has met my expectations for his/her work.

4. He or she meets the formal performance requirements of the job.

5. He/she is involved in activities that directly affect his/her performance evaluation.

4.3.5 Control variables

In order to better understand the relationship between variables, we selected the team members' age, gender, educational level, tenure and technical proficiency as control variables, for they have potential influence on team members' self-efficacy and task performance (Liao et al., 2010; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) . For example, with respect to employee age, researchers conclude that younger employees are more flexible in aligning the needs of their successors with the needs of the organization, while older employees tend to be more rigid in aligning their needs with the organization. As a result, younger and older employees may have different orientations toward themselves, others, and their work. These differences may lead to different external

motivations for OCB among younger and older employees (Chahal & Mehta, 2011).

Researchers have suggested that cognitive style differences between males and females lead to very different approaches to work tasks, interpersonal relationships, and leadership styles as well. Women in male-dominated teams are more willing to cooperate and maintain team harmony, whereas men in female-dominated teams are more likely to express negativity toward women's decisions. Consequently, relationship conflict is more likely to arise in female-dominated teams (Foo et al., 2005). Therefore, the study concluded that controlling for these variables in the subjects could prevent the relationship between the variables from being amplified.

4.4 Normal distribution test

In order to test whether the sample data conforms to the normal distribution, this paper conducts a normal distribution test on the data of the tested variables. The result of normal distribution is as follows (see Table 4.2):

Table 4.2 Normal distribution result

Variable	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Identification with the company	O1	4.42	0.64	(1.10)	0.11	2.68	0.22
	O2	4.45	0.62	(1.20)	0.11	3.53	0.22
	O3	3.60	0.92	(0.34)	0.11	(0.18)	0.22
	O4	4.30	0.63	(0.71)	0.11	1.50	0.22
Conscientiousness	O5	4.42	0.54	(0.16)	0.11	(0.60)	0.22
	O6	4.24	0.59	(0.12)	0.11	(0.48)	0.22
	O7	4.17	0.60	(0.09)	0.11	(0.40)	0.22
	O8	4.28	0.57	(0.15)	0.11	(0.17)	0.22
	O9	4.12	0.71	(0.69)	0.11	1.11	0.22
Protecting company resources	O10	4.53	0.61	(0.91)	0.11	(0.17)	0.22
	O11	4.52	0.64	(1.22)	0.11	1.37	0.22
	O12	4.50	0.69	(1.53)	0.11	3.11	0.22
Altruism toward colleagues	O13	4.39	0.52	0.07	0.11	(1.20)	0.22
	O14	4.40	0.52	0.05	0.11	(1.20)	0.22
	O15	4.39	0.54	(0.04)	0.11	(1.02)	0.22
	O16	4.41	0.51	0.19	0.11	(1.53)	0.22
Interpersonal harmony	O17	3.82	0.69	0.08	0.11	(0.60)	0.22
	O18	4.37	0.66	(0.57)	0.11	(0.69)	0.22
	O19	4.44	0.67	(1.00)	0.11	0.60	0.22
	O20	4.43	0.64	(0.67)	0.11	(0.54)	0.22
Relationship Conflict	R1	3.22	1.01	(0.36)	0.11	(0.43)	0.22
	R2	2.82	1.03	(0.01)	0.11	(0.71)	0.22
	R3	2.22	0.95	0.75	0.11	0.44	0.22
	R4	2.17	0.96	0.83	0.11	0.51	0.22

Variable	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Core Self-evaluation	C1	3.79	0.80	(0.55)	0.11	0.40	0.22
	C2	3.35	0.96	(0.16)	0.11	(0.62)	0.22
	C3	3.48	0.90	(0.33)	0.11	(0.08)	0.22
	C4	3.31	0.92	(0.28)	0.11	(0.18)	0.22
	C5	3.62	1.01	(0.49)	0.11	(0.57)	0.22
	C6	3.39	0.86	(0.16)	0.11	(0.26)	0.22
	C7	3.58	0.98	(0.52)	0.11	(0.22)	0.22
	C8	3.26	0.93	0.06	0.11	(0.23)	0.22
	C9	3.64	0.95	(0.44)	0.11	(0.24)	0.22
	C10	3.39	0.79	0.25	0.11	0.15	0.22
	C11	3.68	0.83	(0.41)	0.11	(0.00)	0.22
	C12	3.42	0.66	0.13	0.11	(0.15)	0.22
Task performance	T1	4.04	0.71	(0.84)	0.11	2.31	0.22
	T2	4.19	0.71	(0.94)	0.11	2.34	0.22
	T3	3.86	0.72	(0.47)	0.11	0.82	0.22
	T4	4.07	0.64	(0.42)	0.11	0.72	0.22
	T5	3.78	0.90	(0.80)	0.11	0.84	0.22

Skewness and kurtosis are two indexes used to test if data accord with normal distribution. Generally, if the absolute value of skewness is greater than 3, and that of kurtosis is greater than 10, then the data does not conform to normal distribution. According to the results shown in Table 4.2, the variable data collected in this paper all conform to the normal distribution.

4.5 Variance analysis on control variables

4.5.1 Variance analysis of control variables' impact on OCB

According to the results of T-test variance analysis of gender in the sample demographics, gender differences have significant differences in the two dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior—interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources, while identification with the company, conscientiousness, and altruism toward colleagues are significantly different. no significant difference.

According to the results of one-way ANOVA on control variables such as sample demographics, organizational citizenship behaviors—Identification with the company and Conscientiousness—are significantly different among medical staff of different ages. However, there were no significant differences in the behaviors of protecting company resources, Altruism toward colleagues and interpersonal harmony among medical staff of different ages. More specifically, the company identification of healthcare workers aged 21-30 was significantly different from those aged 31-40 and those aged 40-50, but not significantly different from healthcare workers aged 50+, This is in line with the research results of

organizational citizenship behavior, because older medical staff are more likely to maintain a longer cooperative relationship in the hospital, and the probability of maintaining a relatively good relationship in the exchange relationship with the organization is higher. That is to say, the older medical staff will have a higher sense of organizational identity, and it is easier to actively maintain the organization, while the medical staff over 50 years old is about to retire and the center of their life is no longer work. Therefore, the company's sense of identity is also Not significant; there was a significant difference in company identification for healthcare workers aged 21-30 with those aged 31-40 and those aged 40-50, but not with healthcare workers over 50, which may be Because medical staff aged between 31-50 are at the peak of their careers, they will work more proactively, while medical staff older than 50 are less proactive than middle-aged people due to both physical and psychological effects.

The two dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior—team identity and interpersonal harmony—have significant differences between medical staff with different educational levels. There was no significant difference in the Conscientiousness, Altruism toward colleagues and protecting company resources of healthcare workers with different education levels. More specifically, high school and college diploma health care workers of companies agree that medical personnel with a graduate degree are generally higher than those with a graduate degree, and medical personnel with high school and college degrees are generally more harmonious than those with a doctorate degree. This may be because the medical staff with lower education level will be more grateful to the hospital and have a higher sense of identification with the hospital, and the medical staff with lower education level needs to maintain interpersonal harmony more than the medical staff with doctoral degree. to gain approval from superiors and colleagues (See Table 4.3).

Table 4.3 Variance analysis of control variables' impact on OCB

characteristic value	Category	Identification with the company		Conscientiousness		Protecting company resources		Altruism toward colleagues		Interpersonal harmony	
		Mean	Var	Mean	Var	Mean	Var	Mean	Var	Mean	Var
Sex	Female	4.14	0.59	4.25	0.51	4.55	0.56	4.42	0.50	4.45	0.55
	Male	4.24	0.58	4.22	0.43	4.38	0.59	4.31	0.49	4.29	0.58
T		-1.5		2.0		2.8**		2.0		2.6**	
Significant		0.12		0.56		0.00		0.06		0.01	
Age	21-30	4.03	0.58	4.15	0.48	4.51	0.56	4.34	0.49	4.39	0.58
	31-40	4.16	0.60	4.23	0.49	4.50	0.59	4.40	0.49	4.41	0.57
	40-50	4.45	0.42	4.46	0.45	4.55	0.52	4.50	0.53	4.46	0.47
	Over 50	4.53	0.48	4.58	0.43	4.64	0.55	4.64	0.49	4.56	0.52
F		11.81***		2.81*		1.28		0.98		0.98	
Significant		0.00		0.04		0.28		0.42		0.42	
Education	High school and below	4.35	0.60	4.39	0.47	4.48	0.60	4.43	0.49	4.54	0.55
	Junior colleges	4.17	0.58	4.26	0.48	4.60	0.50	4.43	0.51	4.43	0.56
	Undergraduate	4.09	0.58	4.20	0.50	4.47	0.60	4.36	0.50	4.39	0.56
	Postgraduate	4.25	0.60	4.30	0.40	4.27	0.64	4.44	0.51	4.10	0.48
F		3.05*		2.46		3.07*		0.88		2.9	
Significant		0.03		0.06		0.09		0.45		0.03	
length of service	Within 10 years	4.09	0.60	4.18	0.48	4.50	0.57	4.37	0.50	4.40	0.56
	11-20	4.29	0.51	4.37	0.49	4.50	0.59	4.43	0.50	4.41	0.56
	21-30	4.57	0.48	4.61	0.45	4.83	0.34	4.86	0.36	4.71	0.43
	Over 30 years	4.51	0.42	4.53	0.43	4.76	0.41	4.56	0.47	4.42	0.58
F		8.30***		9.85***		5.13		1.18		2.47	
Significant		0.00		0.00		0.2		0.24		0.86	

Note: *** means significantly correlated at 0.001 level; ** means significantly correlated at 0.01 level; * means significantly correlated at 0.05 level (two-tailed test)

4.5.2 Variance analysis of control variables' impact on CSE, relationship conflict and task performance

There is no significant difference in task performance, CSE and relationship conflict among medical staff of different genders according to the results of T-test variance analysis of gender in sample demographics.

According to the results of one-way ANOVA on control variables (Table 4.4) such as sample demographics, there are significant differences in the core self-evaluation of medical staff of different ages, while there are no significant differences in relationship conflict and task performance. There is a significant difference in the company identification of healthcare workers with those aged 31-40 and those aged 40-50, but not with healthcare workers over the age of 50, possibly due to the work ability and work experience of healthcare workers The correlation is extremely high. The older the medical staff, the richer the work experience and the stronger the work ability, the higher the core self-evaluation.

Table 4.4 Variance analysis of control variables' impact on task performance

characteristic value	Category	CSE		Relationship conflict		Task performance	
		Mean	Var	Mean	Var	Mean	Var
Sex	Female	3.446	0.706	2.577	0.806	4.015	0.597
	Male	3.674	0.588	2.714	0.797	4.134	0.542
T		-3.1		-1.8		-1.5	
Significant		0.06		0.61		0.12	
Age	21-30	3.412	0.672	2.573	0.796	3.928	0.625
	31-40	3.497	0.705	2.678	0.842	4.043	0.516
	40-50	3.607	0.686	2.513	0.743	4.269	0.585
	Over 50	3.860	0.602	2.583	0.737	4.398	0.501
F		3.13**		7.40		7.37	
Significant		0.01		0.57		0.07	
Education	High school and below	3.737	0.719	2.618	0.914	4.174	0.526
	Junior colleges	3.401	0.701	2.616	0.840	3.985	0.651
	Undergraduate	3.494	0.660	2.565	0.748	4.038	0.544
	Postgraduate	3.797	0.618	3.031	0.747	4.266	0.504
F		4.67***		1.71		2.36	
Significant		0.00		0.163		0.07	
length of service	Within 10 years	3.467	0.667	2.615	0.798	3.995	0.598
	11-20	3.495	0.756	2.623	0.806	4.123	0.554
	21-30	3.959	0.574	2.192	0.969	4.393	0.507
	Over 30 years	3.699	0.664	2.607	0.801	4.150	0.516
F		2.79*		1.176		3.39*	
Significant		0.04		0.318		0.02	

Note: *** means significantly correlated at 0.001 level; ** means significantly correlated at 0.01 level; * means significantly correlated at 0.05 level (two-sided test)

There are significant differences in the core self-evaluation of medical staff with different education levels, but there is no significant difference in relationship conflict and task performance. Specifically, the core self-evaluation of medical staff with postgraduate and undergraduate degrees is generally higher than that of medical staff with high school and college degrees. probably because medical staff with higher education level have higher vision and knowledge accumulation, so they are more likely to feel positive emotions and higher self-efficacy than medical staff with low education level.

There were significant differences in the core self-evaluation and task performance of medical staff with different working years, but no significant difference in relationship conflict. Specifically, the core self-evaluation and task performance of medical staff with longer working years were higher than those with shorter working years. medical staff. Similar to age, the reason for the higher core self-evaluation and task performance of medical staff with older working years may be that the working ability of medical staff is highly correlated with work experience. The stronger the ability, the higher its core self-evaluation and the higher its task performance.

It can be seen from the research results that there is no obvious correlation between control variables and relationship conflict, probably because the control variables collected in this study are relatively shallow population information. Shallow diversity is more likely to cause relational conflict, so the control variables in this paper are not sufficient to show the difference in relational conflict.

4.6 Reliability and validity test of the scale

Validity and reliability tests were conducted to ensure rigor of the scale. Reliability test is used to measure the dependability, consistency and stability of the research, which refers to the consistency of the results when the same object is repeatedly measured by the same instrument. Reliability test is used to measure the dependability, consistency and stability of the research, which refers to the consistency of the results when the same object is repeatedly measured by the same instrument. In this research, Cronbach's alpha was adopted to measure reliability of the Generally, an alpha value of higher than 0.8 indicates high questionnaire reliability; ranging within 0.7-0.8 indicates good reliability; 0.6-0.7 indicates acceptable reliability; lower 0.6-0.7 indicates acceptable reliability; lower than 0.6 indicates poor reliability.

4.6.1 Internal consistency

The results of the internal consistency tests for each dimensional scale in the study are presented in Table 4.5, including identification with the company, conscientiousness, protecting company resources, altruism toward colleagues and interpersonal harmony which was higher than 0.7. Their values were 0.764, 0.87, 0.856, 0.958 and 0.733 respectively. In general, the scale of OCB enjoys high reliability. From the results of the internal consistency reliability analysis of relationship conflict, the Cronbach's α of relationship conflict was 0.827, and the CITC values of each item were higher than 0.5, indicating that the reliability of the relationship conflict scale was high and fully met the requirements of the reliability test.

Table 4.5 Reliability test result of the OCB scales

Variable	Items	Mean	Standard error	CITC	Cronbach's alpha
Identification with the company	O1	4.42	0.64	0.69	
	O2	4.49	0.62	0.68	0.76
	O3	3.60	0.92	0.43	
	O4	4.30	0.63	0.56	
Conscientiousness	O5	4.42	0.54	0.68	
	O6	4.24	0.59	0.74	
	O7	4.17	0.60	0.71	0.87
	O8	4.28	0.57	0.77	
	O9	4.12	0.71	0.61	
Protecting company resources	O10	4.53	0.61	0.79	
	O11	4.52	0.64	0.76	0.86
	O12	4.50	0.69	0.65	
Altruism toward colleagues	O13	4.39	0.52	0.87	
	O14	4.40	0.52	0.92	
	O15	4.39	0.54	0.92	0.96
	O16	4.41	0.51	0.88	
Interpersonal harmony	O17	3.82	0.69	0.28	
	O18	4.37	0.66	0.67	
	O19	4.44	0.67	0.65	0.73
	O20	4.43	0.64	0.55	
Relationship Conflict	R1	3.22	1.01	0.52	
	R2	2.82	1.03	0.74	
	R3	2.22	0.95	0.69	0.83
	R4	2.17	0.96	0.68	
Core Self-evaluation	C1	3.79	0.80	0.82	
	C2	3.35	0.96	0.73	
	C3	3.48	0.90	0.73	
	C4	3.31	0.92	0.77	
	C5	3.62	1.01	0.82	
	C6	3.39	0.86	0.76	0.94
	C7	3.58	0.98	0.81	
	C8	3.26	0.93	0.72	
	C9	3.64	0.95	0.76	
	C10	3.39	0.79	0.61	
	C11	3.68	0.83	0.75	
	C12	3.42	0.66	0.48	

Variable	Items	Mean	Standard error	CITC	Cronbach's alpha
Task performance	T1	4.04	0.71	0.68	0.84
	T2	4.19	0.71	0.69	
	T3	3.86	0.72	0.68	
	T4	4.07	0.64	0.76	
	T5	3.78	0.90	0.48	

According to the test results in Table 4.5, the overall Cronbach's α value of employees' core self-evaluation was 0.94, which indicated that the scale was reliable. The CITC values of each item were higher than 0.5, which showed that the core self-evaluation scale was reliable and fully met the requirements of the reliability test. The Cronbach's α of employee task performance was 0.841 and the CITC values of all items were higher than 0.5, indicating that the scale was reliable, and the results of the reliability test met the requirements.

4.6.2 Validity test

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis were combined to test the validity of data. According to the requirements of EFA, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test and Bartlett's test of sphericity were conducted to evaluate the factorability. According to the requirements of EFA, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test and Bartlett's test of sphericity were conducted to evaluate the factorability, If the KMO measure is between 0.8 and 0.9, the data set is perfectly suitable for EFA; if it is between 0.5 and 0.8, the data set is relatively suitable for EFA; if it is less than 0.5, the data set is not suitable for EFA. Only when the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity met the requirement can EFA be applied to the obtained dataset. After KMO test and Bartlett's test of sphericity, exploratory factor analysis was conducted by principal component analysis.

4.6.2.1 Exploratory factor analysis

(1) The OCB scales

As shown in Table 4.6, the KMO measure of OCB was 0.92, and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity was less than 0.001. Therefore, EFA can be applied to the data obtained through the OCB scale. Therefore, EFA can be applied to the data obtained through the OCB scale.

Table 4.6 Validity test results of OCB scales

Variable	Items	Component				
		1	2	3	4	5
Identification with the company	O1				0.85	
	O2				0.83	
	O3				0.57	
	O4				0.63	
Conscientiousness	O5			0.64		
	O6			0.70		
	O7			0.75		
	O8			0.76		
	O9			0.66		
Protecting company resources	O10		0.86			
	O11		0.82			
	O12		0.73			
Altruism toward colleagues	O13	0.84				
	O14	0.88				
	O15	0.88				
	O16	0.85				
Interpersonal harmony	O17					0.92
	O18					0.73
	O19					0.69
	O20					0.77
The proportion of the cumulative variance explained						60.77
KMO value						0.92
	χ^2					7679
Bartlett's Test	df					190
	Sig					0.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

In the process of factor analysis, as we have recognized five dimensions of OCB, namely identification with the company, conscientiousness, protecting company resources, altruism toward colleagues and interpersonal harmony, 5 factors were extracted. The characteristic values of the five factors were 8.90, 2.52, 1.23, 1.14, 1.00, which were higher than critical value 1. The cumulative variance explained was 73.883%, which was higher than 60%. Meanwhile, the maximum variance method was used to rotate the change to obtain the loading value of each factor, and the loading value of each item was higher than 0.5. By comparison, it could be found that the validity test results were consistent with the theoretical conception of the original scale, so the five-dimensional scale of OCB could effectively measure OCB.

(2) The CSE scales

As shown in Table 4.7, the KMO measure of core self-evaluation was 0.96, and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity was less than 0.001. Therefore, EFA can be applied to the data obtained through the CSE scale. In the process of factor analysis, we used principal component factor analysis to extract factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. Thus, the results of exploratory factor analysis were shown in the table above. From the results in the table, one factor with an eigenvalue of 7.29, greater than 1, can be extracted from items of the CSE scale.

The cumulative variance explained was 60.773%, greater than the critical value of 60%. Seen from the table, the loading of each item was greater than 0.5. Therefore, the scale of core self-evaluation can effectively measure core self-evaluation.

Table 4.7 Validity test results of core self-evaluation scales

variable	Items	Component
	C1	0.86
	C2	0.78
	C3	0.78
	C4	0.81
	C5	0.86
CSE	C6	0.81
	C7	0.85
	C8	0.77
	C9	0.80
	C10	0.66
	C11	0.79
	C12	0.53
Characteristic value		7.29
The proportion of the cumulative variance explained		60.77
KMO value		0.96
	χ^2	7679
Bartlett's Test	df	190
	Sig	0.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

(3) The RC scales

As shown in Table 4.8, the KMO measure of team relationship conflict was 0.70, and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity was less than 0.001. Therefore, EFA can be applied to the data obtained through the CSE scale. When doing EPA, we adopted the method of principal component analysis to extract factors whose eigenvalues were higher than 1. The result of EFA was shown in Table 4.8. As shown in result, one factor with an eigenvalue of 2.65, higher than 1, can be extracted from items of the RC scale, and the cumulative variance explained was 66.332%. It also showed that loading values of all items were higher than 0.5. Therefore, the scale of core self-evaluation was considered to be valid.

Table 4.8 Validity test results of relationship conflict scales

Variable	Items	Component
Relationship conflict	R1	0.69
	R2	0.86
	R3	0.85
	R4	0.85
Characteristic value		2.65
The proportion of the cumulative variance explained		66.33
KMO value		0.70
Bartlett's Test	χ^2	7679
	df	190
	Sig	0.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

(4) The TPF scales

As shown in Table 4.9, the KMO measure of task performance was 0.80, and the significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity was less than 0.001. Therefore, EFA can be applied to the data obtained through the TPF scale. When doing EPA, we adopted the method of principal component analysis to extract factors whose eigenvalues were higher than 1. The result of EFA was shown in Table 4.9. One factor with an eigenvalue of 3.18, higher than 1, can be extracted from items of the TPF scale, and the cumulative variance explained was 66.332%. Table showed that loading values of all items were higher than 0.5. Therefore, the scale of core self-evaluation was considered to be valid.

Table 4.9 Validity test result of task performance scale

Variable	Items	Component
Task performance	T1	0.82
	T2	0.83
	T3	0.81
	T4	0.87
	T5	0.63
Characteristic value		3.18
The proportion of the cumulative variance explained		63.50
KMO		0.80
Bartlett's Test	χ^2	7679
	df	190
	Sig	0.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

4.6.2.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

Convergent validity and discriminant validity were used to measure the validity of the scale, and AMOS 21 statistical software was used to perform the confirmatory factor analysis. The scale fit indices were as follows: χ^2 / df = 2.874, below the accepted value of 5, CFI = 0.919, higher than the suggested value of 0.9, TLI = 0.91, higher than the suggested value of 0.9,

RMSEA = 0.06, below the suggested value of 0.08 and SRMR = 0.0544, slightly above the suggested value of 0.05. All indexes except RMSEA met the requirement. However, loading of four items, including the fourth item of interpersonal harmony, the first item of team relationship conflict and the fifth item of task performance, were lower than 0.6. Therefore, these items were deleted from the original scale. Fit indices of the corrected model were as follows: χ^2 / df = 2.529, CFI = 0.934, TLI = 0.926, RMSEA = 0.054, and SRMR = 0.05.

Table 4.10 showed the average variance extracted (AVE) that is used to measure the convergent validity of variables. The AVE for identification with the company, conscientiousness, protecting company resources, altruism toward colleagues and interpersonal harmony, core self-evaluation, team relationship conflict and task performance were 0.54, 0.59, 0.85, 0.69, 0.58, 0.59, 0.66 and 0.56 respectively. The AVE of all variables were higher than the suggested value of 0.5, so the convergent validity of variables was good. In addition, through confirmatory factor analysis, we also tested the construct reliability (CR) of variables, each of them is greater than the recommended value of 0.7, which again indicated that the questionnaire has good reliability.

Table 4.10 Convergent validity of the model

Variable	Initial items	Final items	AVE (>0.5)	CR (>0.7)
Identification with the company	4	4	0.54	0.81
Conscientiousness	5	5	0.59	0.88
Protecting company resources	4	4	0.85	0.96
Altruism toward colleagues	3	3	0.69	0.87
Interpersonal harmony	4	3	0.58	0.81
CSE	12	11	0.59	0.94
Team relationship conflict	4	3	0.66	0.85
Task performance	5	4	0.56	0.86

We've conducted the discriminant validity test on all eight variables. The analytical tool used is the confirmatory factor analysis of AMOS, including identification with the company, conscientiousness, protecting company resources, altruism toward colleagues and interpersonal harmony, core self-evaluation, team relationship conflict and task performance, the results of which were shown in Table 4.11. The relevancy between any two of the eight variables was less than the AVE of the variable itself, so these variables were distinguished.

Table 4.11 Discriminant validity of the model

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	0.54							
2	0.64	0.59						
3	0.59	0.76	0.85					
4	0.36	0.49	0.44	0.69				
5	0.4	0.49	0.44	0.81	0.58			
6	0.2	0.29	0.2	0.14	0.35	0.59		
7	-0.26	-0.2	-0.26	-0.29	-0.44	-0.11	0.66	
8	0.35	0.48	0.39	0.24	0.28	0.51	-0.18	0.56
√AVE	0.74	0.77	0.92	0.83	0.76	0.77	0.81	0.75

Note: 1: Identification with the company; 2: Conscientiousness; 3: Altruism toward colleagues; 4: Protecting company resources; 5: Interpersonal harmony; 6: CSE; 7: Team relationship conflict; 8: Task performance.
The diagonal line is the AVE (Average extraction variance), AVE=$(\sum \lambda^2)/n$, λ is factor loadings, n is the number of factor items.

Chapter 5: Research Hypotheses Test

In the past chapters, we've finished literature review, questionnaire design and distribution, data collection and reliability and validity test of data. In this chapter, we tested the hypotheses proposed at the beginning of the research. Firstly, correlation analysis was performed to determine whether there is a correlation between various constructs, and then SPSS 21 and PROCESS were used to test the mediating effect of core self-evaluation and the moderating effect of team relationship conflict.

5.1 Common method bias

In the questionnaire designed for this research, all variables are at the individual level, and all items are filled by medical staff themselves, so common method variance test is required before testing hypotheses. The latent error variable control method was used to test common method bias. The common method is considered as a latent variable and was added into the structural equation model through AMOS 21. We built Model 1 (M1) with all constructs, and we added the common method to build Model 2 (M2). If differences on main fit indices between M1 and M2 is not big, namely differences on RMSEA and SRMR are less than 0.5, and that of CFI and TCL are less than 0.1, then there is no significant common method bias (S. Liu et al., 2015).

As shown in Table 5.1, main fit indices of M1 didn't change much after the common method was taken into consideration, so there was no significant common method bias in the data of this research, and data analysis can be further carried out.

Table 5.1 Test of common method bias

Model	χ^2/df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	ΔRMSEA	ΔSRMR	ΔCFI	ΔTLI
Model 1	2.529	0.054	0.05	0.934	0.926	0.006	0.006	0.018	0.017
Model 2	2.185	0.048	0.048	0.952	0.943				

Note ：Model 1: OCB (5) + CSE +Task performance + Relationship conflict
Model 2: OCB (5) + CSE +Task performance + Relationship conflict + common factor

5.2 Correlation analysis

As can be seen in Table 5.2, among all control variables, gender of medical staff was significantly positively correlated with core self-evaluation ($r = 0.134$, $p < 0.01$), significantly negatively correlated with interpersonal harmony ($r = -0.113$, $p < 0.01$) and protecting company resources ($r = -0.12$, $p < 0.01$) That is to say, the core self-evaluation of male medical staff is generally higher than that of female medical staff, and the performance of male medical staff in the two organizational citizenship behaviors of interpersonal harmony and protection of work resources is not as good as that of female medical staff. Educational level of medical staff was significantly negatively correlated with identification with the company ($r = -0.104$, $p < 0.05$), interpersonal harmony ($r = -0.112$, $p < 0.05$) and conscientiousness ($r = -0.097$, $p < 0.05$). That is to say, the higher the education level of medical staff, the lower the team identification, and the lower the two organizational citizenship behaviors of initiative and interpersonal harmony of the medical staff with higher education level. Age was significantly positively correlated with identification with the company ($r = 0.261$, $p < 0.01$), conscientiousness ($r = 0.236$, $p < 0.01$), altruism toward colleagues ($r = 0.150$, $p < 0.01$), core self-evaluation ($r = 0.150$, $p < 0.01$) and task performance ($r = 0.223$, $p < 0.01$), That is to say, the older medical staff are more likely to show the three organizational citizenship behaviors of team identification, helping colleagues and initiative, and the core self-evaluation and task performance of the older medical staff are higher. Working years was significantly positively correlated with identification with the company ($r = 0.209$, $p < 0.01$), altruism toward colleagues ($r = 0.131$, $p < 0.01$), conscientiousness ($r = 0.224$, $p < 0.01$), protecting company resources ($r = 0.088$, $p < 0.05$), core self-evaluation ($r = 0.093$, $p < 0.05$) and task performance ($r = 0.119$, $p < 0.01$), and was significantly negatively correlated with team relationship conflict ($r = -0.118$, $p < 0.05$). That is to say, healthcare workers with longer working years are more likely to demonstrate organizational citizenship behaviors such as team identification, helping colleagues and initiative, and protecting work resources, and healthcare workers with longer working years have higher core self-evaluation and task performance. Health care workers who worked longer showed less relationship conflict.

Table 5.2 correlation analysis

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	1											
2	0.135**	1										
3	0.266**	-0.016	1									
4	0.143**	-0.105*	0.671**	1								
5	0.068	-0.104*	0.261**	0.209**	1							
6	-0.086	-0.053	0.150**	0.131**	0.501**	1						
7	-0.026	-.097*	0.236**	0.224**	0.584**	0.701**	1					
8	-0.113*	-0.112*	0.054	0.042	0.309**	0.390**	0.403**	1				
9	-0.120**	-0.079	0.032	0.088*	0.323**	0.406**	0.428**	0.706**	1			
10	0.082	-0.002	0.223**	0.119**	0.287**	0.347**	0.417**	0.218**	0.205**	1		
11	0.134**	-0.015	0.150**	0.093*	0.220**	0.193**	0.265**	0.133**	0.132**	0.485**	1	
12	0.069	0.011	-0.006	-0.032	-0.118**	-0.195**	-0.112*	-0.320**	-0.226**	-0.121**	-0.11**	1
mean value	0.21	1.42	0.80	1.37	4.16	4.40	4.24	4.41	4.16	4.04	3.49	2.61
standard deviation	0.40	0.72	0.87	0.68	0.59	0.50	0.49	0.56	0.59	0.59	0.69	0.81

*,$P<0.05$;**,$P<0.01$;1=six;2=education;3=age;4=tenure;5-identification with the company;6=Altruism toward colleagues;7=Conscientiousness;8=Interpersonal harmony;9=Protecting company resources;10=task performance;11=core self-evaluation;12=relationship conflict

From the perspective of explanatory variables, the five dimensions of OCB (identification with the company, conscientiousness, protecting company resources, altruism toward colleagues and interpersonal harmony) were positively correlated with other explanatory variables. Specifically, identification with the company was positively correlated with core self-evaluation ($r = 0.22$, $p < 0.01$), negatively correlated with team relationship conflict ($r = -0.118$, $p < 0.01$), and positively correlated with task performance($r = 0.287$, $p < 0.01$); altruism toward colleagues was positively correlated with core self-evaluation ($r = 0.193$, $p < 0.01$), negatively correlated with team relationship conflict ($r = -0.195$, $p < 0.01$), and positively correlated with task performance ($r = 0.347$, $p < 0.01$); conscientiousness was positively correlated with core self-evaluation ($r = 0.265$, $p < 0.01$), negatively correlated with team relationship conflict ($r = 0.112$, $p < 0.05$), and positively correlated with task performance ($r = = 0.417$, $p < 0.01$); interpersonal harmony was positively correlated with core self-evaluation ($r = 0.133$, $p < 0.01$), negatively correlated with team relationship conflict ($r = -0.320$, $p < 0.01$), and positively correlated with task performance ($r = 0.218$, $p < 0.01$); protecting company resources was positively correlated with core self-evaluation ($r = 0.132$, $p < 0.01$), negatively correlated with team relationship conflict ($r = -0.118$, $p < 0.01$), and positively correlated with task performance ($r = 0.205$, $p < 0.01$). Core self-evaluation was significantly negatively correlated with team relationship conflict ($r = -0.11$, $p < 0.01$), positively correlated with task performance ($r = 0.485$, $p < 0.01$). Team relationship conflict was significantly negatively correlated with task performance ($r = -0.121$, $p < 0.01$).

5.3 Testing hypotheses

5.3.1 The impact of OCB on core self-evaluation

Linear regression analysis was carried out to verify the relationship between the five dimensions of OCB (identification with the company, conscientiousness, protecting company resources, altruism toward colleagues and interpersonal harmony) and core self-evaluation. First, we entered control variables (gender, age, educational level and working years) into model M1, and then all five independent variables were added to conduct regression analysis. The results were shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Linear regression models (standardized coefficient)

Variable type	Variable	CSE					
		M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6
Control variable	Sex	0.105*	0.102*	0.126*	0.174*	0.102*	0.122*
	Education	-0.028	-0.009	-0.009	-0.009	-0.009	-0.015
	Age	0.129*	0.086	0.081	0.068	0.086	0.116
	Length of service	-0.011	-0.02	-0.037	-0.021	-0.02	-0.009
Independent variable	Identification with the company		0.194***				
	Conscientiousness			0.257***			
	Protecting company resources				0.228***		
	Altruism toward colleagues					0.263***	
	Interpersonal harmony						0.139***
	F	4.325***	7.383***	10.549***	7.383***	7.407***	5.536***
	R^2	0.033	0.067	0.068	0.067	0.051	0.053
	ΔR^2	0.033	0.035	0.035	0.035	0.019	0.02

Note：***, $P<0.001$；**, $P<0.01$；*, $P<0.05$ (two-sided test)

(1) The impact of identification with the company on core self-evaluation

Linear regression analysis was conducted to verify the relationship between identification with the company and core self-evaluation, and the results were shown in Model 2 of Table 5.3. The F value of M2 was 7.383 ($P<0.001$). It can be seen that, on the basis of M1, the explanatory ability of the model was improved after identification with the company was added as an independent variable. The increase of R value indicated the improvement of explanatory ability of the model. As can be seen from the regression results of M2, identification with the company can positively predict core self-evaluation ($\beta= .194$, $p<0.001$). Hypothesis H1a is verified.

(2) The impact of conscientiousness on core self-evaluation

Linear regression analysis was conducted to verify the relationship between conscientiousness and core self-evaluation, and the results were shown in Model 3 of Table 5.3. The F value of M3 was 10.549 ($p<0.001$). It can be seen that, on the basis of M1, the explanatory ability of the model was improved after conscientiousness was added as an independent variable. The increase of R value indicated the improvement of explanatory ability of the model. As can be seen from the regression results of M3, conscientiousness can positively predict core self-evaluation ($\beta= .257$, $p<0.001$). Hypothesis H1b is verified.

(3) The impact of protecting company resources on core self-evaluation

Linear regression analysis was conducted to verify the relationship between protecting company resources and core self-evaluation, and the results were shown in Model 4 of Table 5.3. The F value of M4 was 7.383 ($p<0.001$). It can be seen that, on the basis of M1, the explanatory ability of the model was improved after protecting company resources was added as an independent variable. The increase of R value indicated the improvement of explanatory

ability of the model. As can be seen from the regression results of M4, protecting company resources can positively predict core self-evaluation (β= .228, p<0.001). Hypothesis H1c is verified.

(4) The impact of altruism toward colleagues on core self-evaluation

Linear regression analysis was conducted to verify the relationship between altruism toward colleagues and core self-evaluation, and the results were shown in Model 5 of Table 5.3. The F value of M5 was 7.407 (p<0.001). It can be seen that, on the basis of M1, the explanatory ability of the model was improved after altruism toward colleagues was added as an independent variable. The increase of R value indicated the improvement of explanatory ability of the model. As can be seen from the regression results of M5, altruism toward colleagues can positively predict core self-evaluation (β= .263, p<0.001). Hypothesis H1d is verified.

(5) The impact of interpersonal harmony on core self-evaluation

Linear regression analysis was conducted to verify the relationship between interpersonal harmony and core self-evaluation, and the results were shown in Model 6 of Table 5.3. The F value of M6 was 5.536 (p<0.001). It can be seen that, on the basis of M1, the explanatory ability of the model was improved after interpersonal harmony was added as an independent variable. The increase of R value indicated the improvement of explanatory ability of the model. As can be seen from the regression results of M6, interpersonal harmony can positively predict core self-evaluation (β= .263, p<0.001). Hypothesis H1e is verified.

5.3.2 The impact of core self-evaluation on task performance

Linear regression analysis was carried out to verify the relationship between core self-evaluation and task performance. First, we entered control variables (gender, age, educational level and working years) into model M1, and then core self-evaluation as an independent variable was added to conduct regression analysis. The results were shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Linear regression models (standardized coefficient)

Variable type	Variable	Task performance	
		M1	M2
	Sex	0.024	-0.025
	Education	-0.007	0.006
Control variable	Age	0.254	0.194
	Length of service	-0.055	-0.05
Independent variable	CSE		0.464**
	F	7.013***	35.864***
	R^2	0.052	0.260
	ΔR^2	0.052	0.280

Note: ***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05 (two-sided test)

As shown in Table 5.4, in model M4, the standardized regression coefficient between core self-evaluation and task performance was 0.464, significantly correlated at the 0.01 level. Therefore, it can be considered that core self-evaluation and task performance is positively correlated. Hypothesis 2 is valid.

5.3.3 Mediating effect analysis of core self-evaluation

Mediating effect explains how independent variable influence the dependent variable. The research assumed core self-evaluation as a mediator between OCB and task performance. Here, structural equation model was used to test the mediating effect of core self-evaluation, so as to further explain the relationship between OCB and task performance.

Regression analysis was conducted through PROCESS 3.3 developed by Hayes, with OCB the independent variable, core self-evaluation the intermediate variable and task performance the dependent variable. And the mediating effect of core self-evaluation was further tested through Bias-Corrected Bootstrapping. All bootstrapping analyses in the test used 5000 times repeat sampling to construct the confidence intervals (CI) with 95% deviation correction. If the confidence intervals (CI) do not contain zero, then the effects tested could be considered significant (Hayes, 2015).

1. Mediating effect analysis of core self-evaluation on identification with the company and task performance:

To better explore how core self-evaluation works between identification with the company and task performance, regression analysis was conducted through the MODEL 4 of PROCESS 3.3, with identification with the company as the independent variable, core self-evaluation as the intermediate variable, task performance as the dependent variable, and gender, age, educational level and working years of managers as control variables. The results of regression analysis were shown in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Regression model of the mediated models (standardized coefficient)

Variable type	Variable	M1: Task performance		M2: CSE		M3: Task performance	
		β	t	β	t	β	t
Control variable	Sex	.03	0.46	.17*	2.27	-.04	-0.61
	Education	.01	0.40	-.01	-0.21	.02	0.55
	Age	.13*	3.36	.07	1.42	.11*	3.04
	Length of service	-.06	-1.17	-.02	-0.35	-.05	-1.13
Independent variable	Identification with the company	.25**	5.72	.23**	4.36	.17**	4.15
mediator variable	CSE					.38***	11.16
R²		0.11		0.07		0.11	
F		12.51***		7.38***		12.51***	

Note: ***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05 (two-sided test)

As can be seen from M1 in Table 5.5, identification with the company and task performance was positively correlated (β =0.25, p < 0.01). And according to the regression results of M2, identification with the company demonstrated a significant correlation with core self-evaluation (β =0.23, p < 0.01). When identification with the company and core self-evaluation were added to model M3, identification with the company was significantly and positively correlated with core self-evaluation (β = 0.17, p < 0.01), and core self-evaluation was significantly and positively correlated with task performance (β = 0.38, p < 0.001).

Finally, the test results of bias-corrected bootstrapping in Table 5.6 showed that the indirect effect of core self-evaluation on identification with the company and task performance is significant (a*b = 0.08, SE = 0.03, CI = [0.04, 0.13]), and the mediating effect accounts for 33.8% of the total effect. Therefore, hypothesis H3a is supported.

Table 5.6 Bootstrap test results of mediating effect

Dependent Variable	Effect value	Boot SE	Bootstrap 95%CI		Effect ratio
			LLCI	ULCI	
Identification with the team	0.08**	0.02	0.04	0.13	33.80%
Conscientiousness	0.12**	0.03	0.08	0.17	25.10%
Protecting company resources	0.08**	0.02	0.03	0.11	32%
Altruism toward colleagues	0.09**	0.03	0.05	0.15	24%
Interpersonal harmony	0.06**	0.02	0.02	0.11	25.10%

2. Mediating effect analysis of core self-evaluation on conscientiousness and task performance:

To better explore how core self-evaluation works between conscientiousness and task performance, regression analysis was conducted through the MODEL 4 of PROCESS 3.3, with conscientiousness as the independent variable, core self-evaluation as the intermediate variable, task performance as the dependent variable, and gender, age, educational level and working years of managers as control variables. The results of regression analysis were shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 Regression analysis of the mediated models (standardized coefficient)

Variable type	Variable	M1：Task performance		M2：CSE		M3：Task performance	
		β	t	β	t	β	t
Control variable	Sex	.08	1.55	.22*	2.87	.02	0.33
	Education	.02	0.06	-.02	-0.52	.01	0.31
	Age	.12*	3.56	.08	1.66	.11*	3.13
	Length of service	-.08	-1.24	-.02	-0.33	-.05	-1.22
Independent variable mediator variable	Conscientiousness	.48***	7.99	.26**	4.37	.36**	6.62
	CSE					.33***	10.98
	R^2	0.2		0.09		0.34	
	F	25.51***		10.55***		43.32***	

Note: ***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05 (two-sided test)

As can be seen from M1 in Table 5.7, conscientiousness and task performance was positively correlated (β = .48, p < 0.001). And according to the regression results of M2, conscientiousness demonstrated a significant correlation with core self-evaluation (β = 0.26, p < 0.01). When conscientiousness and core self-evaluation were added to model M3, conscientiousness was significantly and positively correlated with core self-evaluation (β = 0.36, p < 0.01), and core self-evaluation was significantly and positively correlated with task performance (β = 0.33, p < 0.001). Finally, the test results of bias-corrected bootstrapping in Table 5.6 showed that the indirect effect of core self-evaluation on conscientiousness and task performance is significant (a*b = 0.12, SE = 0.03, CI = [0.08, 0.17]), and the mediating effect accounts for 25.1% of the total effect. Therefore, hypothesis H3b is supported.

3. Mediating effect analysis of core self-evaluation on protecting company resources and task performance:

To better explore how core self-evaluation works between protecting company resources and task performance, regression analysis was conducted through the MODEL 4 of PROCESS 3.3, with protecting company resources as the independent variable, core self-evaluation as the intermediate variable, task performance as the dependent variable, and gender, age, educational level and working years of managers as control variables. The results of regression analysis were shown in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Regression analysis of the mediated models (standardized coefficient)

Variable type	Variable	M1: Task performance		M2: CSE		M3: Task performance	
		β	t	β	t	β	T
Control variable	Sex	.03	1.13	.17	2.70*	-.03	-0.10
	Education	.01	0.08	-.01	-0.47	.01	0.33
	Age	.13*	1.98	.07	2.17	.11**	3.76
	Length of service	-.06	-1.33	-.03	-0.44	-.06	-1.27
Independent variable	Protecting company resources	.25***	5.723	.23***	4.36	.16**	3.03
mediator variable	CSE					.37***	11.16
R²		0.10		0.05		0.28	
F		10.91***		7.38***		33.7***	

Note: ***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05 (two-sided test)

As can be seen from M1 in Table 5.8, protecting company resources and task performance was positively correlated (β = .25, P < 0.001). And according to the regression results of M2, protecting company resources demonstrated a significant correlation with core self-evaluation (β = .23, p < 0.001). When protecting company resources and core self-evaluation were added to model M3, protecting company resources was significantly and positively correlated with

core self-evaluation ($\beta = .16$, $p < 0.01$), and core self-evaluation was significantly and positively correlated with task performance ($\beta = .37$, $p < 0.001$). Finally, the test results of bias-corrected bootstrapping in Table 5.6 showed that the indirect effect of core self-evaluation on protecting company resources and task performance is significant (a*b = 0.08, SE = 0.02, CI = [0.03, 0.11]), and the mediating effect accounts for 33% of the total effect. Therefore, hypothesis H3c is supported.

4. Mediating effect analysis of core self-evaluation on altruism toward colleagues and task performance:

To better explore how core self-evaluation works between altruism toward colleagues and task performance, regression analysis was conducted through the MODEL 4 of PROCESS 3.3, with altruism toward colleagues as the independent variable, core self-evaluation as the intermediate variable, task performance as the dependent variable, and gender, age, educational level and working years of managers as control variables. The results of regression analysis were shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 Bootstrap test results of mediating effect (standardized coefficient)

Variable type	Variable	M1：Task performance		M2：CSE		M3：Task performance	
		β	t	β	t	β	t
	Sex	.10	1.55	.22	2.87	.02	0.33
	Education	.00	0.06	-.02	-0.52	.01	0.31
Control variable	Age	.14*	3.56	.08	1.66	.11*	3.13
	Length of service	-.06	-1.24	-.02	-0.33	-.05	-1.22
Independent variable	Altruism toward colleagues	.39**	7.99	.26**	4.37	.30**	6.62
mediator variable	CSE					.38***	10.98
	R²	0.12		0.07		0.32	
	F	19.05***		7.41***		39.71***	

Note: ***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05 (two-sided test)

As can be seen from M1 in Table 5.9, altruism toward colleagues and task performance was positively correlated ($\beta = .39$, $p < 0.01$). And according to the regression results of M2, altruism toward colleagues demonstrated a significant correlation with core self-evaluation ($\beta = .26$, $p < 0.01$). When altruism toward colleagues and core self-evaluation were added to model M3, altruism toward colleagues was significantly and positively correlated with core self-evaluation ($\beta = .30$, $p < 0.01$), and core self-evaluation was significantly and positively correlated with task performance ($\beta = .38$, $p < 0.001$). Finally, the test results of bias-corrected bootstrapping in Table 5.6 showed that the indirect effect of core self-evaluation on altruism toward colleagues and task performance is significant (a*b = 0.09, SE = 0.03, CI = [0.05, 0.15]), and the mediating effect accounts for 24% of the total effect. Therefore, hypothesis H3d is supported.

5. Mediating effect analysis of core self-evaluation on interpersonal harmony and task performance:

To better explore how core self-evaluation works between interpersonal harmony and task performance, regression analysis was conducted through the MODEL 4 of PROCEEE 3.3, with interpersonal harmony as the independent variable, core self-evaluation as the intermediate variable, task performance as the dependent variable, and gender, age, educational level and working years of managers as control variables. The results of regression analysis were shown in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10 Regression analysis of the mediated models (standardized coefficient)

Variable type	Variable	M1: Task performance		M2: CSE		M3: Task performance	
		β	t	β	t	β	t
Control variable	Sex	.07	1.13	.21	2.68	-.01	-0.10
	Education	.01	0.31	-.01	-0.33	.02	0.51
	Age	.16	3.98	.09	1.93	.12	3.47
	Length of service	-.05	-0.91	-.01	-0.16	-.04	-0.94
Independent variable	Interpersonal harmony	.23**	5.02	.17*	3.17	.16**	3.97
mediator variable	CSE					.38***	11.48
	R^2	0.10		0.05		0.28	
	F	10.91***		5.54***		33.38***	

Note: ***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05 (two-sided test)

As can be seen from M1 in Table 5.10, interpersonal harmony and task performance was positively correlated ($β = .23$, $p < 0.01$). And according to the regression results of M2, altruism interpersonal harmony demonstrated a significant correlation with core self-evaluation ($β = .17$, $p < 0.05$). When interpersonal harmony and core self-evaluation were added to model M3, altruism toward colleagues was significantly and positively correlated with core self-evaluation ($β = .16$, $p < 0.01$), and core self-evaluation was significantly and positively correlated with task performance ($β = .38$, $p < 0.001$). Finally, the test results of bias-corrected bootstrapping in Table 5.6 showed that the indirect effect of core self-evaluation on interpersonal harmony and task performance is significant ($a*b = 0.06$, $SE = 0.02$, $CI = [0.02, 0.11]$), and the mediating effect accounts for 25.1% of the total effect. Therefore, hypothesis H3e is supported.

5.3.4 Moderating effect of relationship conflict and the moderated mediating effect

After examining the mediating effect of core self-evaluation on OCB and task performance, we further examined the moderating effect of relationship conflict on the mediating effect of core self-evaluation. We used Model 7 of PROCESS 3.3 to test the moderating effect of relationship conflict when independent variables were identification with the company, conscientiousness,

protecting company resources, altruism toward colleagues and interpersonal harmony. Before test, all variables were standardized processed.

1. Identification with the company, core self-evaluation, relationship conflict and task performance:

Table 5.11 showed the regression results of models in PROCESS when identification was the independent variable. Equation 1 estimated the overall effect of identification with the company on task performance; Equation 2 estimated the predictive effect of identification with the company on core self-evaluation and Equation 3 estimated the moderating effect of relationship conflict in the mediated models.

Table 5.11 Test of the moderated mediation models (IV: identification with the company)

Variable type	Variable	M1: Task performance		M2: CSE		M3: Task performance	
		β	t	β	t	β	t
Control variable	Sex	.07	1.13	.26*	2.30	-.05	-0.52
	Education	.00	0.08	-.01	-0.17	.02	0.33
	Age	.17**	4.35	.09	1.33	.19*	3.04
	Length of service	-.07	-1.33	-.02	-0.22	-.09	-1.15
Independent variable	Identification with the company	.22**	4.92	.17**	3.28	.17**	4.15
mediator variable	CSE					.44***	11.29
moderator variable	Relationship conflict			-.04	-0.95		
interaction item	Iden*RC			-.04	-0.95		
	R^2	0.1		0.07		0.29	
	F	10.91***		5.54***		34.35***	

Note：***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05 (two-sided test)

We adopted the suggestions from Wen et al. (2014) to take three steps in testing the moderated mediation models(Wen & Ye, 2014). Firstly, as could be seen from the test results of Equation 1, the overall effect of identification with the company on task performance was significant (β = .22, p < 0.01). Secondly, test results of Equation 2 showed that identification with the company has a significant predictive effect on core self-evaluation (β = .17, p < 0.01), but the interaction between relationship conflict and identification with the company is not significant (β = -.04, p > 0.05). It could be preliminarily determined that the relationship between identification with the company and core self-evaluation is not moderated by relationship conflict in the team, so hypothesis H4a is not valid. And the mediating effect of core self-evaluation is not moderated by relationship conflict, so hypothesis H5a is not valid.

2. Conscientiousness, core self-evaluation, relationship conflict and task performance:

Table 5.12 showed the regression results of models in PROCESS when conscientiousness was the independent variable. Equation 1 estimated the overall effect of conscientiousness on task performance; Equation 2 estimated the predictive effect of conscientiousness on core self-

evaluation and Equation 3 estimated the moderating effect of relationship conflict in the mediated models.

Table 5.12 Test of the moderated mediation models (IV: conscientiousness)

Variable type	Variable	M1：Task performance		M2：CSE		M3：Task performance	
		β	t	β	t	β	t
Control variable	Sex	.08	1.55	.32*	2.87	.02	0.25
	Education	.02	0.06	-.01	-0.15	.03	0.49
	Age	.12*	3.56	.09	1.30	.17*	2.90
	Length of service	-.08	-1.24	-.05	-0.55	-.12	-1.64
Independent variable	Conscientiousness	.48***	7.99	.25**	5.65	.30***	7.64
mediator variable	CSE					.40***	10.42
moderator variable	Relationship conflict			-.03	-0.78		
interaction item	Cons*RC			-.09*	-2.12		
	R^2	0.2		0.11		0.34	
	F	25.51***		8.44***		43.71***	

Note ： ***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05 (two-sided test)

According to the results shown in Table 5.12, it could be preliminarily determined that the relationship between conscientiousness and core self-evaluation is significantly moderated by relationship conflict. Firstly, as could be seen from the test results of Equation 1, the overall effect of conscientiousness on task performance was significant (β = .48, p < 0.001).

Secondly, test results of Equation 2 showed that conscientiousness has a significant predictive effect on core self-evaluation (β = .25, p < 0.01), and the interaction between relationship conflict and identification with the company is significant (β = -.09, p < 0.01). indicated that the relationship between identification with the company and core self-evaluation is significantly moderated by relationship conflict in the team. Therefore, hypothesis H4b is valid. Finally, the regression results of Equation 3 showed that conscientiousness significantly predicts task performance (β = .40, p < 0.001).

To further verify the moderating effect of relationship conflict, we examined the conditional indirect effect of medical staff's core self-evaluation under different values of team relationship conflict. Based on the mean value of relationship conflict, we added or reduced one standard deviation to get the high value group and the low value group. According to the results of Bootstrap test in Table 5.6, when the value of relationship conflict was high, the mediating effect of core self-evaluation was 0.06 (confidential interval: [0.004, 0.13]); when the value of relationship conflict was low, the mediating effect of core self-evaluation was 0.13 (confidential interval: [0.07, 0.20]) (Table 5.13). But the confidential interval of effect difference was between -0.16 and 0.01, including zero. The INDEX of the indirect effect of relationship

conflict on conscientiousness and task performance was -0.03 (confidential interval: [-0.08, 0.01]), and the confidential interval contained zero. So, the moderated mediating effect is non-existent, and H5b is not valid.

Table 5.13 Bootstrap test results of the moderated mediating effect (IV: conscientiousness)

Effect type	Moderator variable	Effect value	Boot SE	Bootstrap 95%CI LLCI	Bootstrap 95%CI ULCI
Moderated mediating effect	Low RC	0.13	0.03	0.07	0.20
	High RC	0.06	0.03	0.004	0.13
Effect difference		-0.07	0.04	-0.16	0.01
INDEX		-0.03	0.02	-0.08	0.01

Note: High RC means one standard deviation higher than mean value; Low RC means one standard deviation lower than mean value

3. Protecting company resources, core self-evaluation, relationship conflict and task performance:

Table 5.14 showed the regression results of models in PROCESS when protecting company resources was the independent variable. Equation 1 estimated the overall effect of protecting company resources on task performance; Equation 2 estimated the predictive effect of protecting company resources on core self-evaluation and Equation 3 estimated the moderating effect of relationship conflict in the mediated models.

Table 5.14 Test of the moderated mediation models (IV: protecting company resources)

Variable type	Variable	M1: Task performance β	M1: Task performance t	M2: CSE β	M2: CSE t	M3: Task performance β	M3: Task performance t
Control variable	Sex	.03	1.13	.26*	2.53	-.05	0.04
	Education	.01	0.08	-.01	-0.37	.02	0.30
	Age	.13**	3.36	.10*	2.10	.19*	3.39
	Length of service	-.06	-1.33	-.02	-0.22	-.09	-0.87
Independent variable	Protecting company resources	.25**	5.72	.19*	3.41	.17**	3.99
mediator variable	CSE					.44***	11.29
moderator variable	Relationship conflict			-.04	-0.75		
interaction item	Prot*RC			-.04*	-0.95		
	R^2	0.2		0.1		0.07	
	F	25.51***		10.91***		5.53***	

Note: ***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05 (two-sided test)

According to the results shown in Table 5.14, it could be preliminarily determined that the relationship between protecting company resources and core self-evaluation is not significantly moderated by relationship conflict. Firstly, as could be seen from the test results of Equation 1, the overall effect of protecting company resources on task performance was significant (β =.25, p<0.01). Secondly, test results of Equation 2 showed that protecting company resources has a significant predictive effect on core self-evaluation (β =.19, p<0.01), but the interaction

between relationship conflict and protecting company resources is not significant (β =-.04, p>0.05), indicated that relationship conflict cannot significantly moderate the relationship between protecting company resources and core self-evaluation. Therefore, hypothesis H4c is not valid.

4. Altruism toward colleagues, core self-evaluation, relationship conflict and task performance:

Table 5.15 showed the regression results of models in PROCESS when altruism toward colleagues was the independent variable. Equation 1 estimated the overall effect of altruism toward colleagues on task performance; Equation 2 estimated the predictive effect of altruism toward colleagues on core self-evaluation and Equation 3 estimated the moderating effect of relationship conflict in the mediated models.

Table 5.15 Test of the moderated mediation models (IV: altruism toward colleagues)

Variable type	Variable	M1: Task performance		M2: CSE		M3: Task performance	
		β	t	β	t	β	t
Control variable	Sex	.10	1.55	.32	2.85	.04	0.40
	Education	.00	0.06	-.03	-0.41	.00	0.09
	Age	.14*	3.56	.11	1.58	.19	3.11
	Length of service	-.06	-1.24	-.02	-0.19	-.09	-1.20
Independent variable	Altruism toward colleagues	.39**	7.99	.19**	4.15	.25***	6.51
mediator variable	CSE					.42***	11.10
moderator variable	Relationship conflict			-.04	-0.83		
interaction item	Altr*RC			-.03	-0.67		
	R^2	0.2		0.11		0.07	
	F	25.51***		19.05***		5.5***	

Note: ***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05 (two-sided test)

According to the results shown in Table 5.15 it could be preliminarily determined that the relationship between altruism toward colleagues and core self-evaluation is not significantly moderated by relationship conflict. Firstly, as could be seen from the test results of Equation 1, the overall effect of altruism toward colleagues on task performance was significant (β = .39, p < 0.01). Secondly, test results of Equation 2 showed that altruism toward colleagues has a significant predictive effect on core self-evaluation (β = .19, p < 0.01), but the interaction between relationship conflict and altruism toward colleagues is not significant (β = -.03, p > 0.05). Therefore, hypothesis H4d is not supported.

5. Interpersonal harmony, core self-evaluation, relationship conflict and task performance:

Table 5.16 showed the regression results of models in PROCESS when interpersonal harmony was the independent variable. Equation 1 estimated the overall effect of interpersonal

harmony on task performance; Equation 2 estimated the predictive effect of interpersonal harmony on core self-evaluation and Equation 3 estimated the moderating effect of relationship conflict in the mediated models.

Table 5.16 Test of the moderated mediation models (IV: interpersonal harmony)

Variable type	Variable	M1: Task performance		M2: CSE		M3: Task performance	
		β	t	β	t	β	t
Control variable	Sex	.07	1.13	.28*	2.50	.00	0.04
	Education	.01	0.31	-.01	-0.17	.02	0.30
	Age	.16	3.98	.13	1.81	.21*	3.39
	Length of service	-.05	-0.91	.01	0.07	-.07	-0.87
Independent variable	Interpersonal harmony	.23**	5.02	.15*	3.21	.15**	3.99
mediator variable	CSE					.45***	11.59
moderator variable	Relationship conflict			-.03	-0.57		
interaction item	Harm*RC			-.12*	-2.79		
	R²	0.2		0.10		0.07	
	F	25.51***		10.91***		5.23***	

Note: ***, P<0.001; **, P<0.01; *, P<0.05 (two-sided test)

According to the results shown in Table 5.16, it could be preliminarily determined that the relationship between interpersonal harmony and core self-evaluation is significantly moderated by relationship conflict. Firstly, as could be seen from the test results of Equation 1, the overall effect of interpersonal harmony on task performance was significant (β = .23, p < 0.01). Secondly, test results of Equation 2 showed that interpersonal harmony has a significant predictive effect on core self-evaluation (β = .15, p < 0.05), and the interaction between relationship conflict and interpersonal harmony is significant (β = -.12, p < 0.05). Therefore, hypothesis H4e is valid.

To further verify the moderating effect of relationship conflict, we examined the conditional indirect effect of medical staff's core self-evaluation under different values of team relationship conflict. Based on the mean value of relationship conflict, we added or reduced one standard deviation to get the high value group and the low value group. According to the results of Bootstrap test in Table 5.17, when the value relationship conflict was high, the mediating effect of core self-evaluation was 0.01 (confidential interval: [-0.04, 0.07]); when the value of relationship conflict was low, the mediating effect of core self-evaluation was 0.12 (confidential interval: [0.06, 0.19]). The effect difference was significant (confidential interval: [-0.20, -0.03]), and the confidential interval did not contain zero. The INDEX of the indirect effect of relationship conflict on interpersonal harmony and task performance was -0.03 (confidential interval: [-0.10, -0.01]), and the confidential interval did not contain zero. So, the moderated

mediating effect is present. It can be seen from the test results that, when the relationship conflict is of low value, the mediating effect is significant; and when the relationship conflict is of high value, the mediating effect is not significant, so the moderating effect of relationship conflict do exist, hypothesis H5e is valid.

Table 5.17 Bootstrap test results of the moderated mediating effect (IV: interpersonal harmony)

Effect type	Moderator variable	Effect value	Boot SE	Bootstrap 95%CI	
				LLCI	ULCI
moderated mediating effect	Low RC	0.12	0.03	0.06	0.19
	High RC	0.01	0.03	-0.04	0.07
effect difference		-0.07	-0.11	0.04	-0.20
INDEX		-0.03	-0.06	0.02	-0.10

Note: High RC means one standard deviation higher than mean value; Low RC means one standard deviation lower than mean value

5.4 Results summary and analysis of hypotheses testing

In this chapter, we examined the hypotheses proposed earlier in the research. Firstly, the correlations among OCB, core self-evaluation and task performance were verified by regression analysis through SPSS. And then PROCESS was used to verify the mediating effect of core self-evaluation and the moderating effect of relationship conflict.

H1a assumed that identification with the company has a positive correlation with core self-evaluation. As can be seen from Table 5.3, identification with the company can significantly predict core self-evaluation (β = .194, p < 0.001), so H1a is valid. H1b assumed that conscientiousness has a positive correlation with core self-evaluation. As can be seen from Table 5.3, conscientiousness can significantly predict core self-evaluation (β = .191, p < 0.001), so H1b is valid. H1c assumed that protecting company resources has a positive correlation with core self-evaluation. As can be seen from Table 5.3, protecting company resources can significantly predict core self-evaluation (β = .228, p < 0.001), so H1c is valid. H1d assumed that altruism toward colleagues has a positive correlation with core self-evaluation. As can be seen from Table 5.3, altruism toward colleagues can significantly predict core self-evaluation (β = .191, p < 0.001), so H1d is valid. H1e assumed that interpersonal harmony has a positive correlation with core self-evaluation. As can be seen from Table 5.3, interpersonal harmony can significantly predict core self-evaluation (β = .139, p < 0.001), so H1e is valid. Participating in OCB can help members accumulate precious resources by creating a sense of responsibility to support by action or provide constructive feedback or useful information among other members (Rapp et al., 2013). The more resources, respect and relationships one owns, the higher his/her

core self-evaluation will be. It can be seen from H1a-H1e, compared with identification with the company and interpersonal harmony, conscientiousness, altruism toward colleagues and protecting company resources have stronger predictive effect on core self-evaluation, which is inconsistent with H1f. Identification with the company and interpersonal harmony are two types of OCB common in Hospital S in Jiangsu province, which is hard to be detected and will get fewer reciprocal rewards. While conscientiousness, altruism toward colleagues and protecting company resources can easily be perceived by the organization and colleagues, so they can get staff reciprocal resources more effectively to improve their core self-evaluation.

Hypothesis 2 assumed that core self-evaluation of medical staff has a significant positive correlation with task performance. As can be seen from the test results in Table 5.4, core self-evaluation is significantly positively correlated with task performance (β = .45, p < 0.001), so H2 is valid. In other words, the higher the core self-evaluation of the medical staff in Hospital S in Jiangsu province, the better their task performance.

Hypothesis 3a assumed that identification with the company of medical staff can promote core self-evaluation and finally affect task performance. From Table 5.5 and Table 5.6 we can see that, the indirect effect of self-evaluation on the relationship between identification with the company and task performance is significant (a*b = 0.08, SE = 0.03, CI = [0.04, 0.13]), accounting for 33.8% of the total effect. Therefore, H3a is valid. Hypothesis 3b assumed that conscientiousness of medical staff can promote core self-evaluation and finally affect task performance. From Table 5.6 we can see that, the indirect effect of self-evaluation on the relationship between conscientiousness and task performance is significant (a*b = 0.12, SE = 0.03, CI = [0.08, 0.17]), accounting for 25.1% of the total effect. Therefore, H3b is valid. Hypothesis 3c assumed that protecting company resources of medical staff can promote core self-evaluation and finally affect task performance. From Table 5.6 we can see that, the indirect effect of self-evaluation on the relationship between protecting company resources and task performance is significant (a*b = 0.08, SE = 0.02, CI = [0.03, 0.11]), accounting for 32% of the total effect. Therefore, H3c is valid. Hypothesis 3d assumed that altruism toward colleagues of medical staff can promote core self-evaluation and finally affect task performance. From Table 5.6 we can see that, the indirect effect of self-evaluation on the relationship between altruism toward colleagues and task performance is significant (a*b = 0.09, SE = 0.03, CI = [0.05, 0.15]), accounting for 24% of the total effect. Therefore, H3d is valid. Hypothesis 3e assumed that interpersonal harmony among medical staff can promote core self-evaluation and finally affect task performance. From Table 5.6 we can see that, the indirect effect of self-evaluation on the relationship between interpersonal harmony and task performance is significant (a*b = 0.06,

SE = 0.02, CI = [0.02, 0.11]), accounting for 25.1% of the total effect. Therefore, H3e is valid. The above results show that OCB of medical staff in Hospital S in Jiangsu province can indeed promote their task performance by promoting their core self-evaluation.

H4a assumed that relationship conflict can moderate the relationship between identification with the company and core self-evaluation. According to Table 5.11, the change in relationship conflict cannot affect the relationship between identification with the company and core self-evaluation, so the moderating effect is non-existent. Therefore, H4a is not valid. Furthermore, because there is no moderating effect of relationship conflict, the moderated mediating effect is not existing, neither. So, H5a is not valid. H4b assumed that relationship conflict can moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and core self-evaluation. According to Table 5.12 the change in relationship conflict can affect the relationship between conscientiousness and core self-evaluation, so the moderating effect is present. Therefore, H4b is valid. And according to Table 5.13, the moderated mediating effect is non-existent (the confidence interval of INDEX includes zero), so H5b is not valid.

H4c assumed that relationship conflict can moderate the relationship between protecting company resources and core self-evaluation. According to Table 5.14, the change in relationship conflict cannot affect the relationship between protecting company resources and core self-evaluation, so the moderating effect is non-existent. Therefore, H4c is not valid. H4d assumed that relationship conflict can moderate the relationship between altruism toward colleagues and core self-evaluation. According to Table 5.15, the change in relationship conflict cannot affect the relationship between altruism toward colleagues and core self-evaluation, so the moderating effect is non-existent. Therefore, H4d is not valid. Furthermore, because there is no moderating effect of relationship conflict, the moderated mediating effect is not existing, neither. So, H5d is not valid. H4e assumed that relationship conflict can moderate the relationship between interpersonal harmony and core self-evaluation. According to Table 5.16, the interaction effect between interpersonal harmony and relationship conflict is significant (β = -.12, p < 0.05), and so the moderating effect is significant. Therefore, H4e is valid. And according to Table 5.17, when relationship conflict is of high value, the mediating effect of core self-evaluation is non-existent (confidential interval: [-0.04, 0.07]); when relationship conflict is of low value, the mediating effect of core self-evaluation is 0.12 (confidential interval: [0.06, 0.19]); and the INDEX of the indirect effect of relationship conflict on interpersonal harmony and task performance is -0.03 (confidential interval: [-0.10, -0.01], 0 is not included), so the moderated mediating effect is present. Therefore, H5e is valid.

So far, all the hypotheses in this study have been tested and the results of all the hypotheses

tests in this study are summarized.

Hypothesis H1a holds: identification with the company will positively influence the core self-evaluation of healthcare workers.

Hypothesis H1b holds: conscientiousness will positively influence healthcare workers' core self-evaluation.

Hypothesis H1c holds: protecting company resources will have a positive impact on healthcare workers' core self-evaluation.

Hypothesis H1d holds: altruism toward colleagues will have a positive impact on healthcare workers' core self-evaluation.

Hypothesis H1e holds: interpersonal harmony will have a positive impact on health care workers' core self-evaluation.

Hypothesis H1f holds: interpersonal harmony and altruism toward colleagues are more strongly associated with positive changes of core self-evaluation among team members compared with identification with the company, conscientiousness and protecting company resources.

Hypothesis H2 holds: there is a significant positive effect of healthcare workers' core self-evaluation on their task performance.

Hypothesis H3a holds: health care workers' identification with the company will positively contribute to their core self-evaluation and thus to changes in their task performance.

Hypothesis H3b holds: healthcare workers' conscientiousness will positively contribute to changes in their core self-evaluation, which in turn will contribute to changes in their task performance.

Hypothesis H3c holds: healthcare workers' behavior of protecting work resources will positively contribute to changes in their core self-evaluation, and thus to changes in their task performance.

Hypothesis H3d holds: the healthcare worker's altruism toward colleagues will positively contribute to a change in their core self-evaluation and thus to a change in their task performance.

Hypothesis H3e holds: interpersonal harmony of health care workers will positively contribute to a change in their core self-evaluation, which will in turn contribute to a change in their task performance.

Hypothesis H4a does not hold: relationship conflict cannot moderate the positive relationship between a group member's corporate identity and his or her core self-

evaluation.

Hypothesis H4b holds: relationship conflict moderates the positive relationship between a group member's conscientiousness and core self-evaluation, and this relationship is weaker when relationship conflict is stronger.

Hypothesis H4c does not hold: relationship conflict cannot moderate the positive relationship between a group member's protected work resources and his or her core self-evaluation.

Hypothesis H4d does not hold: relationship conflict cannot moderate the positive relationship between a group member's altruism toward colleagues and his or her core self-evaluation.

Hypothesis H4e holds: relationship conflict moderates the positive relationship between a group member's interpersonal harmony and core self-evaluation, which is weaker when relationship conflict is stronger.

Hypothesis H5a does not hold: team relationship conflict does not moderate the mediating role of core self-evaluation between identification with the company and task performance.

Hypothesis H5b does not hold: team relationship conflict does not moderate the mediating role of core self-evaluation between conscientiousness and task performance.

Hypothesis H5c does not hold: Team relationship conflict does not moderate the mediating role of core self-evaluation between conservation of work resources and task performance.

Hypothesis H5d does not hold: team relationship conflict does not moderate the mediating role of core self-evaluation between altruism toward colleagues and task performance.

Hypothesis H5e holds: team relationship conflict moderates the mediating role of core self-evaluation between interpersonal harmony and task performance. The stronger the team relationship conflict, the weaker the mediating role of core self-evaluation.

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Chapter 6: Research Conclusion and Prospect

6.1 Research conclusion

6.1.1 Organizational citizenship behavior in the context of Chinese culture

The concept of OCB has its origin in western research. Scholars commonly held that OCB is the external-role behavior and is not recognized by the organization's formal reward system. The first research question raised in this study is whether OCB is a culturally prescribed in-role behavior rooted in Western culture in Chinese hospitals, due to the emphasis on collectivism and dedication within the cultural environment of China, especially the special nature of Chinese hospitals and their medical staff.

At the beginning of the study, we found through a review of domestic and foreign literature studies that even in the West, researchers' current research on organizational citizenship behavior is still controversial, which is embodied in the connotation and impression management of relationship performance and the relationship and difference of compulsive organizational citizenship behavior, and the difference between the manifestations of organizational citizenship behavior.

Domestic research in China believes that OCB in China is indeed different from that in the West. However, this difference is not manifested in the difference in the connotation of organizational citizenship behavior, but in the specific behavior. That is to say, the previous domestic researches mainly focused on the cultural characteristics of the specific manifestations of my country's organizational citizenship behavior, and paid less attention to the differences in cultural connotations. The research believed that the connotation of organizational citizenship behavior is generally applicable. For example, helping colleagues in China, including the help to matters unrelated to work, will not be regarded as altruism in western background. Treating non-work-related help as part of OCB reflects a cultural tendency to mix private and public life in China. Based on this, the first question is answered.

6.1.2 The effect of OCB on CSE

The positive correlation between OCB and the performance of organization and staff have been verified by numbers of scholars in previous research. However, the meta-analysis evaluation on OCB showed that researchers seldom focus on the intermediate variable between staff's OCB and their task performance (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Based on the social exchange theory, this research discussed the possibility of core self-evaluation as a mechanism through which OCB affect task performance of medical staff. Moreover, team relationship conflict was introduced as a situational factor to explain the circumstances under which OCB can better promote the core self-evaluation of medical staff and ultimately promote their task performance.

Through empirical study, we found that the five dimensions of OCB can effectively predict the employee's core self-evaluation. From the results we can see that, compared with protecting company resources and interpersonal harmony, conscientiousness, altruism toward colleagues and identification with the company can better predict core self-evaluation of medical staff.

It is concluded that the protection of company resources and interpersonal is common in Hospital S in Jiangsu province, so the rewards of such behavior are fewer. While, conscientiousness, altruism toward colleagues and identification with the company can easily be perceived by colleagues and managers, and thus can cultivate a sense indebtedness and gain them more reward and mutual benefiting resources from colleagues. According to the research of Organ and Paine, compared with altruism toward colleagues and interpersonal harmony, the benefit of conscientiousness, altruism toward colleagues and identification with the company to organization was more dispersed and distant, and it was less likely to inspire immediate gratitude or promote social exchange among the group (Organ & Paine, 1999; Rubin et al., 2013).

In addition, since the identification with the company, the protecting company resources and the conscientiousness were directly beneficial to an organization, and their pathway to achieve organizational goal was clear, they were directly correlated with organizational reward (Ilies et al., 2009). Therefore, we believe that in Hospital S in Jiangsu province the conscientiousness, the altruism toward colleagues and the identification with the company enabled the staff to get more resources and rewards from the superiors, which have enhanced their core self-evaluation.

6.1.3 The mediating role of CSE between OCB and task performance

After verifying the effect of OCB on core self-evaluation, we further examined the mediating role of core self-evaluation between OCB and task performance through empirical test. OCB can bring exchange resources for medical staff, which can drive up their instantaneous core self-evaluation, and hence they will become more approach-oriented and less avoid-oriented. Under such circumstances, the staff only require to allocate some self-regulating resources, and with the resources remaining they will be able to eliminate the non-work-related impulse when handling tasks (Ferris et al., 2011), and are able to effectively evaluate themselves and quickly focus on important issues.

In addition, by paying attention to positive evaluation, they can trigger the processes of self-evaluation and maintain an external focus on performance (Zhang et al., 2014). Individuals with high CSE are more confident in their ability to respond effectively to challenging situations, resulting in fewer negative emotional and behavioral responses to negative work attitude. Because they have necessary conscientiousness and confidence to be more flexible, high CSE individuals attempt to change their working environment and are more persistent instead of escaping from work when faced with difficulties, thus they can achieve better task performance.

In the hospital, there are many ways of cooperation in the form of work teams. A team is a formal group composed of individuals who are committed to achieving a common goal, dividing and cooperating with each other, undertaking certain responsibilities, and complementing their skills. In this team, team members will share information and make a decision. However, in a team, due to the inconsistency between members' personalities, habits and values, some conflicts often occur (De Dreu & Gelfand, 2008).

Especially, the complexity of work content of medical staff makes conflicts in a team or organization harder to avoid (Amason, 1996; Jehn, 1995) . We held that the team relationship conflict perceived by members are different. Negative effects brought by team relationship conflict include intrapersonal problems, such as dislikes among team members, interpersonal disharmony and negative emotional, including depression, agony and negative effects brought by team relationship conflict including intrapersonal problems, such as dislikes among team members, interpersonal disharmony and negative emotions, including depression, agony and hatred, which would disrupt the atmosphere of trust between team members and increase the difficulty to exchange resources.

6.1.4. The effect of the team relationship conflict

Through empirical study, we found that team relationship conflict can moderate the relationship between OCB and core self-evaluation. relationship conflict can moderate the relationship between interpersonal harmony and core self-evaluation, and that between conscientiousness and core self-evaluation. Previous research has pointed out that, one of the negative effects of team relationship conflict is interpersonal. Previous research has pointed out that, one of the negative effects of team relationship conflict is interpersonal disharmony, making it difficult to obtain exchange resources from interpersonal harmony. Conscientiousness is the enthusiasm of medical staff toward work tasks. The relationship conflict within the team brought with negative emotions on which staff need to spend more resource to finish self-regulation, can cause insufficient resources left for them to eliminate the non-work-related impulse (Ferris et al., 2011). As a result, their conscientiousness toward tasks will decrease, and they cannot obtain the exchange reward from their colleagues enough to raise their core self-evaluation.

Through empirical test results, we have found that the team relationship conflict moderated the relationship between the interpersonal harmony and core self-evaluation, and the conscientiousness and core self-evaluation, respectively. Previous research has pointed out that one of the negative effects of conflict in team relationships is interpersonal disharmony, making it more difficult to exchange resources from interpersonal harmony. Therefore, the relationship between conscientiousness and core self-evaluation is affected by the conflict in the influencing team relationship.

Initiative is the enthusiasm shown by medical staff to perform tasks, but the emotional negativity brought about by the conflict in the team relationship takes up significant number of resources, resulting in the medical staff needing to spend too much resources on self-regulation at this time, and the remaining resources make him/her unable to eliminate task-unrelated impulses when dealing with related tasks (Ferris et al., 2011). The motivation on the task is therefore dropped, the medical staff is not be able to get exchange rewards from the organization and colleagues, which is not contribute in improving his core self-evaluation. We can also see that the relationship between helping colleagues and core self-evaluation; company identity and core self-evaluation; and protecting work resources and core self-evaluation, respectively, does not change due to changes in team relationship conflicts.

Company recognition and protecting company resources are OCB that benefit the organization. Company recognition and maintenance of the company's reputation are related to company operations. Conflicts in team relationships will not directly affect the medical staff's

sense of identity with the hospital, so it will not affect subsequent recognition by the company. Therefore, it will not affect the subsequent resource exchange due to the organizational citizenship behavior recognized by the company. Protecting work resources, like company identity, is not directly affected by conflict in team relationships, and therefore does not affect the exchange of resources resulting from organizational citizenship behaviors that protect work resources.

The relationship between helping colleagues and core self-assessment is not affected by conflict in team relationships, because helping colleagues is an organizational citizenship behavior that benefits the individual, and is easily recognized by colleagues to obtain exchange resources, and the behavior of helping colleagues also helps. In order to reduce team relationship conflict, team relationship conflict does not significantly cause changes in the relationship between helping colleagues and core self-evaluation.

Finally, as for the hypotheses about the mediating effect of core self-evaluation and the moderating effect of team relationship conflict, we found that team relationship conflict can moderate the indirect effect of interpersonal harmony on task performance. Core self-evaluation of medical staff can mediate the relationship between interpersonal harmony and task performance. Core self-evaluation of medical staff can mediate the relationship between interpersonal harmony and task performance only when their perceived team relationship conflict is weak. In such case, medical staff can gain from the organization and colleagues the exchange resources through interpersonal harmony, with which their core self-evaluation will be promoted, and their task performance will be positively impacted as a result.

6.2 Research innovation and contributions

This research empirically examined the relationship between OCB and task performance of medical staff, and discussed the mediating mechanism of core self-evaluation between OCB and task performance, which makes up the lack of research on the influencing mechanism of the relationship between them. In addition, this study adds a situational factor, that is to say, the team relationship conflict to the role of OCB on the task performance of medical staff, and explores the moderating role of team relationship conflict in the model. The main contributions of this research can be divided into two aspects: theoretical contribution and practical contribution.

6.2.1 Theoretical contribution

This research used the method of empirical analysis to verify the promoting effect of core self-evaluation on task performance and has observed an obvious mediating effect between OCB and task performance. From the perspective of social exchange theory, it explains the mechanism of OCB on task performance, which makes up for the lack of observation from previous research on the mediation mechanism of OCB affecting task performance, and confirms the feasibility of studying OCB from this perspective. After performing organizational citizenship behavior, the medical personal will obtain exchange resources from the organization and colleagues, which will promote the improvement of their core self-evaluation.

A healthcare worker with a high core self-evaluation will show high methodical tendencies and low avoidance tendencies. In such circumstance, the worker requires only limited resources for self-regulation, and the remaining resources enable him/her to exclude irrelevant impulses when conducting relevant tasks and enable him/her to effectively self-assess and focus quickly on important issues(Ferris et al., 2011) . Furthermore, by focusing on people who rate them positively, they can trigger the process of self-regulation and maintain an external focus on performance(Zhang et al., 2014) .

These high core self-evaluation individuals were more confident in their ability to effectively deal with challenging environments, resulting in less negative emotional and behavioral responses to negative work attitudes. Because they have the necessary initiative and confidence to be more resilient, people with high CSE try to change the work environment. When they encounter difficulties, they will be more persistent rather than thinking about running away, thus, can achieve better task performance. We hope that the above-mentioned conclusion can bring the attention of other researchers in this field.

6.2.2. Consideration of the hospital environment

It is important to note that the research background of this work is within a hospital environment. The hospital environment mainly adopts the cooperation method of medical team. According to the previous research, conflict is very likely to occur in the teamwork environment. It is difficult to avoid the conflict in the team body and organization because of each member's independence and the complexity of medical activities (Amason, 1996; Jehn, 1995). In this research, we viewed team relationship conflict as a moderate variable and verified its negative impact on the correlation between interpersonal harmony and core self-evaluation and that between conscientiousness and core self-evaluation. moderate the relationship between three

other dimensions of OCB and task performance, the reason of which was also explained through social exchange.

This research found that when the independent variable is interpersonal harmony, the research model is a moderated mediation model. Moreover, this research found that when the independent variable is interpersonal harmony, the research model is a moderated mediation model, in other words, the mediating effect of core self-evaluation is moderated by team relationship conflict.

This research built a relatively complete process model to clarify the influence of OCB on task performance, where OCB, task performance, core self-evaluation and team relationship conflict were integrated, and social exchange theory was used to explain the process. According to the mutual benefit principle of social exchange, OCB of medical staff will gain them exchange resources from the organization and colleagues. The more resources are exchanged, the higher the instantaneous core self-evaluation, which will promote task performance of medical staff for team relationship conflict is common in a team. For those whose perceived conflict is strong, the relationship between interpersonal harmony and core self-evaluation and that between conscientiousness and core self-evaluation will be negatively moderated.

6.2.3 Practical meaning

From a practical point of view, this study examines the impact of OCB, CSE, and relationship conflict on the task performance of medical staff. In general, the findings of this study have certain implications for hospital management.

First, the key of organizational citizenship behavior to improve task performance by affecting the core self-evaluation of medical staff lies in the exchange of resources. Previous studies have suggested that OCB can improve task performance because people who perform OCB can get a good impression from colleagues and leaders, which may be one of the reasons, but the results of this work point out that the improvement of task performance May be related to the improvement of core self-evaluation. For whatever reason, organizational citizenship behavior does have a very important impact on improving the task performance of medical staff, and organizational citizenship behavior can not only improve individual task performance, but also bring potential benefits to the organization, so hospitals should improve medical care. Organizational Citizenship Behavior of Personnel.

As for how to improve the organizational citizenship behavior of medical staff, according to previous research, one is to select medical staff with more organizational citizenship behavior

tendencies to increase the probability of medical staff to perform organizational citizenship behavior. Medium-extroverts are positive, sociable, energetic, seek stimulation, and will report higher levels of self-efficacy, in contrast, introverts tend to be more reserved, less outgoing, and less sociable, so, Extroverted employees are more willing to perform organizational citizenship behaviors than introverted employees (Harper, 2015). Studies have shown that individuals with strong self-efficacy, optimism, and challenging attitudes are capable of implementing additional role behaviors for the organization's prospects and growth (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Therefore, employees' hope, self-efficacy and optimism play an important role in the generation of employees' "good soldier" syndrome (Golestaneh, 2014). Researchers also believe that an employee's emotional intelligence does contribute to his organizational behavior and performance(Turner, 2004). These are all factors that can be controlled through the selection process and are more operational.

6.2.4 Encouragement of OCBs

In addition to the selection and appointment of human resources, hospitals can also guide and encourage OCBs among healthcare workers by building a good corporate culture and organizational team atmosphere. Relevant research on OCB points out that the organizational atmosphere has an impact on individuals' attitude and behaviors through interaction. And the theory of group cohesion theory explains that individuals in a group tend to show organizational citizenship conduct to their team members. In cohesive teams, individuals are more sensitive to each other and show greater willingness to help and support other members (Schacter et al., 1951). Moreover, reciprocal relationship patterns may also develop as part of normal and expected interaction in cohesive teams (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986).

In contrast, OCBs are less likely to emerge in teams with a more exclusionary climate, and workplace ostracism negatively affects OCBs (Sun & Liu, 2019). Therefore, a good working climate is essential for hospitals. From the results of the study, the level of relationship conflict among healthcare workers at Hospital S in Jiangsu province is low, which partly reflects a better working atmosphere. In future development of the hospital, Hospital S in Jiangsu province needs to pay more attention to organizational and team culture. Culture influences people in a subtle way, but it has a significant effect.

During the visit to Hospital S in Jiangsu province and the distribution of questionnaires, we found that the leaders have realized the importance of hospital culture construction, and the hospital organized medical and nursing staff to participate in hospital cooking competitions,

military training and spring tours. But according to their observation, cultural influence did not show in the working environment. A typical case was that the canteens, corridors, meeting rooms and other places included only cold furnishings, lacking slogans, mottoes and stickers.

While encouraging medical staff to perform occupational citizenship conduct, hospital leaders should avoid the recent mandatory OCB policy and its negative effects. As the research has indicated, time and energy of staffs are limited, and any time spent on OCB comes at the expense of task performance. Since task performance will be rewarded more, time spent on OCBs is likely to have a negative impact on rewards and career development of individuals. Thus, spending time on OCBs may be beneficial to the organization but harmful to the individual. Job performance can be negatively affected by failing to balance OCBs with one's job (Tepper et al., 2001).

Among the organizational citizenship behaviors that benefit the individual, such as helping colleagues and interpersonal harmony, helping colleagues can significantly promote employees' core self-evaluation. Among the performance of organizational citizenship conducts that benefit the organization, the protecting company resources and initiative can significantly promote core self-evaluation. However, the interpersonal harmony and identification with the company should not be neglected. Therefore, what organizations need to do is not to encourage one of these occupational citizenship conduct, but take steps to encourage healthcare staffs to engage in all of them.

6.2.5 Consideration of the team relationship conflict

In this study we also considered the influence of the working environment, in other words, team relationship conflict. The results of this study indicate that when the perceived relationship conflict is strong, the interpersonal harmony of healthcare workers will be damaged and they will not be able to obtain exchange resources from interpersonal harmony. In that way, they will not be able to promote their core self-evaluation. Also, healthcare workers' motivation is affected by the negative emotions brought about by the relationship conflict, thus taking up too much self-regulation resources, which is not conducive to the improvement of core self-evaluation. Although the effect of team relationship conflicts on the identification with the company, protecting company resources and altruism toward colleague are not significant, interpersonal harmony and conscientiousness are important for improving individual task performance, as well as the development of the whole team and the organization. Therefore, hospital leaders need to attach great importance to the guidance of building positive team

atmosphere and the construction of harmonious culture, so as to minimize unnecessary relationship conflicts.

According to studies related to relationship conflict, scarce resources, divergence of values, and the need for cognitive consistency are causes of relationship conflict, but more relationship conflicts in teams comes from conflicts in tasks and process. Due to the particularity of the team form of the hospital, some departments require more teamwork, while others rely more on individual abilities.

In any case, the diversity of the team is unavoidable, so avoiding relationship conflicts needs to be taken from another domain; i.e., to prevent task conflicts and process conflicts from escalating into relationship conflicts. Scholars argue that in China, because the boundary between "persons" and "issues" is not clear enough, task conflicts often end up with relationship conflicts. Even though the nature of the conflict is task-based, team members often mistake the source of the conflict for interpersonal conflict, creating negative emotions and further transforming into relationship conflict. Especially when task conflicts are not addressed in a timely manner and/or are not resolved in a timely manner, task conflicts are likely to be misinterpreted as relationship conflicts. When teams do not stay productive on a task for too long because they disagree on a task, they speculate (privately) about each other's motives (e.g., is he doing it just for his own benefit?). Whether it's blaming motives, character, or ability, each Individuals are silently blaming each other (or others) for bringing the team to a deadlock (Edmondson & Smith, 2006).

Therefore, we believe that effective and timely resolution of relationship and process conflicts in organizations is important and can significantly improve the frequency of relationship conflicts in teams. Research on team conflict has concluded that effective team leadership functions are critical to the development of a positive team atmosphere that keeps employees focused on their work tasks and effectively curbs relationship conflict (Simons & Peterson, 2000). Therefore, this study recommends that hospital leaders and managers give full attention to their leadership roles, perform a good job in the division of labor and organizational work within the team, the reduction of "free rider behavior" within the team, in building of a channel for communication among, in the identification of conflicts and frictions within the team in a timely manner and actively mediate them.

6.2.6 The role of the leaders

According to research, team leaders can try to manage conflict in the following ways. First, effectively managing their own emotions through reflection and reframing. Instead of focusing on showing that their own views are correct and those of others are wrong, leaders can come up with better views by working together. Second, leaders call on team members to reflect together on the cause of conflicts and disagreement, and they should gradually make such discussion a habit so that the team can form a good communication atmosphere. In this way, not only can conflicts be solved effectively, but also the strengths of different team members can be better utilized to form better team decisions. Finally, the study conclude that a good team atmosphere can reduce the transformation of task and process conflicts into relationship conflicts.

To achieve this, leaders should take the lead to get to know their team members. Leaders who take the time to get to know team members and their goals and concerns are less likely to speculate negatively about their motivation. Thus, a simple task conflict deteriorate into a relationship conflict (Edmondson & Smith, 2006). Team leaders should drive mutual trust, openness and inclusiveness, and active cooperation among team members, which is conducive to promoting communication among team members, reaching consensus, eliminating unnecessary misunderstanding, forming a good interactive environment, and helping to avoid unfavorable conflicts from appearing (Amason & Sapienza, 1997).

6.3 Research limitations and prospect

Although this study has certain contributions in theory and practice, when reviewing the research process of this work, the author finds that there are still many deficiencies and omissions in this work. Suggestions for future research have been point out and put forward here, which we hope to attract attentions of the future research.

6.3.1 Research limitations

6.3.1.1 Data collection

The data in this study were collected in stages, and other variables except task performance were filled in by the medical staff themselves. Hence there is a possibility of homologous variance problem to a certain degree, which may cause the relationship between the variables

to be distorted and enlarged. Even though the design of the questionnaire in this study and the process of collecting the questionnaire have been conducted very carefully in order to avoid the causation of the subjects' vigilance, it still cannot completely eliminate the subjects' doubts. Especially when the items are closely related to one's own work, such as organizational citizenship behavior, relationship conflict and core self-evaluation, these three variables are self-filled by employees, participants viewed the questionnaire as another test for leaders. They believed that leaders liked proactive, mild-mannered, and motivated employees, and tried to make their choices seem like they were in line with the leader's preferences, therefore, the organizational citizenship behavior, relationship conflict and core self-evaluation of employees reflected by the questionnaire are deformed in different degrees.

Therefore, glorification or obscuration of the reality of the situation are present to a certain extent and thus we cannot grasp the most genuine thoughts of the subjects. In the future research, it is necessary to make collected data and research results more reliable by avoiding similar problems as much as possible, and through intervention in questionnaire design and questionnaire collection, such as multi-stage questionnaire collection and multi-channel data collection, it is best to use objective data to replace subjective question and answer or through a combination of the two.

6.3.1.2 Research sample selection

Second, this study has certain limitations in the selection of research samples. Due to the limited social resources and personal connections of the author, although the number of valid questionnaires collected in the three stages reached 561, the questionnaires only selected medical staff from one hospital as the research. Although there are different working teams in the hospital, the atmosphere and values of the hospital will have a certain impact on the medical staff, and most of the medical staff in the hospital come from the same or nearby cities, and the living environment is similar. The influence also converges, which leads to the lack of diversity of samples, and there may be a phenomenon of convergence of characteristics of medical staff, which means that the data effect of the variable team relationship conflict, which is greatly affected by team heterogeneity and diversity, will be greatly reduced. , in our study, we can also see that the relationship conflict between different samples is not very different. In the follow-up study, we should choose more research objects, from different types of hospitals in different regions. The research obtained from such samples The conclusion is more convincing.

6.3.1.3 Innate conditions

Third, previous studies have pointed out that innate conditions are stronger than acquired training in shaping personality (McCrae et al., 2000), so innate conditions will have a significant impact on the core self-evaluation of medical staff, but this study designs a questionnaire. Taking into account the privacy of the subjects and dispel the doubts of the subjects, there are no more design control variables to control the core self-evaluation of medical staff, which may amplify the core self-evaluation of organizational citizenship behavior. In the future research on core self-evaluation, attention should be paid to the selection of control variables.

6.3.2. Research prospect

6.3.2.1 Considerations on team relationship conflict

In our study, the team relationship conflict affected the interpersonal harmony among colleagues and brought negative emotions to the medical staff, so it demonstrated a negative impact on the relationship between "interpersonal harmony to core self-evaluation", "initiative to core self-evaluation". However, the team relationship conflict demonstrated no effect on the relationship between "company identification to core self-evaluation", "helping colleagues to core self-evaluation", and "protecting work resources to core self-evaluation".

This study believes that helping colleagues has the effect of repairing relationship conflicts. In the case of strong relationship conflicts Under these conditions, medical staff may take the behavior of helping colleagues to repair the relationship. Helping colleagues is a strong exchange, and it is easier to be identified to obtain exchange resources. Therefore, the relationship between helping colleagues and core self-evaluation is not affected even in situations where there is strong team relationship conflict. The company recognizes and protects work resources as organizational citizenship behaviors that benefit the organization, and the source of exchanged resources is the organization, so it will not be affected by team relationship conflicts.

However, this is only a descriptive analysis based on previous research, and future research can explore the reasons from the perspective of empirical research. Is it really as described in this study that the main source of organizational citizenship behavior that benefits the organization is the organization's rewards, so it is possible to obtain exchange resources to promote organizational citizenship behavior when the team conflict is strong? This is the future research direction of this study. an aspect of thinking.

Second, with regard to employee relationship conflict, related studies have pointed out that

in the relationship between supervisors and subordinates, the higher the degree of relationship conflict with attributes, the easier it is for supervisors to see performance problems because they have a negative aura and cannot reconcile good performance with Conflict between supervisors. As a result, managers are likely to perceive employees with whom they conflict as underperforming. Furthermore, based on research showing that conflicting relationships motivate people to harm their colleagues (Struch & Schwartz, 1989), it can be argued that supervisors use performance appraisal procedures to harm subordinates with whom they conflict. The employee performance in this study is evaluated by the supervisor's score. Therefore, the employee's job performance is partially affected by relationship conflict. That is to say, in addition to affecting employees' organizational citizenship behavior and employees' core self-evaluation, relationship conflict may also directly affect job performance. impact, which may have a certain impact on the results of this study. Therefore, in future research, it is necessary to deal with the relationship between relationship conflict and employee job performance more carefully, which may play a very important role in improving the accuracy of the research.

6.3.2.2 Motivation for impression

Many studies have pointed out that there is an impression management motivation for employees to carry out organizational citizenship behavior, which is the process of controlling or managing to influence others to form their desired impressions (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). Therefore, in the Chinese context, organizational citizenship Behavior is related to individuals' acquisition of leadership emotional trust, and is a tool for individuals to acquire leadership emotional trust. Impression management is positively related to organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational citizenship behaviors based on impression management motives and organizational citizenship behaviors based on complete altruistic motives cannot be detected by others, and both can obtain exchange resources. And organizational citizenship behavior requires costs. Is the cost of organizational citizenship behavior the same for the two motives?

When making practical suggestions, this study proposes that organizations need to encourage medical staff to do more organizational citizenship behaviors, and ensure that employees who do organizational citizenship behaviors can get exchanged resources, but once organizational citizenship behaviors are encouraged by the organization, in the context of impression management motivation driven by this, medical staff perform more organizational citizenship behaviors to obtain good evaluations, so that they have advantages in performance evaluation, job promotion, and allocation of scarce resources. The medical staff with strong

ability can take into account organizational citizenship behavior in addition to their work tasks, but the medical staff with weak ability, due to their limited resources, if they are distracted to perform organizational citizenship behavior, will it lead to resource consumption and delay their work and ultimately make the organization interests are harmed? If there is too much encouragement of organizational citizenship behavior, medical staff will join in one after another, and the resources that the organization needs to exchange will increase, will the interests of the organization be harmed? If the answer is yes, where are the boundaries for encouraging organizational citizenship behavior? These are all directions for future research to think about.

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Annex A

Questionnaire about Employee's Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Dear hospital staff,

Thank you for participating in this independent research about employees' organizational citizenship behavior. All information collected shall only be used for academic projects. On a scale of 1 to 5 (with 1 being Strongly Disagree and 5 being Strongly Agree), please circle the number most indicating your level of agreement with the following statements.

After completing the questionnaire, please make sure every question is answered. An investigator shall take it back within days. Thanks for your time.

Part 1 Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I will realize most of the goals set for myself.	1	2	3	4	5
2. When faced with difficult tasks, I'm confident that I can finish them.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I can basically produce results important for me.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I believe most of my efforts will be paid off.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I will overcome multiple challenges.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I'm confident that I can perform various tasks effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I can finish most tasks better compared with others.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I can perform excellently even in the face of difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5
9. There is a lot of friction among members in our team.	1	2	3	4	5
10. There is obvious personality conflict between members in our team.	1	2	3	4	5
11. There are tense relationships in our team.	1	2	3	4	5
12. There are frequent emotional conflicts in our team.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I'm willing to stand up and protect the reputation of our hospital.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I offer to spread good news about our hospital to others, thus	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
clearing their misunderstandings about our hospital.					
15. I've put forward constructive suggestions that can improve the operation of our hospital.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I listen carefully in the hospital meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I'm willing to help new colleagues adapt to the working environment.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I am willing to help my colleagues solve work-related problems.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I'm willing to share the load of my colleagues when needed.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I'm willing to communicate and cooperate with my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I still abide by the rules and regulations of my hospital when no one is present.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I'm careful at work and rarely make mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I'm willing to accept challenging new tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I study hard for improving my work performance.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I often come early and start working immediately.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I put more emphasis on individual influence and interest than on personal harmony.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I take advantage of my position to do something beneficial to myself.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I believe that my own interest is the most important, and that there is no need to pay too much attention to others' criticism or suggestions.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I complain other colleagues behind supervisors or colleagues' back.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I use working hours for private affairs.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I utilize our hospital's resources (copiers, computers, cars, etc.) to my own benefit.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I take sick leaves for private affairs.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I'm confident in achieving corresponding success in life.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I feel dejected at times.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
35. In general, I can succeed as long as I work hard.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Sometimes I feel useless when I fail.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I can complete tasks most of the time.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Sometimes I feel I can't get hold of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I'm satisfied with myself on the whole.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I doubt my ability to be qualified.	1	2	3	4	5
41. I believe that my life is decided myself.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I feel unable to control my success or failure in my career.	1	2	3	4	5
43. I'm able to handle most of the issues I encounter.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Sometimes I feel things look bleak and hopeless.	1	2	3	4	5

Part 2 Basic Personal Information

1. Employee ID:

2. Gender: □Female □Male

3. Age: □21-30 □31-40 □41-50 □Above 50

4. Education Background: □Junior College Degree □Bachelor Degree

□Master Degree □Others (please indicate)：

5. How long have you been working in this hospital? ＿＿year(s) and ＿＿month(s) (for example: 2 years and 3 months)

<<End－Thanks>>

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Annex B

Questionnaire about Employee's Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Dear hospital staff,

Thank you for participating in this independent research about employees' organizational citizenship behavior. All information collected shall only be used for academic projects. On a scale of 1 to 5 (with 1 being Strongly Disagree and 5 being Strongly Agree), please circle the number most indicating your level of agreement with the following statements.

After completing the questionnaire, please make sure every question is answered. An investigator shall take it back within days. Thanks for your time.

Part 1 Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I'm confident in achieving corresponding success in life.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I feel dejected at times.	1	2	3	4	5
3. In general, I can succeed as long as I work hard.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Sometimes I feel useless when I fail.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I can complete tasks most of the time.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Sometimes I feel I can't get hold of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I'm satisfied with myself on the whole.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I doubt my ability to be qualified.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I believe that my life my life is up to me.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I feel unable to control my success or failure in my career.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I'm able to handle most of the issues I encounter.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Sometimes I feel things look bleak and hopeless.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I constantly find new ways of improving my life.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I strongly promote constructive changes wherever I'm employed.	1	2	3	4	5
15. The most exciting thing for me is to see my ideas come true.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I'll find a way to change it when I see something I don't appreciate.	1	2	3	4	5
17. As long as I believe in one thing,	1	2	3	4	5

I will try to make it a reality	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
regardless the odds.					
18. I stick to my thoughts despite others' objections.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I'm good at discovering opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I always look for better ways to do things.	1	2	3	4	5
21. As long as I believe an idea, no difficulties can stop me from making it a reality regardless of odds.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I find good opportunities faster than others.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I feel satisfied with my work on the whole.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I'm generally satisfied with the sense of accomplishment gained from this position.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I'm generally satisfied with my responsibilities of this position.	1	2	3	4	5
26. My immediate supervisor has clearly expressed our shared vision.	1	2	3	4	5
27. My immediate supervisor is a good example for us to learn from.	1	2	3	4	5
28. My immediate supervisor promotes us to accept the common goal of our team.	1	2	3	4	5
29. My immediate supervisor expects a lot of us.	1	2	3	4	5
30. My immediate supervisor always tries to do his best.	1	2	3	4	5
31. My immediate supervisor strives for the first and never makes do with the second.	1	2	3	4	5
32. My immediate supervisor takes our feelings into account when doing things.	1	2	3	4	5
33. My immediate supervisor respects our personal feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
34. My immediate supervisor treats us with consideration for our feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
35. My immediate supervisor takes our feelings into account before taking action.	1	2	3	4	5
36. My immediate supervisor encourages us to consider old questions with new methods.	1	2	3	4	5
37. My immediate supervisor raises questions that prompt us to reflect on our way of doing things.	1	2	3	4	5
38. My immediate supervisor has a way to urge us to re-examine some	1	2	3	4	5

habitual thinking in our work.

Part 2 Basic Personal Information

1. Employee ID:

2. Gender: □Female   □Male

3. Age: □21-30   □31-40   □41-50   □Above 50

4. Education Background: □Junior College Degree   □Bachelor Degree

                            □Master Degree   □Others (please indicate)：

5. How long have you been working in this hospital? ___year(s) and ___month(s) (for

    example:2 years and 3 months)

<<End－Thanks>>

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Annex C

Directions: 1. Please make an independent and objective evaluation of each employee and fill in the appropriate number between 1 and 5 in each column. (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4=Agree; and 5=Strongly Agree)   **2. <u>Please fill in the name or employee ID of the employee evaluated.</u>**

1. He/she often thinks about how to make himself/herself to be more creative.

2. He/she has clear ideas on how to become a creative employee.

3. "Becoming a creative employee" is an important part of his/her job role.

4. He/she always seeks to apply new processes, technologies and methods.

5. He/she often puts forward original ideas.

6. He/she often communicates with others and sells his/her new ideas.

7. He/she tries to acquire necessary resources to realize his/her new ideas.

8. He/she makes proper plans to realize his/her new ideas.

9. In general, he/she is innovative.

10. He/she fulfills the assigned tasks well.

11. He/she conscientiously performs his/her duties.

12. He/she lives up my expectations of him/her.

13. He/she meets the formal performance requirements of the job.

14. He/she has participated in activities that directly affect his/her performance evaluation.

<<End－Thanks for your support!>>