

DETERMINANTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AMONG
KNOWLEDGE WORKERS: THE ROLE OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS, JOB SATISFACTION,
AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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ABSTRACT

DETERMINANTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIORS AMONG KNOWLEDGE WORKERS: THE ROLE OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS, JOB SATISFACTION, AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has been an important and growing area of research for past two decades. Numerous empirical research have identified consequences and antecedents of this extra-role behavior. This study intends to analyze the influences of job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on OCB. Therefore, a comprehensive model that includes job characteristics, job satisfaction, affective commitment, normative commitment, and OCB at the same is constructed. The model employed by the current thesis proposes that job characteristics affect OCB through the mediations of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and normative commitment. In order to test the hypotheses regarding the relationship between the variables depicted, data was collected from knowledge workers, who do not work manually and perform well guarded skills that others outside the work do not have. The sample used in this study is composed of 225 knowledge workers from four different industries, such as Defense, IT-

Telecommunication, Software, and Banking. Data was collected through paper-pen based questionnaires and web based questionnaires.

The results of the current study indicated that while job satisfaction and affective commitment fully mediate the relationship between job characteristics and OCB, normative commitment partially mediates this relationship. This study is concluded with discussion of the results, implications for managers and human resource professionals, and directions for future research.

Keywords: Organizational citizenship behavior, job characteristics, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, affective commitment, normative commitment.

ÖZ

ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞIK DAVRANIŞLARININ BİLGİ ÇALIŞANLARI ARASINDAKİ BELİRLEYİCİLERİ: İŞ ÖZELLİKLERİ, İŞ DOYUMU VE ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIĞIN İŞLEVİ

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Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları konusu son yirmi yılın önemli bir araştırma alanıdır. Yazındaki mevcut birçok deneysel araştırma bu görev dışı davranışların sonuçları ve bu davranışa yol açan unsurları tespit etmiştir. Bu çalışma iş özellikleri, iş doyumunu ve örgütsel bağlılığın vatandaşlık davranışları üzerindeki etkisini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu nedenle, iş özellikleri, iş doyumunu, duygusal bağlılık ve normative bağlılık değişkenlerinin tümünü içeren bir model oluşturulmuştur. Bu model, iş özelliklerinin vatandaşlık davranışlarını iş doyumunu, duygusal bağlılık ve normative bağlılık aracılığı ile etkilediğini savunmaktadır. Bahsedilen değişkenler arasındaki hipotezleri test etmek için veri elle çalışmayan ve o iş dışındakilerin sahip olmadığı becerilere sahip olan bilgi çalışanlardan toplanmıştır. Bu çalışmada kullanılan örnekler 4 farklı sektöre faaliyet gösteren farklı şirketlerde çalışan 225 katılımcıdan oluşmaktadır. Bu çalışmaya Savunma, Bilişim-Telekommunikasyon, Yazılım ve

Bankacılık sekt6releri dahil edilmiřtir. Veri hem kitaık haline getirilen hem de internet tabanlı anket aracılıđı ile toplanmıřtır.

Bulgular iř doyumunu ve duygusal bađlılıđın iř 6zellikleri ve vatandařlık davranıřları arasındaki iliřkiye kusursuz olarak aracılık ettiklerini desteklerken normatif bađlılıđın s6z6 geen iliřkiye kısmi olarak aracılık ettiđini g6stermektedir. Bu alıřma bulguların kuramsal ve uygulamaya y6nelik yorumlanması, alıřmanın sınırlılıkları ve gelecek alıřmalara y6nelik 6nerilerle son bulmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: 6rg6tsel vatandařlık davranıřı, iř 6zellikleri, iř doyumunu, 6rg6tsel bađlılık, duygusal bađlılık, normative bađlılık

To My Parents

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ	vi
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	x
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Significance of the Study.....	3
1.1.1. Scope of the Study.....	4
1.1.2. Cultural Relevance.....	6
1.2. Ünüvar’s Doctoral Thesis.....	8
1.3. Research Questions.....	11
1.4. Organization of the Thesis.....	11
LITERATURE REVIEW	13
2.1. Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its roots and Related Frameworks	13
2.1.1. Criticism of the OCB Construct.....	15
2.1.2. Related Concepts.....	16
2.1.2.1. Prosocial Organizational Behavior.....	16
2.1.2.2. Organizational Spontaneity.....	17
2.1.2.3. Contextual Performance.....	18
2.1.2.4. Variations in Organizational Citizenship Dimensions.....	20
2.1.3. Organizational Citizenship Behavior as a Latent Construct.....	26
2.1.4. Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	28
2.1.4.1. Job Satisfaction.....	29
2.1.4.2. Organizational Commitment.....	31
2.1.4.3. Job Characteristics.....	38
THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES	46
3.1. Relationship between Job Characteristics and Job Satisfaction.....	47
3.2. Relationship between Job Characteristics and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	49
3.3. Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	51

3.4.	Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Job Characteristics and Organizational Citizenship Behavior	53
3.5.	Relationship between Job Characteristics and Organizational Commitment.....	54
3.6.	Relationship between Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	56
3.7.	Mediating Role of Organizational Commitment on the relationship between Job Characteristics and Organizational Citizenship Behavior	58
METHOD		60
4.1.	Sample and Procedure.....	60
4.2.	Measures.....	62
4.2.1.	Job Characteristics.....	63
4.2.2.	Job Satisfaction.....	64
4.2.3.	Organizational Commitment.....	65
4.2.4.	Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	66
4.2.5.	Demographic Variables.....	66
ANALYSIS OF THE DATA		68
5.1.	Data Screening.....	68
5.2.	Descriptive Statistics.....	69
5.3.	Determination of Control Variables.....	75
5.4.	Hypotheses Testing.....	76
5.5.	Summary.....	87
DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION		89
6.1.	Discussion.....	89
6.2.	Implications for Managers and Humans Resources Professionals.....	94
6.3.	Limitations.....	98
6.4.	Implications for Future Research.....	98
REFERENCES		101
APPENDICES.....		115
APPENDIX A. JOB DIAGNOSTIC SURVEY		115
APPENDIX B. GÖREV TANI ÖLÇEĞİ		118
APPENDIX C. MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE (MSQ).....		121
APPENDIX D. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE (OCS).....		125
APPENDIX E. ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK ÖLÇEĞİ.....		127
APPENDIX F. ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR SCALE (OCBS)		130
APPENDIX G. ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK DAVRANIŞI ÖLÇEĞİ.....		134
APPENDIX H. ARAŞTIRMA KİTAPÇIĞI		136

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 1 Cronbach Alpha for the Scales.....	63
Table 2 Descriptive Statistics of the Variables.....	70
Table 3 Demographic Characteristics of the Participants.....	71
Table 5 Standardized Regression Coefficients of the Control Variables Predicting the Dependent Variables	76
Table 6 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Job Scope on Job Satisfaction.....	77
Table 7 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Job Scope on OCB.....	78
Table 8 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Job Satisfaction on OCB.....	79
Table 9 Regression Analysis of Job Satisfaction Mediating Job Scope and OCB.....	80
Table 10 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Job Scope on Affective Commitment.....	81
Table 11 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Job Scope on Normative Commitment...82	
Table 12 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Affective Commitment on OCB.....	83
Table 13 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Normative Commitment on OCB.....	84
Table 14 Regression Analysis of Affective Commitment Mediating Job scope and OCB.85	
Table 15 Regression Analysis of Normative Commitment Mediating Job Scope and OCB relationship	86

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 1: The Job Characteristics Model	39
Figure 2: Formula of Motivating Potential Score.....	42
Figure 3: Proposed Relationship among Job Scope, Job Satisfaction, Affective Commitment, Normative Commitment, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior	47
Figure 4 Participants by their industries.....	62

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the industrial age the main concern of management was to find out ways to make manual workers more productive. Therefore, Taylor's scientific management system was very popular throughout the 20th century. The essence of this system was a strict top down hierarchy and strict minute division of labor with predetermined methods of doing each work (Warner, 1994, Caldari, 2007). Nevertheless, the hierarchical, bureaucratic organizational structures of the 1980s which were based on the rationale of mass production cannot meet the requirements of today's knowledge based economy. With the 21st century there was a major shift from an industrial age to a fully-fledged information-based age era (Teo, Lakhani, Brown, & Malmi, 2008, p. 683). Drucker (1994) summarizes the difference between our century and the 20th century as follows:

The most important, and indeed the truly unique, contribution of management in the 20th century was the fifty-fold increase in the productivity of the manual worker in manufacturing. The most important contribution management needs to make in the 21st century is similarly to increase the productivity of knowledge work and knowledge workers. The most valuable asset of a 20th century company was its production equipment. The most valuable asset of a 21st century institution will be its knowledge workers and their productivity.

The actors in today's knowledge-based economy have acknowledged that the firms with the highest degree and quality of knowledge work are the ones that grow very fast and create more profits. This means that today organizations' growth prospects highly depend on their knowledge workers because knowledge workers can produce the information, extract meaning from it, and create solutions and address complex problems accordingly (Davenport, 2005). Therefore, from an employment relations perspective, it is important to understand the factors that influence knowledge workers' performance.

More than four decades ago Katz (1964) identified two dimensions of individual performance: in-role and extra-role. According to Katz, in-role

performance behaviors are a set of limited number of assigned roles defined by organizational protocols. Such kind of behaviors are role specific and written in an individual's job description. Extra-role behaviors, on the other hand, are behaviors that are not prescribed by job descriptions and may be similar across jobs, and serve the accomplishment of organizational goals. Although defining specific roles for each job reduces human variability and increases predictability of the quality and quantity of the performance, individuals should be encouraged to engage in spontaneous and innovative behaviors that may help the organization to survive. Katz and Kahn (1966) stated that organizational well-functioning heavily depends on extra-role behaviors, therefore managers need employees who do more than what is described in the work contract. Specifically, managers look for Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs), which were described in 1988 by Organ as "discretionary behaviors, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in aggregate promote the effective functioning of the organization" (p.4). Such discretionary behaviors which are not specified by role prescriptions are vital for achieving organizational goals.

As Katz (1964) pointed out it is not possible for an organization to foresee all contingencies within its operations, or to anticipate environmental changes accurately, or to control human variability perfectly. Therefore, "an organization which depends solely upon its blueprints of prescribed behavior is a very fragile social system" (Katz, 1964, p.132). What is necessary for organizational survival and effectiveness is employees who contribute to organizational functioning by engaging in extra role behaviors such as helping a new co-worker or one that has heavy workload, voluntarily attending and actively participating in unit meetings, paying attention to self- development to become versatile and being flexible in terms of tasks that can be performed, and not complaining about petty problems.

Aggregated over time and persons, organizational citizenship behaviors become important since they facilitate the accomplishment of organizational goals and enhance organizational performance (Allen & Rush, 1998). Empirical research has shown that OCBs benefit the organizations in many ways such as

customer satisfaction, quality and quantity of the service or product, sales performance, customer complaints, and revenue (Karambayya, 1990; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998; Walz & Niehoff, 1996; Koys, 2001; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Podsakoff and associates (2006) defined certain ways by which OCBs may affect organizational performance. OCBs might enhance both coworker and managerial productivity. OCBs may also free up resources for more productive purposes and reduce the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions. Moreover, OCBs may serve as effective means of coordination activities between team members and across work groups. OCBs may also enhance the organization's ability to attract and retain the best people by making it a more attractive place to work. Additionally, OCBs may enhance the stability of organizational performance by reducing variability. Furthermore, OCBs may improve an organization's ability to adapt to environmental changes. Lastly, OCBs may enhance organizational effectiveness by creating social capital.

Admitting that knowledge workers are the main value creators of today's organizations and the organizations' success depends on their performance, identifying the variables that trigger engagement in OCBs among knowledge workers makes sense. Therefore, the present study aims to discover the variables that influence engagement in OCBs in knowledge workers.

1.1. Significance of the Study

This section discusses two ways in which the present study is significant. First, the scope of the study focuses on the variables whose relations with each other are examined. It reveals why job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are selected as the variables that affect OCB. Second, the cultural aspect of organizational behavior is discussed to clarify why the variables of this study (job characteristics, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, OCB) should be analyzed in Turkey. Besides, both the scope and cultural relevance of the study mention potential contributions of this study to the OCB literature.

1.1.1. Scope of the Study

Attitudes are feelings and beliefs of an individual that are “held with respect to some aspect of the individual’s world, such as another person, a physical object, a behavior, or a policy” (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977, p. 889). Irrespective of their status or intelligence, all people hold attitudes and they result in behaviors or actions. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are essential job-related attitudes that have been the focus of organizational behavior researchers. Job satisfaction is an attitude that reflects the extent an employee is gratified by his or her work (Griffin, 2006). It is one of the most researched topics of organizational behavior literature due to its strong relations with turnover intentions (Tett & Meyer, 1993) and OCBs (Organ & Ryan, 1995). As another important attitude, organizational commitment, refers to an individual’s attachment to his or her organization. Mowday and associates (1979) proposed that highly committed employees are more likely to devote energy on behalf of the organization. The meta-analysis of Mathieu and Zajac (1990) supported this proposal and revealed that lateness and turnover-rate were low and attendance was high among committed employees. The work of Meyer and Allen (1997) also showed that organizational commitment was strongly associated with OCBs.

Attitudes are influenced by personal and organizational factors. Organizational factors consist of attributes specific to the work itself (i.e., job design) and the organization (i.e., the working conditions, pay, tenure, the work group, and supervisor support). The main proposal of this thesis is that job characteristics (i.e., skill variety, task identity, task significance, feedback, and autonomy) lead employees to form positive or negative feelings and beliefs toward their jobs and organizations (e.g., job satisfaction and organizational commitment). As a result of these feelings and beliefs people engage in behaviors that affect the performance of an organization, here OCBs. The aim of this thesis is to investigate the influence of job characteristics on OCB through mediations of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Although there is no consistent conclusion on the relationship between job satisfaction and performance, the proposal regarding the effect of job satisfaction on performance regained respect when Organ (1988) introduced OCB as a form of performance. Henceforth job satisfaction has been investigated and found as a vital antecedent of OCB by many studies (e.g., Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Lapiere & Hackett, 2007; Organ & Lingl, 1995).

As another variable of this study organizational commitment has also been suggested as a robust antecedent of OCB (e.g., Becker and Kernan 2003; Riketta, 2008). However, most of the research which examines the association between organizational commitment and OCB focuses on just one dimension of organizational commitment, namely affective commitment (e.g., Morrison, 1994). According to Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002), the gap in the literature regarding normative commitment is due to the fact that its roots are embedded in culture and therefore the measurement of its antecedents are difficult. Although the meta-analysis of Meyer and associates (2002) revealed that normative commitment is a strong predictor of OCB, its importance is still underestimated. Hence, the current study includes both affective and normative organizational commitment.

In addition to this, as Randall (1993) pointed out, nearly all studies on organizational commitment have been conducted by using North American samples and have been limited to advanced industrial societies. Meyer and associates (2002) also supported this fact and stated that "... the number of studies conducted outside North America is still relatively small, and the number of studies from any particular country is smaller still" (p. 24). Therefore, conducting this study in Turkey will contribute to filling this gap.

Unlike the research on the relationship between OCB and job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the association between task characteristics and OCB has been underrepresented in the literature (Noblet, McWilliams, Teo, & Rodwell, 2006). Scant research on substitutes for leadership (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993; Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990) has examined this relationship.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) acknowledge the importance of task variables for OCB by stating that

Task variables also appear to be consistently related to a wide variety of organizational citizenship behaviors, although little attention has been given to them in the OCB literature. This is interesting because it suggests a whole new category of antecedents that has not been previously considered (p. 532).

Besides, although there are research that examined the association between affective organizational commitment and task characteristics, to the knowledge of the author there is no research that tested the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between task characteristics and OCB. Moreover, there is no research focusing on the effects of task characteristics on normative commitment. Therefore normative commitment has not been tested as the mediator of the relationship between task characteristics and OCB. In this sense, this study contributes to the literature on OCB, task characteristics and organizational commitment.

1.1.2. Cultural Relevance

Culture has been recognized as an important concept in explaining differences among research findings in the field of organizational behavior (Cohen, 2007). At the micro level, culture is attributed a central role while examining whether employee attitudes, behaviors, and values show differences among nations (Wasti, 1995).

Culture is the human-made part of the environment (Triandis, 1983). Kluckhohn (1951) defines culture as patterned ways of thinking, feeling, and reacting. According to Hofstede (2001)

Culture could be defined as the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence human group's response to its environment. Culture determines the uniqueness of a human group in the same way personality determines the uniqueness of an individual. (p. 10)

Culture is important for organizational behavior because it operates at such a deep level that people are not aware of its influence. This causes unexamined patterns of thought that seem so natural that many theorists of social behavior ignore the role of culture (Triandis, 1983, p. 139). Naturally, theorists develop theories in line with the society with which they are familiar.

However, these kinds of theories may be deficient and inappropriate for other cultures. A closer look at organizational behavior literature reveals that most of the models are developed in the United States (Cohen, 2007). As a result of the globalization of markets followed by the need for understanding the dynamics of employees' attitudes in non-US cultures, researchers felt the need to reexamine the models for their applicability and generalizability to other countries and cultures (Kwantes, 2003; Vandenberghe, Stinglhamber, Bentein, & Delhaise, 2001).

The organizational structure and behaviors that employees engage in are determined by certain characteristics of the society in which they exist. "National culture influences how members of groups think about what is proper, civilized behavior and influences how one acts toward strangers and colleagues, how one addresses others and how one interacts socially" (Bachrach, Wang, Bendoly, & Zhang, 2007, p. 257). In this sense, organizational citizenship behaviors, job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are influenced by the culture (i.e., norms, thoughts, values) of the society. For instance, the degree of power distance in a society influences the discretion level attributed to an employee. In societies with high power distance the hierarchal structure of the organization does not allow much autonomy. Moreover, it is found that the power distance is significantly related with continuance and normative commitment (Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000). So employees in such societies stay in their organizations because it is morally more appropriate to do so and there are side-bets associated with leaving the organization.

Similarly, whether a society is individualistic or collectivist determines the relationship between employees. Likewise, the antecedents of employee attitudes and behaviors may differ amongst countries and cultures. For instance, Kwantes (2003) found that of the three types of commitment (i.e., affective, normative, and continuance commitment) only affective commitment had a relation with OCB in the American sample, while affective and continuance commitment were significant in explaining OCB dimensions for the Indian sample.

As Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997) indicated 'we know little about citizenship behavior in a global context' (p. 421). The fact that the theories regarding job characteristics, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior were developed based on one culture constrains both the theories and solutions to the organizational problems (Aycan, Kanungo, Mendonca, Yu, Deller, Stahl, & Kurshid, 2000). Although OCB has been studied in depth, its applicability in other cultures than North America has not been studied extensively. The cultural context might encourage or discourage OCB-like behaviors or influence the conditions (i.e., organizational commitment) that stimulate OCB (Paine & Organ, 2000). Hence, one major aim of this thesis is to test applicability and generalizability of US based models to the Turkish organizations.

1.2. Ünüvar's Doctoral Thesis

A similar research that investigates the effects of job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on OCB by using the same instruments employed in the present study was conducted by Ünüvar (2006). In that thesis, 300 employees from 60 different companies from the two industrial zones of Ankara - Ostim and İvedik were selected as the sample. The majority of Ünüvar's doctoral thesis sample was composed of blue collar workers with 78% and the remaining were white collar workers. 39% of the employees were elementary school graduates, 44.5% were high school graduates. Moreover, there are two major occupation levels of the sample population. 52% of the sample population had physical effort intensive jobs and 42% of them had engineering and specialist occupations.

The hypotheses that were tested in Ünüvar's study are as follows:

H1: Job characteristics positively predict y organizational citizenship behaviors.

H2: Job characteristics positively predict job satisfaction.

H3: Job characteristics positively predict organizational commitment.

H4: Job satisfaction positively predicts organizational citizenship behaviors.

H5: Organizational commitment positively predicts organizational citizenship behaviors.

H6: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between job characteristics and organizational citizenship behaviors.

H7: Organizational commitment mediates the relationship between job characteristics and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Of the seven hypotheses the first hypothesis that proposes that job characteristics positively predict organizational citizenship behaviors was not supported. Thus, H6 and H7 were not tested due to the prerequisite to test mediation, which necessitated a significant relationship between job characteristics and OCB. The failure of job characteristics to predict OCB was attributed to certain circumstances. For instance, the fact that OCB might not have been conceptualized for the Turkish work context was proposed as a plausible explanation for the failure of proving the link between job characteristics and OCB. Moreover, OCB ratings were based on supervisor ratings, not employees, therefore, the responses to job characteristics and OCB did not correspond. Furthermore, the sample characteristics was proposed an outstanding reason for the failure to support the hypothesis related to the association between job characteristics and OCB. The reason behind this was the fact that most of the participants were blue collar workers (78%) and the tasks carried out were routine tasks that were not fully identified and lacked the ability to affect others' lives and provide feedback control over what they were doing. So the characteristics of the jobs did not enable the employees to experience psychological states that lead to OCB. For this reason Ünüvar suggested to test the effects of task characteristics on OCB by adapting different work settings. In order to answer this call of Ünüvar, the current study selected knowledge workers as the sample.

Knowledge workers broadly defined as employees that do not work manually are highly skilled workers that perform knowledge-intensive work. According to Barley (1996), knowledge workers perform esoteric and well

guarded skills that others outside the work do not have knowledge about. In addition to this, tasks include mental and analytical work and require either specialized undergraduate or graduate training. Knowledge workers “have high degrees of expertise, education, or experience, and the primary purpose of their job involves the creation, distribution or application of knowledge” (Davenport, 2005, p. 10).

Due to the nature of the work performed by knowledge workers, the characteristics of the jobs are expected to be different than that of blue collar workers in terms of the variety of skills performed (i.e., skill variety), the degree to which the job requires completion of a whole or recognizable piece of work (i.e., task identity), the degree to which the job affects other people’s lives (i.e., task significance), the degree to which the job let the employee be free while deciding on the order of procedures to be carried out and pace of the work (i.e., autonomy), and the degree to which the job provides clear information about performance of the employee (i.e., feedback).

According to Drucker (1999), unlike manual work, knowledge work does not program the worker. That is, the work to be done is always restricted and well-defined in manual work. However, this is not the case for knowledge work. For this reason the characteristics of the jobs carried out by manual workers are different from what is done by knowledge workers.

The basic assumption of this study is job related attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) are shaped as a result of perceived job characteristics. Therefore, it is expected that Ünüvar’s and the current study’s samples will differ in terms of job characteristics and thus job related attitudes. Hence, by adapting the same instruments to a different sample will provide us to acknowledge how knowledge and blue collar workers differ in terms of perceived job characteristics, work related attitudes, and OCB.

1.3. Research Questions

The present thesis focuses on the relationships among job characteristics, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. In this thesis the effects of job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) are investigated as well as the relationship of job characteristics with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The main objective of this thesis is to answer these two questions:

- 1) Are job characteristics significantly associated with OCB?
- 2) Do job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the relationship between job characteristics and OCB?

1.4. Organization of the Thesis

The significance and cultural relevance of the current study were discussed in the previous paragraphs. This chapter is followed by Chapter II in which a comprehensive literature review on OCB is presented. First, the emergence of OCB as an extra-role behavior and criticisms to the definition of this new concept are discussed. Second, related but different constructs of OCB such as prosocial organizational behavior, contextual performance, and organizational spontaneity are mentioned. Third, variations in OCB dimensions and their similarities are discussed. Fourth, OCB is discussed as a latent construct. In the last part of Chapter II, antecedents of OCB such as job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are presented.

In Chapter III, the proposed model and hypotheses are introduced and the rationale behind the hypotheses are discussed.

In Chapter IV the sample and method of investigation are introduced. This part includes measures of job characteristics, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and demographic variables that were employed in the current study.

In Chapter V, the data screening, descriptive statistics, demographic characteristics of the sample and determination of the control variables, and hypotheses testing are discussed and a summary of the results is provided.

The last chapter of this study presents the discussion of the results of the hypotheses, implications of the results for managers and human resource specialists are discussed. Moreover, the limitations of the current study and suggestions for future research are provided.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a comprehensive review on OCB, its dimensions, related concepts, and antecedents. In the first part of this chapter, the concept of OCB and its roots are discussed. This section is followed by the related concepts of OCB which are pervasive in the literature. In the next part, the dimensions of OCB are introduced. Moreover, the antecedents of OCB, specifically job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are introduced.

2.1. Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its Roots and Related Frameworks

It was 1983 when Bateman and Organ introduced the term “citizenship” as behaviors that lubricate the social machinery of the organization and labeled employees who engage in such behaviors as “good citizens” (p. 654) . Although the history of OCB is not very old, its roots can be traced back to Barnard (1938), who pointed out that in order to achieve organizational goals, employees should be willing to contribute efforts to the cooperative system. Katz (1964) and Katz and Kahn (1966) observed that constructive and cooperative behaviors beyond traditional job requirements are essential for the successful functioning of an organization as discussed in Lester, Meglino, and Korsgaard (2008).

Katz (1964) pointed out three basic types of behaviors that are important for an organization to survive and function well. According to Katz, people must be induced to enter and remain within the system, they must carry out their role assignments in a dependable fashion, and there must be innovative and spontaneous activity in achieving organizational objectives which go beyond the role specification. There may be situations, such as change in organizational environment, variability in human resource, and different conditions related to the operations, which cannot be foreseen by the organization and thus actions may not be taken against them. Therefore,

innovative and spontaneous behaviors are needed to overcome such circumstances and keep on functioning effectively. In order to highlight the importance of such behaviors he stated that “If the system were to follow the letter of the law according to job descriptions and protocol, it would soon grind a halt” (Katz, 1964, p. 133).

Smith and associates (1983) focused on the last type of behavior that Katz depicted as “innovative and spontaneous activity” and defined them as “actions not specified by role prescriptions which nevertheless facilitate the accomplishment of organizational goals” (Katz, 1964, p. 132). Five years after the introduction of the term OCB to the literature, Organ (1988) provided an expanded review of OCB and defined it as:

Individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person’s employment construct with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that, its omission is not generally understood as punishable (p. 4).

Organ (1988) went on by stating that:

Our definition of OCB requires that it not be directly or formally recompensed by the organization’s reward system... (Does this) mean that OCB must be limited to those gestures that are utterly and eternally lacking in any tangible return to the individual? ... Not necessarily. Over time a steady stream of OCB of different types ... could well determine the impression that an individual makes on a supervisor or on coworkers. That impression in turn could influence the recommendation by the boss for a salary increase or promotion. The important issue here is that such returns not be contractually guaranteed (p. 5).

So there are three essential characteristics of OCB which can be derived from this definition: First, OCB is discretionary in nature and goes far beyond the traditional requirements of the job (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Unlike the formal job description written in the contract between the employee and organization, the employee is not obliged to engage in OCBs; rather, showing such behaviors depends on the willingness of the employee and it is not induced by the direction of any supervisor. Second, OCB is not directly or

formally recognized by the reward system. Although engaging in such activities might facilitate some increase in salary or promotion by the recommendation of the boss, it cannot be guaranteed by the terms of the contract (Organ, 1997). Third, OCB in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization. Organ (1997) clarifies this characteristic by giving helping a co-worker as an example. He states that helping a coworker might result in a dysfunctional situation for the employee, but when lots of employees engage in such behavior repeatedly it will enhance organizational effectiveness.

2.1.1. Criticism of the OCB Construct

As mentioned in the previous paragraphs, there are three essential attributes of the OCB construct: discretionary, no formal rewards associated, and its contribution to organizational effectiveness. However, its discretionary and non-contractual reward attributes have become the target of critics (e.g., Morrison, 1994; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991).

Morrison (1994) criticized Organ's (1988) OCB definition on the basis of its emphasis on the discretionary characteristic. According to Morrison, employees may hold different views about their job responsibilities and may differ from each other while defining the boundary between what is in-role and extra-role behavior. That is, while coming to work early is an extra-role behavior for an employee, the other employee may see it as an in-role behavior. Therefore, engaging in OCB depends on how the employee defines his/her job. Morrison (1994) also reported that 18 out of 20 OCB items were perceived as in-role behaviors by the majority of the respondents of her study. Therefore, from Morrison's point of view, OCB is "ill-defined and varies from one employee to the next and between employees and supervisors" (p. 1561). Organ (1997) evaluated Morrison's criticism and concluded that like roles, jobs are changing due to downsizing, flattening, team-based and flexform organizations. Therefore, the definitions of jobs may be whatever is required in the workplace. For this reason, Organ (1997) preferred to avoid giving reference to extra-role behaviors.

Another criticism directed to the OCB construct is based on the issue of rewards. According to MacKenzie et al. (1991), some OCBs might be monetarily rewarded as if they are in-role performance elements. Organ (1997) admitted the correctness of these criticisms and concluded that “of the three essential conditions for OCB, we are left with one- that it contributes to organizational effectiveness” (p. 89). As a result, Organ (1997) redefined OCB “as contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance” without referring to the “extra-role”, “beyond the job” and “unrewarded by the system” characteristics of OCB (p. 91). Therefore, the current study follows the redefinition of OCB stated by Organ (1997).

2.1.2. Related Concepts

Many constructs that have similarities with OCB have been identified in the literature. This section presents an overall review on Prosocial Organizational Behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), Organizational Spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992), and Contextual Performance (Borman & Motowidlo 1993, 1997).

2.1.2.1. Prosocial Organizational Behavior

Prosocial behaviors represent a wide range of behaviors that serve the well-being of other people and the maintenance of social integrity (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Influenced by the work of Katz (1964), Brief and Motowidlo (1986) defined prosocial organizational behavior. According to Brief and Motowidlo, prosocial behavior is more comprehensive than innovative and spontaneous behaviors. They described prosocial organizational behaviors (POB) as “behaviors that are performed by a member of an organization that are directed toward an individual, group, or an organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role and performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed” (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986, p. 711). They have identified 13 specific kinds of POBs on the basis of three distinctions. POBs differ in terms of whether

they are functional or not, prescribed or not as a part of one's organizational role, and directed toward an individual or organizational target. The major difference with OCB is the fact that not all prosocial organizational behaviors are organizationally functional and serve the effectiveness of the organization. For example, speaking favorably about the organization is functional because it helps the organization to survive and achieve its goals. However, helping a co-worker to achieve a personal goal inconsistent with organizational objectives is dysfunctional despite its prosocial behavior aspect. In addition to this, prosocial behaviors may be role-prescribed or extra-role. Although role prescribed prosocial behaviors are generally functional, extra role prosocial behaviors are not always functional. In addition to this, POB is criticized because of the fact that it covers numerous behaviors and it does not restrict itself with behaviors that have direct or specific organizational relevance (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006).

2.1.2.2. Organizational Spontaneity

Derived from the work of Katz (1964), George and Brief (1992) defined organizational spontaneity (OS) as "extra-role behaviors that are performed voluntarily and that contribute to organizational effectiveness" (p. 331). They do not use the term spontaneity as impulsive acts, but as behaviors that are voluntary and enhance organizational effectiveness. Five forms of OS were defined as helping co-workers, protecting the organization, making constructive suggestions, developing oneself, and spreading goodwill.

Sharing supplies, calling attention to a potential error, and helping a co-worker with heavy workload are examples of helping behaviors which are spontaneous and in case of their absence serious problems emerge. Protecting the organization includes activities to protect or save life of the workers and property of the organization in case of emergency situations such as natural disasters. Making constructive suggestions was defined as all voluntary acts for creativity and innovation. Developing oneself includes voluntary activities like improving knowledge, skills, abilities which will in turn help the worker to be better at his job and contribute more to the organization. Spreading goodwill

was defined as voluntary contributions to organizational effectiveness by presenting one's organization as supportive or presenting its services and goods as high quality.

OS has dimensions which are related to POB (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), OCB (Organ, 1988), and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Although there are certain overlaps among these constructs, they are not the same (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997). OS is related to but different from citizenship behavior in terms of its organizationally recognized reward system. OS is recognized by the formal reward system, whereas OCB is not directly (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

2.1.2.3. Contextual Performance

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) distinguished task performance and contextual performance from each other by defining task performance as "activities that are formally recognized as part of the jobs... activities that contribute to the organization's technical core either directly by implementing a part of its technological process, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services" (p. 73). According to Borman and Motowidlo (1993), task performance alone was not adequate for effective functioning of an organization. Instead, contextual performance which is "extra-technical proficiency components of behavior that contribute to organizational effectiveness by shaping the psychological and social context, in turn facilitating task activities and processes" was also necessary (Coleman & Borman, 2000, p. 25-26).

According to Borman and Motowidlo (1993), contextual performance (CP) and task performance differ from each other for three reasons. First, task activities depend on the job and therefore vary across jobs. However, contextual activities show similarity across jobs. Second, task activities are more role-prescribed when compared with contextual performance, therefore task activities are included in performance appraisal forms. Third, the two concepts differ in terms of their antecedents. While the antecedents of task performance are more related to cognitive ability, the antecedents of contextual performance

involve dispositional variables. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) provided evidence that support task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance and they both independently contribute to overall performance. Examples of contextual activities are volunteering to carry out tasks that are not included in the formal contract, and helping and cooperating with others to accomplish tasks.

What Borman and Motowidlo (1993) defined as CP blended many concepts in itself. Borman and Motowidlo benefited from Smith, Organ and Near's (1983) organizational citizenship behavior, Brief and Motowidlo's (1986) prosocial organizational behavior, and Organ's (1988) sportsmanship, and courtesy dimensions while defining contextual performance. In addition to these, Borman, and Motowidlo used the model of soldier effectiveness of Borman, Motowidlo, Rose, and Hanser's (1985). This model identifies performance constructs relevant to first-tour soldiers that are important for unit effectiveness. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) attempted to summarize all these concepts in five contextual performance dimensions which are persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort as necessary to complete own task activities successfully, volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of own job, helping and cooperating with others, following organizational rules and procedures, endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) attempted to improve the construct of contextual performance defined by Borman and Motowidlo (1993). They divided the concept into two subcategories: interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. Interpersonal facilitation refers to cooperative, considerate and helpful behaviors that assist co-workers' performance and are performed to accomplish an organizational goal. Job dedication consists of self-disciplined, motivated behaviors such as working hard, taking initiative to solve a problem at work, and following rules to support organizational objectives.

Although Organ (1997) acknowledges the overlapping of the dimensions of contextual performance and OCB, Organ and his colleagues

(2006) insist on the fact that the definition of contextual performance is vague. What is meant by the phrase “support the social and psychological environment” is not clear and it may cause problems while studying with other cultures than US. For instance, Chinese managers value harmony in the workplace which promotes social environment, but such behaviors do not necessarily lead to organizational effectiveness. Therefore, although Organ (1997) revised his definition of OCB in line with contextual performance by not referring to the reward system and extra-role behaviors, he still emphasizes that the name (i. e. Contextual Performance) and the definition does not clearly embrace what is meant by OCB.

2.1.2.4. Variations in Organizational Citizenship Dimensions

Since the introduction of the term “organizational citizenship behavior” by Bateman and Organ (1983), researchers have identified almost thirty different forms of OCB (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Pain, & Bachrach, 2000). In spite of the fact that OCB is a relatively recent concept, there have been several iterations in terms of definitions over the past 20 years (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007).

Although different labels have been used for the dimensions of OCB, there is an undeniable overlap among categorizations. The organization of this section is mainly drawn by following Podsakoff and associates’ review (2000) that discussed OCB by taking into account its related concepts such as organizational spontaneity (OP), prosocial organizational behavior (POB), and contextual performance (CB). In this context, Smith, Organ, and Near, (1983), Organ, (1988), Williams and Anderson (1991), Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994), Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000), and Coleman and Borman’s (2000) categorizations are discussed.

The original definition of OCB includes two dimensions: altruism and general compliance (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Altruism, which has been identified as an essential component of OCB by most of the researchers working in this field, refers to the “behaviors that directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face to face situations” (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983,

p. 657). General compliance, which was renamed by Organ (1988a) as conscientiousness, is more impersonal than altruism because it is not directed to a specific person but to the system. It mainly refers to compliance with internalized norms that define the behaviors of a good worker such as being punctual, making proper use of work time by not wasting time (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). After five years, in 1988, Organ improved the work of Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith and associates (1983) and identified five dimensions, three of which were new. These dimensions are altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, courtesy, and sportsmanship.

Altruism refers to voluntary actions that help another person with work related problem such as instructing a new hire on how to use equipment, helping a coworker catch up with a backlog of work.

Conscientiousness is a pattern of going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance.

Civic virtue is defined as constructive involvement in the political process of the organization and contribution to this process by expressing opinions, attending meetings, discussing with colleagues the issues of the day, and reading organizational communications such as mails for the well being of the organization.

Courtesy refers to the gestures that help others to prevent interpersonal problems from occurring, such as giving advance notice of the work schedule to someone who is in need, or consulting others before taking any actions that would affect them (Organ, 1990). The main idea of courtesy is avoiding actions that make colleagues' work harder and giving them enough notice to get prepared when you add to their loads. Leaving the copier or printer in good condition for other workers' use is an example of courtesy at work (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006)

Sportsmanship is defined as "a person's desire not to complain when experiencing the inevitable inconveniences and abuse generated in exercising a

professional activity” (Organ, 1990, p. 96). It refers to not complaining unnecessarily and being positive and tolerant towards difficulties that may be experienced in the workplace.

Based on the taxonomy of Organ, another conceptualization which divided OCB into two broad categories as organizational citizenship behavior-organizational (OCB-O) and organizational citizenship behavior-individual (OCB-I) was developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). OCB-O was defined as the behaviors that directly benefit the well-functioning of the organization as a whole. For instance, devoting extra effort for organizational performance such as working extra hours is related to OCB-O. Contrarily, OCB-I was defined as set of behaviors that directly benefit individuals but indirectly and ultimately benefit the organization. So, OCB-I indirectly affects organizational performance through its effect on other’s performances. Therefore, OCB-I is suggested to be more related to coworker relationship and friendship among coworkers (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007).

In this sense, OCB-O was matched with the general compliance and OCB-I with the altruism dimension of Smith, Organ, and Near (1983). However, Williams and Anderson (1991) disagreed with this match and pointed out that altruism and compliance terms were inadequate to reflect the implications about external rewards and did not comply with this new classification. That is, Williams and Andersen thought that altruism is viewed as behavior that occurs without any external rewards, compliance should be viewed as behavior that occurs because of expected reward or the avoidance of punishment, therefore their classification (i.e., OCB-I and OCB-O) was a better conceptualization when the external rewards issue is considered. Following Organ’s new five dimensions, OCB-O was considered to include sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness, and OCB-I to include altruism and courtesy (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Hoffman, Blair, Meria, & Woehr, 2007).

Based on Graham’s work (1991), Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) suggested a three-pillar model of OCB by extending political philosophy to organizational settings. They conceptualized OCB as a global concept that

consists of all positive organizationally relevant behaviors of individuals. They outlined three concepts to define OCB: obedience, loyalty, and participation. Organizational obedience, which overlaps with general compliance (Organ, 1988), was described as accepting the rules and regulations that are necessary for an organization to function and it included behaviors such as being punctual and work completion. Organizational loyalty was defined as “identification with and allegiance to organizational leaders and the organization as a whole, transcending the parochial interests of individuals, work groups and departments (Graham, 1991, p. 255). Lastly, attending nonrequired meetings, sharing information and opinions with coworkers, and being willing to deliver bad news were defined as behaviors that reflect organizational participation which corresponds to civic virtue (Organ, 1988) and protecting the organization (George & Brief, 1992).

Morrison (1994) identified OCB with five subcategories, namely altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, sportsmanship, involvement, and keeping oneself up. While the altruism dimension overlaps with Organ’s (1988) original altruism and courtesy dimensions, she narrowed the scope of sportsmanship. Her involvement dimension was defined as participation in organizational functions and overlaps with Organ’s sportsmanship and civic virtue. What is meant by keeping up is keeping informed about organizational events and changes and overlaps with civic virtue and conscientiousness of Organ (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002).

As discussed by Podsakoff and associates (2000), Moorman and Blakely (1995) conceptualized OCB with four dimensions: interpersonal helping, individual initiative, personal industry, and loyal boosterism. Interpersonal helping mainly refers to helping coworkers such as voluntarily helping new employees settle into the job. Individual initiative means communicating with coworkers to improve individual and group performance. Personal industry is performing extra tasks and making extra effort although it is not called for. Not missing work although there is a legitimate reason for doing so is a good example of this dimension. Like George and Brief’s (1992) spreading goodwill

concept, loyal boosterism refers to the promotion of the organizational image to outsiders (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) subcategories, interpersonal facilitation and job dedication, also share similarities with other categorizations. Interpersonal facilitation covers altruism and courtesy (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Organ, 1988) and helping coworkers (George & Brief 1992). Job dedication, on the other hand, corresponds to generalized compliance dimension of Organ (1988).

Podsakoff and his colleagues (2000) examined the various types of citizenship-like behaviors and developed a model that consists of seven dimensions which are helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self development. Helping behavior consists of two parts. The first part covers altruism (Organ, 1988, 1990b), interpersonal helping (Graham, 1989, Moorman & Blakely, 1995), OCB-I (Williams & Anderson, 1991), interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), and helping coworkers (George & Brief, 1992). The second part of the definition coincides with Organ's (1988) courtesy dimension, which involves helping others by taking steps to prevent the creation of problems for coworkers.

As opposed to Organ's definition (1990b), Podsakoff and associates (2000) enlarged the scope of sportsmanship.

For example, in our opinion, "good sports" are people who not only do not complain when they are inconvenienced by others, but also maintain a positive attitude even when things do not go their way, are not offended when others do not follow their suggestions, are willing to sacrifice their personal interest for the good of the work group, and do not take the rejection of their ideas personally (p. 517).

Organizational loyalty, which coincides with Graham's (1989) loyal boosterism and organizational loyalty, George and Brief's (1992) spreading goodwill, Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives dimension, means promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats.

Organizational compliance consists of Smith and coauthors' (1983) generalized compliance, Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch's (1994) organizational obedience, Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCB-O, Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) following organizational rules and procedures, and some features of Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) job dedication. According to this dimension, being a good citizen necessitates religiously obeying all rules and regulations.

Another dimension of Podsakoff and his colleagues' (2000) taxonomy, individual initiative, refers to employee's voluntarily working above and beyond the call of duty. It includes behaviors such as volunteering for extra responsibilities, and working with enthusiasm to complete the work. This dimension overlaps with conscientiousness (Organ, 1988), personal industry and individual initiative (Graham, 1989; Moorman & Blakely, 1995), making constructive suggestions (George & Brief, 1992), volunteering to carry out task activities, and persisting with enthusiasm (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997), and partially the job dedication dimension (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

Civic virtue, as another dimension, is based on Graham's (1991) discussion of responsibilities that an employee has as "citizens" of an organization. It corresponds to civic virtue (Organ, 1988, 1990b), organizational participation (Graham, 1989), and protecting the organization dimension (George & Brief, 1992). This dimension refers to "a person's recognition of being part of a larger whole in the same way that citizens are members of a country and accept the responsibilities which that entails" (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 525) and includes behaviors such as attending meetings, keeping up with changes that the work environment may face by trying to protect the company in case of dangerous situations such as fire.

The last dimension is labeled as self development and built on the works of Katz (1964) and George and Brief (1992). Trying to develop one's self through training and catching up with changes in one's field of work can be given as examples of self development.

Coleman and Borman (2000) built up a “three-dimension integrated model of citizenship performance” (p. 43) by comparing the previous models of OCB and other concepts related to OCB in terms of their similarities and variations (e.g., Smith et al., 1983; Organ, 1988; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; Van Dyne et al., 1994). They divided the model into three categories: interpersonal, organizational, and job/task citizenship performance. The interpersonal dimension, which refers to behaviors that benefit members of the organization, overlaps with OCB-I by Williams and Anderson (1991), social participation by Van Dyne and associates (1994), interpersonal facilitation of Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996), altruism and courtesy by Organ (1988), and partly the altruism of Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) and Morrison (1994). The second dimension, organizational citizenship performance, defined as behaviors that benefit the organization, represents the dimensions such as OCB-O by Williams and Anderson (1991), generalized compliance of Smith and colleagues (1983), the sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness by Organ (1988), sportsmanship, involvement, keeping up with changes and conscientiousness of Morrison (1994), the loyalty and obedience of Van Dyne and colleagues (1994), and the job dedication dimension of Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996). The third dimension, which is defined as behaviors that benefit the job/task, is aligned with functional participation of Van Dyne and associates (1994) and job dedication of Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996).

2.1.3. Organizational Citizenship Behavior as a Latent Construct

The previous section displayed various categorizations of OCB and the related concepts' dimensions, and diversification in terms of the jargon used to label the constructs. This study will follow the conceptualization of Organ (1988) which was redefined by Organ (1997), and the scale developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) to measure the five dimensions of OCB. Le Pine, Erez, and Johnson (2002) pointed out reasons why scholars use Organ's dimensions in their research. First, it has the longest history and Organ and his colleagues have produced various articles and book chapters on this issue. Second, Podsakoff and associates (1990) operationalized

Organ's dimensions and the OCB scales developed by them have been used in numerous empirical studies including contemporary ones (e.g. Haigh & Pfau, 2006; Torlak & Koc, 2007; Comeau & Griffith, 2005; Hui, Lee, & Rousseau, 2004).

However, although there is plentiful research conducted using the five dimensional model, there have been questions on the construct validity of OCB. LePine and associates (2002) conducted a meta analysis to evaluate the nature and dimensionality of OCB. They examined how the five dimensions of Organ (1988) are related to each other and other variables that have been suggested as the robust predictors of OCB (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, fairness, leader support, and conscientiousness).

According to LePine and colleagues (2002), if the dimensions of OCB are highly related to one another and there is no apparent difference in terms of their relations with the predictors, then the five dimensions would be equivalent indicators of OCB. Then OCB would be a latent variable and Organ's (1988) five dimensions should be thought as imperfect indicators of the same underlying construct. In this case, like personality, the casual arrow should be from OCB to its dimensions. If, on the other hand, the dimensions are part of the OCB construct, than as an aggregate construct OCB would be caused by five dimensions and these dimensions may be thought as deficient indicators of OCB.

The results of Lepine et al.'s (2002) meta-analysis suggested OCB as a latent construct because of strong relations between its dimensions, and no differences in relationships with attitudinal measures. For this reason the authors recommended researchers not to focus on the specific dimensions of OCB. However, according to Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, and Woehr (2007), one limitation of LePine et al. was that "they did not explicitly test a model in which OCB is represented as a single latent factor, nor did they examine the relation between an OCB latent factor and related attitudinal measures" (p. 556). Therefore, Hoffman and colleagues (2007) extended LePine et al.'s meta analysis by explicitly testing competing models of OCB using 112 studies with a

total sample size of 41,650. The results of the study supported a single factor model of OCB and supported the latent model of LePine et al. (2002). Based on this meta-analysis, recent research began to use OCB as a latent construct in their studies (e.g., Chen & Chiu, 2009; Chiu & Tsai, 2006; Huang, Jin, & Yang, 2004). Therefore, this study will treat OCB as a latent construct following the recommendations of Hoffman et al. (2007) and LePine et al. (2002).

2.1.4. Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

There are major groups of antecedents of OCB that have been emphasized in studies of different researchers: employee characteristics (i.e., attitudes and dispositions), task characteristics, organizational characteristics, and leadership behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Several researchers focused on employee attitudes and dispositions and leader supportiveness as antecedents of OCB (e.g. Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Organ, 1994; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994, Motowidlo & Boorman, 1998; and Neuman & Kickul, 1998). Characteristics of task and organization, on the other hand, were studied mostly in the literature on the subject of substitutes for leadership (e.g., Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005).

Employee attitudes are general affective “morale” factors. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are employee attitudes whose associations with OCB have been investigated most prominently. Task characteristics, on the other hand, refer to attributes of a job in terms of its ability to create intrinsic satisfaction depending on its ability to provide feedback, autonomy, completion of the task from beginning to end with visible outcome, usage of variety of skills, and the feeling of doing significant work that affects others’ lives. Although there are other antecedents of OCB (e.g., personality, organizational characteristics, and leadership behaviors), they will not be included in this study due to the fact that they are out of the scope of this

thesis. For this reason, this section will provide a review on theories of task characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

2.1.4.1. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has attracted a considerable amount of interest from researchers. It is one of the most studied concepts in the organizational behavior literature, and until the 1990's more than 12000 studies on job satisfaction were published (Ghazzawi, 2008). One of the reasons of this popularity is the belief that job satisfaction may affect a variety of behaviors and contribute to the well being of employees (Jones & George, 2008).

Locke (1995) defines a job "as combination of tasks, roles, responsibilities, relationships, benefits and rewards pertaining to a particular person in a particular organization" (p. 123). According to Locke (1995) and Taber and Alleger (1995), job satisfaction is based on judgments of all components of the job such as work itself, the colleagues, and organizational context. It also depends on the employee's dispositional traits. According to Locke and Weiss (2001), job satisfaction is "a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job; an affective reaction to one's job; and an attitude towards one's job" (p. 282). George and Jones (2008) define it as "the collection of feelings and beliefs the people have about their current jobs" (p. 54).

The classification of the antecedents of job satisfaction differs in the literature. For psychologists and management scholars the importance of the sources of job satisfaction varies significantly. Kreitner and Kinicki (2007) pointed out that "researchers estimate that 30% of an employee's job satisfaction is associated with dispositional and genetic components" (p. 212). Studies emphasizing the importance of individual innate dispositions have shown that job satisfaction is stable over time even though the employee changed his/her occupation and employer. By using longitudinal database, Staw and Ross (1985) found that job satisfaction was stable over a five year period of time even though the employees changed employers and occupations. Likewise, Steel and Rentsch (1997) did a longitudinal analysis and provided support for

Staw and Ross (1985). But Steel and Rentsch found that stability for employees working in similar jobs were higher than for those working in different jobs, which indicated the importance of both intrinsic sources (i.e., personality traits) and extrinsic sources (i.e., work characteristics and work environment).

Besides, there is research that highlights the importance of situational factors such as characteristics of the job, management practices, pay, tenure, work conditions, relations with coworkers, and opportunities that work provides. For example, intrinsically satisfying tasks, which provide a sense of responsibility, recognition, advancement, good supervision, flexibility, and job security improve job satisfaction while unfair treatment, unpleasant physical working conditions, and routine tasks reduce job satisfaction. In case of the absence of job satisfaction employee turnover and absenteeism may increase (Koys, 2001; Mossholder, Settoon, & Henagan, 2005).

The association between job satisfaction and OCB has been widely investigated in the literature and job satisfaction was suggested as a robust predictor of OCB (e.g., Bateman & Organ 1983; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990). Barnard (1938) suggested that willingness to cooperate and contribute to the cooperative systems is affected by satisfaction. Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) pointed out that to the extent job satisfaction represents a positive mood state, satisfied employees engage in citizenship behaviors. As a result of the study conducted by two samples from a university, Bateman and Organ (1983) found that the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB was considerably stronger than the results suggested by research that investigated the link between performance and job satisfaction. According to Bateman and Organ (1983), the weak relationship between job satisfaction and performance was due to the narrow definition of performance such as quality and quantity of the work done. By defining OCB as a performance type but more than just quantity and quality of the work, Bateman and Organ (1983) proposed a significant and strong link between OCB. Following this rationale, many researchers provided support for the influence of job satisfaction on OCB (e.g. Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Organ & Ryan,

1995). Although directional causality between job satisfaction and OCB is vague, there is a great deal of research that suggests significant positive relationship between OCB and job satisfaction.

2.1.4.2. Organizational Commitment

There have been different definitions and operationalizations of commitment. What is common for all the different definitions is the belief that commitment binds an employee to his/her organization and thus reduces the likelihood of turnover (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). An employee can be committed to his/her organization, occupation, job, supervisor, work itself, and workgroup (Cohen, 2007; Snape, Chan, & Redman, 2006). "Organizational commitment is defined as the relative strength of and individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Steers, 1977, p. 46).

The main reason why commitment has attracted so much interest from researchers is its association with job performance, absenteeism, and turnover. This is because committed employees are seen as productive and devoted members of the organization who are less likely to leave their organizations. For instance, the meta analysis conducted by Meyer and associates (2002) revealed that the three components of organization commitment (i. e. affective, normative, and continuance commitment) were negatively correlated with turnover. Committed employees are supposed to be loyal and productive. Desirable outcomes such as employee retention, job performance, attendance, work quantity, and personal sacrifice for the organization have been linked with commitment (Somers & Birnbaum, 1998). More generally, organizational commitment is favorable for the society due to the fact that it lowers job movements and provides higher productivity and work quality (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Organizational commitment has been researched with growing interest because of its relations with a variety of positive work outcomes. As a result of this growing interest, a large number of empirical studies investigated organizational commitment as a consequence and antecedent of other work-related concepts (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Although the operationalization and definition of organizational commitment may vary, the common point is the emphasis on the link between the employee and organization. The definitions of organizational commitment can be divided into two types: attitudinal and calculative. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) and Steers (1977) define organizational commitment by emphasizing the attitudinal character of the concept as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (p. 226). According to Porter, Lyman, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974), there are three factors that characterize organizational commitment: acceptance of and belief in organizational goals and values, willingness to exert effort for the organizational well-being, and a strong desire to remain with the organization.

The calculative form of the organizational commitment, on the other hand, is defined as “a structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual- organizational transactions and alterations in side-bets or investments over time” (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972, p. 556). According to this view, the motive that binds an individual to an organization is the sunk costs, investments that the individual made to himself and the organization. Despite the distinction between attitudinal and calculative organizational commitment, one should not ignore that both of them contain elements of the other one and employees may feel both type of the commitment at the same time with varying degrees. Moreover, these two processes may become more linked over time (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The involvement in and identification with an organization may affect the magnitude of the loss associated with leaving the organization.

O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) defined organizational commitment as “the psychological attachment felt by a person for the organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspective of the organization” (p. 493). O’Reilly and Chatman identified three independent foundations of psychological attachment. The first foundation, compliance, refers to the instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards. When compliance is present, employees adopt attitudes and

behaviors because of their expectation of specific rewards, not of shared beliefs. The second foundation, identification or involvement based on a need for affiliation, occurs when an employee is proud of being a member of that organization and respects its values and accomplishments without adopting them as his/her own. The third foundation, internalization, refers to involvement based on the correspondence between values of an employee and his/her organization.

Influenced by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), Allen and Meyer (1990) identified three components of organizational commitment which reflect different psychosocial states, each of which determines whether the employee will remain with the organization (Lee, Allen, Meyer, & Rhee, 2001). The study of Hackett and coauthors (1994) supported the existence of Allen and Meyer's (1990) three component model. The first dimension is termed as affective commitment. This dimension is based on Kanter (1968) who defined commitment as willingness to give energy and loyalty to the organization and "the attachment of an individual's fund of affectivity to the group" (p. 507). Allen and Meyer defined affective commitment as "affective and emotional attachment to the organization such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in, the organization" (p. 2). More comprehensively, Jaros and colleagues (1993) defined affective commitment as "the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an organization through feelings of loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, happiness, pleasure, and so on" (p. 954).

The second dimension, continuance commitment, utilizes Becker's (1960) "side-bet theory". According to this theory, the investments that an employee makes in an organization such as time, effort, skills developed for that position in the organization, relations built with co-workers are considered as sunk costs. The employee becomes unwilling to leave the organization because of the probability of sacrificing such side-bets by switching to another organization. As a result of the employee's evaluation of the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization and rewards with remaining as a

member of the organization (e.g. increases in pay, tenure, and social status), the employee continues in the same organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The last dimension is normative commitment. This component of commitment is based on the employee's belief about his/her responsibility to the organization. The employee feels that s/he is obliged to remain with the organization because of internalized normative pressures. It is argued that normative commitment develops on the basis of a particular kind of investment that the organizations make and are difficult for employees to reciprocate. The psychological contracts (i. e. the relationship between the employee and organization) between the organization and an employee may also result in the development of normative commitment.

Allen and Meyer (1990) summarized these three components and the differences among them as "Employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment because they need to, and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they ought to do so" (p. 3). Although organizational commitment was proposed to have three dimensions, the high correlation between affective and normative commitment raised questions about the dimensionality of commitment. However, the high correlation between these two dimensions should not be considered as unity. In a meta-analysis conducted by Meyer et al. (2002), it is found that affective and normative commitment are distinguishable dimensions. In spite of the fact that they show similar patterns of correlations with antecedents, correlates, and consequences, the magnitude of the correlations is different.

Likewise, Jaros and associates (1993, p. 953) also state that affective and normative commitment differ from each other because while affective commitment is more associated with willingness, the other one is about sense of duty, obligation, and not necessarily emotional attachment. Additionally, unlike continuance commitment, normative commitment is not tied to personal calculations of sunk costs or rewards associated with staying in the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) emphasized that employees can

experience these three psychological states in varying degrees. For instance, an employee may feel a strong obligation to stay due to his/her internalized norms, but may not feel attachment to the organization. Due to the differences of the three components of organizational commitment, it has been suggested that they have different antecedent variables. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) suggested that personal characteristics, work experiences, job characteristics, and structural characteristics are factors that influence affective attachment, whereas Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) suggested age, tenure, and career satisfaction as the antecedents of continuance commitment. Moreover, some personal characteristics, such as extraversion, agreeableness, and employee's internalization of socially-oriented values are proposed to affect normative commitment (Yao & Wang, 2008).

Continuance commitment, however, is more related with the magnitude and/or number of side-bets that an individual made and the lack of alternatives (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The more an employee devoted time, invested in the skills specific to that job in the organization and cannot be used in a different organization, the higher will be the employee's continuance commitment. Additionally, lack of alternatives increases the tendency of an employee to continue in the same organization. It is suggested that employees who have long organizational and dyad tenure, and who do not want to sacrifice benefits such as pension, and who are less educated with inadequate skills are more inclined to remain in the organization because of the possible costs and risks of being unemployed (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Lastly, normative commitment depends on the employee's personal experiences about his/her family and the societal norms that have shaped the individual and the norms that are built in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). If loyalty, long term employment for an organization are essential for the society and the family in which the employee has grown up, and the organization emphasizes its expectation of loyalty through organizational practices, the employee may not leave the organization due to these pressures (Meyer & Allen, 1997). While affective and continuance commitment are based on the individuals' association with their organizations, the roots of normative

commitment are both the interactions with the organization and cultural and familial socialization processes through which individuals learn the appropriateness of concepts such as loyalty, obligation, and self-interest (Gautam, Van Dick, Wagner, Upadhyay, & Davis, 2005, p. 306).

According to Steers (1977) there are three major antecedents of organizational commitment. First, personal-demographic variables such as need for achievement, age, tenure, and education may determine commitment. Additionally, job characteristics such as task identity, opportunities for social interaction and feedback provided are suggested to influence commitment (Wiener, 1982). Lastly, it is suggested that the nature and the quality of work experiences during the employee's tenure determine his/her organizational commitment. Related to work experiences, organizational dependability and trust and perceptions of personal importance and investments to the organization, and rewards provided by the organization are potential antecedents of commitment. The proposed outcomes are desire to remain, attendance, employee retention, and job performance. To test his model, Steers (1977) collected data from two separate organizations in different industries. The results of the study revealed that all proposed antecedents significantly predicted organizational commitment in varying degrees.

In a meta-analysis which employed 124 published studies with 48 variables and 174 independent samples, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found certain antecedents of organizational commitment. According to this meta-analysis age, sex, organizational tenure, and perceived competence were positively correlated, whereas education was negatively correlated with organizational commitment. Moreover, the results indicated the importance of sex by showing that women were more committed when compared with men. Besides, job characteristics such as skill variety and autonomy were found to predict organizational commitment. According to the results, both job characteristics had a positive effect on commitment with varying magnitudes of correlation. The positive effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment was also supported by the results. Moreover, the study provided

support for the positive effect of organizational commitment on employee attendance, decreased lateness and turnover intention.

Among the three organizational commitment types, affective commitment is the most desirable type of commitment for organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). As an important predictor of OCB, the link between affective organizational commitment and OCB has been examined in the literature. Its relations with performance, prosocial behaviors, and OCB has been widely studied (e.g., Becker & Kernan, 2003; Schappe, 1998; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Lavelle, Brockner, Konovsky, Price, Henley, Taneja, & Vinekar, 2008). In their meta-analysis, Organ and Ryan (1995) found strong correlations between affective commitment and two forms of OCB (i.e., altruism and generalized compliance). Meyer and colleagues (2002) also found strong correlations between OCB and affective commitment.

Another organizational commitment type, normative commitment, has been less examined when compared to affective commitment. Nevertheless, the importance of normative commitment has been acknowledged in both Western and non-Western contexts. Although the significance of normative commitment has been recognized, the research on this topic is still less than that on affective and continuance commitment. Socially constructed norms are more effective while predicting normative commitment. Therefore, normative commitment has its roots in culture. In collectivist cultures, normative commitment is expected to be an important predictor of organizational outcomes such as more engagement in OCBs and lower turnover intentions (Yao & Wang, 2008). For this reason, it has to be examined in Turkey due to her predominantly collectivist culture. The meta-analysis of Meyer and associates (2002) also showed that normative commitment is a strong predictor of both one-dimensional OCB and altruism and the general compliance dimensions in studies carried out with non-North American samples.

Continuance commitment, on the other hand, was found to be unrelated to OCB in the meta-analysis of Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993), Organ and Ryan (1995), and Meyer et al. (2002). Moreover studies in non-Western cultures

revealed no significant relationship between OCB and continuance commitment (e.g. Gautam, Van Dick, Wagner, Upadhyay, & Davis, 2005; Meyer, Stanley, Hersovitch, & Topolnysky, 2002). For this reason, continuance commitment is left out of the scope of this study.

2.1.4.3. Job Characteristics

Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Characteristics Theory is the best known model of job design. The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) has been the most widely cited model in the work design literature, and many other theoretical developments were based on or influenced by this model (De Varo, Li, & Brookshire, 2007). The JCM outlines the effects of job characteristics, such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback on employee outcomes such as satisfaction, performance, and motivation.

Job Characteristics Theory is mainly derived from the study of Turner and Lawrence (1965) which examined the relationship between certain objective attributes of tasks and employees' reaction to their work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 59). Hackman and Oldham extended the previous job characteristics theories and focused on the aspects of the job, which can be manipulated in order to create positive motivational incentives.

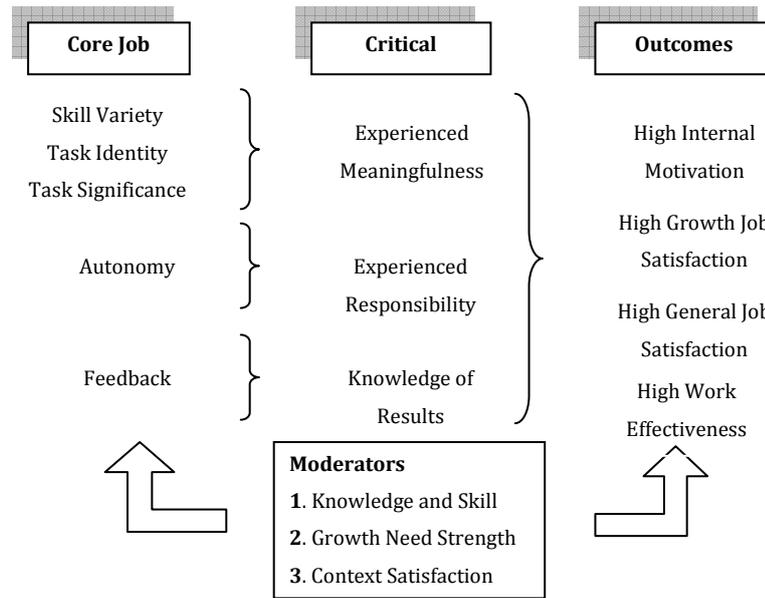


Figure 1: The Job Characteristics Model.

Source: Hackman and Oldham (1980, p. 90)

The Job Characteristics Model (JCM), illustrated in Figure 1, provides definitions of different job characteristics, psychological states, outcomes, and motivators (Boonzaier, Ficker, & Rust, 2001). The JCM argues that jobs high in scope affect psychological states which in turn lead to work outcomes such as internal work motivation, overall job satisfaction, growth satisfaction, work effectiveness, and absenteeism. According to the model, psychological states mediate the relationship between job characteristics and work outcomes. In addition to this, the model proposes that knowledge and skill, growth need strength, and “context” satisfaction moderate the relationship between job characteristics and work outcomes (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

According to JCM, there are three conditions, labeled as critical psychological states that must be present to assess the internal work motivation of an employee. These three conditions are experiencing meaningful work, feeling responsible for outcomes of the work, and having knowledge of the actual results of the work activities. To be internally motivated, one must

feel that the work done counts in one's own system of value, have knowledge about the results of his/her work, be responsible for the results of the work, and feel personal accountability for the outcomes of the work. In the absence of one of these factors the employee will not be internally motivated.

The model suggests that the psychological states mediate the relationship between five characteristics of a job and personal and work outcomes. Skill variety, task identity, and task significance contribute to the experienced meaningfulness of work while autonomy contributes to the experienced responsibility and feedback to the knowledge of the results of the work done. If the psychological states are present, then the person will be high in internal motivation, general satisfaction, growth satisfaction, and work effectiveness.

Skill variety is the degree to which a job provides opportunity to use various skills and talents while performing the job. Thus, the more skills a job requires and the more challenges that an employee faces during the work, the more meaningful will be the job. For instance, an employee whose job is to tighten screws is a good example of a job with low skill variety, because the job is routine and the only thing the employee does is tightening screws. Due to the fact that the work does not require any other skills the employee does not have to worry about investing in himself to do his job better. On the other hand, a secretary who arranges appointments, uses computer programs to keep records and take printouts, and edits formal letters, carries out a job with higher variety of skills when compared to an employee whose job is just tightening screws.

Task identity is the degree to which a job requires completion of a whole or recognizable piece of work. When an employee does the job from beginning to end s/he cares more about the job and this enhances the meaningfulness of the job. Therefore, an artisan whose job is making a complete violin finds his job more meaningful when compared to an employee who does just a piece of a piano to be assembled after all parts are completed by others' employees.

Task significance is the degree to which the job affects other people's lives. The meaning of the job is improved when what is being done will serve the psychological or physical well-being of others (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). An employee who assembles the seat belts to the cars knows that the quality of the job will affect someone's safety and health. Therefore this job is perceived more meaningful than a job which is irrelevant to others lives.

Autonomy is the degree to which the job provides discretion, freedom, independence to the individual in terms of selecting the work pace and deciding on the order of procedures while carrying out the job (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). When an employee is given the control of his job, the outcomes will be perceived as a result of his own effort or initiative rather than written procedures or instructions of a boss to be followed. Hence, when a job provides autonomy the employee feels personal responsibility for the achievements and failures experienced during the job.

Job feedback is the degree to which the job itself provides direct and clear information about how effectively one is performing (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). When a doctor sees the results of his treatment on a patient, or when a repairman fixes a machine and sees whether it is working or not, this means they get feedback from the activities carried out during the job not from another person such as a co-worker or a supervisor. This direct type of feedback enhances the knowledge of an employee about the results of his/her work.

Apart from the core job characteristics the overall job scope, which is an unweighted linear combination of variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback scores for the job, is a widely used variable while evaluating jobs. It is suggested that "enriched" jobs have high levels of the five core dimensions and this results in high scores of job scope (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Due to the fact that a job can be high on some characteristics and low on others, it is difficult to decide the aggregate effect of the characteristics on

internal motivation. For this reason, the model suggests a single index of Motivating Potential Score (MPS) that combines five core job characteristics.

$$\text{MPS} = \frac{(\text{Skill variety} + \text{Task identity} + \text{Task significance})}{3} \times \text{Autonomy} \times \text{Feedback}$$

Figure 2: Formula of Motivating Potential Score.

Source: Hackman and Oldham (1980, p. 81)

The formula, shown in Figure 2, depicts the overall impact of a job on worker's feelings and behaviors (Fried & Ferris, 1987). According to the formula, the effects of autonomy and feedback are substantial in determining a job's MPS, while skill variety, task identity, and task significance cannot contribute much to MPS. So, the job characteristics that enhance experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work and knowledge of the actual results of the work activities should be present for job to be internally motivating. Conversely, a low score on one job characteristic that contribute experienced meaningfulness (e.g. skill variety, task identity, and task significance) can be compensated by high score on another character assessing experienced meaningfulness. Hackman and Oldham (1980, p. 82) highlight that

The objective motivating potential of a job does not cause employees who work on that job to be internally motivated, to perform well, or to experience job satisfaction. Instead, a job that is high in motivating potential merely creates conditions such that if the jobholder performs well he or she is likely to experience a reinforcing state of affairs as a consequence.

This indicates that job characteristics only prepare the necessary conditions for internal motivation but at the end it depends on the worker. In addition to this, knowledge and skills, growth need strength and context satisfaction of an employee moderate the relationship between core job characteristics and outcomes such as high internal motivation, growth satisfaction, general job satisfaction, and work effectiveness.

The model suggests that employees' knowledge and skills should be taken into account when motivating potential of jobs are evaluated. For

instance, if a person is given highly motivating tasks and s/he has sufficient knowledge and skills to perform the tasks then s/he will experience positive feelings about the activities. However, if a person is given tasks that s/he is not able to perform due to the lack of knowledge and skills, s/he will be unhappy and dissatisfied because s/he does the job poorly. So for situations that an employee's skills and knowledge fit with the given tasks, the results will be high internal motivation and high satisfaction obtained from doing the job well (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Another point to be considered is growth-need-strength. When people have strong growth needs, they are in need of personal accomplishment, developing new skills, and improving their knowledge. They will willingly take advantage of the opportunities provided by the jobs which are high in motivating potential (Houkes, Janssen, de Jonge, & Nijhuis, 2001). So when the job is high in MPS the employee will experience positive feelings about the work, and do the job more effectively if his/her growth needs are high.

Satisfaction with work context such as pay, job security, colleagues, and supervisors, knowledge, skill will affect how individuals react to enriched jobs. An employee satisfied with the work context and also has high growth needs will benefit from the opportunities for personal accomplishment, whereas another one who is dissatisfied with the context and has low growth needs will not care about the opportunities provided. So like in the case of growth-need satisfaction, the personal and work outcomes depend on the MPS of the job and work context satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Fried and Ferris (1987) conducted a comprehensive and systematic review and conducted by using nearly 200 studies and found support for the proposed relationship between job characteristics and work outcomes. Among the five job characteristics, job feedback was found to be most strongly related with overall job satisfaction, skill variety with internal work motivation, and autonomy with growth satisfaction. Additionally, although it was meaningful, the effect of job characteristics on job performance and absenteeism was found to be weak. While task identity and job feedback had the strongest correlations

with performance, skill variety, autonomy, and job feedback had negative relations with absenteeism.

However, despite the support for the mediating effect of critical psychological states on the relationship between five job characteristics and personal outcomes (i.e., internal motivation, growth satisfaction, and overall satisfaction), the meta analysis of Fried and Ferris (1987) failed to confirm this effect for the relationship between job characteristics and work performance. Fried and Ferris (1987) found no improvement in the prediction ability of job characteristics when psychological states were included. Additionally, some studies found partial mediation unlike the full mediation suggestion of the model (Renn & Vanderberg, 1995); some reduced the number of three states to two (Fried & Ferris 1987).

Fried and Ferris (1987) also found inconsistent conclusions related to the effect of the growth-need theory. Furthermore, the moderation role of work environment characteristics such as pay, security, co-worker, and supervisor features was not fully supported (Boonzaier, Ficker, & Rust, 2001).

Although the history of the studies concerning work design is rich and long, its association with OCB has been ignored (Noblet, McWilliams, Teo, & Rodwell, 2006). Some research, albeit limited, tested the relationship between task characteristics (i.e., variety, feedback, autonomy, significance, and task identity) and OCB. Early studies which focused mainly on substitutes for leadership provided consistent results about the relationship between OCB and task characteristics (e.g. Podsakoff, Niehoff, Mackenzie, & Willams 1993; Podsakoff & Mackenzie 1995; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Bommer 1996; Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ 1990).

By conducting a study among employees of three major divisions of a public institution in Taiwan, Farh and associates (1990) tried to find out why leader behavior and task characteristics might account for the correlation between job satisfaction and OCB. They suggested that task characteristics should have a direct influence on OCB. The results of their study indicated that

task characteristics significantly improved the explained variance in altruism and compliance dimensions of OCB.

Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Bommer (1996) who based their research on Kerr and Jermier's (1978) model of "substitutes for leadership" tried to find out the effects of task characteristics on OCB. The outcome of the research revealed that while intrinsically satisfying tasks are positively related to altruism and sportsmanship, task routinization was negatively related to altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and courtesy. In addition to these findings, routine tasks were found to be negatively related and task feedback was found to be positively related to civic virtue.

In this study job characteristics are proposed to affect OCBs directly and indirectly, through the mediation of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and normative commitment. This section is followed by the chapter that discusses the hypotheses of the proposed model of this thesis.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has been an important and growing area of research for the past two decades. Numerous empirical studies have identified consequences and antecedents of this extra-role behavior. This study intends to analyze the influences of job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on OCB. Therefore, a comprehensive model that includes job characteristics, job satisfaction, affective commitment, normative commitment, and OCB at the same is constructed. As seen in Figure 3, this study examines the direct effects of job characteristics on OCB as well as the indirect effects of task characteristics through job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment.

Studies investigating the effects of job satisfaction and organizational commitment found both variables to be significant predictors of OCB (e.g. Organ & Ryan, 1995; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Although both job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been widely accepted antecedents of OCB the common practice in studies is using one variable and excluding the other (Schappe, 1998).

The integrative model is designed to test both the direct effects of the independent variables (i.e., job characteristics, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and normative commitment) and the indirect effects of job characteristics on OCB via job satisfaction and organizational commitment types. This model will enable us to ensure the relative strength of the variables' effects on OCB as well as the prediction ability of task characteristics on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.



Figure 3: Proposed Relationship among Job Scope, Job Satisfaction, Affective Commitment, Normative Commitment, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

3.1. Relationship between Job Characteristics and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was proposed as an important positive work outcome of the intrinsic job characteristics according to Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Characteristics Model. Jobs may create extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction. Extrinsic job satisfaction is related to pay, physical conditions of the organizational environment, human resources management policies and procedures, and interpersonal relationships, whereas intrinsic job satisfaction is related to qualitative aspects of work, such as creativity, ability utilization, development opportunities, and personal achievement (Markovits, Davis, & Van Dick, 2007). According to Salancik and Pfeffer's (1977) need-satisfaction model, jobs have stable and identifiable set of characteristics that are relevant to the needs of individuals. The model suggests that when the characteristics of a job match the needs of an individual then s/he will be satisfied and be motivated to perform the job. According to Tanriverdi (2008), when job characteristics comply with the expectations of an employee, s/he will be satisfied with his/her job because the prospects provided by the job meet the expectations of the employee.

The researchers have demonstrated that the best predictor of job satisfaction is the nature of the work itself, the extent to which a job is challenging, provides growth opportunities, immediate results of the activity, and the right to decide when and how to do the job and to the extent it necessitates the use of different skills and talents for variety of activities. Katz (1964) highlighted the importance of expressions of skills and talents of the individual and opportunities that the job provides. He summarizes the reason of why the job itself causes satisfaction as “The individual may find his work so interesting or so much the type of thing he really wants do that it would take a heavy inducement to shift to a job less congenial to his interests” (p. 134).

Pierce and Dunham (1976) concluded that task design is more strongly related to work satisfaction than any other affective behavioral or motivational variable. The research of Judge, Bono, and Locke (2000) also revealed that perceptions of job characteristics and job satisfaction were strongly related. Moreover, Griffin (1981), who intended to investigate the stability of individual perceptions of job characteristics and stability of individual reaction to these perceptions, found job characteristics (i.e., skill variety, autonomy, feedback, and identity) to be significantly and positively correlated with job satisfaction at both time one and time two (p. 107). Besides, James and Jones (1980) indicated that the more a job is perceived as challenging, autonomous, and important, the more satisfaction it provides. Furthermore, meta-analyses (e.g., Fried & Ferris, 1987; Spector, 1985; Stone, 1986) examined the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction. For instance, Fried and Ferris indicated that skill variety task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback were positively related to job satisfaction. Huang and Hsiao’s (2007) research also supported this view and revealed job characteristics to be the most important predictor of job satisfaction. The research of Huang and Van de Vliert (2003) that examined the relationship between intrinsic job characteristics and job satisfaction with moderating effects of country features (e.g., individualism-collectivism, national wealth, national social security system, power distance) also revealed that intrinsic job characteristics are positively related with job satisfaction in all type of countries. Lance (1991) also

supported that job characteristics were significantly associated with job satisfaction.

Based on these findings it is proposed that:

H1: Job characteristics are positively associated with job satisfaction.

3.2. Relationship between Job Characteristics and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Although there are numerous studies on the antecedents of OCB, the literature includes relatively few studies on the relationship between job characteristics and OCB (Chiu & Chen, 2005). Specifically, this relationship has been examined in the substitutes for leadership literature (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993; Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990).

Farh and colleagues' (1990) study on OCB has been the most relevant treatment of direct effect of task characteristics on OCB (Todd & Kent, 2006). They argued that to the extent that task characteristics stimulate intrinsic motivation, task variables should directly influence OCB. What is meant by intrinsic motivation is performing a task just for enjoyment without expecting any rewards. It refers to the time spent by the employee to carry out the task in the free-choice period, how well the task is liked, willingness to participate in the future experiments, and voluntary behaviors in an organization (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998, p. 530).

Farh and associates suggested two reasons for the direct effect of job characteristics on OCB. First, intrinsically motivating tasks create a sense of responsibility, one of the required psychological states that should be present (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Therefore, employee would feel personal accountability for important work outcomes, regardless of the job description expected due to the contractual relationship between the employee and the organization. Second, intrinsically motivating tasks enhance meaningfulness of

the work, another psychological state. This enhanced meaning of the job allows the employee to perceive the contextual importance of the job and realize the linkages among his/her colleagues in terms of interdependence (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990). As a result, employees who have intrinsically motivating tasks that create a feeling of personal responsibility and enhance the meaning of the work would show OCB and work in a way that serve the interests of their organization as a whole and help their coworkers. To illustrate, employees that assemble airplane gear are more likely to pay careful attention to their work because they are aware of the tragic consequences (Pearce & Gregersen, 1991). Therefore, employees engage in at least certain types of OCBs. Cardona, Lawrence, and Bentler (2004) also suggested that when employees perceive their work as helping their learning process and intrinsically motivating, they develop positive perceptions towards their works which increase feelings of responsibility and involvement as a result of which engagement in OCB increases.

The results of Farh and coauthors' (1990) research indicated that job characteristics significantly contributed to the prediction of the altruism and compliance dimensions of OCB by enhancing the explained variance. Besides, Podsakoff and colleagues (1996) provided support for the importance of job characteristics as determinants of OCB. They found that while routine tasks negatively influence all five dimensions of OCB (i.e., altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue) intrinsically satisfying tasks positively affect all OCB dimensions.

Organ and colleagues (2006) argued that the feedback provided by the task itself is most immediate, most accurate, the most self evaluation evoking and the most intrinsically motivating source of feedback. They suggested that task feedback would be closely related to helping others with work related problems, and making constructive suggestions about how to improve task performance. The research of Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, and Williams, (1993) reported positive correlation between task feedback altruism and conscientiousness. They also indicated that task routinization was negatively related to both of these dimensions. Chen and Chiu (2009), who measured OCB

by single dimensional instrument, found a significant relationship between job scope and OCB. Furthermore, other studies investigating the relationship between task characteristics and OCB such as Todd and Kent (2006) found support for the proposed relationship between task characteristics and OCB. Therefore, it is proposed that:

H2: Job characteristics are positively associated with OCB.

3.3. Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The debate on the relationship between satisfaction and performance has a long lasting history. In fact, as Bateman and Organ (1983) rightly pointed out, any notion that satisfaction “causes” performance is regarded as naive folk wisdom, not supportable by the empirical research (p. 587). The meta-analysis by Bowling (2007) also demonstrated that the casual relationship between job satisfaction and performance is spurious. However, Organ (1977) proposed that the lack of empirical support for such a relationship stems from the definition of performance. Prior research that investigated the link between satisfaction and performance failed because of measurement of wrong kind of performance (Moorman, 1993; Van Dick, Grojean, Christ, & Wieseke, 2006). Instead of traditional measures of performance of in-role performance, such as quality and quantity, discretionary extra-role performance such as OCBs should be focused in order to understand the relationship between work attitudes and performance. Organ (1988) suggested that job satisfaction and OCB were linked in a robust bond. Following Organ’s suggestion, the first attitude whose relationship with OCB investigated was job satisfaction (Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993).

According to Organ (1990), the basis of the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB is social exchange theory which states that when certain conditions are present people reciprocate those who benefit them. Blau (1964) suggested that the link between employee and organization is based on exchange relationship and he identified two types of exchange relationship:

social and economic. As cited by Coyle-Shapiro (2002) what is central to social exchange theory is the norm reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) according to which people feel obliged to respond positively to favorable treatment of others.

Social exchange theory emphasizes the socio-emotional aspects of the link between employee and organization, such as feelings of obligation and trust, whereas economic exchange emphasizes more tangible means of exchange such as pay and benefits (Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006; Song, Tsui, & Law 2009). Social exchange theory suggests that human interactions can be conceptualized as business transactions. People exchange resources by expecting to gain profits from these transactions. Reciprocity is seen as the key component of this exchange relationship in which both parties give resources to each other (Penner, Midili, & Kegelmeyer, 1997). In case of high quality social relationships employees are motivated to engage in behaviors that have favorable consequences for their organizations and they feel relational obligation to support their organization's wellbeing (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007). In case of when people are not able to reciprocate by working harder and producing more output, they tend to show OCBs. Thus when people are satisfied with their jobs, they will reciprocate with positive behaviors to benefit the organization.

Owing to the rationale that Organ (1977, 1988a) suggested for the relationship between satisfaction and OCB the "satisfaction causes performance" hypothesis gained respectability (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990). Based on this rationale, studies such as Bateman and Organ (1983), Smith and coauthors (1983), Organ and Lingl (1995) suggested that job satisfaction is strongly and positively related to OCB. Williams and Anderson (1991), Lapierre and Hackett (2007), and Bowling (2010) also provided support for the positive effects of job satisfaction on OCB. The quantitative meta-analysis of Organ and Ryan (1995) and of Judge and colleagues (2001) also supported the positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. Another quantitative review by Hoffman and associates (2007) on OCB proposed that job satisfaction significantly accounted for the variation in OCB.

Following these findings it is proposed that:

H3: Job satisfaction is positively associated with OCB.

3.4. Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Job Characteristics and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In order to improve employee motivation and productivity Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed the Job Characteristics Model (JMC). In addition to the evidence provided by the meta analyses that support the positive relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction, the direct relationship between job characteristics and OCB was supported by several studies (e.g., Farh Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Bommer, 1996).

As proposed by JMC, job satisfaction is one of the positive consequences of enriched jobs. Job characteristics that are intrinsically motivating and provide a sense of responsibility, sense of accomplishment, sense of serving to society, autonomy, and creativity satisfy employees intrinsically. That is, the satisfaction from such a job derives from the personal subjective perception which is not external and affected by other persons or the reward system, promotions, and organizational policy (Chiu & Chen, 2005). Similarly, job characteristics that intrinsically motivate the employee will improve engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. Because job characteristics cause an increase in the sense of responsibility and job significance which makes employees care for the needs and problems of the co-workers and their organization as a whole (Farh et al. 1990). Accordingly, it is logical to suggest that intrinsically motivating job characteristics lead to employee satisfaction, which in turn triggers the display of OCBs. Organ and associates (2006) also supported a mediation model by stating that “tasks that possess this property (intrinsically satisfying tasks) would be expected to influence OCB through their impact on employee satisfaction” (p. 110).

Following these suggestions, it is proposed that:

H4: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between job characteristics and OCB.

3.5. Relationship between Job Characteristics and Organizational Commitment

The literature examining the association between job characteristics and organizational commitment mainly focuses on affective commitment, in this sense research on normative commitment is very limited (e.g., Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999). Therefore, this study intends to fill this gap through focusing on both affective and normative commitment.

Job characteristics are a primary way of how individuals evaluate their relationship with their organizations (Cardona, Lawrence, & Bentler, 2004). To the extent the job provides autonomy, regular feedback, a sense of task completion, use a of variety of skills, and the ability to affect others' lives the employee can observe his/her own behavior and feel a sense of personal control and responsibility. The increase in a sense of personal control implies a person's belief on his/her ability to affect a change in a desired direction. This makes the employee to feel that s/he makes important contributions to the organization and this may in turn "fulfill a higher order desire to enhance perceptions of self-worth" (Allen & Meyer, 1997). As a result, the employee feels attachment to his/her organization (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994).

Allen and Meyer (1990) grouped the antecedents of organizational commitment into "those that satisfy employees' needs to feel comfortable in their relationship with the organization and to feel competent in the work-role" (p. 8). The rationale behind the impact of job characteristics on affective organizational commitment is that when the jobs are enriched, employees reciprocate by attachment to their organization because their psychological needs are satisfied (Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999). Otherwise, if employees leave their organizations, they may lose the opportunity to satisfy their needs (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009).

The sources of normative commitment are both the internalization of social values and interactions with the organization. It is argued that norm reciprocity affects development of normative commitment. Individuals who receive favorable treatment from their organizations may feel a moral and social obligation to reciprocate to the organization (Yao & Wang, 2008). Individuals take into account the characteristics of the tasks inherent in the job while giving employment decisions. However, certain task characteristics, such as autonomy or skill variety, that are not built-in the job may be provided to the employee by the organization or the leader (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994). In this situation, employees may be grateful for the favorable task characteristics which the organization provides and in turn reciprocate with increased commitment.

Although affective and normative commitment are distinct dimensions, the correlation between these dimensions is greater in studies conducted outside North America. This may suggest that the difference between “the desire and obligation is less distinct” in other societies than North America. Therefore, it is suggested that the positive experiences that cause affective commitment may also contribute to a feeling of obligation to reciprocate (Meyer, Stanley, Hersovitch, & Topolnysky, 2002). Therefore, positive work experiences such as jobs high in scope may contribute to normative commitment.

Steers (1977) divided potential antecedents of affective commitment into three main categories such as personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences. The results of Steers’ study indicated that jobs high in scope positively influence affective commitment. The meta-analysis of Mathieu and Zajac (1990) showed significant correlations between job scope and organizational commitment as an aggregate variable.

Similarly Glisson and Durick (1988), who conducted a study to investigate predictors of job satisfaction and commitment, provide support for the significant effects of job scope on affective commitment. Moreover, Huang and Hsiao (2007) found job characteristics as the strongest determinant of

affective organizational commitment. Besides, Eby and colleagues (1999) found autonomy, and feedback to be significantly and positively related with affective commitment. Additionally, Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf (1994) also found a strong correlation between job scope and affective organizational commitment. Besides, Liu and Norcio (2008) revealed that job scope was significant for determining affective commitment. The research of Gautam, Van Dick, and Wagner (2001) revealed that job scope had significant influence on normative commitment.

Given these empirical findings it is proposed that:

H5a: Job characteristics are positively associated with affective organizational commitment.

H5b: Job characteristics are positively associated with normative organizational commitment.

3.6. Relationship between Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Models suggested by Scholl (1981) and Wiener (1982) provided theoretical support for the relationship between OCB and organizational commitment. The model of Scholl advocated that a committed employee would continue a given course of action even when his/her expectations are not met (Kwantes, 2003). That is, when there is little expectation of formal rewards, commitment determines OCBs. Additionally, Wiener, who defined commitment as “the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organizational interests” (p. 418), proposed that commitment accounts for behaviors that reflect personal sacrifice serving the interests of the organizations and independent of punishment or reinforcement. Liu (2009) also suggests that “participating in voluntary behaviors such as OCB is a behavioral response to affective commitment” (p. 311). Angel and Perry (1981, p. 2) explain the link between affective commitment and OCB as

Willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and the belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals, in combination,

have implications for the member's motivation to produce for the organization – in accordance with explicit organizational mandates, as well as in terms of Katz's (1964) spontaneous and innovative behaviors.

As in the case of the relation between job satisfaction and OCB, social exchange theory is suggested to explain the nature of the relationship between organizational commitment and OCB. Employees evaluate the quality of the social exchange and respond accordingly. Employees who experience positive exchanges with the organization, job or the work group reciprocate with higher levels of commitment, both affective and normative, and this moves them to contribute to the organization in other ways, such as better performance (Cohen, 2003). Hence, to the extent the employing organization and its managerial applications imply goodwill and employees are pleased with their jobs, they respond to a 'good deed' with higher levels of affective and normative commitment to their organizations (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002).

Meyer and Allen (1997) suggested that employees with strong commitment are more likely to engage in OCB than those with weak commitment. The meta-analysis conducted by Organ and Ryan (1995) found organizational commitment to be significantly correlated with the altruism and compliance dimensions of OCB. The meta-analysis of Riketta (2008) that investigated whether job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment) cause performance found that affective organizational commitment has a weak but significant effect on performance (OCB). Another meta-analysis of Riketta (2002) found that organizational commitment was significantly related to extra-role behaviors.

Although the main motive of engaging in OCB because of high affective commitment is the desire to do so, it is the social, cultural, and contextual norms for normative commitment. Employees with high normative commitment are expected to engage OCBs because of the fulfillment of their obligation and their belief that it is right to do so. That is, moral factors may push employees to engage informal behaviors that contribute to the effectiveness of the organization (Cohen & Keren, 2008).

Similarly, Kwantes (2003) examining the relationship between three component model of Allen and Meyer (1990) and Moorman and Blakely's (1995) taxonomy of OCB (loyal boosterism, interpersonal helping, individual initiative and personal industry) within samples from India and USA, found that affective commitment significantly predicted OCBs. Becker and Kernan (2003) also provided support for the positive effect of affective commitment on certain dimensions of OCB (e.g., loyal boosterism). Besides, while examining the relative effects of procedural justice, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on OCB, Wasti (2002) supported that affective commitment is significantly and positively related to OCB. Van Scotter (2000) also found significant relationship between OCB and affective commitment. The study of Morrision (1994) supported that both affective and normative commitment are positively related to OCB. Moreover, Gautam and associates (2005) and Meyer and colleagues (2002) provided that affective and normative commitment significantly correlated with OCB.

Given these findings it is proposed that:

H6a: Affective organizational commitment is positively associated with OCB.

H6b: Normative organizational commitment is positively associated with OCB.

3.7. Mediating Role of Organizational Commitment on the relationship between Job Characteristics and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Job characteristics significantly determine OCBs to the extent jobs are intrinsically motivating and thus employees perform the task because they enjoy doing so (Farh et al., 1990). When the job is meaningful for the employee and creates a sense of responsibility employees tend to carry out OCBs because they know the importance of the consequences of their work and feel personally responsible to organization. According to Mathieu and Zajac (1990) when an employee is committed to his/her organization, s/he is more likely to

engage in extra role behaviors that lubricate the overall effectiveness of an organization. Social exchange theory and arguments of Scholl (1981) and Wiener (1982) have been utilized to explain the relationship between organizational commitment and OCB. Besides, when an employee works for an organization that provides him/her with the opportunity to satisfy his/her needs in terms of autonomy, feedback, use of variety of skills, task significance, and task completion, s/he will not want to quit the organization. Instead s/he will be loyal to the organization and internalize its values and make effort to achieve organizational goals.

Cardona, Lawrence, and Bentler (2004) proposed that individuals become more attached to their organizations by evaluating work exchange relationships and this increases the individuals' propensity to engage in OCB. That is, individuals evaluate their relationships with organizations through perceived job characteristics and become committed accordingly. Having depicted the nature of the relationships among OCB, job characteristics, and organizational commitment the study proposes a logical sequence in which task characteristics affect organizational commitment as a result of which employees engage in OCBs.

Hence this study proposes that:

H7a: Affective organizational commitment mediates the relationship between job characteristics and OCB.

H7b: Normative organizational commitment mediates the relationship between job characteristics and OCB.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

This chapter provides information about the method used in this study to test the relationship among job characteristics, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. The section covers the sample, data collection procedure, and measures used.

4.1. Sample and Procedure

Due to the fact that being a knowledge worker with at least a university degree is a limiting demographic variable of this study, the population was defined as university graduate knowledge workers. As the first phase of the field work, people from HR departments of some of the Defense and IT-Telecommunication companies located in Ankara and Istanbul were contacted with an email which included the aim of the work and attachment of the questionnaire. However, there were no positive returns. For this reason, only the companies where a contact person was found were short listed. As a result, the data for this study were collected from 15 different firms from 4 different industries such as the Defense (D), IT-Telecommunication (T), Software (S), and Banking (B). Among the 15 companies four of them operate in the defense industry, two of them in IT-telecommunication industry, two of them in software industry, and the remaining seven companies in banking industry. While the companies operating in Defense and Software industry are all located in Ankara, most of the banks have headquarters in Istanbul and many branches throughout Turkey. The IT-telecommunication companies are two of the best known, established companies operating in Turkey for many years. Their headquarters are located in Istanbul but they have offices in Ankara.

In this study data was collected through paper and pencil questionnaires and web-based questionnaires simultaneously. In both procedures participants were asked to rate themselves on each of the four scales. The questionnaires in Turkish were copied as a booklet. The booklet included the summary that informs the participant about the identity of the

researcher, contact information of the research coordinator, aim of the study, principle of confidentiality and voluntary participation, and the measures of job characteristics, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and demographic variables, and a suggestion part to be filled by the participant. These booklets and envelopes were delivered to the contact persons at the companies. Predicated on volunteerism, participants were asked to fill the questionnaires and put the booklet in an envelope associated with the booklets. In order not to distort the accuracy of the data and increase the participation rate, no name and job title of the participants were asked. Moreover, the use of the data for scientific purposes and strict confidentiality about anything revealing the identity of the participant were emphasized. This helped to ease the hesitation of participants and convinces them to participate to the survey.

As another way of collecting data, a web-based questionnaire was prepared in order to reach more participants from the industries depicted. Although the web-page included exactly the same items with the same order of the booklet, the name of the company the participant was working in was added to the questionnaire in order to learn the company and industry they belonged to. The web-page link (<http://www.oktac.com/istutumlarianketi>) was also delivered to the contact persons via email to be sent to more employees.

Most of the data were collected by distribution of the paper-based questionnaires to the contact persons of the companies located in Ankara. For telecommunication and banking industries data are collected from other cities as well via the webpage. The distribution of the participants per industry is illustrated by the pie chart (Chart 1). The pie chart shows the percentage of the participants for every industry as well as the number of the participants working for the companies that operate in the related industry. The representations of the industries in the sample of this study were as follows: Participants from the defense industry make up 17%; telecommunication 35%, software 23%, and banking 25% of the sample.

With the purpose of not revealing the identity of the firms they were represented by the initial letter of the industry to which they belong and a number discriminates the firm from others in the same industry. As a result, a total of 225 questionnaires were returned and 148 of these were collected by the paper based procedure, 77 of them were collected via the internet. 12 of the surveys collected via paper-pencil procedure did not answer at least one of the scales. For this reason prior to data entry these 12 surveys were left out of the study and this left 213 surveys for further analysis.

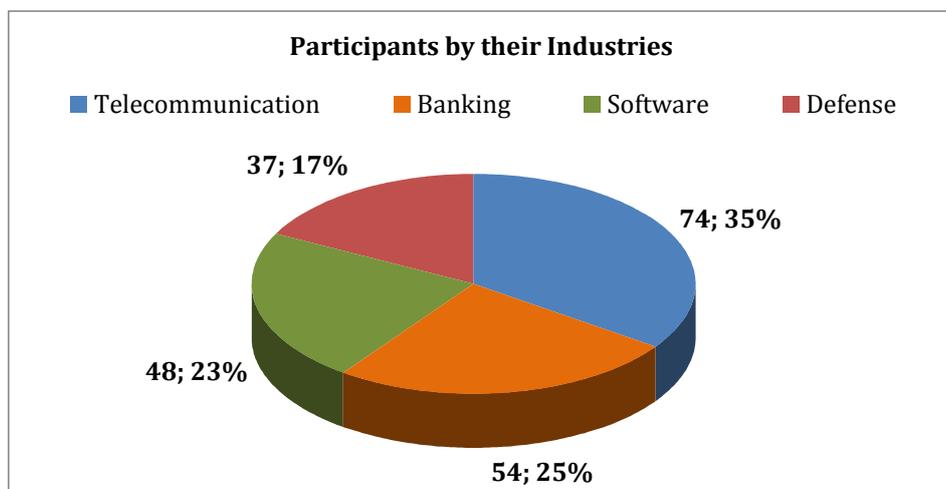


Figure 4 Participants by their industries

4.2. Measures

The aim of this thesis is to investigate the influence of job characteristics on OCBs through mediations of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This part introduces the measures that were used for this study.

The reliabilities of the five scales used in this study are given in Table 1. The alpha coefficients were as .81 for job scope, .91 for job satisfaction, .89 for affective commitment, .88 for normative commitment, and .83 for organizational citizenship behaviors.

Table 1 Cronbach Alpha for the Scales

Scale Name	Number of Items	α
Job Scope	15	.81
Job Satisfaction	24	.91
Affective Commitment	9	.89
Normative Commitment	14	.88
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	24	.83

4.2.1. Job Characteristics

The employee's perception of job characteristics was measured by Varoğlu's (1986) Turkish translation of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) which was developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980). The survey comprised two separate parts with 15 items and 5 subscales that measure core job characteristics including skill variety, task identity, task significance, feedback, and autonomy. Although the JDS was originally designed as a multidimensional measure, job characteristics were considered as an aggregate variable by some researchers in this area (e.g., Farh et al., 1990; Judge et al., 2000). Therefore, instead of using the core job characteristics separately, the mean of all 15 items was calculated to measure the overall score of a job in terms of all job characteristics to obtain a job scope rating.

There were two parts of the JDS. In both parts of the questionnaire the respondents were asked to rate items on a 5-point scale. In the first section of the scale, which consists of 5 items, respondents are asked to choose the appropriate answer that indicates the degree of presence of the job characteristics depicted in the item. Similarly, in the second part of the survey with 10 items, respondents are asked to rank the items on a 5-point scale according to degree of the accuracy of the statement in the item. The scale was designed as 1= "Very Inaccurate", 3= "Uncertain", 5= "Very Accurate". According to this, the maximum score of a participant on job characteristics can be 5 while the minimum can be 1. In the second part of the scale there are four reverse coded items (e.g., "The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or

judgment in carrying out the work”) which will be adjusted during the analysis of the data.

The subscales include 3 items for each core job characteristic (i.e., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback). The 15 items measure job scope when averaged. Rather than focusing on each core job characteristic separately, this study employs job scope to measure job characteristics. “Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing” is an example item from the scale. The internal consistency and reliability of job scope was .81 for this study.

4.2.2. Job Satisfaction

The job satisfaction level of each participant was measured by using Short Form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss, Davis, England, and Lofquist (1967) and back translated to Turkish by Tuncel (2000). The reason behind the selection of MSQ to measure job satisfaction was the fact that it consisted of items that measure both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. In addition to this, Organ and Konovsky (1989) and Moorman (1993) suggested that OCB is more strongly related to job satisfaction when the job satisfaction measure is cognitive based, such as in the MSQ, rather than affective based.

The questionnaire consists of 20 items and participants are expected to rate each of them on a 5-point Likert type scale according to their level of satisfaction with the related item. The 5-point scale is designed as 1 = “Very Dissatisfied”, 3= “Can’t Decide”, and 5 = “Very Satisfied”. The overall satisfaction level of each participant was measured by calculating mean scores of all 20 items in the questionnaire. According to this, the maximum score of a participant on satisfaction can be 5 while the minimum can be 1.

The internal consistency reliability of the scale was found to be .91 for this study. “The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities” is an example item from the scale.

4.2.3. Organizational Commitment

The original OCS was developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) and revised in 1993. It includes 18 items and 3 subscales, each of which measure different dimensions of organizational commitment (i.e., affective, normative, and continuance commitment scale).

In this study, the back translated Turkish version of Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed by Wasti (1999) was chosen to measure the organizational commitment levels of participants. Wasti (1999) pointed out that instruments which reflect Western conditions were translated and used in other cultures without giving much attention to the reliability or validity of the instrument in the new culture. She translated the scale from the original measure and added emic (often referred to as local) organizational commitment items that are specific for the Turkish context and dropped some of the original items.

Wasti's original scale consisted of 33 items in total. Only affective and normative commitment scales were relevant for the current study, therefore continuance commitment scale items were excluded. In order to obtain consistency among the scales used in this study, although both the original OC scale and Wasti's scale were based on 7-point scale, participants were asked to rate the items on 5-point scale which was designed as 1="Strongly Disagree", 3="Neither Agree nor Disagree", and 5= "Strongly Agree". The Cronbach alphas for affective and normative commitment were .89 and .88, respectively.

The scale measuring affective commitment consists of 9 items and "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization" is an example item in this scale.

The normative commitment scale consists of 14 items, "Even if the firm were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to switch to another employer" is an example item in this scale.

In both affective and normative commitment scales there are four reverse coded items in total (e.g., “I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization”) that are adjusted during data analysis.

4.2.4. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The OCB scale was adopted from Podsakoff and colleagues (1990) based on Organ’s (1988) five dimensional taxonomy. The back translation method was used to ensure that the scale was translated properly by Ünüvar (2006). While the scale was originally designed to measure the five subscales of OCB such as altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue, following the suggestion of Hoffman and associates (2007), OCB was considered as a latent construct and the average of all 24 items were calculated to measure OCB. Respondents are asked to rate the items on a five-point scale. The scale was designed as 1= “Very Inaccurate”, 3= “Uncertain”, 5= “Very Accurate”. “I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important” is an example from the scale. The scale includes four reverse coded items (i.e., “I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters”). The internal consistency reliability of the scale was found to be .83 for this study.

4.2.5. Demographic Variables

In the last part of the questionnaire , the participants were asked to respond to questions related to their date of birth, gender, educational background, occupation, a short description of their organizational tenure, and total work experience. Date of birth, gender, educational background, organizational tenure, and total work experience were among the potential control variables for the purpose of the study, while the remaining questions were asked with the intention of getting more information about the sample.

Research that investigated the impact of gender on OCB found men and women differ in terms of engaging in OCB (Allen & Rush, 2001; Deborah & McLean Parks , 2001; LePine & Van Dyne 1998). Moreover, while LePine and Van Dyne (1998) reported the effect of the educational level on OCB, Morrison (1994) showed a positive relationship with tenure. On the other hand, the

meta-analysis of Mathieu and Zajac (1990) revealed significant correlations between organizational commitment and age, sex, education, and organizational tenure. Furthermore variables such as age, tenure, education, and gender were found to be related to job satisfaction (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1990; Lok & Crawford, 2004). The effects on the demographic variables on the prediction and criterion variables should not be ignored. Their effects on the variables depicted in this study will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The study was conducted by a survey in the form of paper and pencil questionnaire and web-page. The accuracy of data entry, missing data, assumptions of multivariate analysis were examined for all relevant variables before conducting the analysis. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the effects of independent variables on dependent variables while controlling for certain demographic variables.

5.1. Data Screening

Prior to all analyses, in order to ensure accuracy of the data entered to SPSS, 40 questionnaires out of 213 questionnaires were randomly selected and compared with the data related to those questionnaires. In addition, accuracy by developing frequency tables. Every variable was checked and the tables related to the frequencies, and the maximum and minimum values for each item, which revealed no entry mistakes.

As the next steps, certain items of the scales were reversed (i.e., four items in JDS, four items in OCS, and four items in OCBS). Frequency tables for each item were checked to see whether the missing cases per variable exceeded 5%. As Tabachnick and Fidel (2007) suggest, when few data points (5% or less) are missing, almost any procedure to cope with the missing values ends up with similar results (p. 63). Therefore, missing values on demographic variables, gender and educational background, which were less than 1% for each case, were deleted, because substitution of these missing values on these two items was not logical. As a result 13 cases were excluded and 200 cases were left. As another step, missing values related to the scale items were analyzed like in the case of demographic variables. The results indicated that missing values which were below 1% (less than 5%) and completely random and scattered throughout different participants and items. Therefore the missing values were replaced by the relevant means. Additionally, the birth years of the participants were subtracted from 2009 to find the participants' ages.

After handling the missing values, both univariate and multivariate outliers were checked. The Mahalanobis Distance was calculated to find out multivariate outliers. The participant number was selected as dependent variable (DV) and job satisfaction, job scope, affective and normative commitment, and OCB were selected as independent variables (IV) in order to check multivariate outliers. $\chi^2 (5) = 20.515$ was taken as the cut-off point and no multivariate outliers was detected. For univariate outliers z scores were requested for each scale. 3.29 ($p < .001$) was the cut-off point and 2 values over this point were detected on the OCB scale. Nevertheless, the author was not conservative and these extreme values were not omitted.

Another step related to data screening was checking for normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity. Normality was assessed by checking the kurtosis and skewness values. It was seen that the kurtosis and skewness values of all the five variables, such as job satisfaction, job scope, affective and normative commitment, and OCB, were between -1 and +1. This indicated that the variables did not deviate from the normality assumption. Homoscedasticity is related to normality and when the normality assumption is met the relationship between the variables is said to be homoscedastic (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). To check the linearity assumption, regression analysis was performed and the scatter plot of residuals revealed that multivariate relationship was linear. The correlation matrix of the variables was investigated and no multicollinearity was detected.

5.2. Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics for the 200 participants left after data cleaning procedures are given in Table 2, 3, and 4. The level of job scope, job satisfaction, affective commitment, normative commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior were moderate to high according to the mean values of the sample, all of which were above the midpoint of the 5-point Likert scale. Besides, the standard deviations vary between 0.41 and 0.86. In order to detect whether working in an industry differed in terms of the mediators (job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment) and dependent variable (organizational

citizenship behavior) they were entered into SPSS by dummy coding. That is, belonging to an industry was coded as “1” and not belonging to that industry was coded as “0”.

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min.	Max.
	Valid				
1 Age (AGE)	200	30.28	5.28	21.00	52.00
2 Gender (GN)	200	-	-	1.00	2.00
3 Education (EDU)	200	2.39	0.51	2.00	4.00
4 Organizational Tenure in months (OT)	200	50.76	57.59	1.00	276.00
5 Total Tenure in months (TT)	200	80.61	65.12	1.00	348.00
6 Industry (IN)	200	-	-	1.00	4.00
7 Defense Industry (D_IN)	200	-	-	0.00	1.00
8 Telecommunication Industry (T_IN)	200	-	-	0.00	1.00
9 Software Industry (S_IN)	200	-	-	0.00	1.00
10 Banking Industry (B_IN)	200	-	-	0.00	1.00
11 Data Collection Method (M)	200	-	-	1.00	2.00
12 Job Scope (J_SCOPE)	200	3.80	0.54	2.07	4.93
13 Job Satisfaction (J_SAT)	200	3.63	0.61	1.95	4.95
14 Affective Commitment (AC)	200	3.47	0.86	1.00	5.00
15 Normative Commitment (NC)	200	3.03	0.75	1.29	4.93
16 Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB)	200	4.18	0.41	2.75	5.00

Notes: 5-point Likert type scales were used to measure job characteristics, job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment and organizational citizenship behavior items: 1= “Very Inaccurate” and 5= “Very Accurate” for job characteristics items. 1= “Very Dissatisfied” and 5 = “Very Satisfied” for job satisfaction items. 1= “Strongly Disagree” and 5= “Strongly Agree” for affective and normative organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior items. While age was measured in years. organizational and total tenures were measured in months. Gender: 1= “Female” and 2= “Male”. Education: 1= “High School”. 2= “University”. 3= “Master’s”. 4= “Doctorate”, and 5= “Other”. Industry: 1= “Defense”, 2= “Telecommunication and IT”, 3= “Software”, 4= “Banking”. For each industry dummy coding was used. For example, 0= “works in one of the industries other than Defense” 1= “works in Defense Industry”. Data Collection Method: 1= “Paperpen” and 2= “Internet”.

Table 3 Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Characteristics	Category	Frequency	%
Age	20-30	114	57.0
	31-40	76	38.0
	41-50	9	4.5
	Over 50	1	0.5
Gender	Female	67	33.5
	Male	133	66.5
Education	High School	0	0.0
	University	124	62.0
	Master's	74	37.0
	Doctorate	2	1.0
	Other	0	0.0
Organizational Tenure	60 months or less	141	70.5
	61-120	32	16.0
	121-180	16	8.0
	181-240	7	3.5
	above 240	4	2.0
Total Tenure	60 months and less	91	45.5
	61-120	56	28.0
	121-180	34	17.0
	181-240	11	5.5
	above 240	8	4.0

The descriptive statistics related to age, gender, education, organizational and total tenure of the 200 participants is given in detail in Table 3. Among the 200 employees 114 (57%) of them were within the range of 20-30, 76 (38%) employees within the range of 31-40, 9 (4.5%) of them within the range of 41-50, and only 1 employee's age was over 50. Therefore, it can be concluded that the majority of the participants (95%) were young and had an age between 20 - 40 years. In terms of the gender characteristics of the sample 67 were female and 133 were male, which constituted 33.5% and 66.5% of the

sample respectively. 124 (62%) of the employees who participated in this study were university graduates, while 74 (37%) of them had a master's degree and 2 (1%) of them had doctorate degree. When organizational tenure was investigated, it can be seen that 141 of the employees have been working for 60 months (5 years) and less; 32 of them had a tenure between 61 months and 120 months (10 years); 16 of them had a tenure between 121 and 180 months (15 years); 7 of them had a tenure between 181 and 240 months (10 years) and only 4 of them had been working for the company for more than 240 months. Finally, in terms of total tenure, 91 employees had a total tenure of 60 months and less; 56 of them had tenure between 61-120 months; 34 of them had tenure between 121-180 months; 11 of them had tenure between 181-240 months, and 8 employees had a total tenure of more than 240 months. These tenure values were in line with the average age of the sample, because most of the participants had organizational and total tenures of 60 months and less.

The correlation matrix illustrated by Table 4 shows the bivariate correlations between the variables of interest. The only correlation noteworthy is the one between affective and normative commitment which is .71. But this high correlation is in line with expectations. The meta-analysis of Meyer and coauthors (2002) showed that affective and normative commitment are distinguishable dimensions despite the high correlation between them. Moreover, in collectivist cultures this correlation is expected to be high. Other than this, the examination of the correlation matrix showed no multicollinearity because of the absence of bivariate correlations above .90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

When the association between demographic variables was considered, a significant relationship of age with job scope, affective commitment, normative commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior was detected. Organizational tenure was positively related to only job satisfaction, whereas total tenure was positively related to job scope, affective commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Besides, as expected, age was found to be positively correlated with organizational and total tenure. Another

demographic variable, gender, was significantly associated with job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior.

The investigation of the relationships among the job scope (IV), job satisfaction (mediator), affective commitment (mediator), normative commitment (mediator), and organizational citizenship behaviors (DV) revealed that job scope was significantly correlated with all of the three mediators and the DV. Moreover, job satisfaction was found to be positively related with the other mediators and the DV. The matrix also showed affective commitment's positive and significant association with normative commitment and OCB and normative commitment's significant and positive relation with OCB.

It should be noted that age, organizational tenure, and total tenure were intercorrelated variables. According to the correlation table, age was highly correlated with organizational tenure ($r = .67, p < .019$) and total tenure ($r = .88, p < .01$). Moreover, organizational tenure was significantly related to total tenure ($r = .75, p < .01$).

Table 4 Intercorrelation Matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 Age (AGE)															
2 Gender (GN)	-.07														
3 Education (EDU)	.02	.15*													
4 Organizational Tenure in months (OT)	.67***	-.20**	.01												
5 Total Tenure in months (TT)	.88***	-.11	.09	.75***											
6 Defense Industry (D_IN)	-.21**	.28***	.14*	-.02	-.14*										
7 Telecommunication Industry (T_IN)	.05	.15*	.16*	-.02	.06	-.34***									
8 Software Industry (S_IN)	.06	.01	-.14	-.24**	-.04	-.25***	-.37***								
9 Banking Industry (B_IN)	.08	-.41***	-.17*	.26***	.09	-.29***	-.43***	-.31***							
10 Process (PR)	-.03	-.00	.16*	.01	-.03	.05	.20**	-.39***	.11						
11 Job Scope (J_SCOPE)	.19**	.10	.13	.06	.23**	.01	.05	.18*	-.22**	.02					
12 Job Satisfaction (J_SAT)	.06	.18*	.02	-.15*	.03	.06	.08	.06	-.20**	.04	.61***				
13 Affective Commitment (AC)	.30***	-.08	-.06	.13	.25***	-.10	.14	.01	-.06	-.01	.43***	.57***			
14 Normative Commitment (NC)	.16*	-.07	-.01	.06	.12	.02	-.07	.04	.02	-.08	.22**	.32***	.71***		
15 Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB)	.15*	-.17*	-.15*	.10	.16*	-.09	-.06	.01	.13	.08	.18*	.24**	.41***	.25***	.1

*** Correlation is significant at $p < .001$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

5.3. Determination of Control Variables

In order to find out the variables that should be controlled for further analysis between the IV, mediators, and DV, all possible control variables were regarded as independent variables for the multiple regression equations. Each potential control variable was regressed on the mediators (job satisfaction, affective commitment, and normative commitment) and the dependent variable (OCB). The potential control variables were age, gender, education, organizational tenure, total tenure, working in a specific industry (defense, telecommunication, software, banking), and the method of collecting data. Due to the fact that job scope is the independent variable of the model it was not regressed on potential control variables except the data collection method. In order to assure the data on job scope did not differ according to the data collection method it was regressed on "Method".

The results are illustrated in Table 5. According to the results, age was significantly and positively associated with affective ($\beta = .30$) and normative commitment ($\beta = .16$) and organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = .15$). Gender was found to be significantly related to both job satisfaction ($\beta = .18$) and OCB ($\beta = -.17$). Education, on the other hand, was significantly and negatively associated with OCB ($\beta = -.15$). Moreover, organizational tenure had a significant and positive association with job satisfaction ($\beta = -.15$). Besides, total tenure was positively and significantly related to both affective commitment ($\beta = .24$) and OCB ($\beta = .16$). Additionally, it was seen that working in the banking industry differed from working in other industries in terms of job satisfaction ($\beta = -.20$). It was also revealed that the data collection method was not significantly associated with any of the variables such as job satisfaction, job satisfaction, affective commitment, normative commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. This means that collecting the data either by paper-pen or web based questionnaires did not affect the responses of the participants significantly.

To sum up, age, gender, education, organizational tenure and total tenure, and the banking industry dummy were the variables that had significant association with the mediators and dependent variable. Although age, organizational and total tenure were significantly related to the mediators (i.e., job satisfaction, affective commitment, and normative commitment) and the dependent variable (i.e., organizational

citizenship behavior), it should be noted that these three demographic variables were highly correlated with each other. Therefore, instead of selecting all of these three variables as control variables, selecting one of them on the basis of their associations' strength with the mediators and dependent variable was logical. Hence, in addition to gender, education, and banking industry, age was used as the control variable for the following analyses.

Table 5 Standardized Regression Coefficients of the Control Variables Predicting the Dependent Variables

	J_SCOPE	J_SAT	AC	NC	OCB
AGE	-	.06	.30***	.16*	.15*
GN	-	.18*	-.08	-.07	-.17*
EDU	-	.02	-.06	-.01	-.15*
OT	-	-.15*	.13	.06	.10
TT	-	.03	.24***	.12	.16*
D_IN	-	.06	-.10	.02	-.09
T_IN	-	.08	.14	-.07	-.06
S_IN	-	.06	.01	.04	.01
B_IN	-	-.20**	-.06	.02	.13
M	.02	.04	-.01	-.08	.08

*** Correlation is significant at $p < .001$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

5.4. Hypotheses Testing

The purpose of this study was to find out the effect of job characteristics on organizational citizenship behavior through the mediations of job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment. In the way that was suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), the first analysis would be a hierarchical regression with job scope and the mediators added separately (job satisfaction, affective commitment, and normative commitment). The second set of analysis would be hierarchical regression including job scope and the DV, here OCB. The last set of analysis would be between the mediators and organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 6 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Job Scope on Job Satisfaction

Variable	<i>R</i>²	<i>Adj. R</i>²	ΔR^2	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	β
Step 1	.06	.04	.06	4,195	2.98*	
Age						.08
Gender						.12
Education						-.02
Banking Industry						-.16*
Step 2	.40	.38	.34	5,194	25.7***	
Age						-.04
Gender						.12
Education						-.08
Banking Industry						-.03
Job Scope						.62***

*** Correlation is significant at $p < .001$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

Hypothesis 1 proposed that “Job characteristics are positively associated with job satisfaction”. In order to test this hypothesis, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted with two steps. In the first step job satisfaction was regressed on the control variables. According to the results illustrated in Table 6, the model is significant $F(4,195) = 2.98, p < .05$. The R^2 (.06) showed that 6% of variance in job satisfaction could be explained by the variance in control variables. The beta weight of banking industry ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$) proved that working in the banking industry decreases the level of job satisfaction. In the second step of the analysis job scope was added and the model was significant. The F value [(5,194) = 25.7, $p < .001$], R^2 (.40), and R^2 change (.34) highlighted the significant contribution of job scope to the prediction of job satisfaction. The standard coefficient ($\beta = .62, p < .001$) supported the impact of job scope on the prediction of job satisfaction and revealed that enriched jobs resulted in higher job satisfaction.

Table 7 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Job Scope on OCB

Variable	<i>R</i>²	<i>Adj. R</i>²	ΔR^2	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	β
Step 1	.07	.05	.07	4,195	3.58**	
Age						.14*
Gender						-.12
Education						-.13
Banking Industry						.05
Step 2	.11	.08	.04	5,194	4.65***	
Age						.10
Gender						-.13
Education						-.14*
Banking Industry						.09*
Job Scope						.21**

*** Correlation is significant at $p < .001$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

Hypothesis 2 proposed that “Job characteristics are positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior”. In order to test this hypothesis, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted by setting the control variables (age, gender, education, and banking industry) in the first block and job scope in the second block.

Table 7 shows the results of the analysis. According to this, the first model that examines the effects of control variables on OCB was significant with $F(4,195) = 3.58$, $p < .01$. This showed that the regression was significantly different from zero so the model was significant with $R^2 (.07)$ showing that 7% of the variation in OCB can be explained by the variation in control variables. The standard coefficient $\beta = .14$, $p < .05$ showed that age significantly predicted OCB and an increase in age will result in higher organization citizenship behavior. When job scope was added to the equation in the second step, the model was still significant with an $F(5,194) = 4.65$, $p < .001$ and $R^2 (.11)$ revealed that control variables and job scope were accounted for 11% of the variation in OCB. Besides, the R^2 change (.04) showed that job scope significantly contributed to the prediction of OCB and the standard coefficient $\beta = .21$, $p < .01$ showed that jobs high in scope resulted in the engagement in OCB.

Table 8 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Job Satisfaction on OCB

Variable	R^2	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	df	F	β
Step 1	.07	.05	.07	4,195	3.58**	
Age						.14*
Gender						-.12
Education						-.13
Banking Industry						.05
Step 2	.14	.12	.08	5,194	6.52***	
Age						.12
Gender						-.16*
Education						-.12
Banking Industry						.10
Job Satisfaction						.28***

*** Correlation is significant at $p < .001$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

Hypothesis 3 proposed that “Job satisfaction is positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior”. The result of the analysis related to this hypothesis was given in Table 8. In the initial step, the control variables’ ability to predict organizational citizenship behavior was tested as in the case of Hypothesis 1 and the model was found to be significant with $F(4,195) = 3.58, p < .01$ with $R^2 (.07)$. Age was the only variable that predicted OCB in this step ($\beta = .14, p < .05$). The addition of job satisfaction in the second step improved the model’s ability to predict on OCB $F(5,194) = 6.52, p < .001$ and an increase in explained variation ($\Delta R^2 = .08$). Moreover, the results indicated that job satisfaction significantly predicted OCB with $\beta = .28, p < .001$. According to the beta weight, an increase in job satisfaction resulted in higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 9 Regression Analysis of Job Satisfaction Mediating Job Scope and OCB

Relationship						
Variable	R^2	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	Df	F	β
Step 1	.07	.05	.07	4,195	3.58**	
Age						.14*
Gender						-.12
Education						-.13
Banking Industry						.05
Step 2	.15	.12	.08	6,193	5.47***	
Age						.11
Gender						-.16*
Education						-.12
Banking Industry						.10
Job Scope						.05
Job Satisfaction						.25**

*** Correlation is significant at $p < .001$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

Hypothesis 4 proposed that “Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between job characteristics and OCB”. Baron and Kenny (1986) stated that there are three conditions to test mediation. First, the independent variable (job scope) must affect the mediator (job satisfaction); second, the independent variable must affect the dependent variable (organizational citizenship behavior); and third, the mediator must affect the dependent variable (p. 1177). Tables 6, 7, and 8 summarize the results of the analysis required for the mediation. Having satisfied the conditions of mediation analysis, another regression analysis was conducted. In order to test the mediation model the first step included the control variables. In the second step, both job scope and job satisfaction were set as independent variables to predict organizational citizenship behavior.

The hierarchical regression results of Hypothesis 4 are shown in Table 9. The first model with control variables was significant with $F(4,195) = 3.58, p < .01$ and $R^2(.07)$. When both job scope and job satisfaction were added to the equation in the second step, the model was significant ($F(6,193) = 5.47, p < .001$) and the explained variance increased ($\Delta R^2 = .08$). In the second step, according to the standardized coefficients, job satisfaction significantly contributed to the prediction of organizational

citizenship behaviors ($\beta = .25, p < .01$), whereas job scope became insignificant and thus could not contribute to the prediction of organizational citizenship behavior. Baron and Kenny (1986) suggested that perfect or full mediation occurs when the independent variable (job scope) became insignificant and had no effect over the dependent variable (organizational citizenship behaviors) after the mediator (job satisfaction) was included in the model. In line with this suggestion, the results indicated that job satisfaction perfectly mediates the relationship between job scope and organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 10 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Job Scope on Affective Commitment

Variable	R^2	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	Df	F	β
Step 1	.12	.10	.12	4,195	6.37***	
Age						.31***
Gender						-.11
Education						-.08
Banking Industry						-.14
Step 2	.26	.24	.14	5,194	13.56***	
Age						.23***
Gender						-.12
Education						-.11
Banking Industry						-.06
Job Scope						.40***

*** Correlation is significant at $p < .001$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

Hypothesis 5a stated that “Job characteristics are positively associated with affective commitment”. Hierarchical regression with two steps was carried out to test this hypothesis and the results are given in Table 10. In the first step, affective commitment was regressed on control variables and in the second step job scope was added to the model.

Table 10 showed that the model was significant with $F(4,195) = 6.37, p < .001$. $R^2 (.12)$ proved that 12% of the variation in affective commitment could be explained by the variation in control variables and age was the only significant predictor of affective commitment with $\beta = .31, p < .001$. When job scope was added to the equation, the model was significant with $F(5,194) = 13.56, p < .001$ and job scope significantly

contributed to the prediction of affective commitment with an R^2 change (.14) and $\beta = .40, p < .001$.

Table 11 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Job Scope on Normative Commitment

Variable	R^2	$Adj. R^2$	ΔR^2	Df	F	β
Step 1	.03	.01	.03	4,195	1.52	
Age						.16*
Gender						-.06
Education						-.01
Banking Industry						-.02
Step 2	.07	.05	.04	5,194	3.02*	
Age						.12
Gender						-.06
Education						-.03
Banking Industry						.03
Job Scope						.22**

*** Correlation is significant at $p < .001$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

Hypothesis 5b stated that “Job characteristics are positively associated with normative commitment”. Table 11 shows that the control variables failed to predict normative commitment $F(4,195) = 1.52$. On the other hand, the inclusion of job scope in the second step improved the model $F(5,194) = 3.02, p < .05$. The change in R^2 (.04) and $\beta = .22, p < .01$ supported that job scope significantly predicted normative commitment and enhanced job scope resulted in higher normative commitment.

Table 12 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Affective Commitment on OCB

Variable	<i>R</i>²	<i>Adj. R</i>²	ΔR^2	<i>Df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>B</i>
Step 1	.07	.05	.07	4,195	3.58**	
Age						.14*
Gender						-.12
Education						-.13
Banking Industry						.05
Step 2	.21	.19	.14	5,194	10.04***	
Age						.02
Gender						-.08
Education						-.10
Banking Industry						.11
Affective Commitment						.39***

*** Correlation is significant at $p < .001$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

Hypothesis 6a proposed that “Affective commitment is positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior”. The results of the regression analysis to test this hypothesis were given in Table 12. Both the first model including control variables and the second model including both control variables and affective commitment were significant ($F(4,195) = 3.58, p < .01$ and $F(5,194) = 10.04, p < .001$). Age was the only control variable that had significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior in the first step ($\beta = .14, p < .05$). Although control variables explained only 7% of the variance in OCB ($\Delta R^2 = .07$), the explained variance increased to $R^2 = .21$, by an increment of $\Delta R^2 = .14$ when affective commitment was added into the equation. The beta weight ($\beta = .39, p < .001$) indicated that affective commitment significantly predicted OCB.

Table 13 Regression Analysis for the Effect of Normative Commitment on OCB

Variable	<i>R</i>²	<i>Adj. R</i>²	ΔR^2	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	β
Step 1	.07	.05	.07	4,195	3.58**	
Age						.14*
Gender						-.12
Education						-.13
Banking Industry						.05
Step 2	.12	.09	.05	5,194	5.05***	
Age						.11
Gender						-.11
Education						-.12
Banking Industry						.05
Normative Commitment						.22**

*** Correlation is significant at $p < .001$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

Hypothesis 6b proposed that “Normative commitment is positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior”. The results are illustrated in Table 13. The effects of age, gender, education, and banking industry were controlled for the first step and age was the only variable that significantly predicted organizational citizenship behaviors ($\beta = .14, p < .05, R^2 = .07, F(4,195) = 3.58, p < .01$). The addition of normative commitment to the equation in the second step enhanced the model ($F(5,194) = 5.05, p < .001$) and explained variance by .05 ($\Delta R^2 = .05$). The beta weight ($\beta = .22, p < .01$) indicated that normative commitment significantly predicted OCB.

Table 14 Regression Analysis of Affective Commitment Mediating Job scope and OCB

Variable	<i>R</i> ²	<i>Adj. R</i> ²	ΔR^2	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	β
Step 1	.07	.05	.07	4,195	3.58**	
Age						.14*
Gender						-.12
Education						-.13
Banking Industry						.05
Step 2	.21	.18	.14	6,193	8.46***	
Age						.02
Gender						-.08
Education						-.10
Banking Industry						.12
Job Scope						.06
Affective Commitment						.37***

*** Correlation is significant at $p < .001$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

Hypothesis 1 proposing that “Job characteristics are positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior” was a necessary condition to test the mediation of affective commitment. Moreover, Hypothesis 5a and 6a were the conditions to test mediation. The results showed that job scope predicts affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior and affective commitment predicted organizational commitment. Therefore, Hypothesis 7a proposing that “Affective organizational commitment mediates the relationship between job characteristics and OCB” could be tested.

Table 14 summarizes the results for the mediating role of affective commitment in the relationship between job scope and organizational citizenship behavior. The first model including the control variables was significant ($R^2 = .07$, $F(4,195) = 3.58$, $p < .01$). When job scope and affective commitment were added to the equation, the explained variance in organizational citizenship behavior increased by 14% ($R^2 = .21$, $F(5,194) = 8.46$, $p < .001$). Although job scope was able to predict OCB without the contribution of affective commitment, the addition of affective commitment dominated the effect of job scope as, a result of which job scope became insignificant while predicting OCB. The beta weight $\beta = .37$, $p < .001$ supported the significant effect of affective commitment on

OCB. This situation addressed the full mediation of affective commitment in the relation between job scope and organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 15 Regression Analysis of Normative Commitment Mediating Job Scope and OCB relationship

Variable	<i>R</i> ²	<i>Adj. R</i> ²	ΔR^2	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>B</i>
Step 1	.07	.05	.07	4,195	3.58**	
Age						.14*
Gender						-.12
Education						-.13
Banking Industry						.05
Step 2	.14	.11	.07	6,193	5.20***	
Age						.08
Gender						-.11
Education						-.14*
Banking Industry						.09
Job Scope						.17*
Normative Commitment						.19**

*** Correlation is significant at $p < .001$

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$

Hypothesis 1 was also a necessary condition to test the mediation of normative commitment. Hypothesis 7b proposed that “Normative commitment mediates the relationship between job characteristics and OCB”. Hypothesis 1, 5b, and 6b were the conditions to test mediation for normative commitment and all these conditions were satisfied. Hence, in order to test the mediating role of normative commitment in the relationship between job scope and organizational citizenship behavior hierarchical regression analysis was performed and the results were given in Table 15. The first model that included the control variables was significant $F(4,195) = 3.58, p < .01$ and age was the only variable that affected organizational citizenship behavior significantly ($\beta = .14, p < .05$). In the second step both job scope and normative commitment were added to the equation and the second model that consisted of the control variables, job scope and normative commitment was also significant ($F(6,193) = 5.20, p < .001$). The variance explained by the control variables was $R^2 = .07$ and the addition of job scope and normative commitment improved the variance by 7% ($\Delta R^2 = .07$). Both job scope

($\beta = .17, p < .05$) and normative commitment ($\beta = .19, p < .01$) significantly contributed to the prediction of organizational commitment.

The result of Hypothesis 2 which tested the relationship between job scope and organizational citizenship behavior revealed that job scope was significantly associated with OCB, with $\beta = .21, p < .01$. When the results of Hypothesis 2 and 6b were considered, there was a decrease in the prediction ability of job scope from $\beta = .21, p < .01$ to $\beta = .17, p < .05$. This indicated that normative commitment was not a full mediator in the model. In order to find out whether normative commitment caused a significant decrease in the prediction ability of job scope a SOBEL test was needed. The Sobel test is used to understand whether the indirect effect of the independent variable (job scope) on the dependent variable (OCB) through the mediator variable (normative commitment) is significant. The website, <http://people.ku.edu/~preacher/sobel/sobel.htm>, was benefitted to do the calculation. The calculation necessitates the raw (unstandardized) regression coefficient for the association between job scope and normative commitment, the standard error of the relationship between the independent variable and job scope and normative commitment, raw (unstandardized) regression coefficient for the association between the normative commitment and OCB, and the standard error of the relationship between normative commitment and OCB. The values are .30, .10, .12, .04 respectively. The result of the Sobel test ($t = 1.99, p < .05$) revealed that normative commitment partially mediated the relationship between job scope and OCB.

5.5. Summary

This study was carried out to investigate the interrelationships among job characteristics, job satisfaction, organizational commitment (i.e., affective and normative commitment), and organizational citizenship behavior. The ten hypotheses proposed in this study were tested with a sample of 200 employees who were knowledge workers with at least a university degree. The data were collected from 15 companies operating in one of four industries, namely defense, telecommunication, software, and banking. Job Diagnostic Survey of Hackman and Oldham (1980), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) of Weiss and associates (1967), Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) of Allen and Meyer (1991), and Organizational

Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCBS) of Podsakoff and colleagues (1990) were used as the measurement instruments. Among the ten hypotheses nine of them were fully supported while only one hypothesis was partially supported.

Hypothesis 1 proposed that characteristics of a job determine the employees' job satisfaction. Similarly, Hypothesis 2 argued that employees who have enriched jobs in terms of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback would perform more organizational citizenship behaviors. Hypothesis 3 proposed that job satisfaction triggers display of OCB. Hypothesis 4 argued that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between job characteristics and OCB. Hypothesis 5a and 5b suggested that job characteristics determine affective and normative commitment. Additionally, Hypothesis 6a and 6b argued that affective and normative commitment were associated with OCB. Similar to Hypothesis 4, Hypothesis 7a and 7b proposed that the relationship between job characteristics and OCB is mediated by affective and normative commitment. Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5a, 5b, 6a, 6b, and 7a were fully supported and it was verified that job satisfaction and affective commitment perfectly mediated the effect of job characteristics on OCB. According to the results of the analysis that tested H7b, normative commitment partially mediated the relationship between job characteristics and OCB.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

6.1. Discussion

Attitudes are feelings or beliefs directed towards people, objects and ideas and influenced by personal and organizational factors. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are important attitudes for their positive consequences in the workplace and therefore have been vastly investigated in the organizational behavior literature. The work itself is one of the crucial organizational factors that influence the individuals' job satisfaction and organizational commitment. It is proposed in the extant literature that as a result of these attitudes, individuals engage in behaviors. Therefore, the model tested in this study proposed that job characteristics affect organizational citizenship behaviors through mediations of job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment. There are certain findings worthy of discussion that emerged from the present study.

Initially, it was proposed that job characteristics were significantly related to job satisfaction. Hackman and Oldham (1980) introduced the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) and they proposed that enriched and complex jobs, which were high in scope, affect psychological states which in turn lead to favorable results such as job satisfaction. According to the results of the present study, job satisfaction was highly related to the characteristics of the job. Job characteristics were defined as work related factors that lead to intrinsic motivation. Therefore, the work itself and its corresponding skills, significance, challenges, autonomy, and feedback are the important attributes of a job that affect the employees' job satisfaction. To the extent that a job provides growth opportunities, the usage of variety of skills and talents, the right to decide on how to do a job, immediate feedback about the results, the completion of an identifiable piece of work, and a sense of affecting others' lives, the employee will be internally motivated and have high job satisfaction.

Even though Hackman and Oldham (1980) did not include organizational commitment as one of the positive consequences of enriched jobs, this study proposed and the results supported that job characteristics have a positive effect on

both affective and normative commitment. Employees evaluate their relationships with their organizations mainly by the nature of the work itself (Cardona, Lawrence, & Bentler, 2004). Therefore, the characteristics of a job contribute to the commitment of an employee to his/her organization. Even though job characteristics were suggested as robust predictors of organizational commitment by researchers (e.g., Gautam, Van Dick, & Wagner, 2001; Huang & Hsiao, 2007) there is limited research on this relationship. Although job characteristics are suggested as antecedents of affective commitment and there are few research testing this relationship, the association between job characteristics and normative commitment has not been examined. Besides, the theoretical framework that proposes such a relationship can only be found in Dunham's research (1994). Moreover, to the knowledge of the author, there is no research that proposed a mediation model including job characteristics, affective and normative commitment and OCB. For this reason, this study contributes to the literature on the antecedents of organizational commitment and highlights the importance of job characteristics for the prediction of both affective and normative commitment.

Although it was suggested that task characteristics should directly influence OCB, the literature was restricted with little research, thus needed further investigation. One of the aims of this study was to fill this gap in the literature. Hence, it was proposed that there was a positive association between task characteristics and OCB. The result of the analysis supported that job scope, an aggregate variable that includes all five job dimensions, was significantly associated with OCB. It was suggested that to the extent a job provides intrinsic motivation, employees tend to engage in OCB, because by the sense of responsibility and enhanced meaning attached to the work, employees feel personal accountability and engage in activities that were not specified in their job contract with the organization (Farh et al. 1990).

The job satisfaction-performance relationship has been debated for many years and no conclusive results were achieved due to the contradicting results of the studies. The introduction of OCB as a form of performance accelerated the interest in its link with job satisfaction. Research has supported the positive association between job satisfaction and OCB (e.g., Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Organ & Lingl, 1995;

Lapierre & Hackett, 2007; Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007). The results of current study proved that job satisfaction was a robust predictor of OCB.

Studies on organizational commitment have mainly focused on affective commitment and neglected the importance of normative commitment. Affective commitment was suggested as a strong predictor of OCB by many researchers (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Stanley, Hersovitch, & Topolnysky, 2002). Affective commitment is mainly based on the individual's relationship with the organization. Normative commitment, on the other hand, developed not only from the association with the organization, but also from cultural and familial processes. For this reason, normative commitment has been recognized as an important area of research especially for non-Western countries (Gautam et al., 2005). In their meta analysis Meyer and associates (2002) compared the studies conducted in North America with those conducted outside North America and highlighted that the association between affective commitment and OCB was stronger for studies carried out in North America whereas normative commitment was more strongly correlated with OCB for studies carried out outside North America. The results of Gautam and colleagues' study (2005) also supported this proposition and revealed that in collectivist societies citizenship behavior is driven by a strong sense of obligation rather than willingness associated by affective commitment. However, the results of this study showed that although both affective and normative commitment predicted OCB, the comparison of the beta coefficients displayed that affective commitment was more strongly associated with OCB. This finding is in line with Wasti's (1999) conclusion in her dissertation. The significant and high correlation between affective and normative commitment ($r = .71$) was attributed to the fact that without strong emotional feelings to an organization it may not be possible to feel strong obligation to it (Allen & Meyer, 1999, cited by Wasti, 1999).

Turkey was found to be predominantly collectivist but not among the most collectivist societies (Hofstede, 1980). According to Clugston and colleagues (2000) collectivism is characterized by interdependence, norms that favor in-group harmony, and personalized relationships. In addition to this, individuals in collectivist societies are inclined to form more normative commitment as well as affective commitment because of the high internalization of moral values that

emphasize commitment to the workplace. In a collectivist context, long term and close relationship with the organization has an important personal meaning. Therefore, when employees cannot develop commitment, their motivations will be reduced and they will intend to leave their organizations. For this reason affective and normative commitment are more correlated with OCB for collectivist samples when compared to individualistic ones (Felfe & Yan, 2009). OCBs are behaviors that serve the maintenance of harmony in the workplace by helping coworkers, avoiding creating problems for others, being tolerant to unfavorable circumstances, accepting and adhering to the organizational rules, and involving in constructive activities such as attending meetings voluntarily. Therefore, employees evaluate their relationships with organizations and develop attitudes (i.e., organizational commitment) accordingly, and then they engage in OCBs that enhance organizational efficiency because of norm reciprocity.

Having supported the hypotheses that job characteristics are positively related to job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment, and OCB and that job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment are significantly associated with OCB, the mediating effects of job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment were tested. The results indicated that job satisfaction and affective commitment fully mediated the relationship between job characteristics and OCB, whereas normative commitment partially mediated this relationship.

One of them being partially supported, all hypotheses proposed in this study were supported. In his dissertation, Ünüvar (2006) proposed and tested the same hypotheses in this study. However, the results of his study failed to support the hypothesis which suggested a significant relationship between the job characteristics and OCBs. This was the major hypothesis to test the mediating effects of job satisfaction and organizational commitment dimensions, therefore, no mediation effect could be tested. The failure of supporting the hypothesis was attributed to the characteristics of the sample, source of rating, and the cultural applicability of the OCB scale. 78% of his sample consisted of blue collar workers whose jobs were routine and lacking skill variety. Moreover, the tasks were not fully identifiable and did not affect others' lives. Besides, they were not able to decide on the way and pace of doing their jobs and get the feedback directly from their jobs. Workers

participating in the survey thought their jobs provided the usage of a variety of skills, the completion of the tasks from the beginning to the end, and an opportunity to affect others' lives, autonomy and feedback. Due to the characteristics of the job, the employees did not have psychologically meaningful jobs and thus they were unable to acknowledge the contextual significance of the job, which was necessary to trigger engagement in OCBs. In addition to these, some of the OCB scale items, such as "I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important" are not applicable for the most of the participants of the survey. Moreover, the data about job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment were collected via a self rating procedure, whereas the OCB scale was evaluated by the supervisors of the employees. Thus, Ünüvar suggested that actor-observer difference may have caused such failure.

Ünüvar recommended the future researchers to replicate and expand his study's findings by applying it to different sectors and occupational groups such as white collar employees. Manual workers are no longer central in today's business environment. Instead, knowledge workers are perceived as the assets of the companies in today's knowledge society because companies produce qualified objects and/or services using the knowledge of the personnel as the major resource (Alvesson, 2000). Knowledge workers are the most valuable assets of the companies because they are perceived as the major creators of the wealth, thus they are one of the key competitive advantages of the companies (Drucker, 2002). Knowledge workers are high achievers and have a great degree of flexibility in terms of task acceptance (Smith & Rupp, 2002). The work products include documents, conceptual tools that are self created or created from integrating information from various external resources. Although the work of manual worker is easily quantifiable in terms of output and the quality can be easily controlled, the product of knowledge worker is unique to each worker and widely variable based on multiple factors such as experience, education, and training of the knowledge worker (Drucker, 1994, 1999a). This is because knowledge workers have their own methods of completing their tasks. They may modify their actions on a daily basis to successfully react to the changes in the business environment. So it was expected that the tasks performed by knowledge workers to be different from that of blue collar workers Therefore, the

sample of the current study composed of knowledge workers. This study answers Ünüvar's call to examine his model in different job settings.

One of the major aims of this study was testing the applicability of the scales developed in North America. Naturally theories of social sciences are developed within the society the theorists live. Hence, generalizability and applicability of these theories should be tested in other societies and cultures. Hofstede (2001) suggested that culture affects how individuals respond to the environment around them. For this reason, attitudes and behaviors of individuals are highly shaped by the values of the society. Unfortunately, most of the studies regarding the variables used in this study have been done in North America and other advanced industrial societies. Moreover, the studies are even more limited for a specific country. For this reason, current study contributes to the literature in terms of research conducted outside North America.

6.2. Implications for Managers and Human Resources Professionals

Introduced by Bateman and Organ (1983), organizational citizenship behaviors have attracted the interest of researchers of organizational behavior. It has been argued that organizational citizenship behaviors, aggregated over time and persons, contribute to the organizational performance and accomplishment of organizational goals (Podsakff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Organ (1997) summarizes the importance of OCB by resembling it to the social lubricant of the organizational machinery. In the wake of changing organizational structures through downsizing, flattening, and more cost controlling implementations, OCBs will be part of the jobs because written formal job descriptions will no longer be adequate. Podsakoff and associates (2009) and Organ and colleagues (2006) provided evidence that organizational citizenship behaviors were significantly and positively related to organizational effectiveness measures such as productivity, efficiency, and profitability. When aggregated over time and people, organizational citizenship behaviors enhance organizational effectiveness in several ways, such as improving coworker and managerial productivity, ability of the organization to adapt the environmental changes, and resource utilization. It has been empirically supported that OCBs enhance the quality and quantity of the work, group productivity, sales team performance, customer satisfaction and complaints,

sales revenue, profitability, and operating efficiency (Organ et al., 2006). Assuming that OCBs have such a critical role for organizations, identifying the variables that trigger engagement in OCBs makes sense (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

The results of this study suggest that task characteristics have both a direct and indirect effect on organizational citizenship behaviors. It was shown that the design of a job is a good predictor of job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. Moreover, the results indicated that job satisfaction, affective and normative commitments are positively and significantly associated with OCBs. It is demonstrated that high levels of job scope resulted in high job satisfaction, and affective and normative commitment, which in turn trigger the display of OCBs. According to this, if a job is high on scope, that is it provides usage of variety of skills, the completion of a whole or recognizable piece of a work, the sense of affecting others' lives, the autonomy to decide on the work pace and order of procedures while doing the work, and feedback about the performance of the employee, it may result in high job satisfaction and organizational commitment and the engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.

Knowing the positive consequences of OCB on organizations, managers should pay attention to the means of improving job scope, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in order to improve employee engagement in OCBs.

This study specifically targeted knowledge workers who are perceived as the dominant source of competitive advantage to the modern enterprise. Unlike manual workers knowledge workers own the means of production. That is "the knowledge between their ears is a totally portable and enormous capital asset" (Drucker, 1999, p.87). Therefore, managements tend to take great care with how they manage knowledge workers (Sajeva, 2007).

In terms of the characteristics of the jobs, the design of the jobs should be reconsidered in terms of their potentials to improve satisfaction, commitment, and eventually organizational citizenship behaviors. According to Drucker (1999), the crucial question to be asked for knowledge workers is what the task is. In manual work the task is given and what is to be done is always obvious. However this is not the case for knowledge workers.

Managers have more influence and control over job design than they do over culture, structure, relationships, technology, and people themselves (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). So managers may rearrange the jobs so that the employees may find the chance to carry out diverse assignments that enable them to use technical and interpersonal skills as well as to upgrade their knowledge base (Messmer, 2005). Job enlargement and job enrichment may be used as techniques to restructure jobs. In this sense job enlargement, which means extending one's responsibility by allowing him/her to carry out additional and varied tasks, may be a way of improving the depicted attitudes. To enlarge the jobs, management may give short, small assignments that stretch employees abilities or require learning something new. Besides temporarily assigning employees to other projects may offer them to learn new skills and apply their current skills differently (Bragg, 2001).

Knowledge workers use their talents and expertise while carrying out their tasks rather than performing routine daily functions. Therefore knowledge worker needs to have autonomy and personal freedom to decide on their own objectives and select on work procedure. Autonomy is important to maintain creativity and ability of the knowledge workers to effectively react environmental changes and adapt techniques to perform the job better. In addition to this, it is argued that "when jobs are designed to provide autonomy, employees develop higher role-breadth self efficacy, or confidence in their capabilities to carry out a wider range of tasks and responsibilities effectively (Grant & Parker, 2009, p.343). With increased autonomy, employees tend to set challenging goals and strive to achieve them. There job enrichment by allowing employees to have a say in scheduling the work and how to do that job may motivate knowledge worker. Moreover creating feedback channels will provide awareness of the effectiveness of the results and this may help the worker to evaluate his/her performance and revise the techniques that s/he used while carrying out the job.

Management should also notice that when employees are satisfied, they tend to show OCBs. Hence management may adapt procedures to improve job satisfaction. In order to motivate people and increase their satisfaction from their jobs, management should encourage employees to share their ideas, allow them to develop different approaches to everyday tasks, provide self development opportunities by

trainings, offer supervision in terms of career development, and recognize achievements and praise them.

As another important predictor of organizational citizenship behavior, management should also concentrate on improving the organizational commitment of their employees. Both affective and normative organizational commitment are important indicators of OCBs. As this study suggested, employees who are affectively and normatively committed to the organization are more likely to engage in OCBs than those who do not have such commitment. Storey and Qunitas (2001) argued that developing commitment of knowledge workers is critical because it results in greater discretionary effort. Therefore, organizations should seek ways to improve commitment of their employees.

It is argued that, at the stage of recruitment, providing realistic job previews that include both positive and negative aspect of the job may increase organizational commitment and job satisfaction because this helps the employee to determine whether the job meets his/her expectations. Employees who are informed about the pros and cons of a job option become more aware of the choice they are about to make. In addition to employees that continue in the selection process and accept the job can prepare themselves for the problems and find ways to cope with them. It is suggested that both socialization and training provided by the organization influence employee both affective and normative commitment. Organizational commitment among new comers tends to be high when they receive positive support after entry from the experienced organizational members. Training is also perceived as an important part of socialization. It is suggested that to the extent the training fulfilled the expectations and desires of the employees, employees tend to be more committed to their organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Moreover investments an organization does in its employees through trainings are likely to positively affect normative commitmen because it creates a sense of reciprocation Another way of improving organizational commitment is good management of assessment and promotion procedures. Both positive feedback and promotion have constructive effects on commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

6.3. Limitations

This study is not without limitations. Hence, while evaluating the results of the present study the limitations should not be ignored. One potential limitation of this study is its sample characteristics. All participants were knowledge workers who at least have an undergraduate degree. In addition to this, the sample is limited with four business sectors. This nature of the sample calls into the question of generalizability. Future research should collect data from different industries that were not included in this study.

The data collection method is another potential limitation of this study. The data were collected at a single point in time. Due to the cross sectional nature of the study causality cannot be inferred. Longitudinal designs are needed to assert causal relationships among the variables.

In addition, participants were asked to rate themselves on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. The choice of collecting data with self reported measures may lead to the common method variance and thus inflation of the reported relationships between independent and dependent variables. There are certain sources that cause inflation of the results due to the common method variance. The respondents may distort the results to maintain consistency in their responses to the questions or to present themselves in a favorable light, regardless of their true feelings (Podsakoff, MacKenize, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In order to prevent these, the data on prediction and criterion variables should be collected from different sources. Although ratings on OCBs can be obtained from supervisors, it is recommended that reliability increases when OCBs ratings are based on different sources such as supervisor and subordinates. Moreover temporal separation may be created by introducing a time lag between the measurement of the predictor and criterion variable.

6.4. Implications for Future Research

The current study intended to test the effects of job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behaviors. It contributed to the literature in terms of the relationship among task characteristics, work attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior. This study was carried out

following Ünüvar's (2006) recommendations that the study should be replicated by using different samples from different industries that have different characteristics. Ünüvar's sample consisted of mainly blue collar employees whose educational level was low. He attributed the failure of the relationship between core job characteristics and organizational citizenship behaviors to the nature of the work they were carrying out. Therefore, this study targeted university graduate, high skilled employees who perform knowledge-intensive work. Unlike Ünüvar's results, this study indicated that job characteristics were significantly associated with organizational citizenship behaviors treated as an aggregate variable. It can be inferred that the characteristics of the sample, such as educational level and the nature of the job, may influence the relationship between the characteristics of the job and organizational citizenship behaviors. For this reason, future researchers should replicate the findings of this study and may use a sample that is composed of both white and blue collar employees to find out how the content of the occupation affect this relationship. Moreover, in order to support the generalizability of the results, future research should collect data from different sectors.

Although the antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors have been largely investigated by researchers, there is still little research considering the results of organizational citizenship behavior on organizational effectiveness. Moreover, to the knowledge of the author, no research about the consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors has been conducted in the Turkish setting. Hence, future research should focus on this area and examine the mechanisms through which organizational citizenship behaviors affect organizational performance. As suggested by Organ and associates (2006), the positive outcomes of organizational citizenship behaviors have been measured in terms of financial performance such as profitability and return of investment. However, there may be other measures to understand the positive effect of citizenship behavior on organizational effectiveness. Therefore, future research may measure organizational effectiveness by focusing on a different aspect of the organizational performance such as customer satisfaction, customer retention, and product and service quality (Organ et al. 2006).

Due to the difficulties in the data collection method, the self report method was used and employees were asked to rate themselves on organizational citizenship

behavior scale. Consequently, the ratings of this scale were high and it is difficult to understand whether the results reflect the truth or if they are a statistical artifact. The results examining the convergence across sources revealed that ratings made by others, such as subordinates and superiors, were strongly correlated (Allen, Barnard, Rush, & Russel, 2000). In order to prevent this and increase validity and reliability, multiple ratings from multiple perspectives, such as subordinates, colleagues, and supervisors, should be collected.

Most of the research on organizational citizenship behavior examined the antecedents of OCB in the United States. In this sense, this study contributed to the literature on job characteristics, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. The current study was carried out in Turkey. A comparison study by a Western country and Turkey may indicate further insights about the role of cultural differences.

This research conducted the analysis by using SPSS. Therefore, the program does not enable to test the whole model by a single analysis. However, structural equation modeling enables to simultaneously analyze the relationships among multiple IVs and DVs and compare the magnitude of the associations among variables. Therefore, future research may test the model by structural equation modeling by using programs such as Lisrel.

In conclusion, this study contributed to the literature on OCB by investigating its relationship with job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in the Turkish culture. The results provided evidence that job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment were significantly related to OCB. Management and human resources professionals need to comprehend the importance of OCB for the effective functioning of the organization and find means of promoting such behaviors. Future studies that encompass other antecedents of OCB should be carried out within different work settings in order to enrich literature on OCB.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. JOB DIAGNOSTIC SURVEY

Section One

This part of the questionnaire asks you to describe your job, as *objectively* as you can.

Please do *not* use this part of the questionnaire to show how much you like or dislike your job. Questions about that will come later. Instead, try to make your descriptions as accurate and as objective as you possibly can.

1. How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Very little; the job gives me almost no personal "say" about how and when the work is done.

Moderate autonomy: many things are standardized and not under my control, but I can make some decisions about the work.

Very much; The job gives me almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is done.

2. To what extent does your job involve doing a "whole" and identifiable piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is it only a small part of the overall price of work, which is finished but other people or by automatic machines?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

My job is only a tiny part of the overall piece of work; the results of my activities cannot be seen in the final product or service.

My job is a moderate-sized "chunk" of the overall price of work; my own contribution can be seen in the final outcome.

My job involves doing the whole piece of work, from start to finish; the results of my activities are easily seen in the final product or service.

3. How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does the job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of skills and talents?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Very little; the job requires me to do the same routine things over and over again.

Moderate variety.

Very much; the job requires me to do many different things, using a number of different skills and talents.

4. In general, *how significant or important* is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Not very significant; the outcomes of my work are not likely to have important effects on other people.

Moderate significant.

Highly significant; the outcomes of my work can affect other people in very important ways.

5. To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how you are doing – aside from any “feedback” co-workers or supervisors may provide?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Very little; the job itself is set up so I could work forever without finding out how well I am doing.

Moderately; sometimes doing the job provides “feedback” to me: sometimes it does not.

Very much; the job is set up so that I get almost constant “feedback” as I work about how well I am doing.

Section Two

Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job.

You are to indicate whether each statement is an *accurate* or an *inaccurate* description of *your* job.

Once again, please try to be as objective as you can in deciding how accurately each statement describes your job— regardless of whether you like or dislike your job.

Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale;

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very inaccurate	Mostly inaccurate	Mostly inaccurate	Mostly inaccurate	Mostly inaccurate	Mostly inaccurate	Mostly inaccurate

- ____ 1. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.
- ____ 2. The job is arranged so that I can do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
- ____ 3. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.
- ____ 4. The job is quite difficult and involves no repetitiveness.
- ____ 5. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.
- ____ 6. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.
- ____ 7. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.
- ____ 8. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
- ____ 9. The job itself is very significant and important in the broader scheme of things.
- ____ 10. After I finish a job, I know whether I performed well.

APPENDIX B. GÖREV TANI ÖLÇEĞİ

Bölüm 1

Bu bölümde işinizle ilgili bazı sorular yöneltilmektedir. Her soru için en uygun cevabı yansıtan rakamı daire içine alınız.

1-İşinizi nasıl yapacağınıza ne derece kendiniz karar verebilirsiniz?

1	2	3	4	5
Çok az; bu iş tabiatı gereği iş kişiye nasıl ve ne zaman çalışılacağı konusunda hemen hemen hiç karar verme imkanı tanımaz.		Orta derecede; birçok şey standart hale getirildiğinden bu iş yapmanın kontrolü altında değildir, ama işle ilgili bazı kararlar alınmasına imkan tanır.		Çok fazla; bu işte ne zaman ve nasıl çalışılacağı konusundaki karar tamamen işi yapmanın sorumluluğu altındadır.

2-İşiniz ne ölçüde kendi içinde bir bütündür? Yani, yaptığınız şey belirli bir başı ve sonu olan bütün bir iş midir? Yoksa başkaları veya otomatik makineler tarafından bitirilen bir işin sadece küçük bir parçası mıdır?

1	2	3	4	5
Bu iş bir bütünün son derece ufak bir parçasıdır. Çalışmalarımın sonucu nihai ürün veya hizmette görülmez.		Bu iş bir bütünün orta büyüklükte bir parçasıdır. Çalışmalarım nihai ürün veya hizmette görülebilir.		Bu iş basından sonuna kadar benim bitirdiğim bir bütünü kapsar. Çalışmalarımın sonucu kolaylıkla nihai ürün veya hizmette görülür.

3-İşinizde ne derece çeşitlilik vardır? Yani, işiniz çeşitli beceri ve yetenekleri kullanarak birçok değişik şey yapmayı ne ölçüde gerektirir?

1	2	3	4	5
Çok az; bu iş sürekli olarak aynı alışılmış şeyleri tekrar tekrar yapmayı gerektirir.		Orta derecede çeşitlilik vardır.		Çok fazla; bu iş birçok değişik beceri ve yetenekleri kullanarak birçok şey yapmayı gerektirir.

4-Genel olarak, işiniz ne derece önemli ve anlamlıdır? Yani, yaptığınız işin sonucu insanların hayatlarını veya durumlarını önemli derecede etkiler mi?

1	2	3	4	5
Çok anlamlı değil; çalışmalarımın sonucunun diğer insanlar üzerinde fazla bir etkisi yoktur.		Orta derecede anlamlı ve önemlidir.		Çok fazla; çalışmalarımın sonucunun diğer insanlar üzerinde çok önemli etkisi vardır.

5-Performansınızın iyi olup olmadığına yönelik bilgiyi işin kendisinden almak ne derece mümkündür? Yani işinizin kendisi, amirlerinizin veya mesai arkadaşlarınızın sağlayabileceği bilgiden başka başarılı olup olmadığınız konusunda ne kadar ipucu sağlar?

1	2	3	4	5
Çok az; bu iş öyle düzenlenmiştir ki işi yapan nasıl yaptığı konusunda bir bilgiye sahip olmadan devamlı çalışır.		Orta derecede; bu işi yapmak bazen işi yapana performansla ilgili bilgi sağlar.		Çok fazla; bu işin düzenleniş biçimi işin nasıl yapıldığı hakkında sürekli bilgi verir.

Bölüm 2

Bu bölümde herhangi bir işi tanımlamak için kullanılabilen ifadeler sıralanmıştır. Aşağıdaki ifadelerin işinizi ne kadar doğru tanımladığını belirtiniz. Buna karar verirken işinizi sevip sevmediğinize bakmaksızın değerlendirmelerinizi yapmanız gerekmektedir. Verilen ölçeği kullanarak her ifadenin ne oranda doğru olduğunu belirleyiniz ve uygun rakamı daire içine alınız.

Verilen ifade işiniz için ne derece geçerlidir?

	Çok yanlış	Kısmen Yanlış	Emin değilim	Kısmen doğru	Çok doğru
1.İşim bir dizi karmaşık ve yüksek düzeyde beceri kullanmayı gerektirir.	1	2	3	4	5
2.İşim bir bütün işi başından sonuna kadar yapmaya olanak tanıyacak biçimde düzenlenmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
3.İşimin gerektirdiklerini yapmak başarıyı belirlemek açısından birçok imkan sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
4.İşim oldukça basit ve tekrarlanan bir niteliktedir. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
5.İşimin nasıl yapıldığı birçok kişiyi etkiler.	1	2	3	4	5
6.İşim kişisel inisiyatifimi veya yargımı kullanmama asla imkan tanımaz. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
7.İşim başladığım iş bölümlerini tamamen bitirmeme olanak sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
8.İşim ne derece başarılı olduğum konusunda bana çok az ipucu sağlar. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
9.İşimi nasıl yapacağım konusunda bağımsızlık ve özgürlüğüm vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
10.İşim burada yapılan işlerin toplamı düşünüldüğünde, çok önemli ve anlamlı değildir. (R)	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C. MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE (MSQ)

Below are phrases about a variety of aspects of your job. Please use the rating scale below each phrase to indicate how you feel about that aspect of your job. Your responses will be kept confidential, so please answer as honestly as possible. Read each phrase carefully and circle the appropriate response.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Can't Decide	Satisfied	Very Satisfied

1. Being able to keep busy all the time.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
2. The chance to work alone on the job.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
3. The chance to do different things from time to time.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
5. The way my boss handles his/her subordinates.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
8. The way my job provides for steady employment.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
9. The chance to do things for other people.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
10. The chance to tell people what to do.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
12. The way company policies are put into practice.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
13. My pay and the amount of work I do.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
14. The chances for advancement in this job.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
15. The freedom to use my own judgment.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
17. The working conditions.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5

18. The way my colleagues get along with each other.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
19. The praise I get for doing a good job.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5

APPENDIX C. MINNESOTA İŞ DOYUMU ANKETİ

Aşağıda verilen maddeler işinizi farklı yönleriyle ele almaktadır. Kendinize "İşimin bu yönünden ne kadar tatmin oluyorum?" sorusunu sorunuz ve cevabınızı verilen ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz. İşinizin belirtilen yönünden ne kadar memnun olduğunuzu rakamlardan uygun bulduğunuzu daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

	Hiç tatmin etmiyor	Pek tatmin etmiyor	Ne ediyor ne etmiyor	Oldukça tatmin ediyor	Çok tatmin ediyor
1.Sürekli birşeylerle meşgul olabilme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
2.Kendi kendime çalışma imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
3. Zaman zaman farklı şeylerle meşgul olma imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
4.Toplumda bir yer edinme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
5. Amirimin elemanlarına karşı davranış tarzı	1	2	3	4	5
6.Amirimin karar verme konusundaki yeterliliği	1	2	3	4	5
7.Vicdanıma ters düşmeyen şeyleri yapabilme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
8.Sürekli bir işe sahip olma imkanı (iş güvenliği)	1	2	3	4	5
9.Başkaları için bir şeyler yapabilme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
10.Başkalarına ne yapacaklarını söyleme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
11.Yeteneklerimi kullanabilme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5

12.Firma politikasını uygulama imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
13.Aldığım ücret	1	2	3	4	5
14.Bu işte ilerleme imkanım	1	2	3	4	5
15.Kendi kararımı verme özgürlüğü	1	2	3	4	5
16.İş yaparken kendi yöntemlerimi deneme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
17.Çalışma koşulları	1	2	3	4	5
18.Çalışma arkadaşlarının birbiriyle anlaşması	1	2	3	4	5
19.Yaptığım işten dolayı aldığım övgü	1	2	3	4	5
20. İşimden elde ettiğim başarı duygusu	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE (OCS)

Listed below is a series of statements that may represent how individuals feel about the company or organization for which they work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement with respect to your own feelings about the organization for which you are now working by circling a number from 1 to 7.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. This organization deserves my loyalty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the lack of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I owe a great deal to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX E. ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıdaki cümleler kişilerin çalıştıkları firma hakkındaki duygu ve fikirlerini yansıtmaktadır. Lütfen bu cümlelere su anda çalıştığınız firma açısından ne ölçüde katıldığınızı belirtiniz. Her soru için katılım derecenizi belirten rakamı daire içine alınız.

1. Meslek hayatımın kalan kısmını bu firmada geçirmek beni çok mutlu eder.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Şu anda firmamda kalmak istek meselesi olduğu kadar mecburiyetten.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Daha iyi bir imkan çıkarsa mevcut firmamdan ayrılmanın ayıp olmadığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Firmama karşı güçlü bir aidiyet hissim yok (R)	1	2	3	4	5
5. İstesem de şu anda firmamdan ayrılmak benim için çok zor olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bu firmanın benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Bu işyerinden ayrılıp burada kurduğum kişisel ilişkileri bozmam doğru olmaz.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Şu anda firmamdan ayrılmak istediğime karar versem hayatımın çoğu alt üst olur.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Yeni bir işyerine alışmak benim için zor olur.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Bu firmanın meselelerini gerçekten kendi meselelerim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Bu firmaya kendimi duygusal olarak bağlı hissetmiyorum. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
12. Buradaki işimi kendi özel işim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

13. Başka bir işyerinin buradan daha iyi olacağını garantisiz yok, burayı hiç olmazsa biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Firmama çok şey borçluyum.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Bu işyerinden ayrılıp başka bir yerde sıfırdan başlamak istemezdim.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülük hissettiğim için firmamdan şu anda ayrılmazdım.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Biraz daha fazla para için mevcut işyerimi değiştirmeyi ciddi olarak düşünmezdim.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Kendimi firmamda ailenin bir parçası gibi hissetmiyorum. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
19. Benim için avantajlı olsa da firmamdan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Bu firmaya sadakat göstermenin görevim olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Firmam maddi olarak zor durumda olsa bile onu asla bırakmam.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Bu firmadan ayrılmanın olumsuz sonuçlarından biri alternatif işlerin olmamasıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Bu firmaya gönül borcu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Bu firmanın bir çalışanı olmanın gurur verici olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Mevcut işverenimle kalmak için hiçbir manevi yükümlülük hissetmiyorum. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
26. Bu firmayı bırakmayı düşünemeyecek kadar az iş seçeneğim olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Bu firmanın amaçlarını benimsiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

29. Eđer bu firmaya kendimden bu kadar ok vermiř olmasaydım bařka yerde alıřmayı dūřünebilirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Mevcut firmamdan ayrılıp birlikte alıřtıđım insanları yarı yolda bırakmak istemem.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Firmamdan şimdi ayrılısam kendimi sulu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Zaman getike mevcut firmamdan ayrılmanın zorlařtıđını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Bu firma benim sadakatimi hak ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX F. ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR SCALE (OCBS)

Please respond to the following questions by circling the best fitting number. There are no right or wrong answers for these questions. It is important that you respond to each question. Thank you for your time.

1. I help others who have heavy workloads.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

2. I am the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

3. I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

4. I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

5. I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

6. I keep abreast of changes in the organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. I tend to make "mountains out of molehills".

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

8. I consider the impact of my actions on coworker

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

9. I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

10. I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

11. I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

12. I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

13. I help others who have been absent.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

14. I do not abuse the rights of others.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

15. I willingly help others who have work related problems.				
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
16. I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.				
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
17. I take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers.				
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
18. My attendance at work is above the norm.				
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
19. I always find fault with what the organization is doing.				
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
20. I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs.				
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
21. I do not take extra breaks.				
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
22. I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.				
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

23. I help orient new people even though it is not required.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

24. I am one of the most conscientious employees.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

APPENDIX G. ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK DAVRANIŞI ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıdaki cümleler kişilerin çalıştıkları firma hakkındaki duygu ve fikirlerini yansıtmaktadır. Lütfen bu cümlelere şu anda çalıştığınız firma açısından ne ölçüde katıldığınızı belirtiniz. Her soru için katılım derecenizi belirten rakamı daire içine alınız.

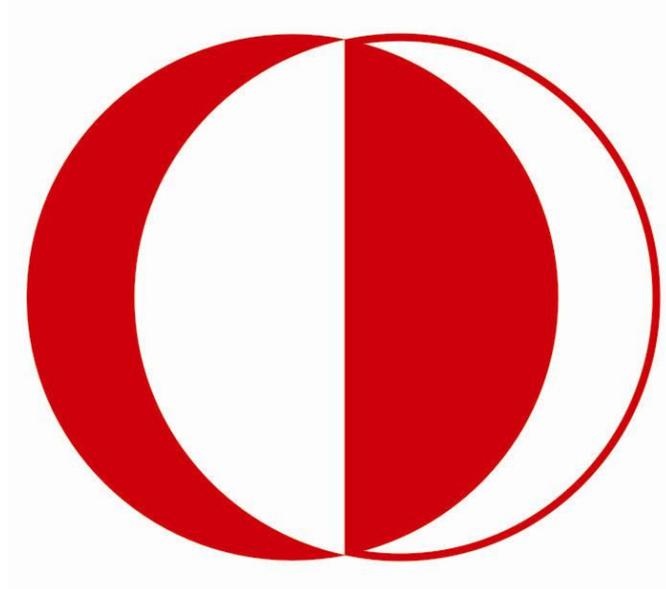
1. İş yükü ağır olan kişilere yardım ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
2. “Ağlamayan bebeğe meme verilmez” tabirindeki bebek gibi davranırım. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
3. Aldığım paranın hakkını vermem gerektiğine inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Önemsiz konular hakkında yakınlık çok zaman harcarım. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
5. Çalışma arkadaşlarıma sorun çıkartmaktan kaçınırım.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Gelişmeleri düzenli olarak takip eder ve haberdar olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Pireyi deve yapma eğiliminde değilimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Hareketlerimin iş arkadaşlarıma üzerinde yaratabileceği etkiyi göz önünde bulundururum.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Zorunlu olmasa da önemli olan toplantılara katılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
10. İş arkadaşlarıma yardım etmeye her zaman hazırım.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Katılmam zorunlu olmadığı halde firma imajının yararına olacak faaliyetlere katılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Firmayla ilgili duyuruları, mesajları ve diğer yazılı materyalleri takip eder ve okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
13. İşe gelememiş arkadaşlarıma yardım ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Başkalarının hakkını ihlal etmem.	1	2	3	4	5

15. İşle ilgili sorunları olan iş arkadaşlarıma kendi isteğimle yardım ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Olumlu şeyler yerine daima yanlışlar üzerine odaklanırım. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
17. Diğer çalışanlarla ilgili olabilecek sorunları engellemek için önlemler alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
18. İşe devamlılığım ortalamanın üstündedir.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Firmanın yaptıkları ile ilgili daima bir kusur bulurum. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
20. Davranışlarımın diğer insanların işlerini nasıl etkilediğini göz önüne alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Fazladan molalar vermem.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Kimse görmese de firmanın kurallarına ve düzenlemelerine uyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Zorunlu olmadığım halde işe yeni başlayanların uyum sağlamalarına yardımcı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
24. En vicdanlı çalışanlardan biriyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX H. ARAŐTIRMA KİTAPÇIĐI
ORTA DOĐU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
İKTİSADİ VE İDARİ BİLİMLER FAKÜLTESİ

İŐLETME BÖLÜMÜ

2010



İő Tutumları Çalışması

GİRİŞ

Bu anket Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü Genel İşletme Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Funda ÖZTÜRK tarafından Dr. Pınar ACAR danışmanlığında yürütülen **çalışanların işleri ile tutum ve davranışları arasındaki ilişkiyi** araştıran bir tez çalışmasının parçasıdır.

Anketteki soruların/ifadelerin doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. Sizlerin çalışmakta olduğunuz firmada işinizle ilgili olarak edindiğiniz duygu ve düşünceleri araştırmaktayız. Bu duygu, düşünce ve davranışlarla ilgili bilgileri sizlerden anketler yoluyla toplamayı amaçlıyoruz.

Anketin araştırmamıza katkı sağlayabilmesi için sizden istenen bilgileri eksiksiz, tarafsız ve doğru olarak doldurmanız önem taşımaktadır. Bunu gerçekleştirebilmek için sizden beklenen gerçek düşüncelerinizi açık olarak ifade etmenizdir. Araştırmada anket doldurmanın kim olduğu değil, sorulara verilen cevaplar önemlidir. Bu nedenle isim belirtmenize gerek yoktur.

Dolduracağınız anketler ODTÜ İşletme Bölümündeki ilgili araştırmacılara ulaştırılacak ve burada bilgisayara girilerek sonuçlar sayısal tablolar ve rakamlar haline dönüştürülecektir. Bu şekilde elde edilen sonuçlar bilimsel amaçla kullanılacak ve yanıtlar sadece ilgili araştırmacılar tarafından görülecektir.

Anket katılımcıları eğer isterlerse araştırma koordinatörü Yrd. Doç. Dr. Pınar ACAR'a aşağıda belirtilen elektronik posta adresinden mesaj atarak araştırma sonuçlarının bir özetini temin edebilirler. Ayrıca ankete yönelik sorularınızı ve görüşlerinizi aşağıda verilen telefon numarası ve elektronik posta adresi yoluyla Yrd. Doç. Dr. ACAR'a ulaştırabilirsiniz. Bu araştırmanın gerçekleştirilmesine zaman ayırarak destek olduğunuz ve katkıda bulunduğunuz için şimdiden teşekkür eder, çalışmalarınızda başarılar dileriz.

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I. BÖLÜM

Bu bölümde işinizle ilgili bazı sorular yöneltilmektedir. **Her soru için en uygun cevabı yansıtan rakamı daire içine alınız.**

Aşağıda bir **örnek** verilmiştir.

İşiniz ne dereceye kadar mekanik araçlarla çalışmayı gerektiriyor?

Örneğin, işinizde sürekli olarak makinelerle uğraşılıyor ama aynı zamanda bir parça masa işi de yapılıyorsa aşağıda gösterildiği gibi **4** rakamını daire içine alabilirsiniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Çok az; bu iş hemen hemen hiçbir mekanik araçla uğraşmayı gerektirmez.		Orta derecede; bu iş bazen mekanik araçla uğraşmayı gerektirir.		Çok fazla; bu iş sürekli mekanik araçla uğraşmayı gerektirir.

1-İşinizi nasıl yapacağınıza ne derece kendiniz karar verebilirsiniz?

1	2	3	4	5
Çok az; bu iş tabiatı gereği iş kişiye nasıl ve ne zaman çalışılacağı konusunda hemen hemen hiç karar verme imkanı tanımaz.		Orta derecede; birçok şey standart hale getirildiğinden bu iş yapmanın kontrolü altında değildir, ama işle ilgili bazı kararlar alınmasına imkan tanır.		Çok fazla; bu işte ne zaman ve nasıl çalışılacağı konusundaki karar tamamen işi yapmanın sorumluluğu altındadır.

2-İşiniz ne ölçüde kendi içinde bir bütündür? Yani, yaptığımız şey belirli bir başı ve sonu olan bütün bir iş midir? Yoksa başkaları veya otomatik makineler tarafından bitirilen bir işin sadece küçük bir parçası mıdır?

1	2	3	4	5
Bu iş bir bütünün son derece ufak bir parçasıdır. Çalışmalarımın sonucu nihai ürün veya hizmette görülmez.		Bu iş bir bütünün orta büyüklükte bir parçasıdır. Çalışmalarım nihai ürün veya hizmette görülebilir.		Bu iş basından sonuna kadar benim bitirdiğim bir bütünü kapsar. Çalışmalarımın sonucu kolaylıkla nihai ürün veya hizmette görülür.

3-İşinizde ne derece çeşitlilik vardır? Yani, işiniz çeşitli beceri ve yetenekleri kullanarak birçok değişik şey yapmayı ne ölçüde gerektirir?

1	2	3	4	5
Çok az; bu iş sürekli olarak aynı alışılmış şeyleri tekrar tekrar yapmayı gerektirir.		Orta derecede çeşitlilik vardır.		Çok fazla; bu iş birçok değişik beceri ve yetenekleri kullanarak birçok şey yapmayı gerektirir.

4-Genel olarak, işiniz ne derece önemli ve anlamlıdır? Yani, yaptığınız işin sonucu insanların hayatlarını veya durumlarını önemli derecede etkiler mi?

1	2	3	4	5
Çok anlamlı değil; çalışmalarımın sonucunun diğer insanlar üzerinde fazla bir etkisi yoktur.		Orta derecede anlamlı ve önemlidir.		Çok fazla; çalışmalarımın sonucunun diğer insanlar üzerinde çok önemli etkisi vardır.

5-Performansınızın iyi olup olmadığına yönelik bilgiyi işin kendisinden almak ne derece mümkündür? Yani işinizin kendisi, amirlerinizin veya mesai arkadaşlarınızın sağlayabileceği bilgiden başka başarılı olup olmadığınız konusunda ne kadar ipucu sağlar?

1	2	3	4	5
Çok az; bu iş öyle düzenlenmiştir ki işi yapan nasıl yaptığı konusunda bir bilgiye sahip olmadan devamlı çalışır.		Orta derecede; bu işi yapmak bazen işi yapana performansla ilgili bilgi sağlar.		Çok fazla; bu işin düzenleniş biçimi işin nasıl yapıldığı hakkında sürekli bilgi verir.

II. BÖLÜM

Bu bölümde herhangi bir işi tanımlamak için kullanılabilen ifadeler sıralanmıştır. Aşağıdaki ifadelerin işinizi ne kadar doğru tanımladığını belirtiniz. Buna karar verirken işinizi sevip sevmediğinize bakmaksızın değerlendirmelerinizi yapmanız gerekmektedir. Verilen ölçeği kullanarak her ifadenin ne oranda doğru olduğunu belirleyiniz ve uygun rakamı daire içine alınız.

Verilen ifade işiniz için ne derece geçerlidir?

	Çok yanlış	Kısmen yanlış	Emin değilim	Kısmen doğru	Çok doğru
1.İşim bir dizi karmaşık ve yüksek düzeyde beceri kullanmayı gerektirir.	1	2	3	4	5
2.İşim bir bütün işi başından sonuna kadar yapmaya olanak tanıyacak biçimde düzenlenmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
3.İşimin gerektirdiklerini yapmak başarıyı belirlemek açısından birçok imkan sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
4.İşim oldukça basit ve tekrarlanan bir niteliktedir.	1	2	3	4	5
5.İşimin nasıl yapıldığı birçok kişiyi etkiler.	1	2	3	4	5
6.İşim kişisel inisiyatifimi veya yargımı kullanmama asla imkan tanımaz.	1	2	3	4	5
7.İşim başladığım iş bölümlerini tamamen bitirmeme olanak sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
8.İşim ne derece başarılı olduğum konusunda bana çok az ipucu sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
9.İşimi nasıl yapacağım konusunda bağımsızlık ve özgürlüğüm vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
10.İşim burada yapılan işlerin toplamı düşünüldüğünde, çok önemli ve anlamlı değildir.	1	2	3	4	5

III.BÖLÜM

Aşağıda verilen maddeler işinizi farklı yönleriyle ele almaktadır. Kendinize “İşimin bu yönünden ne kadar tatmin oluyorum?” sorusunu sorunuz ve cevabınızı verilen ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz. İşinizin belirtilen yönünden ne kadar memnun olduğunuzu rakamlardan uygun bulduğunuzu daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

Örneğin, işinizi toplumda bir yer edinme imkanı açısından pek tatmin edici bulmuyorsanız soruyu aşağıda gösterildiği şekilde cevaplayabilirsiniz.

	Hiç tatmin etmiyor	Pek tatmin etmiyor	Ne ediyor ne etmiyor	Oldukça tatmin ediyor	Çok tatmin ediyor
Toplumda bir yer edinme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5

	Hiç tatmin etmiyor	Pek tatmin etmiyor	Ne ediyor ne etmiyor	Oldukça tatmin ediyor	Çok tatmin ediyor
1.Sürekli birşeylerle meşgul olabilme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
2.Kendi kendime çalışma imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
3. Zaman zaman farklı şeylerle meşgul olma imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
4.Toplumda bir yer edinme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
5. Amirimin elemanlarına karşı davranış tarzı	1	2	3	4	5
6.Amirimin karar verme konusundaki yeterliliği	1	2	3	4	5
7.Vicdanıma ters düşmeyen şeyleri yapabilme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
8.Sürekli bir işe sahip olma imkanı (iş güvenliği)	1	2	3	4	5
9.Başkaları için bir şeyler yapabilme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5

10.Başkalarına ne yapacaklarını söyleme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
11.Yeteneklerimi kullanabilme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
12.Firma politikasını uygulama imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
13.Aldığım ücret	1	2	3	4	5
14.Bu işte ilerleme imkanım	1	2	3	4	5
15.Kendi kararımı verme özgürlüğü	1	2	3	4	5
16.İş yaparken kendi yöntemlerimi deneme imkanı	1	2	3	4	5
17.Çalışma koşulları	1	2	3	4	5
18.Çalışma arkadaşlarının birbiriyle anlaşması	1	2	3	4	5
19.Yaptığım işten dolayı aldığım övgü	1	2	3	4	5
20. İşimden elde ettiğim başarı duygusu	1	2	3	4	5

IV.BÖLÜM

Aşağıdaki cümleler kişilerin çalıştıkları firma hakkındaki duygu ve fikirlerini yansıtmaktadır. Lütfen bu cümlelere şu anda çalıştığınız firma açısından ne ölçüde katıldığınızı belirtiniz. Her soru için katılım derecenizi belirten rakamı daire içine alınız.

1. Meslek hayatımın kalan kısmını bu firmada geçirmek beni çok mutlu eder.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Daha iyi bir imkan çıkarsa mevcut firmamdan ayrılmanın ayıp olmadığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Firmama karşı güçlü bir aidiyet hissim yok.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bu firmanın benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Bu işyerinden ayrılıp burada kurduğum kişisel ilişkileri bozmam doğru olmaz.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bu firmanın meselelerini gerçekten kendi meselelerim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Bu firmaya kendimi duygusal olarak bağlı hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Buradaki işimi kendi özel işim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Firmama çok şey borçluyum.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülük hissettiğim için firmamdan şu anda ayrılmazdım.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Biraz daha fazla para için mevcut işyerimi değiştirmeyi ciddi olarak düşünmezdim.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Kendimi firmamda ailenin bir parçası gibi hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Benim için avantajlı olsa da firmamdan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

14. Bu firmaya sadakat göstermenin görevim olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Firmam maddi olarak zor durumda olsa bile onu asla bırakmam.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Bu firmaya gönül borcu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Bu firmanın bir çalışanı olmanın gurur verici olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Mevcut işverenimle kalmak için hiçbir manevi yükümlülük hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Bu firmanın amaçlarını benimsiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Mevcut firmamdan ayrılıp birlikte çalıştığım insanları yarı yolda bırakmak istemem.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Firmamdan şimdi ayrılısam kendimi suçlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Zaman geçtikçe mevcut firmamdan ayrılmanın zorlaştığını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Bu firma benim sadakatimi hak ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen cevaplamaya bir sonraki sayfadan devam ediniz.

V.BÖLÜM

Aşağıdaki maddeler iş ortamındaki duygu ve düşüncelerinizi anlamaya yöneliktir. Sorular için doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Aşağıdaki ifadelerin iş yerindeki davranışlarınızı ne oranda yansıttığını belirleyip daire içine alınız.

1. İş yükü ağır olan kişilere yardım ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
2. “Ağlamayan bebeğe meme verilmez” tabirindeki bebek gibi davranırım.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Aldığım paranın hakkını vermem gerektiğine inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Önemsiz konular hakkında yakınlık çok zaman harcarım.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Çalışma arkadaşlarıma sorun çıkartmaktan kaçınırım.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Gelişmeleri düzenli olarak takip eder ve haberdar olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Pireyi deve yapma eğiliminde değilimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Hareketlerimin iş arkadaşlarıma üzerinde yaratabileceği etkiyi göz önünde bulundururum.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Zorunlu olmasa da önemli olan toplantılara katılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
10. İş arkadaşlarıma yardım etmeye her zaman hazırım.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Katılmam zorunlu olmadığı halde firma imajının yararına olacak faaliyetlere katılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Firmayla ilgili duyuruları, mesajları ve diğer yazılı materyalleri takip eder ve okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
13. İşe gelememiş arkadaşlarıma yardım ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Başkalarının hakkını ihlal etmem.	1	2	3	4	5
15. İşle ilgili sorunları olan iş arkadaşlarıma kendi isteğimle yardım ederim.	1	2	3	4	5

17. Diğer çalışanlarla ilgili olabilecek sorunları engellemek için önlemler alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
18. İşe devamlılığım ortalamanın üstündedir.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Firmanın yaptıkları ile ilgili daima bir kusur bulurum.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Davranışlarımın diğer insanların işlerini nasıl etkilediğini göz önüne alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Fazladan molalar vermem.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Kimse görmese de firmanın kurallarına ve düzenlemelerine uyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Zorunlu olmadığım halde işe yeni başlayanların uyum sağlamalarına yardımcı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
24. En vicdanlı çalışanlardan biriyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5

VI.BÖLÜM - Demografik Bilgiler

Aşağıdaki sorulara size en uygun olan şıkkı (X) koyarak işaretleyiniz ve gerekli bilgiyi yazarak doldurunuz.

1. Doğum Tarihiniz (Yıl)? _____
2. Cinsiyetiniz? Erkek____Kadın_____
3. Eğitim durumunuz? (birini işaretleyiniz) Lise_____ Lisans_____ Yüksek Lisans_____ Doktora_____ Diğer_____

4. Mesleğiniz?_____

5. İş tanımınızı kısaca yazınız.

6. Bu firmadaki toplam hizmet süreniz (ay olarak)?_____

7. Toplam iş tecrübeniz (ay olarak)?_____

Lütfen cevaplamaya bir sonraki sayfadan devam ediniz

