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INTEGRATING PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION WITH ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR: TESTING A SEQUENTIAL MEDIATION OF P-O FIT AND EMOTIONAL LABOR

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RESUMO

A literatura sobre a motivação para o serviço público (MSP) tem revelado muitos efeitos relacionados com resultados positivos e negativos, tais como a adequação pessoa-organização (P-O fit), o trabalho emocional (actuação superficial e actuação profunda) e os comportamentos de cidadania organizacional (CCO). Para melhor integrar estes efeitos, este estudo investiga a mediação sequencial da MSP nos CCO através do P-O fit e das dimensões do trabalho emocional. Adicionalmente, considerando a emergência do trabalho virtual, é explorado o efeito moderador da virtualidade na relação entre o MPS e o P-O fit. A amostra é constituída por 181 trabalhadores chineses que preencheram um questionário online. Os resultados revelam uma associação positiva entre MSP e P-O fit, actuação profunda e CCO. Além disso, o P-O fit está positivamente associado à atuação profunda e aos CCO, e a atuação profunda melhora os CCO. A actuação superficial não está associada a nenhuma destas variáveis. Adicionalmente, o estudo apoia o efeito indireto sequencial da MSP nos CCO através do P-O fit e da actuação profunda. No entanto não foi observado um efeito moderador da virtualidade. Globalmente, este estudo contribui para a integração dos mecanismos subjacentes às relações entre MSP, CCO, P-O fit e trabalho emocional, sugerindo que este processo não é modulado por qualquer efeito contextual da virtualidade no local de trabalho.

Palavras-Chave: Motivação para o Serviço Público, Ajustamento Pessoa-Organizac«ção, Comportamentos de Cidadania Organizacional, Trabalho emocional, Virtualidae

Códigos de classificação JEL: J45, M54

ABSTRACT

Literature on public service motivation (PSM) has uncovered many effects related to positive and negative outcomes such as person-organization fit (P-O fit), emotional labor (surface acting and deep acting) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). To better integrate these effects, this study investigates the sequential mediation of PSM on OCB via P-O fit and both dimensions of emotional labor. Additionally, considering the emergent practice of virtual work, the moderating effect of virtuality on the relationship between PSM and P-O fit is explored. The sample consists of 181 Chinese employees who completed an online questionnaire. Results reveal a positive association between PSM and P-O fit, deep acting, and OCB. Additionally, P-O fit is positively associated with deep acting and OCB, and deep acting is found to enhance OCB. Surface acting is not associated with any of these variables. Overall, the study supports the sequential indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and deep acting. However, no moderation effect of virtuality was observed. Overall, this study contributes to the integration of the mechanisms underlying the relationships between PSM, OCB, P-O fit, and emotional labor, suggesting this process is not modulated by any contextual effect from virtuality in the workplace.

Keywords: Public Service Motivation, Person-Organization fit, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Emotional labor, virtuality

JEL classification codes: J45, M54

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1. Introduction

Public service motivation (PSM) has emerged in the last couple decades as a favored construct in public management research (Ritz et al., 2016). Its nature has been questioned to conclude it truly exists as a construct because civil servants have been found to have higher intrinsic motivation and concomitantly lower extrinsic motivation that their private employee counterparts, producing a sense of service ethics unique of civil service (Houston, 2000). PSM has been defined as "an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations" (Perry & Wise, 1990: 368).

Research has shown that PSM is a positive individual asset within the scope of civil service, as it fosters a sense of alignment with the mission of public institutions, which is conducive to many positive outcomes (Ritz et al., 2016) such as job satisfaction (Min et al., 2021), person-organization fit (P-O fit, Kim, 2012), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB, Piatak & Holt, 2020), turnover intentions (Gan et al., 2020), work engagement (Cooke et al., 2019), individual job performance (Belle, 2013), or emotional labor (e.g. Hsieh et al., 2012). Although emotional labor may seem to be less critical in public service due to the back-office and administrative nature of much of the work it is also relevant as evidenced by production of specialized and extensive books dedicated exclusively to emotional labor in public service (e.g. Guy et al., 2019) and the cited empirical paper of Hsieh et al. (2012) did find PSM hinders surface acting and fosters deep acting which is clearly a positive outcome.

Although some more integration has been emerging (e.g. Hue et al., 2022) joining PSM, P-O fit and some employee outcomes such as OCB, the empirical research focused on emotional labor in PSM models have been tested in a rather fragmented fashion. Thus, in addition to studies already cited in this text that connect PSM to P-O fit (Kim, 2012) and PSM to OCB (Piatak & Holt, 2020), one can find papers linking PSM to Emotional Labor (e.g. Hsieh et al., 2012), Emotional labor to OCB (e.g. Cheung & Lun, 2015), and P-O fit to emotional labor (e.g. Lam et al., 2018). This is strongly suggesting sequential mediation effects are occurring, but these have not yet been fully accounted in literature. This is a research gap that motivates this study.

In addition, novel research has been highlighting the importance of context in explaining how and why PSM exerts effects. For example, Anderfuhren-Biget et al. (2014) report that PSM dimensions presence changed according to the policy environment, and Mussagulova and Van der Wal (2021) have also showed how research in non-western countries are taking contextual variables into the equation so

to better capture PSM dynamics. Covid19 crisis was one important contextual event that has impacted the work experience by fostering telework across the world (Ono & Mori, 2021) and the accelerate changes virtuality brought to work experience should be considered in extant models. This is also another research opportunity that we want to take.

As stated, literature is extensive but many of the empirically supported relationships between PSM and some important outcomes, such as emotional labor, have been tested separately and the field in ripe for more integrative research models. Thus, this study is designed to test a sequential mediation model that connects PSM to OCB via P-O fit and emotional labor which is, to our knowledge, only partially tested process in this field through studies that have tested mediations without linking them into a sequential process. Likewise, it will count on the contextual effect virtuality may exert by integrating it as a moderator along the process.

This thesis is structured to empirically support this conceptual model and show empirical findings. For such purpose it will start by reviewing literature on public service motivation to highlight its asset-like status for organizations because it brings many benefits. It will then introduce person-organization fit as an important variable linked to many positive outcomes in organizations, among which protection from emotional labor, namely from surface acting while fostering deep acting. At this stage the first hypothesis is introduced referring to the mediating effect of P-O fit between Public service motivation and emotional labor. After this, organizational citizenship behaviors are introduced and its relation with emotional labor explored to propose the second hypothesis pertaining to emotional labor mediating role between P-O fit and citizenship behaviors. Both hypotheses entail a sequential mediation that is then presented as the third hypothesis. Lastly, literature review progresses by introducing virtuality as a contextual variable that has been gaining momentum, and its possible interaction in the whole sequential mediation. After the conceptual model is shown graphically with the respective hypotheses and sub-hypotheses, the method deployed to measure the constructs, to collect the data, and to process it as regards measurement validity and reliability are shown. Then, descriptive and bivariate statistics are showed to finally show findings pertaining to the hypotheses. The remaining of the thesis comprehends the discussion of the results as well as conclusions without forgetting the study limitations and suggestions for future research.

2. Literature review

This section will provide an overview of previous research. Firstly, we explore the construct of PSM, which has attracted the attention of both scholars and managers during recent years. Then, we will explore the literature that builds on important aspects within work settings, namely person-organizational fit (P-O fit) and emotional labor. After this, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors are introduced focusing on the relationship to the variables stated before. Lastly, the virtual work is then introduced and explored to highlight its nature, expression and consequences within work settings.

2.1. Public service motivation: a critical asset

Defined as the motivation that people have to contribute to society (Paarlberg at al., 2008), Public service motivation (PSM) has gained significant attention in the field of public administration and management. In 1982, Rainey first mentioned the concept of "public service motivation" in his study of government employees. By comparing the propensity for public service of public and private sector employees, Rainey concluded that people working in public sector place more emphasis on providing public goods to the public and therefore they have higher PSM than the ones work in private sector.

Later, Perry and Wise (1990, p.368) provided the first systematic and comprehensive definition of public service motivation: "the individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organization". In this context, the term "motive" refers to psychological deficiencies or needs that an individual experiences a compulsion to alleviate. And these motives can be divided into three categories: rational, norm-based, and affective motivations. Rational motives involve actions grounded in individual utility maximization. Norm-based motives refer to the intention to obey norms, and affective motives corresponds to the emotional response to what happens in the social environment. Perry and Wise (1990) formulated three propositions: a)the higher an individual's level of PSM, the greater the likelihood that the individual will actively pursue membership in a public organization; b) PSM is positively related to individual performance in public organizations; c) public organizations that are successful in attracting members with high levels of PSM are more likely to rely less on utilitarian incentives in order to effectively manage individual performance. Perry and Wise's (1990) concept has led to a theoretical explanation of the pro-social behavior of public sector employees and has been widely accepted by scholars in public management.

In 1996, Perry first constructed six dimensions of PSM: attraction to public policy making, commitment to public interest, civic duty, social justice, self-sacrifice, and compassion. Later, after an

empirical study of 376 MPA students, Perry (1996) argued that the dimension of commitment to public interest can include commitment to public interest, civic duty, social justice, so it can be combined. Thus, PSM was eventually reduced to four dimensions: attraction to public policy making, commitment to public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice. This division has been recognized and accepted by many scholars and has been widely used in the study of PSM.

However, since then, PSM and its dimensions has been developed by other authors to find this concept differs according to nation and region. Coursey and Pandey (2007) simplified the dimensions of PSM to attraction to public policy making, commitment to public interest, and compassion. Brewer and Selden (1998, p.417) define PSM as "the motivational force that induces individuals to perform meaningful public service". According to Brewer and Selden (1998), whistle blowing is conducive to cleaning up unethical practices and creating a good working environment, and therefore employee whistle blowing should be included in the measurement of PSM, and the results showed that whistleblowers had a higher sense of organizational identification and loyalty. Rainey and Steinbauer (1999, p.23) extended the scope of PSM and defined it as "a general altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation or humankind". Vandenabeele (2007, p.549) integrated these elements into a definition, stating that PSM is "the belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate". It is thus observable that the concept of PSM started in a more restricted way and has been to expand and more relevant and inclusive nowadays. In 2008, Vandenabeele pointed that in addition to Perry's four dimensions, PSM also included the dimension of "democratic governance".

 In general, scholars have defined the meaning of PSM differently due to different research perspectives, but basically agree on three aspects of PSM: altruism, pro-social behavior, and the spirit of public administration.

Although many studies related to PSM are based on the conditions of the political system, several theoretical approaches indicate that PSM does not equal the overall motivation of public or civil servants, nor is it only found in the public sector (Vandenabeele et al., 2018). There are several studies which suggest PSM can be found in various population like firefighters (Kim, 2011), nurses (Belle, 2013), soldiers (Brænder et al., 2013), and even private sector workers (Kjeldsen, 2014).

2.2. The consequences of PSM

Research has shown that PSM is a positive individual asset within the scope of civil service, as it fosters a sense of alignment with the mission of public institutions, which is conducive to many positive outcomes (Ritz et al., 2016) such as job satisfaction (Min et al., 2021), person-organizational fit (P-O fit, Kim, 2012), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB, Piatak & Holt, 2020), turnover intentions (Gan et al., 2020), work engagement (Cooke et al., 2019), individual job performance (Belle, 2013), or emotional labor (Hsieh et al., 2012).

According to previous studies, the outcome variables of PSM can be divided into three categories: work attitudes, work behaviors, and job performance. Work attitudes (i.e. job satisfaction and organizational commitment) are the most frequently result variables examined in PSM studies. Min et al. (2021) provided in-depth analysis of the work of PSM from 46 studies and concluded PSM positively associates with job satisfaction. And the relationship is stronger for the government sector employees. Jin et al. (2018) validated the relationship between PSM and organizational commitment. Lu and Chen (2022) analyzed data from China and demonstrated that public sector workers with higher PSM typically appear more engaged in their work, are more loyal to the organization, and exhibit a more positive work ethic to increase productivity.

The influence of PSM on work behaviors is mainly observed in employees' turnover intention, and organizational citizenship behavior. Employees with high PSM levels are more likely to help others and correct social inequity (Choi & Chung, 2018) thus they prefer to keep their jobs and are less likely to quit (Wang et al., 2022). Many recent studies (Gnankob et al., 2022; Piatak & Holt, 2020) have shown that PSM positively influences organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, people with high levels of PSM are more likely to help their communities and societies (Esteve et al., 2016), and more tolerant of red tape (Scott & Pandey, 2005).

When PSM has a positive effect on individual work attitudes and work behaviors, it leads to improved job performance and organizational performance. Perry and Wise (1990) proposed the hypothesis that there is a significant correlation between PSM and job performance and this hypothesis was corroborated by these authors and others (e.g. Naff & Crum, 1999; Zhu & Wu, 2016) yielded the same results, further validating Perry and Wise's proposal. This relation, however, may not operate in a direct way was mediators are called for, e.g. Person-Organization fit (Bright, 2007).

2.3. Person-Organization fit (P-O fit)

Broadly speaking, P-O fit is a concept defined as "the compatibility between people and entire organizations" (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 285), emphasizing that individuals and organizations share similar fundamental characteristics and provide what the other needs.

Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) framework (Schneider, 1987) was the cradle of P-O fit studies. This view holds that people and organizations are attracted to each other because of their similarities. Schneider (1987) argued that individuals do not undergo random assignment to actual organizations; rather, they exercise agency in choosing to join or leave such organizations. Individuals are selected to participate in a given situation, and their subsequent involvement in that situation plays a significant role in shaping the outcome of said situation. The author posits that individuals are drawn towards organizations, undergo a selection process to join them, and either continue their affiliation if they align well with the organization or discontinue it if there is a lack of compatibility.

In 1987, Muchinsky and Monahan pointed out that P-O fit consists of two key dimensions: supplementary and complementary fit. Supplementary fit concerns the alignment of individual characteristics and attributes (e.g., personal values, goals, attitudes, or competencies) with those of the organization (e.g., organizational culture, structure, values, goals). It occurs when people's "supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals in this environment" "(Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987 p.269). Complementary fit is a relationship in which individuals and organizations complement each other in terms of their characteristics and the satisfaction of their needs for the other party. And it occurs "when individual's characteristics of an individual serve to 'make whole' or complement the characteristics of an environment" (p.271).

Although Caplan (1987) also believed that P-O fit is the matching between individuals and organizations, he paid more attention to the complementary fit between individuals and organizations, and divided the two dimensions into needs-supply and demands-abilities. The "needs-supply" suggests that a fit is achieved when the organization meets the needs, wants, and preferences of individuals, and "demands-abilities" suggests that a fit is achieved if the individual possesses the competencies required by the organization. Chatman (1989) believed values are the most basic and most influential factors to influence employees' behavior and claimed that P-O fit is a high degree of normative and value congruence between the person and the organization. Cable and Judge (1996) argued that P-O fit is the overall fit when the organization meets the individual's needs, values, requirements or preferences.

Kristof (1996) integrated these ideas and presented a more complete model of P-O fit. She defined P-O fit as the compatibility of an employee with an organization in three situations: a) at least one of the individuals or organizations is able to provide the other with the resources it needs; b) the individual and the organization share similarities in some of their basic characteristics; c) both. In Kristof's (1996) conceptualization, P-O fit is divided into supplementary and complementary fit, where complementary fit consists of needs-supply and demands-abilities. This conceptualization is the most accepted definition in the field of P-O fit and both supplementary and complementary fit integrate to better explain outcomes (Cable & Edwards, 2004).

Research of P-O fit highlight its relationship with various positive outcomes. Recent work demonstrated that higher levels of P-O fit are linked to increased job satisfaction (Zhang et al., 2017, Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014), OCB (Lamm et al., 2010, Vilela et al., 2008), organizational commitment (Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013), and employee performance (Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014).

As stated, P-O fit has been related to PSM. It is therefore not surprising to learn from literature that people with greater PSM are more likely to choose to work in the public sector (Kjeldsen, 2014) due to being more aligned with public service mission, i.e. due to their higher P-O fit. Kim (2012) found that P-O fit is an independent factor on the work attitudes of public employees and mediates the relationship between PSM and work attitudes. In the study of the effect of PSM on job performance, Wright and Pandey (2008) found that employees showed higher job satisfaction when they were in a work environment that was a better match for the individual and the organization.

From a **Social Exchange Theory** (SET, Blau, 1964) perspective, organizations that provide the conditions for employees to experience a sense of good personal fit with the organization, will benefit from employees' reciprocation. SET states that when someone provides a benefit, the receiving party should return the favor (Gergen, 1969 cite in Cropanzano et al., 2017). This means that individuals are prone to weight the extent to which they feel organizations give them, and naturally want to give back in the same way. If someone has high PSM then it is reasonable to expect that individual would feel better in an organization that lives up also the values of public service. Wanting to repay the positive work experience means that when some negative or stressful event occurs (e.g. a conflict with a coworker, a customer complaining) an employee that has a strong feeling of P-O fit, will most likely want to overcome the problem by acting in a positive way, so to give back the organization only positive consequences. This means that emotion regulation can be directly linked to P-O fit according to the SET.

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2.4. Emotional labor

Emotional labor originated in sociology. Any kind of work has specific emotional performance requirements, so individuals need to perform emotional labor in their work. In the past several decades, literature on emotional labor has emerged in public management research beginning with the work by Hochschild (1983, p. 7) that defined it as "the management of feelings to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display; emotional labor is sold for a wage and therefore has exchange value". According to Hochschild, physical labor uses the strength or body movements of employees to achieve organizational goals, while emotional labor uses the expressions and emotions of employees to achieve organizational goals. When working in the public domain for pay, emotions become commodified, and people become alienated from their true feelings. Hochschild found that emotional labor efforts are tiring and can damage workers psychologically. Consequently, Hochschild believed that in the workplace, the management of employees' emotions plays a key role in the development of employees. And she pointed out three criteria: a) emotional labor occurs in the process of voice-to-voice or face-to-face communication between individuals; b) there must be a corresponding emotional response or emotional behavior on the part of the customer; c) the organization in which the employee is working has certain requirements for the emotional performance of the employee (Hochschild, 1983).

Hochschild 's (1983) dramatic perspective provides actors with two methods of controlling emotions: surface acting and deep acting, which differ mainly in their extent of authenticity. Employees adopt different emotional labor strategies to regulate their emotions to meet organizational requirements when their inner emotional experience is inconsistent with the norms of emotional performance required by the organization. The first is surface acting, that is, regulating the expression of emotions, expressing the emotions required by the organization by changing facial expressions, body movements, and voice intonation, but it will not change individual's real emotional experience at that time. Another way is by improving the inner emotional feelings to match the outer emotional expression required by the organization and showing it through behavior, called Deep Acting. Employees perform deep acting when their emotions are inappropriate for the situation; they then summon the proper feelings using their education or prior experience. Because of the importance of showing sincerity to clients, Hochschild believes that deep acting is preferable to surface acting, but she also believes that either way, emotions are treated as a commodity and ultimately alienate employees (Hochschild, 1983).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993, p.90) defined the emotional labor as "the act of displaying the appropriate emotion", which are more concerned with the outwardly observable behavior of emotional

labor than with the management of internal perceptions compared with the view of Hochschild. They believe that the organization pays more attention to the actual effect of emotional display, and the organization will manage the emotional performance of employees through various means (such as rewards and punishments, or feedback), and then improve customer satisfaction and loyalty to achieve organizational goals. As for the inner feelings of employees, managers are not concerned. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) further regarded the spontaneous and genuine expression of expected emotions as a third strategy of emotional labor. They believed that both surface acting and deep acting mean that individuals must consciously or intentionally manage their emotions, and emotional labor should also allow for the spontaneous experience and expression of emotions required by the organization. Therefore, compared with Hochschild's point of view, Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) view has three notable features: a) focus on the individual's observable external emotional display, rather than an internal feeling; b) focus on the impact of emotional labor on task performance and job performance; and c) emotional labor can be routine and effortless.

Morris and Feldman (1996, p.987) proposed from the perspective of social interaction that employees' emotional expression is carried out in the social environment and partially determined by the social environment and defined emotional labor as "the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions", which implies that when the individual's emotion is the same as that of the organization's expectations, the expression of emotion still requires the individual to make a conscious effort. This definition includes the organization's expectations of employees in their interactions with customers, as well as the internal tension when employees need to express emotions that are inconsistent with their internal perceptions. Morris and Feldman (1996) divided emotional labor into four dimensions: a) frequency of emotional display; b) attentiveness to required display rules (duration and intensity of emotional display); c) variety of emotions to be displayed; and d) emotional dissonance.

Grandey (2000) argued that emotional labor both defined as a kind of job characteristic or an observable behavior deviated from the core of emotional labor since the former can lead to emotional labor, while the latter is the immediate purpose of emotional labor. So, this author defined emotional labor as "the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for organizational goals" (p. 97), which implies that scholars have extended the theory of emotional regulation to the field of emotional labor research. From the perspective of emotional monitoring, Diefendorff and Richard (2003, p.955) proposed that emotional labor is "a cyclical discrepancy-monitoring and reduction process in which perceptions of

emotional displays and display rules are continuously compared" and it expresses the management of emotions as part of the work role. Specifically, it is the process by which an individual continuously monitors the gap between the rules of emotional expression and his or her own emotional expression, and adopts appropriate emotional adjustment strategies in order to alleviate the psychological stress caused by both.

The definitions currently used in the literature to discuss the concept of emotional labor were summarized in the previous paragraphs. As can be seen, no single theory fully captures the nature of emotional labor, and the discussion is still ongoing.

It turned out that conventional studies have not consistently agreed on the conceptual definition of emotional labor. On the basis of Hochschild's meta-definition of emotional labor, scholars have deepened their understanding of emotional labor in terms of job characteristics and individual emotional regulation. On the one hand, emotional labor is a form of labor in which individuals regulate their emotions to meet the expectations of the organization and the requirements of their professional roles. It occurs in the process of interaction between individuals and the public, and has the characteristics of social interaction, which has an impact on the experience of the public and the achievement of the organization's goals. On the other hand, emotional labor is the process of sensing, monitoring and regulating the mind of emotion for individuals, which has an impact on the physiology and psychology of the individual.

Independently of the conceptual or theoretical divergences observed among scholars, empirical research has supported Hochschild (1983) original claims that surface acting and deep acting bring more negative and positive results, respectively (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). As regards PSM, Hsieh et al. (2012) report it is negatively associated with surface acting and positively associated with deep acting. Likewise, P-O fit related positively to deep acting and negatively to surface acting (Lam et al., 2018). Previous research has established that PSM has not only a direct effect on but also an indirect effect on work attitudes through its influence on P-O fit (Kim, 2012). So, we hypothesize that:

H1: P-O fit mediates the negative effect of PSM on Emotional labor

H1a: P-O fit mediates the negative effect of PSM on Surface acting

H1b: P-O fit mediates the positive effect of PSM on Deep acting

2.5. Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB)

In exploring the motivations of organization behavior, Katz (1964) stated that a functioning organization needs three kinds of behaviors: (a) people must be guided to enter and stay in the system, (b) role-specific requirements must be carried out in a credible manner, and (c) there must be innovative and spontaneous activities that go beyond the role prescriptions, which indicated that a good organization has to be able to motivate its members to perform voluntary more extra-role behaviors. In 1966, Katz and Kahn further differentiated between "in-role" and "extra-role" behaviors with respect to the second and the third category of behaviors. They argue that if employees only have in-role behaviors, then the organization can only be considered a fragile social system. Spontaneous behaviors are the key to the survival and future development of the organization, and without the emergence of these consciously cooperative behaviors, the organization faces paralysis.

Bateman and Organ (1983) defined the third type of spontaneous extra-role behavior as "citizenship behavior". They also clearly stated that such conduct is not included in the job requirements but is beneficial to the organization and is not related to reward or punishment. Later, Organ (1988, p.4) formalized the concept of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), defining it as "an individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that is in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of organization". In Organ's original conceptualization, OCB had three distinct characteristics:(a) OCB is a kind of extra-role behavior, not explicitly stipulated by the organization in the job description, (b) OCB is an expression of the autonomous will of employees, and (c) OCB can positively affect and benefit the development of the organization. According to this definition, OCB is conducive to the development of the organization and is not explicitly stipulated in the employee's role requirements or job description and is motivated solely by the employee's spontaneous intent to cooperate.

Although Organ's definition of OCB is representative, as it describes the concept with rigorous logic and qualifiers, and was widely used by academics at the time, its accuracy was questioned and challenged by a number of scholars. Morrison (1994) argued that this definition makes it difficult to distinguish between extra-role and in-role of employees, and that different managers will have different perceptions from employees. These behaviors, while not directly rewarded by the organization, can influence managers' decisions when setting salaries or when promoting them to higher positions. In addition, some scholars' empirical studies (MacKenzie et al., 1991; Podsakoff et al., 1997) have found that OCB may affect employees' performance appraisal results, which is contrary to notion in the definition that it was not

directly recognized by the formal compensation system. In 1997, drawing on the concept of contextual performance, Organ rethought and extended his definition of OCB as "contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (p.91). In other words, OCB cannot provide direct support for the achievement of organizational task performance, but it can contribute to task performance by maintaining and improving the development of the social and psychological environment in the organization. According to Ocampo et al (2018), the research conducted by Organ and his colleagues on OCB served as a foundational framework for subsequent authors' studies. Despite some attempts to redefine OCB using their own terminology, these alternative definitions fundamentally align with the original conceptualization put forth by Organ and his colleagues.

In the past two decades, researchers have proposed several OCB dimensions and no consensus have been reached so far. In the field of OCB research the original model proposed by Organ (1988) comprehended five-dimensions consisting of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. Altruism refers to a willingness to offer help to other members of the organization to solve work-related difficulties. Organ (1988) explains that an altruistic employee shows selfless concern for the welfare of other members. Conscientiousness is defined as an employee's behavior that goes beyond the minimum requirements of the organization for the job role. Courtesy refers to the intention of employees to proactively address work-related issues with others while being conscious of the potential impact of their behavior on others. This encompasses acts of civility and politeness that serve to preempt interpersonal conflicts from arising. Civic virtue means refers to the accountability of employees to actively engage in the administration of the company, which encompasses responsibilities like attending meetings and staying abreast of organizational changes. It reflects how employees acknowledge themselves as part of an organization and how they accept work-related responsibilities through diligent participation, active engagement, and a genuine concern for the company. Sportsmanship is defined by Organ (1988) as the behaviors that employees are uncomplaining in a non-idealized environment and avoid complaining about trivialities.

Alternative OCB dimensions were proposed, e.g. Van Dyne et al. (1994) claim it comprehends three dimensions: participation (which overlaps with courtesy and altruism); loyalty (which overlaps with sportsmanship and some of the civic virtues); and obedience (which overlaps with civic virtue and conscientiousness). Williams and Anderson (1991) proposed a two-dimensional model of OCB: organizational citizenship behavior directed towards individuals (OCBI) and organizational citizenship behavior directed towards organization (OCBO), which were largely based on Organ's (1988) five-

dimension taxonomy. This division combines the category of the act with the beneficiary of the act. In the review of the 20th-century literature on OCB, Podsakoff et al. (2000) found seven common themes and dimensions, some of which were already mentioned in the definition of Organ, as well as a number of behavioral components like helping behavior, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative and self-development.

An analysis of the literature reveals that there is a convergence of studies on different dimensions of OCB, which highlights some commonalities among researchers on the dimensions of OCB of employees. For example, "altruism" or "helping behavior" is a common dimensional characteristic that is integral to almost all definitions. Organizational compliance, as proposed by Podsakoff et al. (2000), has been referred to by various scholars as OCBO by Williams and Anderson (1991), "organizational obedience" (Van Dyne et al., 1994), but it has also been referred to as "Following Organizational Rules and Procedures" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), and the dimension has also been described as having some meaning of "job dedication" (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1996). All in all, albeit there are any proposals they seem to converge as regards some dimensions although others remain a matter of debate.

Again, independently of the divergences found on the dimensional structure and specific measurement, empirical research has been linking OCB to variables such as PSM or P-O fit. Ingrams (2020) studied OCB in relation to PSM. And the study by Lamm et al. (2010) suggests that P-O fit is a predictor of OCBO, but is not totally direct, rather, several variables are likely to mediate the relationship. In the analysis of the relationship of emotional labor and OCB, some studies show that emotional labor has significant influence on OCB (Li et al., 2012). And Cheung and Lun (2015) argued that deep acting was positively correlated with OCB, whereas surface acting was not related to the OCB. Yue et al. (2016) found that surface acting decreased OCB.

Thus, as has been previously reported in this review that P-O fit relate to emotional labor, we propose this hypothesis:

H2: Emotional labor mediates the positive effect of P-O fit on OCB

H2a: Surface acting mediates the negative effect of P-O fit on OCB

H2b: Deep acting mediates the positive effect of P-O fit on OCB

Because previously we have stated in hypothesis 1 that P-O fit mediates the effect of PSM on emotional labor and H2 states the emotional labor mediates the relation between P-O fit and OCB, we

must now state a new hypothesis (H3) that puts together H1 and H2 by stating a sequential mediation. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H3: There is a sequential indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and Emotional labor.

H3a: There is a sequential negative indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and Surface acting

H3b: There is a sequential positive indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and Deep acting

2.6. Virtuality as a new contextual variable

Since first proposed by Nilles in 1970s as a means to cut down commuting costs, the concept of telecommuting, also known as telework, has been widely used by employees and organizations over several decades (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). In the context of remote work, virtuality is a unique product under the background of the Internet. It is often conceptualized as remote working which is supported by information and communication technologies (Shirmohammadi et al., 2022). With the rapid development of economy and technology, such as big data, artificial intelligence, and 5G, it is gradually promoted and applied because of its flexibility and convenience, and the coronavirus confinement pushed forward the widespread adoption of telework as a new normal (Antunes et al., 2023).

According to Dulebohn and Hoch (2017), virtual teamwork is characterized by the geographical dispersion of team members, limited opportunities for in-person interaction, and the reliance on electronic communication tools to collaborate and accomplish shared objectives. Hunton and Norman (2010) defined teleworking is a type of flexible work arrangement where employees "periodically, regularly, or exclusively perform work for their employers from home or another remote location that is equipped with the appropriate computer-based technology to transfer work to the central organization" (p.67). The notion of virtuality has risen to prominence as a result of organizations' growing adoption of technology. Virtuality makes it possible for employees to work together and perform tasks from a distance. The most critical feature of remote work is that employees are far away from the organization and colleagues, complete their daily work in non-traditional workplaces, and are isolated from the organization in both time and space dimensions.

Virtuality in remote work offers several advantages for both employees and organizations because it is not the same as working in an office. Caillier (2016) found teleworkers in remote settings for longer time had higher PSM than those that were not for such long time or those that were working in person. The integration of virtuality in remote work has revolutionized traditional work arrangements by providing

flexibility and enabling individuals to work from anywhere. Research by Gajendran and Harrison (2007) suggests that virtual work arrangements have a positive impact on employee performance, job satisfaction, and work-life balance. The study highlights that employees who engage in virtual work are more likely to experience reduced work-family conflicts and increased job autonomy. Moreover, virtuality has resulted in increased collaboration and knowledge sharing among remote team members. A study by Ganesan et al. (2005) indicates that virtual teams exhibit higher levels of creativity and innovation due to the diverse perspectives and expertise brought in by geographically dispersed team members. Hunton and Norman (2010) examined the relationship between virtual work and organizational commitment. They found that employees in virtual conditions exhibited high levels in affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

While remote work brings numerous benefits, it also presents certain challenges. A recent PhD thesis focused on comparing public servants PSM working remotely or in person found inconclusive results (Reynoso, 2021). Research by Jarvenpaa and Leidner (1999) highlighted that trust among virtual team members is essential for effective collaboration and knowledge sharing. Establishing trust requires clear communication, transparency, and the use of appropriate technology platforms. Another challenge associated with virtuality in remote work is the potential for social isolation (Galanti et al., 2021). According to Vries et al. (2019), public servants who exclusively work remotely may have encountered adverse effects, such as increased professional isolation and reduced organizational commitment. Without regular physical interactions, employees may feel disconnected and lack a sense of belonging.

According to Ono and Mori (2021), the Covid-19 issue is one significant event in the backdrop that has had an effect on the work experience by increasing the prevalence of telework throughout the world. The concept of telework has been in existence for several years, and its prevalence has significantly increased during the period of the pandemic and its aftermath. The changes virtuality brought to work experience should be considered in extant models. Teleworking was found to moderate the relation between organizational culture and OCB (Krajcsák & Kozák, 2022) and it is an important contextual variable, and it has also interaction with individual characteristics in such digital settings (Parent-Lamarche, 2022). Thus, we hypothesize that:

H4: Team virtuality moderates the direct positive effect between PSM and P-O fit in such a way that high levels of virtuality decrease the effect

H5: Team virtuality moderates the sequential indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and Emotional labor

H5a: Team virtuality moderates the sequential indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and Surface acting

H5b: Team virtuality moderates the sequential indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and Deep acting

3. Conceptual model
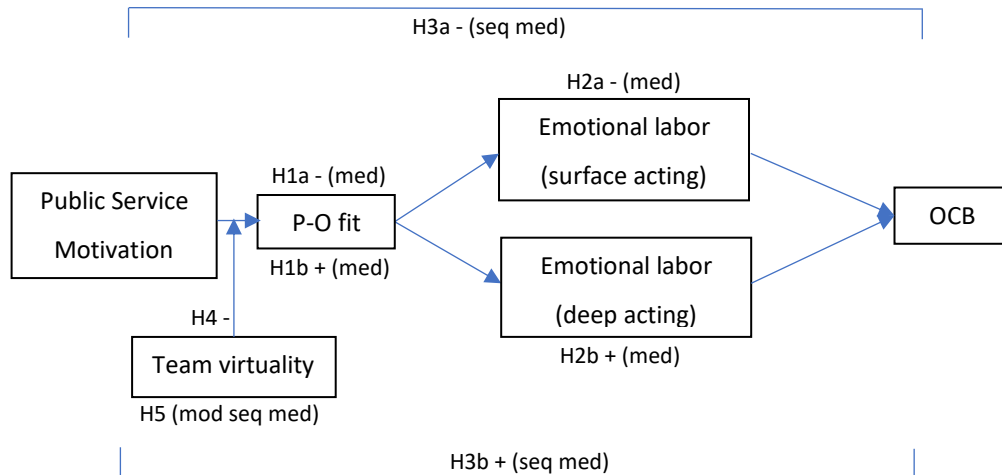
For clarity's sake, we present the whole set of hypotheses that compose the conceptual model:

Hypotheses

H1: P-O fit mediates the negative effect of PSM on Emotional labor

H1a: P-O fit mediates the negative effect of PSM on Surface acting

H1b: P-O fit mediates the negative effect of PSM on Deep acting

H2: Emotional labor mediates the positive effect of P-O fit on OCB

H2a: Surface acting mediates the negative effect of P-O fit on OCB

H2b: Deep acting mediates the positive effect of P-O fit on OCB

H3: There is a sequential indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and Emotional labor

H3a: There is a sequential negative indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and Surface acting

H3b: There is a sequential positive indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and Deep acting

H4: Team virtuality moderates the direct positive effect between PSM and P-O fit in such a way that high levels of virtuality decrease the effect

H5: Team virtuality moderates the sequential indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and Emotional labor

H5a: Team virtuality moderates the sequential indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and Surface acting

H5b: Team virtuality moderates the sequential indirect effect of PSM on OCB through P-O fit and Deep acting

4. Method

4.1. Procedure

After elaborating an online questionnaire in WenJuanXing software, and generating a link to fill in the questionnaire, it was sent to a network of personal and professional contacts hoping to reach public servants. This network was reached via wechat. The invitation included a brief explanation of the study, the required disclosure statements (concerning voluntary participation, expected length of the questionnaire, and its academic nature) and the link to participate.

4.2. Data analysis strategy

Data was checked for missing values and outliers as well as speedy filling (which usually result in low data quality and monotonous answers) for which we followed the recommendations by Heerwegh and Loosveldt (2002). The validity and reliability of measures were assessed with factor analysis and Cronbach alpha following Chan and Idris (2017) guidelines. The hypotheses were tested with path analysis using Smart-PLS software following Hayes (2018) guidelines. Smart-PLS, as against PROCESS Macro used in SPSS, is more flexible in testing all the effects included in the conceptual model, namely the most difficult ones which pertain to the moderated mediations without the restrictions that PROCESS imposes with the pre-designed models. Lastly, due to the cross-sectional data collection, Harman's test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) was deployed to check to which extent there was common method variance bias.

4.3. Sample

The sample comprises 181 employees, and it is mostly feminine (71.8%), and young (with 52.5% aged up to 25 years-old, and 32% aged between 26 and 30 years-old, meaning 84.5 is under 31 years-old) and educated (70% has a bachelor's degree). The participants are mostly working in public organizations (43.6%), private companies (30.9%), or mixed (25.4%). Due to the young age, most participants have low work tenure with about ¾ of the sample (73.5%) having less than 3 years' work experience.

4.4. Measures

Participants answered in a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, to 5=strongly agree) except where otherwise noticed.

Public Service Motivation was measured with a 5-item global measure from Perry (1996) that has been validated by Wright et al. (2013). The items are: Meaningful public service is very important to me; I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another; Making a difference

in society means more to me than personal achievements; I am prepared to make sacrifices for the good of society; I am not afraid to go to bat for the rights of others even if it means I will be ridiculed. The Principal Components Analysis showed a single-component valid solution (KMO=.779, .718<MSA<.849; Bartlett's X^2(10)=383.726, p<.001) accounting for 60.1% of total variance. Table 4.1 shows the loadings as well as reliability indicator (Cronbach alpha=.831).

Table 4.1 – Factor solution for PSM

	PSM
PSM3 making a difference in society	.881
PSM4 prepared to make sacrifices	.880
PSM1 meaningful public service	.703
PSM5 bat for the rights of others	.695
PSM2 how dependent we are on one another	.689
Cronbach alpha	.831

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.

OCB was measured with 6 items used by Piatak and Holt (2020). For this measure we used a frequency scale as reported in their study. After questioning participants on "At work, how often do you do each of the following?", they were given the opportunity to signal their answers on a 5-point frequency scale (1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Occasionally, 4=Sometimes, 5=Almost always). The items are: "OCB1 Help others who have been absent"; "OCB2 Volunteer for things that are not required"; "OCB3 Orient new people even though it is not required"; "OCB4 Help others who have heavy workloads"; "OCB5 Assist supervisor with his or her work"; "OCB6 Make innovative suggestions to improve department". The Principal Components Analysis showed a valid single-component solution (KMO=.855, .820<MSA<.885; Bartlett's X^2(15)=469.015, p<.001) accounting for 59.2% total variance. However, one of the items (OCB6 Make innovative suggestions to improve department) has too low communality to be included in the measure. Thus, we have removed this item to find a valid better solution (KMO=.838, .806<MSA<.850; Bartlett's X^2(6)=528.419, p<.001) accounting for 64.1% total variance. Table 4.2 shows the loadings as well as reliability indicator (Cronbach alpha=.858).

Table 4.2 – Factor solution for OCB

	OCB
OCB4 Help others who have heavy workloads	.863
OCB2 Volunteer for things	.854
OCB3 Orient new people even though it is not required	.807
OCB5 Assist supervisor with his or her work	.740
OCB1 Help others who have been absent	.730
Cronbach alpha	.858

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.

P-O fit was measured with 4 items from Saks and Ashforth (2002) that compose a single dimension: To what extent are the values of the organization similar to your own values?; To what extent does your personality match the personality or image of the organization?; To what extent does the organization fulfill your needs?; To what extent is the organization a good match for you?. Respondents used a an adapted 5-point Likert scale identical to the one used by Saks and Ashforth (2002), namely (1- to a very little extent, to 5- to a very large extent) to state their answers. A Principal Components Analysis showed a valid single component solution (KMO=.832, .806<MSA<.850; Bartlett's $X^2(6)=528.419$, $p<.001$) accounting for 80.3% of total variance. Table 4.3 shows the loadings as well as reliability indicator (Cronbach alpha=.917).

Table 4.3 – Factor solution for P-O Fit

	P-O fit
PoFit4 Match	.922
PoFit1 Values	.902
PoFit2 Personality	.882
PoFit3 Needs	.877
Cronbach alpha	.917

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.

Virtuality was measured based on Jong et al. (2008) score which was based on Baltes et al. (2002) classification of communication media virtuality. Virtuality is then expressed as the product of lack of nonverbal and paraverbal communication times the degree of asynchrony. Instructions given are the following: "Your team members use different medium to communicate amongst each other. Think about all this internal team communication and state to what extent each of the following medium were used to communicate in your team. The cumulative total of all percentages should be 100%. Please fill in for

each medium the percentage of use. (Notice: accumulating all the scores, the total extent of use must be 100 percent): (a) Face-to-face …%, (b) E-mail …%, (c) Chat …%, (d) Teleconference (via audio connection; telephone) …%, (e) Videoconference (via video + audio connection) …%, (f) Other, namely _____ …%”. The weights for each medium were: face-to-face (.14), Videoconference (.52), Teleconference (.41), chat (.85), and email (.96). The index has a formative nature.

Emotional labor was measured with 8 items from Diefendorff et al. (2005) as adopted by Lee et al. (2019) study. These authors opted to exclude three items from the surface acting subscale, which may not be suitable for the Asian context (the study was carried out in South Korea). The original ***surface acting*** scale is (excluded items signaled with and *): 1) I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way; 2) I fake a good mood when interacting with customers; 3) I put on a "show" or "performance" when interacting with customers*.; 4) I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job*.; 5) I put on a "mask" in order to display the emotions I need for the job; 6) I show feelings to customers that are different from what I feel inside*.; 7) I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers. The resulting subscale comprehends four items (it1, it2, it5, it7). The subscale for ***deep acting*** also comprehends 4 items as follows: I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to customers; I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others; I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to customers; I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to customers. The Principal Components Analysis showed a valid solution (KMO=.877, .856<MSA<.897; Bartlett's $X^2(28)=1344.682$, $p<.001$) comprehending both components as expected (Surface acting and Deep Acting) accounting for 83.6% of total variance after rotation (Varimax) with negligible cross loading. Both components have acceptable reliability as shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 – Factor solution for Emotional Labor

	Surface acting	Deep acting
SA3 put on a "mask"	**.883**	.298
SA2 fake a good mood	**.880**	.220
SA4 fake the emotions I show	**.858**	.318
SA1 put on an act	**.857**	.224
DA4 developing the feelings inside of me	.126	**.883**
DA3 work hard to feel the emotions	.334	**.880**
DA2 effort to feel the emotions	.303	**.870**
DA1 try to experience emotions	.359	**.849**
Cronbach alpha	.930	.934

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.

Sociodemographic variables, for descriptive and control purposes, were collected. Namely: gender (1=male, 2=female), age (1=up to 25 years-old, 2=26-30, 3=31-35, 4=36-40, 5=41-45, 6=46-50, 7=51-55, 8=56-60, and 9=61 or more), education (1=Up to 9 years schooling, 2=9 years schooling, 3=12 years schooling, 4=Bachelor degree, 5=Master, and 6=PhD), work experience (1=Less than 1 year, 2=1 to 3 years working, 3=4 to 6 years, 4=7 to 9 years, and 5=10 or more years working), organization nature (1=Private company, 2=Public Administration / State Owned Company, 3=NGO, 4=Other), organizational size (1=Small (1 to 99 workers), 2=Medium (100 to 249 workers), 3=Large (250 to 499), and 4=Very large (500 or more)).

4.5. Common method variance

As stated, when data is collected from the same source, with subjective scales and pertaining to variables that are linked in the conceptual model, it is very likely that individuals seek consistency in their answers and therefore, such consistency will translate into higher, inflated, variance across the model. This is known as common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and is a problem that requires the researcher attention as it gives false estimates on the real association between variables.

Besides the recommendations by Podsakoff et al. (2003) there is an ex-post test, called Harman's test, where data from the variables linked in the conceptual model are factor analyzed together. If they fall mostly in a first factor that accounts for more than 50% of the total variance explained by the factor analysis (before rotation), then we can infer findings are inflated by common method bias. In the case of the present study, a principal axis factoring of PSM, emotional labor, OCB and P-O fit was valid (KMO=.869, Bartlett X^2(231) =2965.811, p<.001) with a five-factor solution (eigenvalue above 1). The first factor accounts for 33.9% of variance and the total variance before rotation is 68.1%, which falls below half of it (34.05%). So, technically Harman's test does not indicate common method occurred although the values are liminal.

5. RESULTS

This section will show the main descriptive and bivariate statistics to proceed to findings pertaining to the hypotheses testing.

5.1. Descriptive and bivariate statistics

Public service motivation is reported at moderate levels (Mean=3.3, SD=.70) while person-organizational fit is relatively stronger (Mean=3.56, SD=.77). Participants experience some level of emotional labor as indicated by the means found both for surface acting (Mean=3.38, SD=1.05) and deep acting (Mean=3.41, SD=.97). The level of citizenship behaviors is also moderate (Mean=3.45, SD=.72). The average virtuality index is 46.2 (SD=15.7) with components showing a varied work experience as regards the use of communication channels. Although not reported in table 5, it is worth mentioning that the sample comprises individuals that may have zero virtuality as regards communication (so, they only communicate face-to-face) but most participants do use emails (up to 50% maximum communication time), chat (up to 96% communication time), teleconference (up to 60%) and videoconference (up to 62.5%). This is a varied sample which adds to the robustness of the data analysis.

Sociodemographic variables are found to have some cases of low magnitude correlations with the variables in the model. This is more visible in work experience where individuals with longer working years report lower levels of surface acting (r=-.337, p<.01) and deep acting (-.160, p<.05). Individuals working for longer also report lower levels of virtuality (r=-.187, p<.05) but they do report higher levels of citizenship behavior (r=.155, p<.05). There were no associations found neither for organizational size nor for the type of organization. Public service motivation is positively associated with person-organization fit (r=.454, p<.01) and also with citizenship behaviors (r=.580, p<.01) and deep acting (r=.369, p<.01). Person-organization fit is positively associated with deep acting also (r=.333, p<.01) but not with surface acting (r=.064, p>.05). Person-organization fit is also positively related with citizenship behaviors (r=.383, p<.01). Citizenship behaviors are positive associated with deep acting (r=.295, p<.01) but not with surface acting (r=.064, p>.05). Virtuality index is not associated with any of these variables, i.e. it has no significant correlation with public service motivation, person-organization fit, emotional labor, and citizenship behaviors which reinforces somehow its plausible moderator role.

Table 5.1 – Descriptive and bivariate statistics

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.	Gender	-	-	1										
2.	Age	1.78	1.16	-.095	1									
3.	Work Experience	2.06	1.36	-.092	.817**	1								
4.	Education	4.14	.52	.008	-.112	-.219**	1							
5.	Work Unit Nature	2.20	1.13	.106	.332**	.371**	.129	1						
6.	Organizat. Size	2.15	1.24	-.073	.072	.047	.221**	.333**	1					
7.	PSM	3.30	.70	-.032	.076	.032	-.005	.351	.029	1				
8.	P-O fit	3.56	.77	.225**	.089	.029	.031	.351	.049	.454**	1			
9.	Surface Acting	3.38	1.05	.003	-.321**	-.337**	.238**	.313	.038	.089	.064	1		
10.	Deep Acting	3.41	.97	.071	-.200**	-.160*	.166*	.272	.065	.369**	.333**	.568**	1	
11.	OCB5it	3.45	.72	.073	.120	.155*	.011	.330	.062	.580**	.383**	.064	.295**	1
12.	Virtuality Index	46.22	15.70	.127	-.156*	-.187*	.074	.888	-.046	.008	-.005	.049	.113	.035

*p<.05; **p<.01 For nominal variables, Phi coefficient and Cramer's V statistics are reported

5.2. Hypotheses testing

The first hypothesis stated an indirect effect between PSM to emotional labor via P-O fit, distinguishing between a negative effect towards surface acting (H1a) and a positive one towards deep acting (H1b). Findings reject the mediation towards surface acting (B=.052, t=.812, p=.417) but supports the mediation effect towards deep acting (B=.215, t=2.59, p=.01). This rejects H1a and supports H1b.

The second hypothesis also concerns indirect effects but established between P-O fit and OCB via emotional labor. Namely it splits into H2a concerning the indirect effect via surface acting, and H2b concerning the indirect effect via deep acting. The first one is not significant (B=-.003, t=.199, p=.842) while the second is significant (B=.078, t=2.047, p=.041). This rejects H2a and supports H2b.

The third hypothesis integrates the previous ones by establishing a sequential indirect effect now from PSM towards OCB via P-O fit and Emotional labor respectively. Again, due to the split between surface acting and deep acting, the hypothesis divides into two sub-hypotheses, namely through surface acting (H3a) and deep acting (H3b). Findings show the indirect significant effect through P-O fit is not significant when it crosses surface acting (B=-.001, t=.185, p=.427) but it is significant when it crosses deep acting (B=.038, t=1.800, p=.036). This rejects H3a and supports H3b.

Table 5.2 – Direct, indirect, and conditional effects

	Coefficient Dependent variable: P-O fit			Surface Acting			Deep Acting			OCB			
	Coeff.	t-stat.	p-value	Coeff.	t-stat.	p-value	Coeff.	t-stat.	p-value	Coeff.	t-stat.	p-value	
Direct effect													
Age	.079	1.114	.133	-.172	1.372	.085	-.257*	2.167	.015	-.023	.341	.367	
Education	.068	.752	.226	.363**	3.005	.002	.268*	2.166	.015	.015	.171	.432	
Work Experience	-.038	.631	.264	-.111	1.001	.157	.08	.879	.190	.108	1.609	.054	
PSM	.487**	4.809	.001										
POfit				.107	.882	.189	.441**	4.042	.001	.282**	2.871	.002	
EL Surface Act.										-.025	.328	.372	
EL Deep Acting.										.176*	2.043	.021	
Indirect effects													
PSM-POfit-SA				.052	.812	.209	H1a n.s.						
PSM-POfit-DA							.215**	2.59	.005	H1b sup.			
PSM-POfit-OCB										.137*	2.037	.021	
POfit-SA-OCB										-.003	.199	.421	H2a n.s.
POfit-DA-OCB										.078*	2.047	.041	H2b sup.
PSM-POfit-SA-OCB										-.001	.185	.427	H3a n.s.
PSM-POfit-DA-OCB										.038*	1.800	.036	H3b sup.
Conditional effects													
PSM-POfit / Virt	.012*	2.177	.015	H4 sup.									
PSM-POfit-SA-OCB / Virt										.001	.187	.426	H5a n.s.
PSM-POfit-DA-OCB / Virt										.001	1.393	.082	H5b n.s.
adjR^2	adjR^2=23.7%			adjR^2=15.8%			adjR^2=18.5%			adjR^2=21.2%			

*p<.05;**p<.01

The fourth hypothesis brought virtuality into the equation by stating its moderator effect on the first step of the mediation, i.e. between PSM and P-O fit. Findings support this claim by showing a positive interaction (B=.012, t=2.177, p=.015). Figure 1 depicts the specific interaction found.

Figure 5.1 – Virtuality*PSM in explaining P-O fit Interaction
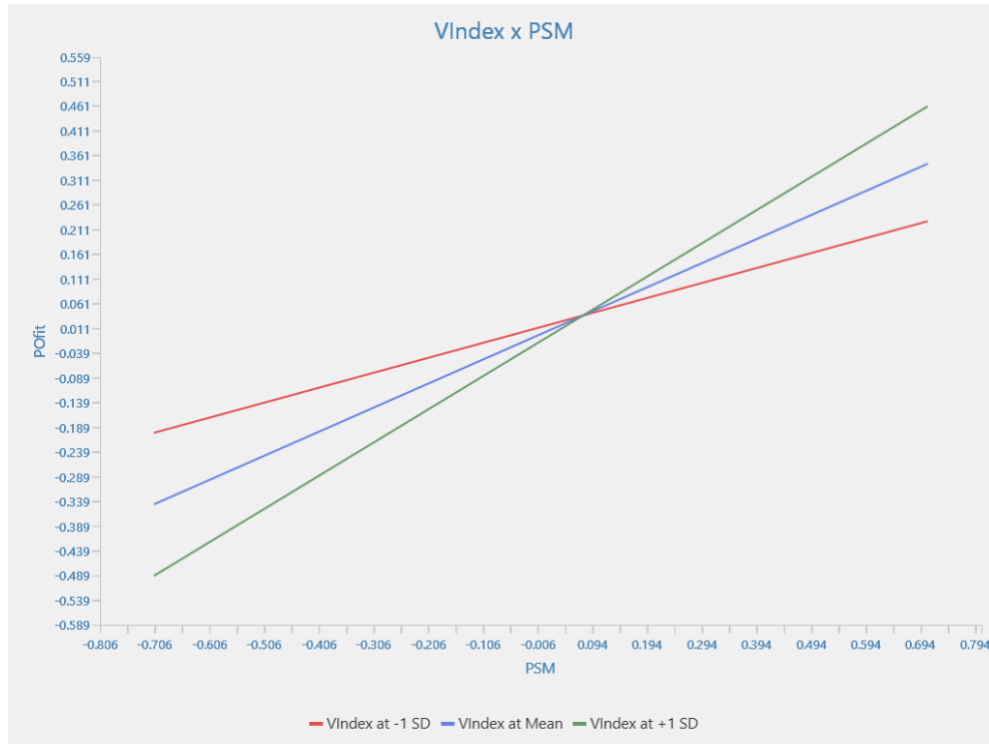
The interaction found shows that when workers experience high levels of virtuality (when they mostly digital channels to communicate), their PSM has an increased effect upon their P-O fit. This means that the positive effects of PSM on promoting higher perception of having a good fit with the organization are more experienced when workers have less in person experience in working with their teams. Conversely, those workers that use less the digital means to communicate, and resource to stronger face-to-face communication, have a weaker effect.

The fifth hypothesis established similar moderation effect but concerning the sequential moderation hypothesized before (H3). For the PSM->P-O fit->Surface Acting->OCB sequential mediation, there is no significant interaction found (B=.001, t=.187, p=.426) and the same occurs through deep acting (B=.001, t=1.393, p=.082). This rejects H5a and H5b, thus fully rejecting H5.

For clarity's sake the overall findings pertaining to the hypotheses are graphically depicted in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2 - Conceptual model coefficients
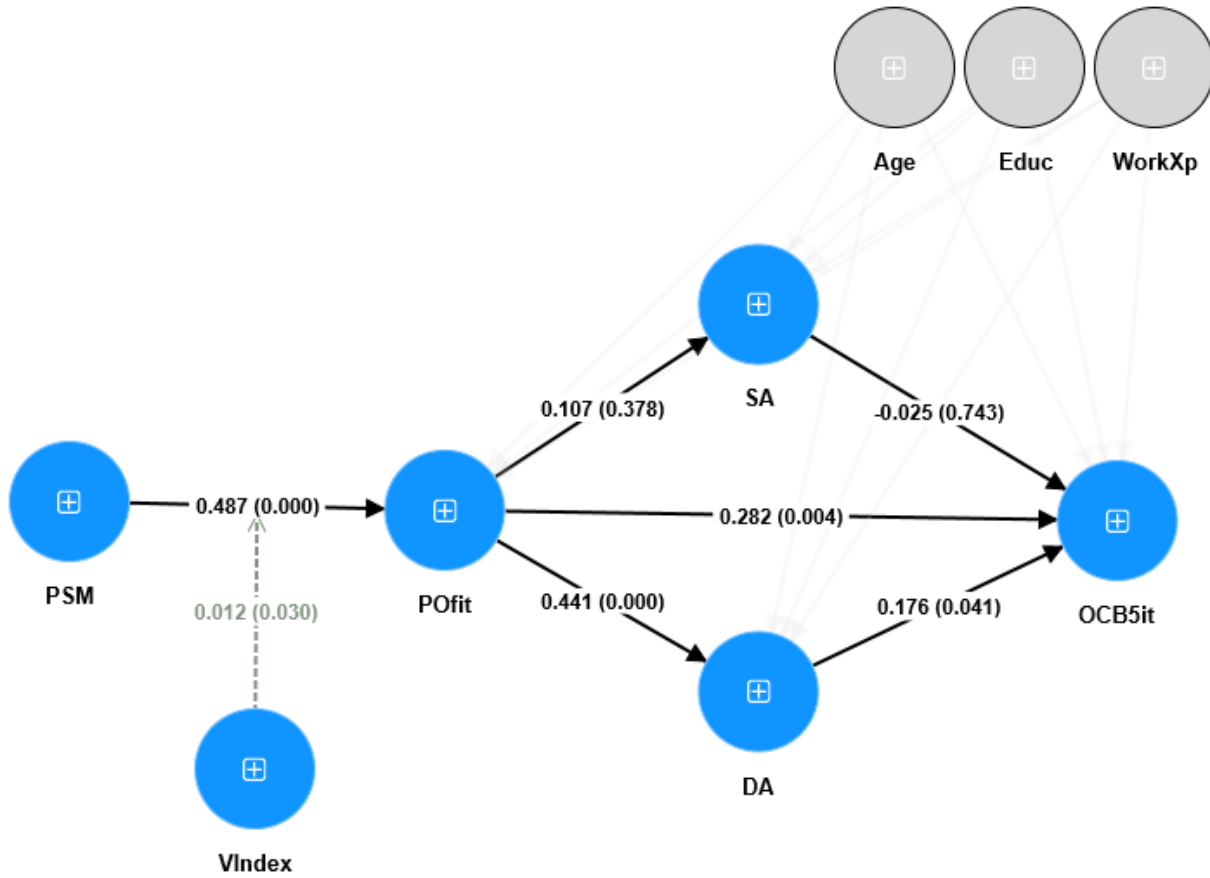
6. Discussion

This study builds upon a fragmented literature on PSM that has been showing separately positive outcomes related to emotional labor management, to better sense of person-organization fit, to other professional assets such as organizational citizenship behaviors. These variables have been integrate as found in studies that treat e.g. P-O fit as a mediator between antecedents and emotional labor or those that treat emotional labor also as a mediator between antecedents and OCB. This logically leads to extending the mediating processes towards a sequential mediation model that connects PSM to OCBs in a more robust fashion. Alongside this objective, it is impossible not to notice the changes that digital capacities brough into work settings, by allowing for telework. This modality of work can be merely a complement, taking a short time in the full work schedule of an employee, or it can become de only way of relating with the company. Still, its emergence in the world of work must be considered because the rules of communication, and the personal interactions that can produce a sense of belonging (e.g. a sense of having good P-O fit), change substantially. Consequently, this study intends to bring this virtuality into the equation by testing if it changes the sequential mediation proposed. It is, thus, a moderated sequential mediation model. Due to its complexity the model entails five hypotheses.

Before discussing findings pertaining to the hypotheses, it is worth to highlight relevant associations found between PSM and other structural variables, such as the type of organization. It was unexpected to find no significant associations for organizational type in relation to PSM. It would be reasonable to assume that PSM would be stronger in public sectors compared to private ones because PSM is commonly perceived to be more prevalent in the public sector compared to the private sector (Perry & Wise, 1990). This is attributed not only to the enhanced prospects for contributing to the public good within the public sector, but also to the initial attraction of individuals with high levels of PSM to the public sector. However, this association was not found in our study. This echoes other findings such as Andersen and Pallesen (2011) report that there was not empirical no difference in the general level of PSM between public and private sector, which is consistent with our findings. The divergence of findings in literature may be explained by studies having been conducted in different contexts and countries, and variations in occupation and job content are not fully considered. Still, in our sample PSM levels were not distinguished for participants that are working in Public sector or in Private sector.

As regards the first hypothesis, that stated P-O fit operates as a mediator between PSM and emotional labor, finding align with previous research that suggests individuals with higher levels of PSM are more likely to engage in deep acting strategies in order to align their emotions with organizational

expectations (Hsieh et al., 2021; Lam et al., 2018). This finding suggests that when employees perceive a strong fit between their own values and the values of the organization, they are more likely to take cognitive effort (as implied in deep acting) as a way to genuinely express emotions that are consistent with organizational norms, because P-O fit expresses such genuine value congruence (Ertas, 2019). This is also closely supported by social exchange theory, as individuals strive not only to be internally value-congruent, but also to be fair in their relationship with the organization and give back positively what the organization offers them also positively.

On the other hand, the lack of support for the mediation effect of P-O fit on surface acting suggests that P-O fit may not have a significant influence on the relationship between PSM and the use of surface acting strategies. This finding is not in line with previous research (Lam et al., 2018) that reported a negative effect of P-O fit on surface acting. Judging by SET, surface acting would indeed be a weaker way of returning to the organization positively. Still, it is reasonable to think that when employees are faking their emotions in order not to show negative ones, they may be adopting the wrong strategy (because it will bring them negative outcomes, Grandey, 2003, Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002) but they may still be trying not to harm their employer. So, surface acting can occur in high fitted employees (as a suboptimal way to repay their employer a sense of fit) but it can also occur in lowly fitted employees (just because they do not take the cognitive effort to act deeply). This is not an entirely new finding because previous research has also reported an absence of direct effect of P-O fit on surface acting (e.g. Lee et al., 2019). Due to the multiple reasons an employee can opt for reacting to negative or stressful situations by expressing fake emotions (i.e. surface acting) it is not very surprising to find such absence of effect. Still, looking to the entire hypothesis that takes P-O fit as a mediator, we can conclude that it is possible that this behavior is less influenced by the perceived fit between personal and organizational values and some other variables may modulate their direct effect.

The results provide empirical evidence that deep acting mediates the relationship between P-O fit and OCB, which suggests that individuals who perceive a high level of fit between themselves, and their organizations are more likely to engage in OCB through improving the inner emotional feelings to match the outer emotional expression required by the organization and engaging in sincere interactions with others. This finding is consistent with previous research that highlights the importance of deep acting as a mechanism through which individuals express their true feelings and emotions in the workplace (Grandey, 2003). Our findings validate the assumption made by Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) that engaging in emotional labor through expressing positive emotions may enhance interpersonal

interactions and effectively address interpersonal issues. In the contrast, the non-significant effect of surface acting as a mediator suggests that when people regulate their expression of emotions superficially without changing their real emotion experience, it does not significantly contribute to their OCB. It is not surprising since previous research also shows that surface acting has no effect on OCB (Cheung & Lun, 2015). Although there is also report of negative association (e.g. Yue et al., 2016).

As for H3, the results indicate that the indirect effect through P-O fit does not significantly contribute to OCB when surface acting is involved. However, when deep acting is considered, the indirect effect becomes significant. These findings suggest that the impact of P-O fit on OCB is contingent upon the type of emotional labor employees engage in. When employees improve their feelings to match the outer emotional expression required by the organization (deep acting), the alignment between their values, goals, and those of the organization (P-O fit) becomes more influential in promoting OCB. Conversely, when employees only superficially display emotions (surface acting), the effect of P-O fit on OCB diminishes. Considering the fact that surface and deep acting were found to be positively correlated in our sample, one can infer the possibility that individuals start by dealing with emotions superficially and then some will feel the need to go deeper and rethink meanings so to lower the emotional dissonance felt (Hsieh et al., 2012).

Regarding the fourth hypothesis, the results indicate that when employees experience high levels of virtuality, predominantly relying on digital channels for communication, their PSM has an amplified effect on their perception of P-O fit. This suggests that the positive impact of PSM in promoting a higher perception of fit with the organization is more pronounced for individuals who have less in-person experience working with their teams. These findings align with prior research that highlights the potential benefits of virtual work environments for individuals with high levels of PSM. Virtuality can provide people autonomy and flexibility (Kortsch et al., 2022), factors that are often valued by individuals with high levels of PSM (Kiyak & Karkin, 2022). In a virtual setting, employees may have increased control over their work and be able to align their tasks with their sense of public service, leading to a heightened perception of fit within the organization.

Moreover, the results suggest that individuals who rely less on digital communication, favoring face-to-face interaction instead, experience a weaker effect of PSM on P-O fit. This finding emphasizes the importance of considering the specific communication channels used within teams, as they can influence the relationship between PSM and P-O fit. Face-to-face communication may provide more cues for interpersonal connection and shared understanding, potentially leading to a stronger sense of fit for

workers who prioritize these interactions. From another perspective, the interaction found can be interpreted as highlighting the importance of PSM in work conditions that may disengage employees such as those that rely more on virtual communications. This means that PSM is an organizational asset that is more valued to count on employees OCB when organizations shift towards digitalization, such as telework.

Lastly, as an integrative hypothesis of the entire conceptual model, we aimed to investigate the sequential mediation effect of PSM on OCB through perceived P-O fit and emotional labor, and the potential moderating role of team virtuality in this process. But our findings did not support it. This suggests that, regardless of the level of virtuality, the relationships between PSM, P-O fit, Emotional labor, and OCB remain stable. Previous studies have shown that virtuality can impact various organizational and individual behaviors and outcomes (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Hunton & Norman, 2010). However, in the current study, team virtuality did not significantly moderate the sequential mediation process, indicating that its influence may be limited in the context. From another perspective, which we trust more, the moderated sequential mediation requires stronger associations between the variables to attain statistical significance. As the reported direct and indirect effects are significant but, jointly, they become weaker, we must infer that although such effects are suggested they are not sufficiently strong to be felt across the entire model. This points towards the limitations of the study. Firstly, the required sample size to detect these complex effects might need to be larger.

Another limitation concerns the profile of the sample. Because it is a nonrandomly generated sample, it cannot be taken as representative and its young age and recency in work settings may deviate from more experienced and mature workers. Still, to study virtuality as a main workplace shift, this young sample might be more suitable.

Another limitation concerns the cross-sectional nature of data collection. The conceptual model implies some sort of causal-effect relationships between variables and by collecting data simultaneously we cannot but have a cross-sectional view of such relations. Therefore, we cannot truly infer causality but rather a proxy of such. Likewise, when we collect data simultaneously, we are opening the doors to what have come to be known as common method variance, i.e. the correlations inflation due to the participants' need for being consistent in their answers while having both the memory of their previous answers as well as the ability to subjectively change their position due to the nature of the variables (Podsakoff, 2003). We took measures to counter this bias, namely we did not show in the questionnaire our variables sequenced as they would show up in the conceptual model, and we inserted several other variables in

between so to counter memory effects. Harman test discouraged inferences that common method variance played a role in our findings.

As for future studies, larger samples should be considered and a refinement in the focus might also bring added value. Namely by targeting more diverse age ranges and focusing specifically on e.g. young versus mature workers. Likewise, having larger samples specifically on private versus public organizations, could help understand to which extent there are idiosyncrasies due to the nature of organizations. Because pro-social OCB is directed mostly towards coworkers, future research may benefit from considering the team size because in smaller teams it is easier to build stronger personal ties and therefore, very large teams may dilute OCB and connoted predictors.

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