THE INFLUENCE OF JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, AND PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE ON ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR IN TURKISH EDUCATION SECTOR

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ABSTRACT

THE INFLUENCE OF JOB SATISFACTION, ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT, AND PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE ON
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR IN
TURKISH EDUCATION SECTOR

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This thesis examines the influence of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceptions of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) of private primary school teachers in Ankara. Previous research has shown that these three variables are significantly correlated with OCB. The effect of these three variables on OCB are studied collectively in the education sector. The study of the effects of the three variables on OCB are rare in Turkey, especially in the education sector which experienced dramatic changes in 2005-2006 education year due to the initiation of a new curriculum at the primary education. The new curriculum is student centered and has changed the methods of teaching drastically. Therefore the role of the teacher has to be changed. OCB is especially important in the times of change and may help to adapt to a changing environment especially facing tough competition. Among the three antecedent variables, organizational commitment and perceived procedural justice are found to account for a significant amount of variance in OCBs of private primary school teachers in our sample. The findings are discussed and future research needs are reviewed especially from the perspective of impression management.

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Key Words: Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Organizational Justice, Impression Management

ÖZ

TÜRK EĞİTİM SEKTÖRÜNDE İŞ TATMİNİ, ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK VE ÖRGÜTSEL ADALET ALGILAMALARININ ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK DAVRANIŞINA ETKİLERİ

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Bu çalışma, Ankara'daki özel ilköğretim okullarında çalışan öğretmenlerin iş tatmini, örgütsel bağlılık ve örgütsel adalet algılamalarının örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları (ÖVD) üzerindeki etkilerini incelemektedir. Önceki araştırmalar bu üç değişkenin ÖVD ile pozitif korelasyon gösterdiğini ortaya koymuştur. Bu üç değişkenin ÖVD üzerindeki etkisi eğitim sektörü baz alınarak incelenmiştir. Türkiye'de, özellikle eğitim sektöründe, bu üç değişkenin ÖVD üzerindeki etkisi bir arada çalışılmamıştır. Türk eğitim sistemi 2005-2006 eğitim yılından başlayarak, ilköğretimde yeni müfredatın uygulanmaya konulmasıyla birlikte, büyük bir değişim yaşamıştır. Uygulanmaya başlanılan öğrenci merkezli yeni müfredat öğretim yöntemlerini de önemli ölçüde değiştirmiştir. Bu nedenle ilköğretimde öğretmenlerin rolü de değişmiştir. ÖVD'nın önemi özellikle değişim zamanlarında artmaktadır. ÖVD özellikle yoğun rekabet içerisinde bulunan çevrelerde yaşanan değişime uyum sağlamayı kolaylaştırır. Çalışmamız, örgütsel bağlılık ve prosedürel adalet algılamalarının özel ilköğretim okulu öğretmenlerinin ÖVD'nı önemli miktarda açıkladığını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Sonuçlar örgütsel bağlılık ve prosedürel adalet algılamaları çerçevesinde yorumlanmış ve gelecekteki araştırma gereksinimleri özellikle izlenimlerin yönetilmesi açısından irdelenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı, İş Tatmini, Örgütsel Bağlılık, Örgütsel Adalet, İzlenim Yönetimi

To All Who Has Contributed A Meaning To My Life

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

OCB   Organizational Citizenship Behavior

OCBO Organizational Citizenship Behavior Directed at Organizations

OCBI Organizational Citizenship Behavior Directed at Individuals

JS   Job Satisfaction

MSQ   Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

OC   Organizational Commitment

OCQ   Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

OJ   Organizational Justice

PJ   Procedural Justice

DJ   Distributive Justice

MONE Ministry of National Education

IM   Impression Management

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In today's rapidly changing and highly competitive environment, organizations have to make themselves distinct in terms of the goods/ services they provide. In order to stay alive and function effectively, they have to emphasize their distinctness from the others. OCB may be an alternative way of creating flexibility and therefore adaptability to the changes in the environment of the organizations.

Every organization is a system of cooperated units. People in each organization perform many functions. Some of these functions are described in formal job descriptions. However most of the functions are outside of the formal job descriptions and more spontaneaous and discretionary in nature and voluntarily performed. These constructive and spontaneaous behaviors contribute to the long term effective functioning of the organization and the distinctiveness of it.

These kind of behaviors are called as Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) after Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith, Organ, and Near (1983). OCBs are referred as a separate category of behavior which are explained by different incentives than the ones that are important for persuading the people to enter and remain in the organization and performing their jobs in a dependable way to insure high productivity.

The constructive and cooperative sides of OCB have been emphasized by the researchers (Smith *et al.*, 1983; Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Motowidlo and Scotter, 1994). Organ and Konovsky (1989) have mentioned about Barnard (1938) and Katz and Kahn (1966) upon whose works the concept of OCB was

based. Barnard has described organizations as "associations of cooperative efforts" (Barnard, 1938, p.83) and has stressed the importance of contributing efforts of individuals to this cooperative system which in turn produced many constructive actions to impress others (Organ and Konovsky, 1989). Katz and Kahn (1966) have distinguished between dependable role performance and spontaneaous behavior. They have stated that the patterned activity in organizations are far beyond the formal job descriptions. They have stressed the importance of spontaneaous behavior which is cooperative in nature. These cooperative gestures protect the system, keep the organization together and enhance the external image of the organization (Organ and Konovsky, 1989).

Smith *et al.*, (1983) have stated the importance of OCBs as:

> Citizenship behaviors are important because they lubricate the social machinery of the organization. They provide the flexibility needed to work through many unforeseen contingencies; they enable participants to cope with the otherwise awesome condition of interdependence on each other (Smith *et al*, 1983, p. 654).

Organ and Ryan (1995) have mentioned the importance of OCBs from the point of view of organization leaders. According to these authors, OCBs are significant and highly valued by the management. Smith *et al.* (1983) have also stated that the supervisors take OCBs performed by subordinates into consideration. They are valued by supervisors "in part because they make their own jobs easier and free their own time and energy for more substantive tasks" (Bateman and Organ,1983,p. 588). In this way, OCBs decrease the maintenance costs in an organization.

Organizations with employees who have high OCBs will have the advantage of having a dedicated group of employees. These employees will contribute to the organization in numerous ways. They will be committed to the

organization, stay with the organization thus the organization will have a lower rate of turnover. Their products will be of higher quality, thus the company will have an advantageous place in the highly competing environment. This will in turn help to recruit more qualified personnel. OCBs will provide a better work environment (Koopmann, R., uwstout.edu./rs/uwsjsr/koopmann.pdf).

In summary; OCBs contribute to the effective functioning of the organizations and the productivity of the organization and the people working in them. The resources are allocated more efficiently therefore maintenance costs are reduced. Organizational activities are better coordinated among departments and individuals working in the organizations. This helps increased stability in the performance of the organization and better adaptation to environmental changes. All of these qualities increase the attractiveness of the organization and the organization can recruit more qualified new personel (Ertürk, Yılmaz, Ceylan, 2004).

Instances of OCB represent constructive or cooperative gestures that are not obligatory since they are out of formal role obligations. They cannot be required by the supervisors because they are performed discretionally and voluntarily and are not compensated by formal reward systems. These are noted by supervisors and may affect the performance appraisals of the subordinates positively. However there is no guarantee that they will be compensated formally. Even engaging in these kinds of behaviors may contribute to another's performance more and the person engaging in OCBs may be sacrificing his/her output in the short run. However people still engage in OCBs and thus it seems worthwhile to explore OCBs in organizations.

Most of the research on OCB has studied its relationship with some correlates like job satisfaction, organizational commitment and perceived fairness. However there are few research which studies the effect of these three independent variables on OCB collectively and most of the research is performed in U.S.A.. Although OCB is begun to be studied in different work settings and cultures, relatively few studies are performed on OCB in educational settings. As to the current knowledge of the researcher, there is no research in Turkey studying collectively the impact of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and perceived organizational justice on OCB in Turkish educational sector.

In this thesis, we studied the influence of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and perceived organizational justice on OCB of teachers working in the private primary schools in Ankara. Educational sector is chosen because teaching inherently includes many organizational citizenshiplike behaviors in it. Besides Turkish primary education system has faced a drastic change in 2005-2006 educational year. The Ministry of National Education has initiated a new curriculum in the primary education starting from 2005-2006 educational year. The new curriculum has changed the methods of teaching and the classical role of the teacher. OCB is especially important in times of change because it helps to adapt to the changing environment. This thesis contributes to the literature by studying collectively the influence of its mostly studied antecedents factors on OCB in a different culture and in a sector which is relatively rarely studied.

In the next section, in our literature review, we will first explain the nature of OCB in detail and then its relationship with job satisfaction, organizational commitment and perceived organizational justice.

CHAPTER II

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

2.1 ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

People are the major input to organizations and they have to carry out some roles prescribed according to the objectives of the systems in which they function.

In 1964, Katz has tried to address the nature of people's involvement in a system and their commitment to it. He has identified three basic types of behavior essential for a functioning organization.

(1) People must be attracted to enter and induced to remain within the system: In order to exist and survive, an organization, has to attract the right people into its system and has to persuade the sufficient number of them to remain in it.

(2) People must carry out their roles in a reliable way: The people in the system must carry out their roles reliably and in a dependable fashion according to organizational protocol and leadership in order for the organization to accomplish its goals.

(3) At the same time there is a need for innovative and spontaneaous activity not specified by role prescriptions if the system is to adapt to environmental changes and survive effectively (Katz, 1964).

According to Katz, the patterned activity in an organization is a set of cooperative interrelationships in which people also perform many acts beyond their duties. These cooperative interrelationships are so intrinsic that they often go unnoticed because they are taken for granted. However without these cooperative acts, the systems may break down. Katz has

described these cooperative acts as protecting the organization against disaster, providing constructive ideas for the improvement and maintenance of production, self training of members for effective job performance and for more responsible positions, helping to create a favorable attitude for the organization in the community (Katz, 1964). He has also noted, "an organization which depends solely upon its blueprints of prescribed behavior is a very fragile social system" (Katz, 1964, p. 132).

In any organization, people must carry out many other roles that are not prescribed in their formal job descriptions but which are vital for the effective functioning of the organizations. Katz and Kahn (1966) have mentioned about:

> supra-role behavior-behavior that cannot be prescribed or required in advance for a given job. These behaviors include any of those gestures (often taken for granted) that lubricate the social machinery of the organization but that do not directly inhere in the usual notion of task performance. Examples that come to mind include: helping co-workers with a job related problem; accepting orders without a fuss; tolerating temporary impositions without complaint; helping to keep the work area clean and uncluttered; making timely and constructive statements about the work unit or its head to outsiders; promoting a work climate that is tolerable and minimizes the distractions created by interpersonal conflict; and protecting and conserving organizational resources (Bateman and Organ, 1983, p. 588).

Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith *et al*. (1983) have used the term of "citizenship behaviors" to refer to these kind of behaviors.

Organizational citizenship related behaviors "all highlight behaviors that involve cooperation and helping others in the organization" (Motowidlo and Scotter, 1994, p. 475).

Smith *et al*. (1983) have matched cooperation and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Cooperation and productivity were the two terms used by Roethlisberger and Dickson in 1964. Roethlisberger and Dickson (1964) had regarded productivity as a function of the formal, economic organization and the authority structure, role specifications, technology in the formal organization. Productivity was the logic of facts. However cooperation was regarded as the logic of sentiments and referred to acts that serve to maintain the internal balance of the organization (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1964). "Cooperation thus included the day-to-day spontaneous prosocial gestures of individual accommodation to the work needs of others (e.g., co-workers, supervisor, clients in other departments)" (Smith *et al*., 1983, p. 653). Emphasizing the sentiment side of cooperation, Smith *et al*. (1983) have connected cooperation to citizenship behavior at the individual level.

The roots of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) research emerged from Organ's belief that job satisfaction and performance of a broader sort are functionally related (Organ, 1997). Organ stated the argument as "satisfaction would affect people's willingness to help colleagues and work associates and their disposition to cooperate in varied and mundane forms to maintain organized structures that govern work" (Organ, 1997, p.92). In 1977, Organ has tried to explain satisfaction causes performance hypotheses from the perspective of social exchange theory. After reviewing competing theories of whether satisfaction causes performance or prior performance rewards later satisfaction, Organ has suggested that "one need not view these contrasting approaches as running a horse race; there is no reason why attraction to either one excludes the other from consideration. Both relationships may exist, in varying degrees of mix from one situation to another" (Organ, 1977, p. 49). The jobs in the organizations are designed in a way to minimize the variances in the performance. Technology limits the

amount of work to be done per unit of time and per person. Therefore the outputs produced or the quantitative performances are roughly constant or vary only within a narrow range. From a social exchange theory perspective, since the objective and quantitative performances are limited, in order to reciprocate rewards from organizational officials, organizational participants have to be engaged in other types of work related behavior (Organ, 1977). In many situations, rather than effective task performance, organizational officials are more interested in "regular attendance, predictability, following the rules, not making waves, avoidance of hassless, cooperation, and generalized tendencies toward compliance. Certainly such behaviors represent the glue which holds collective endeavors together" (Organ, 1977, p.50). Organ concluded that the failure to provide strong correlations between satisfaction and performance might be due to operationalizing performance narrowly as quantity and/or quality of output (Schnake, 1991). People agreeing with the proposition that satisfaction affects performance might be assuming the concept of performance to be broader than the performance concepts measured by industrial psychologists (Organ, 1977).

According to Bateman and Organ (1983), there is no direct and functional relationship between satisfaction and performance and other dimensions of performance may be more important to the practitioner. Bateman and Organ predicted that "there is a causal connection between prior overall satisfaction and subsequent display of a host of citizenship behaviors" (Bateman and Organ, 1983, p. 588).

This need to clarify specifically the nature of the subsequent display of helpful and cooperative behaviors due to prior job satisfaction led Smith *et al*. (1983) to ask managers to identify examples of helpful, but not absolutely required, job behaviors. Those behaviors were the ones they would like their subordinates to do but cannot require them to perform either by rewards or

threat of force and punishment. The managers then rated how characteristic each statement was of the subordinates working for them. The factor analysis of the responses revealed two factors: Altruism and Generalized Compliance (Smith *et al*., 1983; LePine, Erez, Johnson, 2002, Organ, 1997).

Altruism "appears to capture behavior that is directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face to face situations (e.g. orienting new people, assisting someone with a heavy workload)" (Smith *et al*., 1983, p.657). Altruism can be defined as a class of helping behaviors which is directed to specific people having a problem, asking for a service or needing assistance (Smith *et al*., 1983).

On the other hand, generalized compliance;

> pertains to a more impersonal form of conscientiousness that does not provide immediate aid to any one specific person, but rather is indirectly helpful to others involved in the system. The behavior (e.g. punctuality, not wasting time) seems to represent something akin to compliance with internalized norms defining what a "good employee ought to do" (Smith *et al*., 1983, p.657).

Generalized compliance factor is different from altruism in the way that it is not directed to specific persons in the system but directed to the total system. It is "more of a "good soldier" or "good citizen" syndrome of doing things that are "right and proper" but for the sake of the system rather than for specific persons" (Smith *et al*., 1983, p. 662). In this way all the other people in the system share the benefits of those impersonal and indirectly helpful behaviors.

The first studies of OCB emphasized the behavioral consequences of job satisfaction which was thought to have important implications on organizational effectiveness (Motowidlo, 2000). The first studies tested and supported "the prediction that job satisfaction, although not a strong

correlate of productivity, does relate to OCB, because the latter is less constrained by either ability or work-process technology" (Organ and Ryan, 1995, p. 775).

Smith *et al.* (1983) have suggested that organizational citizenship behavior may be an expression of a broader character toward prosocial behavior. This was the point of view of Brief and Motowidlo (1986) when they defined prosocial behavior in organizational settings. The two terms seem to overlap; however prosocial organizational behaviors are broader than organizational citizenship behaviors (Schnake, 1991).

> Prosocial organizational behavior is behavior which is (a) performed by a member of an organization, (b) directed toward an individual, group, or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role, and (c) performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986, p.711).

Brief and Motowidlo (1986) have made distinctions between different kinds of prosocial organizational behaviors; as being functional or dysfunctional; as being role prescribed or extra role; as involving different targets. Prosocial organizational behaviors may be functional if they help the organization to accomplish its objectives or dysfunctional if they prevent the organization to be effective in time. Prosocial organizational behaviors may also be role prescribed or extra-role. If prosocial behaviors are specified formally as part of the job descriptions, goal statements, and performance appraisal forms; like being helpful and cooperative to other project members working in the same research and development team, then we talk about role prescribed prosocial organizational behaviors. Extra-role prosocial behaviors which are not specified as part of the job can be functional or dysfunctional (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986). Dysfunctional extra-role behaviors includes prosocial acts which help people in the organization or the clients of the organization to

benefit personally but in the long run are costly or detrimental for the effectiveness of the organization. Still another distinction made by Brief and Motowidlo (1986) covers the targets of prosocial organizational behaviors. The targets may be individuals; like peers or supervisors or customers to whom goods or services are directed or the organization as a unit; like individuals giving some time and energy for the sake of the organization. If the target of the prosocial behavior is the organization, then the prosocial acts are functional. However prosocial acts directed at individuals can be functional or dysfunctional depending on the objective. Prosocial acts towards both the organization and the individual can be either role prescribed or extra-role (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986).

Brief and Motowidlo suggested that the dimension of "Generalized Compliance" of OCB as described by Smith *et al.* (1983) "represents prosocial acts directed toward the organization" (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986, p.714). The other dimension of "Altruism" defined by Smith *et al.*, (1983) "includes prosocial acts toward other individual members of the organization" (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986, p. 713).

In 1988, Organ defined OCB as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p.4). He identified five dimensions of OCB; altruism (helping others with organizationally related problems), conscientiousness (engaging in behaviors beyond the minimally expected levels of job performance), sportsmanship (performing the job without complaining about inconveniency), courtesy (making efforts to prevent a problem from occurring, and consulting others before any action), and civic virtue (participating in matters that affect the organization) (Organ, 1988; LePine *et al.*, 2002; Bies, 1989).

Schnake has reviewed the extra-role, helping behaviors in the literature and combined them to define OCB as "functional, extra-role, prosocial organizational behaviors, directed at individuals, groups, and/or an organization" (Schnake, 1991, p. 738). She has excluded role-prescribed, dysfunctional and noncompliant behaviors from her definition and included only those helping behaviors, although not formally prescribed by the organization, still performed and for which they are not directly rewarded or punished (Schnake, 1991).

Williams and Anderson (1991) have defined two broad categories of OCB: OCBO (OCB directed at organizations) and OCBI (OCB directed at individuals). OCBO is directed and benefits the whole organization. Notification of temporary leaves in advance and compliance with the informal rules of the organization which are developed for the maintenance of the order are examples of OCBO. OCBI is directed to and benefits specific individuals and contributes to the organization indirectly. OCBI includes activities like helping others who has been absent or behaving considerately to other employees (Williams and Anderson, 1991).

OCBI dimension is the "Altruism" dimension and OCBO is the "Generalized Compliance" dimension of Smith *et al*. (1983). Williams and Anderson have demonstrated that in-role behaviors, OCBIs and OCBOs are relatively distinct and extra-role behavior in the form of OCB can be distinguished from traditional in-role behaviors (Williams and Anderson, 1991).

Organ and Ryan, in their meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of OCB in 1995, defined OCB as "individual contributions in the work place that go beyond role requirements and contractually rewarded job achievements" (Organ and Ryan, 1995, p. 775). They based their model on

the works of Borman and Motowidlo (1993) and Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994).

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) have differentiated between task performance and contextual performance. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) have offered three themes to describe the important aspects of job performance. According to these authors, job performance may include prescribed or discretionary role behavior.   It may include cooperation and altruistic behaviors as in OCB and prosocial behavior. Job performance may involve high task competency or unrelated to task competency. Two classes of behavior are included in task performance. One is related with activities which transform raw materials into finished goods or services. Teaching in a school is an example of this kind of activity. The other is related with the maintenance and service activities directed to technical core (Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Motowidlo, Borman, Schmit, 1997).

Task performance consists of activities described in formal job descriptions (Motowidlo, 2000). In contrast, contextual performance behaviors are not part of main task functions but they "support the broader organizational, social and psychological environment in which the technical core must function" (Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994, p. 476). According to Motowidlo and Van Scotter, contextual performance;

> includes activities that promote the viability of the social and organizational network and enhance the psychological climate in which the technical core is embedded, activities such as helping and cooperating with others; following organizational rules and procedures even when personally inconvenient; endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives; persisting with extra enthusiasm when necessary to complete own tasks succesfully; and volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of the job (Motowidlo *et al.*, 1997, p. 76).

Therefore both task performance and contextual performance are important in the accomplishment of goals of the organization; but through two different means (Motowidlo *et al.*, 1997). Contextual performance is more general across different jobs and work organizations, but task performance changes depending on the type of the job. Organizational leaders perceive contextual performance as important and prefer these kinds of contributions (Organ and Ryan, 1995). Contextual performance has much in common with OCB and they have important implications from many perspectives including many human resources management practices like job analysis, recruitment, performance appraisal, compensation (Motowidlo, 2000).

Motowidlo and Van Scotter have shown that, the two dimensions of performance, task and contextual have different contributions to the organization and have different relationships with experience and personality factors. Task performance is mostly explained by experience and predicted by cognitive ability through its effects on task related knowledge, skills and habits. Cognitive ability may be effective on contextual knowledge and therefore on contextual performance. Contextual performance is mostly explained by personality. Personality traits affect contextual knowledge, skills and habits and therefore contextual performance (Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Motowidlo *et al.*,1997). "One personality trait in particular, conscientiousness, may also affect task performance through its effects on task habits" (Motowidlo *et al.*, 1997, p.82).

Organ and Ryan's (1995) model was based on the works of Borman and Motowidlo (1993) with the exception that they emphasized the attitudinal factors as the determinants of OCB, whereas Borman and Motowidlo had emphasized the personality factors. The model, as shown below, suggests that task performance is determined mostly by knowledge, skills and ability. Incentives and contractual rewards have impact on task performance also.

However these differences in the prediction of OCB and task performance are not absolute. Some personality factors may have impact on task performance and ability and certain incentives may increase some types of OCB (Organ and Ryan, 1995).
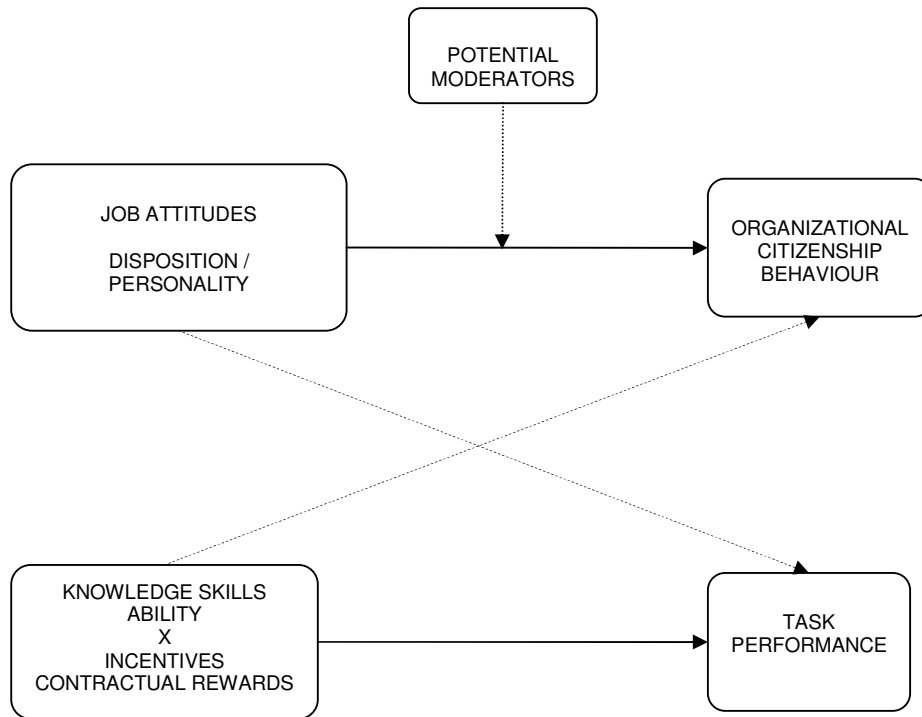
Source: Organ and Ryan, 1995, p. 777
Figure 1 : Correlates of OCB Versus In-Role Task Performance

Whereas OCB and contextual performance have much in common, there are some important differences between the two terms. The first studies of OCB have emphasized job satisfaction and tried to answer its contribution to increased organizational performance from a different perspective than the past. However contextual performance was originated from personnel selection area. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) suggested that personnel selection criteria was mainly based on task performance like activities appearing on job descriptions and tended to neglect contextual performance

like volunteering, helping, following organizational rules and the like (Motowidlo, 2000).

Besides their origination, the definitions of OCB and contextual performance are also different. Contextual performance need not be extra-role or nonrewarded. The defining quality is that it be "non-task, or more to the point, that it contribute to the maintenance and/or enhancement of the context of work" (Organ, 1997, p.90).

Organ's definition of OCB in 1988 as discretionary behavior which contributes to the effective functioning of the organization but which is not formally rewarded, had conceptual difficulties and ambiguities when describing discretionary, non-contractual reward requirements and, measurement of effectiveness of functioning components. (Organ, 1997; Motowidlo, 2000). Organ has explained discretionary as;

> 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 contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable" (Organ, 1988, p. 4).

This unclear definition of discretionary might cause the meaning of OCB open to interpretation and to vary between employees and supervisor and from one person to the other. The employee may consider one part of the job as OCB whereas the supervisor may consider it as task performance and expect it from the employee.

Organ (1997) has suggested that OCB is not directly or formally recognized by the organization's reward system. However, he has also stated the rewards of OCB to be indirect and uncertain compared to formal contributions. The engagement in organizational citizenship type behaviors

may create a positive image of the employee in the eyes of the supervisor and he/she may be recommended for a salary increase or promotion in return and rewarded indirectly. He has stated the important and discriminating issue for these rewards not being contractually guaranteed (Organ, 1988). However he has later added that "very few rewards are contractually guaranteed for any behavior, including technical performance or brilliant innovation" (Organ, 1997, p. 89).

The first research studies in OCB were mainly based on the distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviors. Being extra-role indicated that the behavior is not described in the formal job descriptions and is not normally expected of the individual as part of his/her employment contract with the organization. OCB research has initially been based on the scales developed by asking the employeers to give examples of employee extra-role behavior (Smith *et al.*, 1983) and has assumed that the distinction between extra-role and in-role behaviors is clear and is the same for all of the individuals working in the same organization (Smith *et al.*, 1983; Bateman and Organ, 1983; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Organ, 1988; Niehoff and Moorman, 1993). However, later the assumption that OCB was extra-role or beyond the job requirements was challenged (Graham, 1991; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994; Morrison, 1994). It was stated that the perspective of the manager and the employee may be different and each may stress the different sides of work behavior. Therefore; early scales measuring OCB may be stressing the the extra-role definitions of employers. Morrison has stated that "the boundary between in-role and extra-role behavior is ill-defined and subject to multiple interpretations" (Morrison, 1994, p. 1544). She has defined OCB as exceeding the requirements of the job and has stated that the boundary between OCB or extra-role and in-role behavior changed across employees. She has challenged the assumption that a clear distinction exists between extra-role and in-role job behaviors. Morrison has required the participants

in her study to categorize items used in the previous popular OCB measurement and which reflected the altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, sportsmanship and courtesy dimensions of Organ (1988). The participants were asked to categorize them either part of the job (in-role) or beyond the job (extra-role). "Morrison's participants categorized many OCBs, previously assumed to be extra-role in nature, as in-role" (Vey and Campbell, 2004). The results of the study indicated that OCB was dependent on the definition of employees and by engaging in OCB, employees might in fact be trying to do their jobs in the most effective way.

The above criticisms on the description of discretionary, extra-role, non-contractual reward requirements and, measurement of effectiveness of functioning components in his 1988 definition of OCB, led Organ in 1997 to redefine the construct of OCB. Organ (1997) referred to Morrison's (1994) study when rationalizing the need for the redefinition of OCB. Organ redefined OCB as "contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (Organ, 1997, p.91). Therefore OCB and contextual performance meant the same thing (Motowidlo,2000). Organ however preferred to use the term OCB. According to Organ, the term contextual performance was "cold, gray, and bloodless" (Organ, 1997, p.91); therefore his objection was not to the definition of contextual performance but to its name. However whatever term is used,

> the most important thing is that they are studying helping behavior. Whether they also declare that they are studying "extra-role", or "contextual", or "citizenship" behavior is probably not particularly important except, perhaps, to explain why they want to study interpersonal helping and what it is about interpersonal helping they want to study (Motowidlo, 2000, p.118).

In order to contribute to the understanding of the relationships between its mostly studied antecedents and OCB in different work occupations and in different cultures, we studied OCBs of primary school teachers working in the private schools in Ankara. We studied the relative contributions of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceived organizational justice in determining the OCBs of primary school teachers in our sample. In the following sections, we will first discuss the dimensions of OCB as studied in the literature and the importance of OCB in work settings. We will then discuss the more frequently studied antecedents of OCB; namely job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceived organizational justice. Our main objective is to answer the question of whether the job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceived organizational justice of private primary school teachers in Ankara induce them to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors.

2.2 DIMENSIONS OF OCB

Although there is considerable research on OCB, there is also debate on the precise definition and operationalization of OCB. "It is important to note that OCBs have been categorized on the basis of common themes or dimensions" (Hannam and Jimmieson, 2002). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) have reviewed the literature on OCB and other related constructs like contextual performance, extra-role behaviors, prosocial behaviors and have organized them into seven common dimensions; namely

1- Helping Behavior; "involves voluntarily helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of, work related problems" (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000, p. 516). Altruism dimensions of Smith *et al.* (1983) and Organ (1988), OCBI dimension of Williams and Anderson (1991), Interpersonal Facilitation dimension of Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996), Helping Others construct of

George and Brief (1992) and George and Jones (1997) involves voluntarily helping others. Courtesy dimension of Organ (1988) involves actions related with the prevention of occurrence of work related problems.

2- Sportsmanship: involves not complaining

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 (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517).

Sportsmanship dimension of Organ (1988) and Helping and Cooperating with Others dimension of Borman and Motowidlo (1997) explain sportsmanship dimension.

3- Organizational Loyalty: "entails promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions" (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000, p. 517). Organizational Loyalty dimension of Graham (1991), Loyalty Boosterism dimension of Moorman and Blakely (1995), Spreading Goodwill dimension of George and Brief (1992) and George and Jones (1997), Endorsing, Supporting and Defending Organizational Objectives dimension of Borman and Motowidlo (1997) are identified under organizational loyalty.

4- Organizational Compliance: "appears to capture a person's internalization and acceptance of organization's rules, regulations, and procedures, which results in a scrupulous adherence to them, even when no one observes or monitors compliance" (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000, p. 517). This dimension was called as Generalized Compliance by Smith *et al.* (1983), Organizational Obedience by Graham (1991), OCBO by Williams and Anderson (1991),

Following Organizational Rules and Procedures by Borman and Motowidlo (1997), Job Dedication by Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996).

5- Individual Initiative:

> involves engaging in task-related behaviors at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavor. Such behaviors include voluntary acts of creativity and innovation designed to improve one's task or the organization's performance, persisting with extra enthusiasm and effort to accomplish one's job, volunteering to take on extra responsibilities, and encouraging others in the organization to do the same (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000, p. 524).

This dimension is studied as Conscientiousness by Organ (1988), Personal Industry and Individual Initiative by Moorman and Blakely (1995), Making Constructive Suggestions by George and Jones (1997), Persisting with Enthusiasm and Extra Effort and Volunteering to Carry Out Task Activities by Borman and Motowidlo (1997) and Job Dedication by Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996).

6- Civic Virtue: "represents a macro-level interest in, or commitment to, the organization as a whole" (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000, p.525). According to Podsakoff *et al.* (2000) civic virtue is shown by willingly and actively participating in the governance of the organization like attending meetings, expressing opinions about the strategies to be followed. It also includes behaviors like following the changes in the environment of the organization for threats and opportunities, reporting fire hazards, locking doors therefore taking the best interests of the organization into consideration. "These behaviors reflect 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).

This dimension is called as Civic Virtue by Organ (1988), Organizational Participation by Graham (1991) and Protecting the Organization by George and Jones (1997).

7- Self-Development: "includes voluntary behaviors employees engage in to improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities." (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000, p. 525) This dimension is studied as Developing Oneself by George and Jones (1997).

In order to reach to a better understanding of OCB, we have described the different dimensions of OCB above, based on the review of Podsakoff *et al.* (2000). In our research, we have used the scale developed by Smith *et al.* (1983). This scale is mainly comprised of two dimensions; altruism and generalized compliance. The definitions of altruism and generalized compliance are made in the previous section. However, in our research, as stated in the methodology section, we preferred to use the scale of Smith *et al.* (1983) as unidimensional and did not differentiate between altruism and generalized compliance dimensions.

In the introduction section, we have stressed the importance of OCB. People engage in organization citizenshiplike behaviors although there is no guarantee that they will be rewarded and even recognized by the management. People still engage in OCB; thus it seems worthwhile to explore the antecedents of OCBs in organizations in order to gain more insight on OCB.

CHAPTER III

JOB SATISFACTION and ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Job satisfaction is one of the most extensively studied antecedent factors of OCB in the literature. "The most robust correlate of measures of OCB has been job satisfaction" (Organ, Konovsky, 1989, p.158). Researchers in many studies have found reliable statistical relationships between OCB and job satisfaction.

There was a great interest in job satisfaction studies since the Human Relations Movement which emphasized the relationship of job attitudes to human behavior in organizations. The Human Relations Movement theorists have emphasized job satisfaction, informal groups, and good interpersonal relations. Much of the research on job satisfaction during the thirties and forties emerged because of the presumed relationship of job satisfaction to job performance (Lawler III and Porter, 1983). However in 1977, after many years of research and equivocal findings, Organ has declared the notion of the Human Relations Movement, stating that satisfaction causes performance, as intellectually bankrupt.

According to Bateman and Organ (1983), there is no direct and functional relationship between satisfaction and performance. They have stressed that other dimensions of performance like the display of citizenship behaviors may be more important to the practitioner. Bateman and Organ (1983) tried to provide two different explanations for this prediction. One was social exchange theory. If a person's satisfaction is the result of the efforts of organizational officials and if the person views these efforts as volitional and non–manipulative in intent, he/she will try to reciprocate those efforts. Since

OCBs are mostly under the control of the person and he/she may not have the opportunity to reciprocate each time by increasing his/her output technically, OCBs seem to be valid alternatives of reciprocation (Bateman and Organ, 1983).

Bateman and Organ's second explanation was based on a series of social pscyhological experiments performed by Rosenhan, Underwood, and Moore (1974). According to Rosenhan *et al.* (1974) "positive affect tends to decrease the psychological state between self and others, and positive affect tends to generalize from whatever caused it to other stimuli (notably persons) in the temporal and social context" (Bateman, Organ, 1983, p.588). Job satisfaction is conventionally measured as a positive affective state and according to Bateman and Organ "it is likely that more satisfied persons display more of the prosocial, citizenship behaviors" (Bateman, Organ, 1983, p.588).

Bateman and Organ (1983) have investigated the causal connection between job satisfaction and OCB on a sample of non–academic, administrative employees in a major university. The employees have completed questionnaires on job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured by Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969). It has five scales measuring employees' satisfaction with work, pay, promotion, co–workers and supervision   (Bateman, Organ,1983).   The immediate supervisors have completed a scale on OCB of employees. The items in this scale included " a variety of behaviors such as compliance, altruism, dependability, house–cleaning, complaints, waste, cooperation, criticism of and arguing with others, and punctuality" (Bateman, Organ, 1983, p.589). Bateman and Organ found that "job satisfaction is indeed strongly and positively related to a "citizenship" dimension of role performance" (Bateman, Organ, 1983, p.592).   Each of the five dimensions of job

satisfaction was positively related to OCB; however job satisfaction with supervision and job satisfaction with promotional opportunity were more positively related to OCB than job satisfaction with work, with co-worker, and with pay.

However Bateman and Organ (1983) could not find evidence for the predicted direction of causality. They concluded that the variables may be correlated because of their dependence on a common antecedent variable. In this case "supervisory behavior" and "personality" may account for common cause. The authors suggested that supportive supervision may elicit citizenship behaviors regardless of its effects on job satisfaction (Bateman and Organ, 1983).

The above suggestion of Bateman and Organ (1983) was later tested by Smith *et al.* (1983). Smith *et al.* (1983) inquired the antecedents of OCB in organizations. They suggested that much of the OCB had an altruistic character and people with a positive mood tended to behave altruistically. They proposed that "job satisfaction, to the extent that it represents a characteristic or enduring positive mood state, would account for some portion of citizenship behavior" (Smith *et al.*, 1983, p. 654). They tested the effects of environmental dimensions including leader supportiveness and task interdependence together with the effects of job satisfaction and some personality dimensions on OCB. The results of Smith *et al.*'s 1983 study showed that job satisfaction which is measured as chronic affective mood state had a direct effect on Altruism. Leader Supportiveness was related to Altruism indirectly through job satisfaction. However Leader Supportiveness had a direct effect on Generalized Compliance unmediated by satisfaction.

Motowidlo (1984) tried to answer the question of whether job satisfaction led to consideration and personal sensitivity. Although there is little evidence

that satisfaction causes performance, he suggested satisfaction may have causal effects on other job related behaviors like withdrawal, turnover, absenteeism. Motowidlo pointed out that people who are in a good mood experienced positive affect and tended to behave more altruistically and considerately to others. Mood and job satisfaction are two constructs which are conceptually and operationally different but intimately related (Motowidlo, 1984). People who are satisfied with their work and working environment are in a positive mood and the affective response is behaviors related to altruism, helping and consideration. Motowidlo made references to Smith *et al*. (1983) and Bateman and Organ (1983) who reported positive correlations between job satisfaction and OCB.

> These studies show that people who report high levels of job satisfaction are more likely to behave in ways that are important for the organization even though their actions might not necessarily contribute directly to higher levels of their own job performance or productivity (Motowidlo, 1984, p. 911).

Motowidlo (1984) found that job satisfaction is significantly correlated with supervisory ratings of consideration. Consideration included willingness to listen to others, concern for the needs and feelings of others, and self-control. Consideration factor resembled the Altruism dimension of OCB. Besides consideration was significantly correlated with satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, amount of pay and satisfaction with supervision, kind of work, co-workers and the company. Motowidlo concluded that:

> feelings of satisfaction are associated with patterns of behavior at work that reflect interpersonal sensitivity and kindness behaviors such as listening to others, showing awareness and concern for the needs and feelings of others, tact, emotional control, and acceptance of criticism (Motowidlo, 1984, p. 911).

People who are satisfied with their working situations express positive affect and behave sensitively and considerately to others. Interpersonal sensitivity and consideration factors are likely to be especially important in management jobs which requires high personal contact with others like health care, teaching and direct sales. Therefore job satisfaction might be a more important determinant of effectiveness in such kind of jobs than in jobs in which interpersonal sensitivity and consideration factors are not necessary for success (Motowidlo, 1984).

Organ and Lingl (1995) tried to explain the job satisfaction and OCB relationship alternatively from the point of view of personality factors. They stated that satisfaction and OCB may be correlated because of one or more stable personality factors underlying both satisfaction and OCB. They used "Agreeableness" and "Conscientiousness" factors of the five factor model of personality defined by McCrae and Costa. (1987). Agreeableness factor is accepted to suggest the Altruism factor of OCB defined by Smith *et al.* (1983)**.** Since this factor involved establishing pleasant and satisfying relationships with others, it was thought to be related to satisfaction with coworkers and supervisor which included entering into relationships with others. The second factor "Conscientiousness" was thought to be related to the second dimension of OCB described as "Generalized Compliance" by Smith *et al.* (1983). Organ and Lingl suggested that the relationship between conscientious disposition and job satisfaction is indirect;

> as a generalized work – involvement tendency (i.e. liking for rule governed behavior that probably is more characteristic of work in organizations than in other life domains); from a "virtue is its own reward" ethic; or from informal rewards (recognition, respect, compliments) generated from others who admire this characteristic (Organ and Lingl, 1995, p. 341).

Organ and Lingl distributed questionnaires to employees of two firms one in Great Britain and the other in the U.S.A.. The employees filled questionnaires on job satisfaction and two personality dimensions, whereas the supervisors/group leaders rated the employees on OCB. They concluded that satisfaction might account uniquely for variance in OCB net of the effects of the two personality dimensions (Organ and Lingl, 1995).

Puffer, in her study of prosocial and non-compliant behaviors (1987) among commission sales people, explained that people who are fairly treated and people who feel secure about the working situation are inclined to help others. She included satisfaction with material rewards variable as a reflection of personal security. "By satisfying material needs, financial and job security are expected to reduce peroccupation with one's personal situation and facilitate pro–social behavior" (Puffer, 1987, p.616). She found that there was a positive correlation between satisfaction with material rewards and pro–social behavior. In addition satisfaction with material rewards were positively related to sales performance. She concluded that personal security or satisfaction with material rewards is a prerequisite to pro-social behavior. She paralleled Smith *et al.*'s (1983) study in which they have found job satisfaction to be a determinant of Altruism (Puffer, 1987). She found negative relation between non–compliant behavior and work performance and modest relation between pro–social behavior and work performance. However Puffer was careful when interpreting the results. She proposed alternative explanations including rater bias and direction of causality. Since supervisors have rated employees on pro–social and non–compliant behaviors, they may have used their knowledge of an individual's sales performance to predict their ratings and this knowledge may have caused rater bias due to halo effect. Secondly she interpreted that the direction of causality was ambigous. The positive relation of pro-social behaviors and satisfaction with material rewards suggested that performance

was enhanced due to reduced preoccupation with one's self. However another possible explanation was that when a person performed better, he/she was materially rewarded (Puffer, 1987).

Organ and Konovsky (1989) have suggested that

> job satisfaction has been regarded as virtually synonymous with job attitudes, probably because the commonly used measures of job satisfaction represent a form of attitude scale or evaluative response to the job. However, it is generally agreed that an attitude contains both a cognitive component (a set of beliefs about the attitude object) and an affective component (feelings or emotions elicited by the attitude object) (Organ and Konovsky, 1989, p.158).

Organ and Near (1985) have differentiated between satisfaction and happiness or cognition and affect. Satisfaction reflects "the appraisal, assessment, or evaluation of the composite external circumstances" (Organ and Near, 1985, p.243) made by the individual according to some standard. However happiness is more affective and the emphasis is on what the individual feels. Organ and Near contended that most of the job satisfaction scales measured the cognitive side rather than affective side of satisfaction. The wording and format of the scales tended to focus on the job rather than the feelings and emphasized the evaluation of the job consciously (Organ and Near, 1985).

Organ and Konovsky (1989) have tested the relative importance of cognitive (subjective appraisals of the job) versus affective (mood state) determinants of OCB. They found out that cognitions have more power in predicting OCB than affective state. "The implication is that characteristic OCB has a deliberate, controlled character, somewhat akin to conscious decision making rather than expressive emotional behavior" (Organ and Konovsky, 1989, p. 162). They showed job cognitions to be uniquely associated with Altruism and Generalized Compliance dimensions of OCB scale developed by Smith *et*

al. (1983).   Affect scales are not uniquely associated with Altruism and Generalized Compliance when cognitions are controlled for.   Besides pay cognitions contributed more over job cognitions   (Organ and Konovsky, 1989).

Williams and Anderson (1991) have examined the relative contributions of affective and cognitive components of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the prediction of OCBI and OCBO.   They found out that cognitive component of job satisfaction was related to OCBI and OCBO but affective component and commitment were not significant predictors. Moreover they have distinguished between intrinsic and extrinsic job cognitions.   Intrinsic job cognitions involved beliefs about job characteristics and extrinsic job cognitions involved beliefs about the managers and co-workers behaviors, promotion opportunities, working conditions and pay system.   Extrinsic job cognitions was found to predict OCBO and intrinsic job cognitions was found to predict OCBI (Williams and Anderson, 1991).

Another study made by Moorman (1993) hypothesized that cognitive based job satisfaction measures are more strongly related to OCB than affective based job satisfaction measures. He defined affective satisfaction as positive feelings or positive mood evoked by the job; or overall positive emotional appraisal of the job. Affective satisfaction measured the people's feelings or their mood on the job. Cognitive satisfaction, in contrast, is the logical and rational appraisal of the job. It measured the nature of the job, the working conditions, promotion opportunities etc... Cognitive satisfaction is related with conditions, opportunities and outcomes of the job whereas affective satisfaction is related with the description of the feelings on the job (Moorman, 1993).

Moorman has tested Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss, Davis, England, and Lofquist, in 1967, against Brayfield-Rothe Satisfaction Scale developed in 1951.

> MSQ, found to be mostly cognitive in its orientation, consists of a list of job conditions which the respondent is asked to appraise. The job conditions include the working conditions, the pay, the quality of supervision, and the degree of autonomy and importance in the job. No mention is made to the types of feelings associated with the work or the degree the work evokes positive or negative emotions (Moorman, 1993, p. 762).

In contrast, the Brayfield-Rothe scale asked questions about the emotional reactions to the work.

> The Brayfield-Rothe scale includes questions on the degree to which the respondent is bored, interested, happy, enthusiastic, disappointed, and enjoying work. These questions center not on specific appraisals about job conditions, but on the emotional reactions to the work (Moorman, 1993, p. 763).

Moorman's study provided support that relative importance of cognitions versus affect may affect the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. The Brayfield-Rothe scale explained little variance in OCB beyond that explained by Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, which is a more cognitive based job satisfaction measure (Moorman, 1993). Therefore Organ and Konovsky's work (1989) concluding that cognitions have more power in predicting OCB than affective state was supported by Moorman (1993).

Depending on the Moorman (1993) and Organ and Konovsky's (1989) conclusions that cognitions are more powerful in determining OCBs and MSQ is more cognitive oriented in nature, we used MSQ to measure job satisfaction of teachers in our sample.

After reviewing the literature on the relationship of job satisfaction and OCB, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1- Job Satisfaction is postively related to OCB.

CHAPTER IV

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

4.1 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment variable has been studied intensively in order to understand the work behavior in organizations. Organizational behavior researchers have tried to define and measure the nature of the commitment of employees to their organizations (Mowday, Steers, and Porter 1979; Mayer and Schoorman, 1998).

Researchers have defined commitment either in terms of behavior or attitude (Mowday *et al.*, 1979 ; Scholl, 1981). The behavioral approach which "views commitment as a force tying the individual to a specific organization" (Scholl, 1981, p. 590), was based on the work of Becker (1960). "For example, when we talk about someone becoming "bound by his actions" or "behaviors that exceed formal and/or normative expectations," we are in effect focusing on overt manifestations of commitment" (Mowday *et al.*, 1979, p. 225). Attitudinal commitment exists when "an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals" (Mowday *et al.*, 1979, p. 225). Attitudinal approach to commitment explains performance and membership. The behavioral approach is generally limited to employee membership decision (Scholl, 1981).

In 1960, Becker has tried to clarify the concept of commitment. He has studied the sociological and psychological explanations for commitment and identified some basic characteristics of commitment. According to Becker (1960), one basic characteristics of commitment is its being a consistent line

of activity. It is a consistent behavior, and is persistent over time. The person may engage in some diverse activities but these are perceived as serving to accomplish the same goal. When the person engages in a consistent line of activity, he/she rejects the other feasible alternatives (Becker, 1960).

Becker suggests that in order to explain consistency in human behavior social sanction and social control concepts have been used. People behave consistently because that activity is "regarded as right and proper in their society or social group and because deviations from this standard are punished" (Becker, 1960, p. 33). He also states that consistency is sometimes explained by the assumed existence of universally accepted cultural values and sometimes by the satisfaction of needs.

Becker has proposed an explanation of commitment involving the concept of side bets. A side bet is a person's other interests which are originally extraneous to the action. Becker has directed attention to the components of commitment as:

> (1) prior actions of the person staking some originally extraneous interest on his following a consistent line of activity; (2) a recognition by him of the involvement of this originally extraneous interest in his present activity; and (3) the resulting consistent line of activity (Becker, 1960, p. 36).

Side bets may sometimes be made unconsciously, without realizing. The ordinary routines of every day life make the person involve in consistent lines of behavior and side bets. Only in cases of change a person becomes aware of those side bets. Becker further suggests that in order to fully understand commitment, the values of the society and of the sub-culture in which the person lives is important because they provide data for side bets shared by them (Becker, 1960).

Mowday *et al.* (1979) have stated that although commitment was identified as an important variable of organizational behavior, there was a lack of agreement on the measurement of this concept. They tried to make the concept operational and develop and validate a measure of it. Mowday *et al.* (1979) have adopted the attitudinal approach to commitment and have defined it as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday *et al.*, 1979, p. 226). Mowday *et al.* have determined three factors to identify commitment. "(1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization" (Mowday *et al.*, 1979, p. 226).   Mowday suggests that their definition of commitment suggests an active participation with the organization and it is beyond passive loyalty. It is an exchange relationship and it is attachment to the organization in return for certain rewards as March and Simon (1958) have noted (Mowday *et al.*, 1979).

> March and Simon argued that the considerations that lead to the decision to participate are based on the notion of exchange between the individual and the organization. The inducements provided by the organization are balanced against the contributions required in order to maintain membership (Mayer and Schoorman, 1998, p. 18).

Perceived desirability and perceived ease of movement are important considerations for the decisions to participate. However the degree of identification with the goals and values of the organization are important for the decisions to produce (Mayer and Schoorman, 1998).

Mowday *et al.* (1979) have collected validity and reliability data of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) in different work environments and on different kinds of employees. They presented strong evidence for the internal consistency and test – retest reliabilities of OCQ.

They found significant correlations between OCQ and the intent to remain in the organization. OCQ was found to be a fairly stable and better predictor of turnover than the job satisfaction measures. They also found a moderate relationship with the employee performance. These modest relationships were due to the complex set of factors in the organizations determining behavior and not only due to one factor like commitment. They concluded that "organizational commitment is an important construct to include among other determinants in modeling and researching employee behavior in organizations" (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 244). According to them, the understanding of commitment will contribute to the understanding of employee attitude, behavior and organizational performance.

Scholl (1981) has used the behavioral approach and considered "individual commitment to be a potential force directing membership, adequate role performance, and innovative and spontaneous behavior (extra-role behavior)" (Scholl, 1981, p. 590). He defined commitment "as a stabilizing force that acts to maintain behavioral direction when expectancy/equity conditions are not met and do not function" (Scholl, 1981, p. 593). Scholl has used investments, norm of reciprocity, lack of alternatives, and identification as possible processes of commitment. Scholl defined investment into a particular organization as a side-bet (Becker, 1960) in which an individual makes today in the expectation of future rewards. Investments decrease the tendency to leave and increase commitment.

Scholl (1981) has stated that the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) suggests if an individual receives an advance benefit beyond his/her expectations, he/she will try to repay it through future performance or will be committed to the organization until the repayment of this benefit.

According to Scholl, commitment may also be explained by the lack of alternatives. If the outcomes are perceived as being higher than those for alternative opportunities, then the individual chooses to remain in the organization (Scholl, 1981).

Angle and Perry (1981) used OCQ (Mowday *et al.*, 1979) to measure commitment and they identified two dimensions for this scale: value commitment (affective commitment supporting the goals of the organization, feeling pride in identification with the organization, concern for organization and willing to perform for the organization) and commitment to stay (calculative commitment to continue organizational membersip). Angle and Perry (1981) found organizational commitment to be associated with organizational adaptability, separation rate and intent to quit and tardiness. Turnover described as the separation rate and intent to quit showed stronger association with commitment to stay rather than value commitment. Measures of organizational effectiveness showed a stronger relationship with value commitment (Angle and Perry, 1981; Mayer and Schoorman, 1998).

Wiener (1982) has adopted the identification approach to the definition of commitment. Identification approach accepts commitment as primarily affective, rather than cognitive-calculative. Wiener has referred Buchanan (1974) for the definition of commitment. "Commitment is viewed as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth" (Buchanan, 1974, p. 533). Acceptance of organizational goals and values is accepted as organizational identification (Wiener, 1982).

Wiener (1982) has stated three classes of antecedents for commitment: (1) person-organization fit, (2) job characteristics and work experiences, and

(3) some demographic variables. He has also stated turnover and intention to stay having the most strongest relationship with commitment.

Wiener (1982) has conceptualized commitment as a normative process. He has distinguished between normative and instrumental processes to determine commitment. His model stated that:

> internalized normative beliefs and instrumental beliefs concerning organization-related behaviors lead to organizational commitment and instrumental motivation, respectively. Instrumental motivation and commitment, in turn, simultaneously determine organization-related intentions and behaviors (Wiener, 1982, p. 420).

Wiener has defined organizational commitment "as the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organizational goals and interests" (Wiener, 1982, p. 421). This definition included personal sacrifice made for the organization, persistence over time and preoccupation with the organization; giving a great deal of time and effort on behalf of the organization (Wiener, 1982).

Wiener (1982) also identified generalized loyalty and duty and organizational identification as the internalized normative beliefs which determine commitment. Generalized loyalty and duty implies that the person is committed to the organization not due to the possible consequences for his/her personal benefit but because he/she believes that it is right and moral. The other internalized normative belief; organizational identification, is the beliefs of the individual consistent with the organization's values, policies, procedures, goals, and operations. Wiener has concluded that organizational commitment is influenced not only by instrumental processes but also by the internalized normative beliefs. These normative beliefs are stable and affect behavior on the long term independent of environmental contingencies (Wiener, 1982).

In the literature it was stated that commitment increases organizational effectiveness (Scholl, 1981; Wiener, 1982). It increases the willingness to remain with the organization; therefore decreases turnover and creates a stable work force (Steers, 1977). It is an unnoticed and cheaper way of controlling the organizational behavior of the individuals (Wiener, 1982). Organizational commitment has implications from the perspective of OCB also.

4.2 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Angle and Perry (1981) have matched the concepts of March and Simon's (1958) participation and production and Katz's (1964) three types of member behaviors in organizations. The decision of joining and remaining in the organization (Katz, 1964) is the decision to participate. Dependable role behavior according to job prescriptions together with spontaneaous and innovative behaviors beyond job descriptions (Katz, 1964) are the decisions to produce.

A committed member will have a desire to maintain organizational membership and the motivation to participate.

> 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) spontaneaous and innovative behaviors (Angle and Perry, 1981, p. 2).

Angle and Perry (1981) hypothesized that commitment would lead to participation and high production. When the committed individuals engage in

spontaneaous and innovative behavior, the adaptation of the organization to environmental changes and unforeseen contingencies would be facilitated.

O'Reilly III and Chatman (1986) have defined the dimensions of commitment as (a) compliance or instrument involvement to gain specific, extrinsic rewards, (b) identification or involvement because of a desire for affiliation or maintain a satisfactory relationship, (c) internalization or involvement because of the congruence between the person's and the organization's values. They have stated that the motivational basis for citizenship behavior should be more than compliance. They have hypothesized that identification and internalization will be related with OCB but compliance will not be. The results of their analysis supported the three distinct dimensions of commitment and found strong positive links between commitment based on internalization and identification and OCBs and negative relationships with turnover. They concluded that if the individual internalized the commitment, he/she would engage in more prosocial behavior.

> In sum, prosocial behaviors requiring the expenditure of personal time and effort on behalf of the organization are most strongly related to commitment based on value similarity or pride in affiliation, and not to involvement rooted in instrumental exchange of behavior for rewards (O'Reilly III and Chatman, 1986, p. 497).

Randall (1987) has compared the possible levels of commitment with the possible consequences. She suggests that although a high level of commitment is sought after in many organizations, it may have severe negative consequences for both the individual and the organization like the lack of creativity, innovation and adaptability because of being stuck to the past procedures and policies. A moderate level of commitment where the individual accepts some but not all of the values of the organization without losing their creativity seems more accurate to describe the relationship between levels and consequences of commitment. A moderate level of

commitment seems to balance both the individual and organizational needs, increases job satisfaction and decreases turnover. Individuals who are not committed to the organization may limit their organizational citizenship like behaviors which are important for the functioning of the organization, and which enables the individuals to cope with their interdependencies and unforeseen contingencies (Randall, 1987).

Schappe (1998) has studied job satisfaction, organizational commitment and procedural justice perceptions collectively to determine their relative effects on OCB. He has hypothesized that each of these variables explain unique variance in OCB. The results of his hierarchical regression analysis have shown that when all the three variables are studied collectively, only organizational commitment variable accounted for unique variance in OCB. Schappe has used the models of Scholl (1981) and Wiener (1982) for the theoretical support of the commitment and OCB relationship. Scholl (1981) has stated that commitment is an indicator of behavioral direction when people cannot rely on formal organizational compensation in case of high performance. In other words in case of little expectation of formal organizational rewards for performance or unmet expectations or inequities in rewards, commitment maintains behavioral direction. Therefore according to Schappe (1998), commitment is a determinant of OCB. Wiener (1982) has defined commitment "as internalized normative pressures to meet the wishes and interests of the organization" (Wiener, 1982, p. 421). The behavioral consequences of commitment is the sacrifice made for the well being of the organization, behaviors not changing due to external controls like rewards, and devotion of time and energy to organizational related actions. Since OCBs indicate a personal absorbation with the organization such that one can make personal sacrifice for the sake of the total organization, OCBs are affected by commitment (Schappe, 1998).

Riketta (2002) has suggested that affective organizational commitment as measured by OCQ should relate more to extra-role behavior than to in-role behavior. "Because extra-role behavior often is voluntary, it should depend on intrinsic motivational factors to a greater extent than does in-role behavior" (Riketta, 2002, p. 259). He confirmed his suggestion by the meta-analysis he has performed on the relationship of attitudinal organizational commitment and job performance. However the mean corrected correlation between affective organizational commitment and performance was 0.20 which was statistically significant but weak.

Shore et al. (1995) have suggested that extra-role behaviors provide more clue to the managers about the commitment of individuals.

> Citizenship behavior, and to a lesser extent fulfillment of job requirements, can be used by a manager to make inferences about an employee's motivation to remain with the organization. Logically, a manager may infer that an employee who performs the job well and also goes above and beyond its requirements, thus demonstrating OCB, has a high level of affective commitment, or emotional attachment to the organization (Shore et al., 1995, p. 1596).

On the other hand, employees who are committed to the organization because they have no other choice, will have lesser levels of OCB. In Shore et al.'s study (1995), managers rated affective and continuance commitments, OCB, job performance and likelihood of promotion and managerial potential of their employees. The results showed that OCB was positively related with manager rated affective commitment. The relation between continuance commitment and OCB was negative. Manager rated affective commitment was also positively related to fulfillment of employee requests, promotability and managerial potential. Shore, Barksdale, and Shore (1995) have suggested that "extra-role behaviors (OCB) contribute to managerial perceptions of affective commitment exclusively and that in-role

behavior (job performance) may contribute to neither form of commitment" (Shore *et al.*, 1995, p. 1606). Managers who rated employees high on affective commitment tended to think of them positively as having high potential for promotions and rewarded them more. Affective commitment is highly desirable by managers because they contribute to the achievement of organizational goals. Affective commitment is desirable by employees because it leads to managers' rewarding employees (Shore *et al.*, 1995).

When employees are affectively committed to the organization, they tend to engage in extra-role behaviors beyond the requirements of their job performance and they contribute positively to the accomplishment of organizational goals. This in turn has positive consequences for the manager, because he/she has more time for his/her boundary role. Therefore managers tend to think of these employees more favorably and treat them differentially by organizational rewards.

Brooke, Russell, and Price (1988) have found high correlation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment variables. Mowday *et al.* (1979) have differentiated these two attitudes. They have stated that commitment is a more global concept, and it reflects a general affective response towards the organization. Job satisfaction reflects a response either to the job or certain aspects of the job. "Hence, commitment emphasizes attachment to the employing organization, including its goals and values, while satisfaction emphasizes the specific task environment where an employee performs his or her duties" (Mowday *et al.*, 1979, p. 226). Besides commitment develops slowly but consistently in time and therefore more stable. On the other hand job satisfaction reflects more immediate reactions to the daily, transitory nature of work or parts of it (Mowday *et al.*, 1979).

Wiener (1982) has suggested that job satisfaction is an attitude towards an object and commitment is an attitude towards an act. Since an attitude towards an object does not predict accurately specific behavioral intentions, commitment is expected to better predict behaviors than job satisfaction.

Williams and Anderson (1991) have suggested that the significant correlations found between job satisfaction and OCB or organizational commitment and OCB may be

> spurious, representing the fact that the other was not included in the study. In other words, the studies containing only satisfaction or its components ….. may have found this variable to be significant because of its shared variance with commitment, which is correlated with OCBs (Williams and Anderson, 1991, p. 605).

They have suggested the same logic for organizational commitment stating that the significant correlation of commitment with OCB in O'Reilly and Chatman's study (1986) may be due to the fact that satisfaction was not measured (Williams and Anderson, 1991).

In most of the studies predicting significant relations between job satisfaction or organizational commitment with OCB, only one variable was used and the other was excluded from the study. However because of the high correlation between them, "the predictive abilities of those two variables should be studied concurrently" (Schappe, 1998, p. 281).

> In short, research that includes both satisfaction and commitment and both OCBI and OCBO is needed to address the misspecification problem and examine the relative effects of these two variables on both types of OCB performance (Williams and Anderson, 1991, p. 605).

In our research, we studied job satisfaction and organizational commitment variables simultaneously in order to indicate their relative relationships to OCB.

Depending on the above review of the literature on organizational commitment and OCB, we propose that;

Hypothesis 2- Organizational Commitment is positively related to OCB.

CHAPTER V

ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

5.1 ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

Although search for justice has been one of the major concerns since the ancient philosophers, its relevance to work organizations has been a new topic (Greenberg, 1993). The perception of non-legal rights in the work organizations are subjective in nature and may differ according to each role-holder. The fair payment may have a different meaning for the employer and the employee and perceptions of work responsibilities may differ according to each of them. Job descriptions are a way to identify the expected work and the corresponding rewards but the official job descriptions only specify the minimum expected from the employee to secure a specified rate of payment (Folger, 1993). According to Katz (1964), for an organization to survive and effectively function, role assignments must be carried out in a predictable and dependable fashion and meet some minimal quality and quantity of performance level. At the same time the organization should not rely only on prescribed behavior and allow for spontaneaous and innovative behavior beyond specified roles in order to adapt to environmental changes (Katz, 1964). This presents a paradox which is also addressed by Folger (1993). Folger has stated that responsibilities that go beyond those officially stated "are problematic, however, from the standpoint of perceived fairness" (Folger, 1993, p. 240). The organizations need certain types of behaviors from the role holders in order to survive and function effectively. However the organizations do not promise in advance to reward these behaviors. This is a dilemma for the role holder who considers to engage in these types of behaviors because they may not be rewarded in the end.

Folger (1993) further states that an employee may have two alternative solutions for this dilemma.

> One path emphasizes such virtues as loyalty and good citizenship, ..., implicitly endorsing the maxim that virtue is its own reward. The other is more instrumental in character, less noble in purpose: Give more than is expected, in hopes that it will be rewarded more than expected (Folger, 1993, p. 240).

This dilemma is also stated by Greenberg as the workplace imposing "contradictory demands toward both selfishness (e.g. looking after one's own welfare) and selflessness (e.g. giving of oneself for the common welfare)" (Greenberg, 1993, p. 250).

Perceptions of fairness on the job have been labelled as Organizational Justice (OJ). Scholars have begun to study OJ and its effects on attitudes and behaviors of employees increasingly. OJ has important implications for the effective functioning of the organizations and the satisfaction of the employees in them (Greenberg, 1990). It has been a core value of the organizations, a unifying value which binds conflicting parties and provides a stable social structure, preserves relationships and maintains established order (Konovsky, 2000). It has also been related to some positive organizational outcomes and attitudes. Commitment, trust in leader and pay satisfaction (Folger and Konovsky, 1989), increased performance and OCB (Folger, 1993; Greenberg, 1993; Moorman, Niehoff, and Organ, 1993).

The first justice studies were directed to test the general social interaction principles in organizations. Later justice principles were applied to understand organizational behavior. Organizational justice topic emerged as a response to understand and explain the role of fairness in the work place (Greenberg, 1990; Moorman, 1991). "Specifically organizational justice is concerned with the ways in which employees determine if they have been

treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which those determinations influence other work-related variables" (Moorman, 1991, p. 845).

Two categorizations of justice were identified as a result of justice studies: Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice. Distributive justice focused on "content-the fairness of the ends achieved" (Greenberg, 1990, p. 400) or "the fairness of the outcomes an employee receives" (Moorman, 1991, p. 845). Procedural justice focused on "process-the fairness of the means used to achieve those ends" (Greenberg, 1990, p. 400) or "the fairness of the procedures used to determine those outcomes" (Moorman, 1991, p. 845).

The early studies of organizational justice have focused on distributive justice; the fairness of outcomes or the "what" side of the decisions. The distributive justice theories were strongly built and understood by theorists. However later the procedural justice studies; the perceived fairness of policies and procedures upon which the decisions are based or the "how" side of the decisions had a significant effect on organizational justice literature (Greenberg, 1990).

Historically Adams' equity theory (1963) and Leventhal's justice judgement model (1976, 1980) have been used to explain distributive justice in organizations (Greenberg, 1990; Viswesvaran and Ones, 2002, Moorman, 1991). According to equity theory,

> people compare the ratios of their own perceived work outcomes (i.e., rewards) to their own perceived work inputs (i.e., contributions) to the corresponding ratios of a comparison other (e.g., a coworker). If the ratios are unequal, the party whose ratio is higher is theorized to be inequitably overpaid (and to feel guilty) whereas the party whose ratio is lower is theorized to be inequitably underpaid (and to feel angry) (Greenberg, 1990, p. 400).

Since equal states will result in satisfaction in feelings people tend to adjust their own or the co-worker's actual or perceived inputs or outcomes towards more equitable states; either behaviorally or psychologically. They may either lower their inputs (their performance) physically or change their perceptions of outcomes psychologically. Adams' equity theory (1963) was specified as a reactive approach to distributive justice (Greenberg, 1990). In contrast Leventhal's justice judgement model (1976, 1980) is specified as a proactive approach to explain distributive justice. Leventhal has focused on conditions under which justice norms are used proactively.

> For example, it has been found that people believe that the maintenance of social harmony is promoted through the use of equal reward allocations, whereas the maximization of performance is promoted by systems … that allocate outcomes equitably – that is, in proportion to relative performance (Greenberg, 1990, p. 401).

Distributive justice is mostly concerned with the structural determinants like the rules and the environment which influences justice decisions. If the rewards and allocations are fair, the participants will perceive their work environment as fair (Bies, Martin, and Brockner 1993). In this context, the distribution of outcome may be done on the basis of equality or equity depending on the intent of the allocator. If harmony is desired within the group, the distribution will be made equally. If increased job performance is desired, the distribution will be made according to the contributions of the employees. The employees will then compare the outcomes they receive in relation to the referent others (Eskew, 1993).

Beside structural determinants, there are social determinants which are related with the interpersonal side of the distributive justice (Eskew, 1993). If employees have been treated fair after the distribution process like the provision of adequate levels of severance payments for the employees just

laid off together with lenghty health insurance and other benefits, the employees will perceive the whole process as fair (Bies *et al.*, 1993).

The reactions of the people to the process of how the distributions are made can be studied from the perspective of procedural justice. Procedural justice also has structural determinants like having accurate procedures which provide a chance for expressing views, consistent and free of bias. "Leventhal's (1980) six rules (consistency, bias, accuracy, reversibility, representativeness, and compatibility with prevailing moral and ethical standards) to evaluate fairness of allocation procedures" (Viswesvaran, and Ones, 2002, p. 194) represent the structural determinants of procedural justice. If individuals perceive that the structural characteristics of decision making process are free of bias, applied consistently to all, are based on accurate information and on the views and opinions of all individuals affected, include mechanisms for corrective action and are compatible with prevailing moral standards, they will also perceive the outcome of the decision making process as fair (Viswesvaran, and Ones, 2002; Eskew, 1993; Greenberg, 1990).

In the literature the social side of procedural justice is labelled as interactional justice. Interactional justice is related with how people are treated during the distribution process (Eskew, 1993). Interactional justice is the quality of treatment by others (Tansky, 1993). Interactional justice was first introduced by Bies and Moag (1986) and as a third category of justice seperate from distributive and procedural justice. They have defined it as the quality of interpersonal treatment during the carrying out of organizational procedures (Bies, 2001). Showing respect, concern and dignity for the individual, providing honest information about the decisions and justification about the outcomes are among the items of interactional justice. However the idea of interactional justice as a separate category of

justice was challenged by scholars (Greenberg, 1993; Folger and Bies, 1989).

Greenberg (1993) states that:

> the interpersonal sensitivity and informative explanations associated with interactional justice focuses on both procedures ... and outcomes. As such, there are interpersonal components (as well as structural components) of both procedural and distributive justice, making it misleading to talk of the independent effects of interpersonal justice (Greenberg, 1993, p. 252).

Greenberg prefers to use distributive and procedural justice distinction but at the same time recognizing the structural and social aspects of them. Viswesvaran and Ones (2002) have stated that Bies and Moag (1986) later recanted their statement and stated interactional justice to be a form of procedural justice. However later Bies (2005) turned to his original position stating that interactional justice is a separate construct.

Throughout our research, we adopted the view of Greenberg (1993) and included interactional justice as a form of procedural justice.

5.2 ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

The relationship of perceived organizational justice to OCB emerged from Organ's (1977, 1988a) intention to explain the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. "Organ's first efforts to describe a relationship between perceptions of fairness and OCB grew from the overlap between measures of job satisfaction and measures of fairness" (Moorman and Byrne, 2005). As stated previously when explaining the relationships between job satisfaction and OCB, the cognitive component of job

satisfaction was found as the most important factor in job satisfaction and OCB relationship. Organ has argued that "a determination of fairness is a key cognition in estimating job satisfaction" (Eskew, 1993, p. 189). Organ (1977, 1988a) and Organ and Konovsky (1989) have used the idea of social exchange versus economical exchange to explain fairness as a cognitive, evaluative determinant of job satisfaction (Eskew, 1993; Moorman and Byrne, 2005).

Eskew (1993) and Organ and Konovsky (1989) have mentioned Blau's (1964) differentiation between economic exchange and social exchange. Economic exchange is mainly based on pay and contractual demands. Being a broader concept than economic exchange, social exchange includes factors in the overall system like trust. If people believe they are being treated fairly, they are more likely to perceive their relationship with the total organization as a long term social exchange relationship and engage more in citizenship like behaviors. Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) suggested an underlying mechanism of social exchange for their findings of drug-testing fairness. On the other hand, if people perceive the treatment as being unfair, they will view their relationship as a short term economic exchange relationship and perform activities for which they are compensated economically (Eskew, 1993). Therefore continuation of the membership in the organization is a decision based on the perceptions of fairness of procedural justices. "Through procedures, employees receive an idea about how the organization will continue to make decisions about them, and how they will be treated in terms of allocations" (Eskew, 1993, p. 190). If the employee decides about the fairness of the procedures, he/she may decide to continue membership and engage in citizenship like behaviors which contribute to the effective functioning of the organization. In this way, perceptions of procedural justice may be more significant than the perceptions of distributive justice. "The extent to which OCB is given in an unrestrained manner would seem to

depend on intermittent cognitive appraisal of fairness of overall treatment by the organization" (Organ and Konovsky, 1989, p. 162).

Moorman (1991) has suggested two alternative explanations for fairness predicting OCB. The first one is based on Adams' equity theory (1963) ; stating that raising or lowering OCB may be an alternative to resolve the tensions produced within the person as a result of conditions of unfairness. Since OCBs are out of formal job descriptions and are under the direct control of the person, they are more easily applied (Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1988). The second alternative is provided from the perspective of Blau's (1964) social exchange theory. If the people in the organizations define their relationship as a social exchange, they may more likely engage in OCBs. "Because social exchange exists outside strict contracts, the exchange tends toward ambiguity, allowing for discretionary, prosocial acts by the employee" (Moorman, 1991, p. 846).

Tansky (1993) has suggested that studies of procedural justice in the organizations have concentrated on specific issues like performance appraisals and pay raise decisions. She studied the overall fairness within the organization. She named overall fairness as perceptions of cultural fairness. "A "culture of fairness" may mean that employees believe they will be rewarded well for their performance" (Tansky, 1993, p. 196). The employees believe not only in the fairness of the structure of the decisions, but in the fairness of the social side of the decisions as well. They believe they will be treated with respect and dignity and they may generalize this belief to the management of the organization to be honest and ethical. This perception of overall fairness may lead to OCB as a reciprocation. "Thus, employees may evaluate the social exchange relationship in terms of overall fairness and reciprocate with OCB" (Tansky, 1993, p. 197). Perceptions of fairness "are instrumental in developing the levels of faith and trust needed

for employees to provide the beneficial, yet discretionary, behaviors that define citizenship" (Moorman *et al.*, 1993, p. 210).

Tansky (1993) suggested that employees form perceptions of overall fairness and found that only altruism dimension of OCB is related to perceptions of overall fairness. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are positively and significantly related to perceptions of overall fairness. There was no significant positive relation between organizational commitment and OCB and there was direct relationship of job satisfaction to some categories of OCB. The quality of supervisory/subordinate relationship was related to OCB and perceptions of overall fairness. Tansky concluded that any organization who wants to improve employee attitudes should not only be concerned with specific perceptions of fairness like performance appraisal and pay rises but with overall fairness which may result in desired attitudes as well (Tansky, 1993).

Moorman *et al.* (1993) have studied the relationships between job fairness (represented as perceptions of procedural justice), job satisfaction, organizational commitment and OCB. Their results supported the importance of procedural justice in the prediction of OCB. They found significant relationship between procedural justice and courtesy, sportsmanship and conscientiousness dimensions of OCB. Altruism and civic virtue dimensions of OCB were not significantly related to procedural justice. Moorman *et al.* (1993) suggested that these dimensions may have been accepted as in-role rather than extra-role. Helping others with work related matters and participation in the political life of the organization may have been accepted as part of the job.

Moorman *et al.* (1993) also found a positive relationship between procedural justice and work satisfaction. However when the relationship between

procedural justice and OCB was controlled, the other relationships with work satisfaction and OCB and organizational commitment and OCB were found to be insignificant. They concluded that procedural justice was a better predictor of OCB than job satisfaction or organizational commitment and they provided an explanation to their conclusion based on group value model. Group value model and self-interest model were first proposed by Lind and Tyler (1988). Self-interest model "suggested that procedures were evaluated as fair if they were perceived as allowing influence over desired outcomes" (Moorman *et al.*, 1993, p. 221). If the person has some control over the outcomes or the decision, then he/she may have a chance to gain outcomes which satisfies his/her best interests.

Group value model stressed the similarity of the values of one's reference group and the perceptions of procedural justice and the desire to be accepted as a full member of the group. If one is given a chance to express his/her opinions, then the group states that the person has important things to contribute to the decision being made. In return such expressions increase the commitment of the person to the group and the maintenance of the group. Since the group has given such value to the person, he/she believes that he/she should contribute to the health and welfare of the group by performing in a fashion which goes beyond formal role requirements. Moorman *et al.* (1993) have further suggested that:

> procedural justice explains OCB better because justice beliefs are better at representing the view that the organization values the employee. Organizational commitment and job satisfaction differ from procedural justice in this vein because they tend to describe positive feelings about the organization, instead of the degree to which the organization values the employee (Moorman *et al.*, 1993, p. 222).

Moorman *et al.* (1993) suggested to think of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and OCB as consequences of procedural justice.

In this way, then, OCBs do not necessarily emerge because the employees are satisfied with their jobs or committed to the organization, although such attitudes may co-exist with perceptions of fairness. Instead, employees go above and beyond their prescribed roles because they feel the necessity to reciprocate the fair treatment they have received from the organization (Moorman *et al.*, 1993, p. 223).

Bies *et al.* (1993) have also stressed procedural justice as a key variable related with OCB. They have stated "it is the interpersonal aspects of formal procedures that are more important to people than the structural characteristics of those procedures" (Bies *et al.*, 1993, p. 236). Perceived procedural fairness was important even for the workers who were notified off their layoff but had to work during notification period. Provision of adequate explanation with enough details and reasons and the quality of interpersonal treatment had significant and independent effects on the prediction of procedural justice. If they were provided adequately detailed explanation and treated with respect, dignity and sensitively and equally with the other victims, the layoff victims perceived the process as fair and continued their organization citizenship like behaviors during the period they had to work until layoff (Bies *et al.*, 1993).

Greenberg has summarized the results of many studies on organizational justice as "people will behave altruistically toward the organizations in which they work if they believe they have been fairly treated by that organization" (Greenberg, 1993, p. 250). He has also identified OCB as a way of expressing perceptions of unfairness. "People who are underpaid might not be able to afford the "luxury" of being able to express their dissatisfaction by lowering their job performance" (Greenberg, 1993, p. 251). Therefore reduction of OCB may be a safe but effective form of expressions of dissatisfaction. Thus they may either withdraw their contributions in the form of OCB from the organizations as a response to organizations who has unfair policies and procedures or they may avoid helping the authority figure,

may dissociate with him/her who is perceived as the source of mistreatment as a response to the individual (Greenberg, 1993).

Moorman and Byrne has also answered the question of "why would a party within an exchange relationship be motivated to offer types of job performance" (Moorman and Byrne, 2005, p. 359) from the perspective of the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). The norm of reciprocity holds that people help those who have helped them because "reciprocating the receipt of benefits is proper and appropriate for the continued health of the relationships between people" (Moorman and Byrne, 2005, p. 359). According to Moorman and Byrne, the motivation to reciprocate is more likely related to fair treatment, trust, support and respect. Puffer (1987) has explained that the norm of reciprocity is based on the concept of fairness because people want to balance their contributions to the outcomes they receive and they compare it with the others. If they trust their peers, they tend to help them in case of a need. The confidence in management is a trust relationship based on leader supportiveness. Trust in management and in peers, are positively related to prosocial behavior (Puffer, 1987).

In many researches the relationship between procedural justice and OCB was found to be stronger than the relationship between distributive justice and OCB. (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Moorman, 1991; Bies *et al.*, 1993; Eskew, 1993; Folger, 1993; Greenberg, 1993; Konovsky and Organ, 1996; Konovsky, 2000). Greenberg (1993) explains this with the length of the time frame and suggests that procedural injustice is more likely to cause the reduction of OCB because it is perceived as a longer term, systematic violation of justice and policies and procedures of the system are inherently unfair. This perception will prevent to be engaged in OCBs. On the other hand distributive justice is perceived as a short term, specific violation, therefore no extreme action may be taken against it   (Greenberg, 1993).

Ertürk *et al*. (2004) have studied the relative effects of procedural justice, distributive justice, organizational commitment and job satisfaction on OCBs of 150 randomly selected workers in the three private manufacturing companies in İstanbul and Kocaeli. Besides their expectation that all these four variables would be positively related to OCBs, they also suggested that perceptions of procedural and distributive justice would surpass the effects of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The results of hierarchical regression analysis revealed that the perceptions of distributive justice exerted the strongest effect on OCBs in their sample. However they were careful when discussing the results because their research were performed during the most influential days of the economic crisis in 2001 and they stated the fact that, the economic crisis might have inflated the effect of perceptions of distributive justice in their research, as a limitation factor.

In order to be able to see the relative effects of perceived organizational justice on OCB, we took both procedural justice and distributive justice into consideration and tried to explore the influence of these two variables on OCB simultaneously. Besides, in line with the findings of previous studies of Moorman *et al*., (1993), Schappe (1998); Ertürk *et al*., (2004), we expected that measuring the effects of job satisfaction and organizational commitment together with perceived organizational justice on OCB may be helpful to provide a clearer picture of the attitudinal influences on OCB. Therefore our third, fourth and fifth hypotheses are:

Hypothesis 3- Procedural Justice is positively related to OCB.
Hypothesis 4- Distributive Justice is positively related to OCB.
Hypothesis 5- Organizational Commitment, Procedural Justice and Distributive Justice each have significant effects on OCB.

Although we studied the joint effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, procedural justice, distributive justice variables on OCB, in our hypothesis 5, we expected that only organizational commitment, procedural justice and distributive justice have significant effects on OCB. In our literature review, it is stated that commitment is expected to predict behaviors better than job satisfaction (Mowday *et al.*, 1979; Wiener, 1982; Schappe, 1998). Therefore we excluded job satisfaction variable from our fifth hypothesis. On the other hand, we included distributive justice to our fifth hypothesis, although in many researches the relationship between procedural justice and OCB is reported to be stronger than the relationship between distributive justice and OCB. (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Moorman, 1991; Bies *et al.*, 1993; Eskew, 1993; Folger, 1993; Greenberg, 1993; Konovsky and Organ, 1996; Konovsky, 2000). Ertürk *et al.*, (2004) have found distributive justice as the most significant factor to predict OCB on a sample of workers in Turkish manufacturing sector. The teachers in Turkey, have economical problems. Even the teachers working in the private sector do not earn much; still they have to be role models for the students and for the society in general. Their earnings are far beyond their hard working, and their efforts to contribute to the development of the country by educating the youth who are the adults of the future. The fact that they do not earn much money and their economical problems, may emphasize the significance of distributive justice in their lives. Therefore, we included the distributive justice in our last hypothesis in order to measure its significance for our sample.

Keeping in mind, the relative significance and the contributions of the teachers to the development of the country, we now turn our attention to the significance of our study.

CHAPTER VI

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) concept has been introduced to the field of Organizational Behavior in the early 1980s by Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith *et al*. (1983) and has been studied intensively since then. As Podsakoff *et al*. (2000) have stated between 1983 an 1988, the number of studies published on OCB were only 13. This number increased to 122 between 1993 and 1998 and is continuing at an increasing rate. The studies on OCB has also expanded to many other disciplines like marketing, human resources management, hospital management, international management, and industrial and labor law (Podsakoff *et al*., 2000).

Although OCB has been studied intensively in many sectors, it is an unfamiliar concept in the educational sector (Cheng, 2004). OCB concept has not been studied much among school teachers. Oplatka has stated "a search for articles on OCB in schools yields substantially fewer than 10 citations worldwide" (Oplatka, 2006, p. 386). To this researcher's knowledge, OCB has not been studied much in Turkey either; especially with respect to the relationships between the antecedents of OCB and OCB.

Çetin (2004) has performed a research on OCBs of teachers working in İstanbul in 2001-2002 education year. 719 teachers working in pre-school, primary education, and high schools have participated in the study. She has tried to measure the degree of levels of OCBs of teachers. She has assumed that teaching career includes a high level of OCB by its nature. The factor analysis of the questionnaire she has developed and used had five factors and were in accordance with the dimensions of Organ (1988); namely altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. The

pilot study results have shown the Cronbach Alpha of the scale as 0,96. The mean values for these dimensions were calculated with reliabilities ranging between 0,62 and 0,98. The mean value for altruism dimension was the highest of all the other dimensions (mean= 4,02, with a standard deviation of 1,20). The mean values for the other dimensions ranged between 3,48 (standard deviation= 1,17) and 3,66 (standard deviation= 1,51); showing high levels of OCB for her sample. She has also analyzed the relationships between demographic variables and the dimensions of OCB. In the methodology section, we used some of her findings to compare with our analysis on demographic variables and OCB in our sample.

Schnake (1991) and Tang (1998) have stated that OCB has great potential for organizational behavior research and it should be studied in the other cultures as well. Studying OCB in the education sector and in the school context can enlarge our understanding of how OCB works in different occupations and work settings. Research in these sectors may help to suggest ways to increase OCBs of individuals working in helping professions (Hannam and Jimmieson, 2002).

Oplatka (2006) has stated that studying OCB among teachers is important because teaching is a profession with ambiguous and unclear input-process-output technology and vague boundaries. The perception of what is in role or role regulated task and what is OCB, will change depending on the interpretation of each individual. This perception will be affected by the role position and experience of each individual. However "mapping OCBs in school may help sharpen the boundaries between officially prescribed regulations and extrarole activities" (Oplatka, 2006, p. 387). In turn role conflicts which arise from these ambiguities and uncertainties may decrease.

OCB is critical because it reduces the need for maintenance functions, therefore it will help to use scarce resources more effectively. "Thus, schools may benefit by exploring teachers' OCB because a greater understanding of this sort of behavior may help the establishment of OCB encouraging environments in which the facilitators of OCB will be intensified and its barriers reduced" (Oplatka, 2006, p. 387).

Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) have suggested OCB to have important implications in the long run for the success of organizations for which the importance of organizational flexibility, responsiveness to changing conditions and productivity increase due to increasing global competition. Especially in times of great changes, the importance of OCB increases. The education system in Turkey experienced such a change by the beginning of 2005 – 2006 education year. The Ministry of National Education (MONE) initiated a new system in the primary education starting from Grade 1 to Grade 8. The new system is a dramatic change compared to the previous system and it is called a reform. It is student centered and involves the active participation of the student in the classroom and in the education system. It aims to develop individuals who can express themselves and who knows how to reach the information and how to analyze it. The previous system depended on the leadership of the teacher in the classroom and developed students who memorized rather than who learnt. This system change in the curriculum altered the role of the teachers totally and confronted them with new demands. The teachers' role is extended to include new tasks, new teaching methods, new spheres of responsibilities. Therefore the teachers and the schools had to adapt to this changing environment. They have to maintain the quality levels of their education and increase the stability of their performance in order to be competitively advantegous. The teachers who are willing to exert considerable effort beyond minimal formal role expectations are important for the schools and

for the new education system to be successful (Oplatka, 2006; Somech and Bogler, 2002).

Most of the early work on OCBs have concentrated on identifying the antecedents of OCB. The most significantly studied antecedents of OCB are job satisfaction, organizational commitment and perceived organizational justice (Bolino, Turnley, and Bloodgood, 2002; Ertürk *et al.*, 2004; Moorman *et al.* 1993; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000; Schappe, 1998). However these three variables have rarely been included in the same study or studied at the same time on the same sample. According to the current knowledge of the researcher, this is also valid for the education sector in Turkey. Schappe (1998) has stated studying the three variables identified as antecedents of OCB simultaneously, clarifies the relative effects of them on OCB and provides a clearer picture of the attitudinal influences on OCB.

In order to contribute to the understanding of the relationships between its mostly studied antecedents and OCB in different work occupations and in different cultures, we studied OCBs of primary school teachers working in the private sector schools in Ankara.

Our main objective was to answer the question of whether the job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceived organizational justice of private primary school teachers in Ankara induce them to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors.

Our model can be summarized as:

Job Satisfaction

Organizational Commitment   O C B

Procedural Justice

Distributive Justice
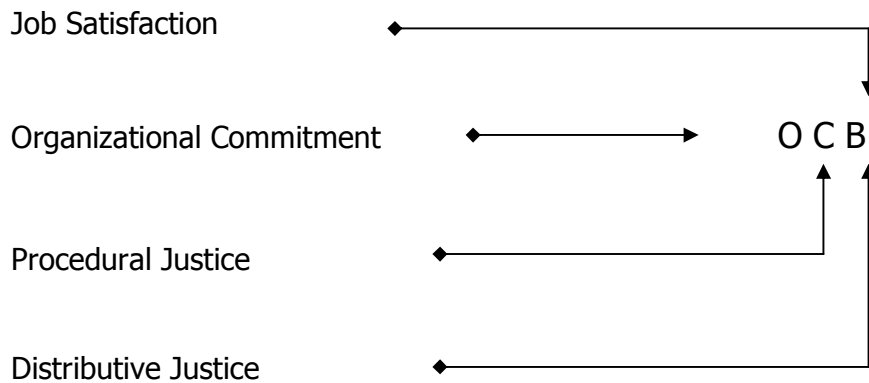
Our hypotheses can be stated as:

Hypothesis 1- Job Satisfaction is positively related to OCB.

Hypothesis 2- Organizational Commitment is positively related to OCB.

Hypothesis 3- Procedural Justice is positively related to OCB.

Hypothesis 4- Distributive Justice is positively related to OCB.

Hypothesis 5- Organizational Commitment, Procedural Justice and Distributive Justice each have significant effects on OCB.

CHAPTER VII

METHODOLOGY

In our research we studied the relative effects of job satisfaction (JS), organizational commitment (OC) and perceived organizational justice (OJ) on the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in the education sector. We focused on the primary school teachers in the private sector in Ankara.

We used self – report questionnaires to measure JS, OC, OJ, and OCB. Greenberg stated that the use of self report questionnaires were useful in expressing the pattern of interrelationships between the variables studied. However, he also thought it as ironic in that instead of studying specific types of behavior, they were only studying reports of behavior (Greenberg, 1993).

Due to time and convenience reasons we relied on self-report questionnaires to study the relationships between JS, OC, OJ and OCB. The teachers were also required to provide demographic information such as age, gender, experience, and salary.

7.1 SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

7.1.1 JOB SATISFACTION

The works of Bateman and Organ (1983), Smith *et al.* (1983), Motowidlo (1984), Organ and Lingl (1995), Puffer (1987), Organ and Konovsky (1989), Williams and Anderson (1991) and Moorman (1993) have supported that job satisfaction is related to OCB. The works of Organ and Near (1985), Organ and Konovsky (1989), Williams and Anderson (1991) and Moorman (1993) provides support for cognitions to be important in job satisfaction measures

and to be better predictors of OCB. "The more cognitive the satisfaction measure, the stronger the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB" (Moorman, 1993, p. 764).

Therefore; we used the short form of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to measure the job satisfaction of teachers. The questionnaire is adopted from the article of Moorman (1993). This is a 20 item scale measuring "the extent to which an individual's requirements are fulfilled by the work environment" (Schappe, 1998, p. 282). According to Moorman, MSQ is a measure of cognitive based job satisfaction (Moorman, 1993).

The teachers responded to items on a 5 point Likert type scale 1 representing Strongly Disagree and 5 representing Strongly Agree.

The 13th item asked the degree of satisfaction with "the way my boss handles his/her workers" in the original scale. In the Turkish version instead of "my boss" we used the term "school management" in order to adapt it to an education institution.

In the 16th item we used the term "school policies" instead of the term "company policies" in the original scale.

The reliability estimate of MSQ scale was 0.92 in Schappe's research (Schappe, 1998).

7.1.2 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

We used the scale developed by Mowday *et al.* to measure organizational commitment (OC). (Mowday *et al.*, 1979) Mowday *et al.* (1979) have stated that being beyond passive loyalty, commitment "involves an active

relationship with the organization such that individuals are willing to give something of themselves in order to contribute to the organization's well being" (Mowday *et al.*, 1979, p. 226).

There are 15 items and 7 point Likert type scale is used for the responses; 1 representing Strongly Disagree, 2 representing Disagree, 3 representing Slightly Disagree, 4 representing Neither Disagree Nor Agree, 5 representing Slightly Agree, 6 representing Agree, 7 representing Strongly Agree.

> Several items were negatively phrased and reverse scored in an effort to reduce response bias. It was intended that the scale items, when taken together, would provide a fairly consistent indicator of employee commitment levels for most working populations (Mowday *et al.*, 1979, p. 227).

Items no 3, 7, 9, 11, 12, 15 are reverse scored items.

Mowday *et al*. (1979) found high coefficient alpha ranging between 0.82 and 0.93, with a median of 0.90 coefficient alpha reliability of the scale on the groups they have applied the questionnaire. Schappe (1998) used the short form of OC Questionnaire and found coefficient alpha as 0.91. Ertürk *et al*. (2004) applied the questionnaire on blue collar workers in the manufacturing sector in İstanbul and found the reliability estimate as 0.93.

7.1.3 ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

Organizational justice (OJ) is the term used to describe and explain the role of fairness in the workplace (Greenberg, 1987; Moorman, 1991). Two sources of organizational justice mostly studied are procedural justice and distributive justice.

We measured OJ by two scales: one measuring Procedural Justice (PJ), the other measuring Distributive Justice (DJ). PJ is measured by the scale of Niehoff, Moorman (1993). Being a 15 item 7 point Likert type scale it "measures the degree of fairness in the formal and informal pocedures applied by the supervisor and the upper management" (Ertürk *et al.*, 2004, p. 195). Ertürk *et al.* (2004) found Cronbach alpha reliability for this scale as 0.95.

> Procedural justice was measured with items designed to tap both formal procedures and interactional justice. Formal procedures (six items) measured the degree to which job decisions included mechanisms that insured the gathering of accurate and unbiased information, employee voice, and an appeals process. Interactional justice (nine items) measured the degree to which employees felt their needs were considered in, and adequate explanations were made for job decisions (Niehoff and Moorman, 1993, p. 537).

We treated interactional justice as a form of procedural justice in our analysis. In the literature, interactional justice as a separate category was challenged by Greenberg, 1993 and Folger and Bies, 1989. Greenberg (1993) has stated that there are both structural and social aspects of procedural and distributive justice. Eskew (1993) has also mentioned that there are social determinants which are related with the interpersonal side of the distributive justice. The social aspects, interpersonal sensitivity, provision of information and explanations which are characteristics of interactional justice focuses on both procedures and outcomes (distributions). Therefore both procedural justice and distributive justice have interpersonal, interactional components. In their meta-analysis of the role of justice in organizations, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) have stated that there are not enough studies examining the relationship between interactional justice and OCB and not much is known on the antecedents and outcomes of interactional justice. They have stated it as a possibility that has not been studied in existing research "is that interactional justice is not an independent

justice type at all, but rather an antecedent of distributive and procedural justice" (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001, p. 308). They have shared the same perspective with Greenberg (1993) stating that interpersonal treatment both contributes to perceptions of distributive justice and procedural justice. Taking into consideration the above points, we included interactional justice as a form of procedural justice.

Distributive justice is measured by 5 item 7 point Likert type scale adopted from Niehoff and Moorman (1993). Niehoff and Moorman state that the five items assess "the fairness of different work outcomes, including pay level, work schedule, work load, and job responsibilities" (Niehoff and Moorman, 1993, p. 537). According to them the OJ scale consisting of PJ and DJ factors had reported reliabilities above 0.90. "The questions assess the perceived fairness of work outcomes regarding pay, workload, and task responsibilities" (Ertürk *et al.*, 2004, p. 195). Ertürk *et al.* found Cronbach alpha reliability for this scale as 0.95.

7.1.4 ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

In order to measure OCB, we used the scale developed by Smith *et al.* (1983). It is a 16 item 5 point Likert type scale which is comprised of two factors: Altruism and Generalized Compliance.

Smith *et al.*'s (1983) scale includes separate factors for personal forms of prosocial, helping behaviors defined as "Altruism" and impersonal conscientious behaviors defined as "Generalized Compliance." The phrasing is general so it can be used sufficiently in different work settings (Organ and Konovsky, 1989). Altruism and Generalized Compliance are the "two of the most commonly studied dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior" (George and Jones, 1997, p. 154).

Smith *et al.* (1983) found the coefficient alpha reliability estimates as 0.91 and 0.81 for Altruism and Generalized Compliance consecutively.

Items 4, 8, 10 are reversed scored items.

Schappe (1998) used 6 item short version of this scale and found the reliability estimate to be 0.69. Ertürk *et al.* (2004) used 5 item short version of this scale and calculated Cronbach alpha reliability as 0.68.

7.2 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

We asked the participants information about their ages, gender, tenure in their current schools, experience in their career, salary and type of graduated school. We also asked about the gender similarity. Gender similarity is the similarity of the gender of the participant with the school manager.

Age: Participants are requested to report their ages in years.

Gender: Participants are requested to select either Female or Male options.

Tenure: Participants are asked to indicate the number of years they have been working in their current schools.

Experience: Participants are required to report the total years of experience in their career by selecting one of the four categories

A)   Less than 10 years

B)   Between 11 – 15 years

C)   Between 16 – 20 years

D)   Over 21 years.

Salary: Participants are required to indicate their current salaries by choosing one of the five categories

A)   Up to 500 YTL

B)   Between 501 – 1000 YTL

C)   Between 1001 – 1500 YTL

D)   Between 1501 – 2000 YTL

E)   2001 and over

Graduation School: The participants are asked to indicate the type of the university they are graduated from

A)   Faculty of Arts and Sciences

B)   Faculty of Education

C)   Institute of Education

D)   Other Departments

These demographic variables are used "because of their potential to affect the relationships among other organizational variables" (Schappe, 1998, p.283).

7.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

Ministry of National Education (MONE) Ankara Provincial Directorate has published a directory in 2006 in which names, addresses, telephone and fax numbers of all schools are printed on district basis. (T.C. Ankara Valiliği İl M.E.M., 2006). According to this directory, there are 48 private primary schools and 854 public primary schools in Ankara. 22 private sector schools are situated in Çankaya district and 9 schools are situated in Keçiören district. These are the two districts in which most of the private and public schools are situated. We chose four private schools from Keçiören district and three private schools from Çankaya district randomly. In Table 1 below, the names

and districts of the schools to which questionnaires are distributed, number of questionnaires distributed and collected are shown.

Table 1 : Summary of Questionnaires Collected

Keçiören District	No of Questionnaires Distributed	No of Questionnaires Collected	% of Collection
Ceceli	30	22	
Hayat	30	30	
Ahmet Yesevi	20	16	
Çağrı	10	6	
Keçiören District - Sub Total	**90**	**74**	**82%**
Çankaya District			
Maya	20	18	
Ayşeabla (Başkent)	60	43	
Samanyolu	19	0	
Çankaya District - Sub Total	**99**	**61**	**62%**
Total	**189**	**135**	**71%**

The number of teachers to whom the questionnaires were distributed was 189, and the number of teachers from whom the questionnaires were collected was 135, giving a response rate of 71%.

The questionnaires were distributed to teachers at the end of the school year 2005 – 2006. It is assumed that the observations of the teachers during the school year, their experience and relationships with their schools would help them to make objective evaluations free of biases at the end of the school year. Besides in 2005- 2006 the curriculum was changed and it was applied all over Turkey. The new curriculum was student centered and the methods of teaching were changed and had no resemblance to the past. Therefore the teachers had a different education year and at the end of the year they were in a better position to evaluate their environment and their position within their environment according to the researcher. Also it was thought that it would be more easy and convenient for the teachers to complete the

questionnaires without being interrupted by their heavy work load during the semester. Depending on these circumstances, the questionnaires were distributed after the closing of schools on June 19, 2006.

First the managers of private schools in Keçiören district were visited. The objective and a short explanation of the research were explained to them and anonymity was assured. After reviewing the questionnaire the managers approved that they can be distributed to teachers. All of the managers were eager to participate in the research. In one of the schools, the manager appointed her secretary to distribute the questionnaires and told the teachers that she has nothing to do with the questionnaire and they should complete them freely. In the other schools, the questionnaires were given to managers to be distributed to teachers. Since it was the end of the year, the teachers were attending seminars of MONE and were not at the school at the time of the visit. It may be seen as a weakness of the research; however without the consent of the management it was impossible to distribute the questionnaires. Besides when the responses are reviewed it is seen that there are also negative responses and the responses are not cumulated at the positive pole of the scales. The questionnaires were collected in three days together with the lists of teachers participating in the research. Manager of one of the schools wanted to learn the results of the research.

In Çankaya district, it was more difficult to get the consent of the school management for the application of research in their schools. The responses could be received from two schools out of the ones selected randomly. When the managers agreed to participate, the questionnaires were left to their secretaries later. In Maya, questionnaires were collected the next day from the secretary together with the list of the participants. In Ayşeabla, the questionnaires were collected from the manager. No responses could be received from Samanyolu.

It took a total of 5 days to visit a school, meet the manager, explain the research, distribute the questionnaires and collect them back. However the questionnaires were collected utmost within two days after distribution, from each school.

7.4 TRANSLATION

The questionnaires were translated into Turkish by three different people. The official translators of Support to Basic Education Project (SBEP), Modernization of Vocational Training (MVET) and the office manager of MVET who was previously an English language teacher in T.E.D. Ankara College. The researcher herself also translated into Turkish and compared the four translations and tried to choose the most understandable versions of translated items.

The translated questionnaires were reviewed by the thesis advisor and revised according to her comments.

The translated questionnaires were then shown to two English language lecturers in Hacettepe Foreign Languages Department and back translated by them.

The final versions were distributed among SBEP counterparts who are graduated from Education Faculties and among four teachers in a private primary school to specify whether the questions were relevant and understandable. The feedbacks received were positive.

CHAPTER VIII

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

8.1. ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Table 2 : Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

Item No	Item Description	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
OCB 1	Helps others who have been absent	4,15	,87	
OCB 2	Punctuality	4,67	,57	
OCB 3	Volunteers for things that are not required	3,87	,83	
OCB 4 ®	Takes undeserved breaks	4,17	1,04	
OCB 5	Orients new people even though it is not required	4,16	,83	
OCB 6	Attendance at work is above the norm	4,24	,82	
OCB 7	Helps others who have heavy work loads	4,19	,74	
OCB 8 ®	Coasts toward the end of the day	2,84	1,27	0,70
OCB 9	Gives advance notice if unable to come to work	4,87	,33	
OCB 10 ®	Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations	4,76	,58	
OCB 11	Does not take unnecessary time off work	4,79	,69	
OCB 12	Assist supervisor with his or her work	4,23	,77	
OCB 13	Makes innovative suggestions to improve department	4,50	,54	
OCB 14	Does not take extra breaks	4,51	,58	
OCB 15	Attend functions not required but that help company image	4,21	,82	
OCB 16	Does not spend time in idle conversations	4,07	1,02	

We used the scale developed by Smith *et al*. (1983) to measure OCBs of private primary school teachers in our sample. The 16 item scale developed by Smith *et al*. (1983) for measuring OCB, is comprised of two factors: Altruism and Generalized Compliance. The teachers in our sample responded to these 16 items on a 5 point Likert type scale; 1 representing Strongly Disagree and 5 representing Strongly Agree.

Smith *et al*. (1983) have taken factors loading above 0,50 on one factor and below 0,50 on the other. Items 1, 3, 5, 7, 12 and 13 have loaded for Altruism factor.

Items 2, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11, 14, 16 have loaded for Generalized Compliance factor.

Items 8 and 15 have loaded below 0,50 for the two items in Smith et al.'s (1983) study. Items 4, 8, 10 are reversed scored items.

In our sample, in 18 of the questionnaires filled there were missing values; therefore we excluded them from our analysis and based our analysis on 117 valid cases which are 87 % of the total. We chose to exclude missing items from the analysis in order not to manipulate data by getting the mean for the missing items. We wanted to base our analysis on original data in its pure form.

The Cronbach alpha reliability of OCB scale in our sample was calculated as 0,70.

Smith *et al*. (1983) found the coefficient alpha reliability estimates as 0.88 and 0.85 for Altruism and Generalized Compliance dimensions of OCB scale respectively. Schappe (1998) used 6 item shorter version of this scale and

found the Cronbach alpha reliability estimate to be 0.69. Ertürk *et al*. (2004) used 5 item short version of this scale on blue collar workers in Turkish manufacturing industry and calculated Cronbach alpha reliability as 0.68.

The Cronbach alpha reliability of OCB scale in our sample was 0,70 and it was higher than the reliabilities mentioned above.

We also calculated Cronbach's alpha reliability for Altruism and Generalized Compliance factors as identified by Smith *et al*. (1983). For 129 valid cases over 135 total cases, reliability of Altruism factor was computed as 0,60. For 122 valid cases over 135 total cases, reliability of Generalized Compliance factor was computed as 0,49. Although these reliabilities are not too low, they are below our reliability criteria which is 0,70. Therefore we decided to treat the scale as unidimensional. Schappe (1998) has used only 6 items and Ertürk *et al*. (2004) have used only 5 items of OCB scale developed by Smith *et al*. (1983). They have not stated their criteria for including only those items and excluding the others and the reliabilities they have calculated are lower than the reliability we have calculated for 16 items OCB scale.   Ertürk *et al*. (2004) have performed explanatory factor analysis and have extracted a single factor.   The reliabilities we have calculated for Altruism and Generalized Compliance factors (0,60 and 0,49 respectively) suggest that there are not two factors for OCB in our sample. Even if two factors were identified, they would not be reliable.

In summary, our OCB scale is taken as unidimensional and is comprised of 16 items. These 16 items measure OCB reliably.

We calculated the mean score for OCB as 4,26 with a standard deviation of 0,34. The median was 4,31 and the mode was 4,38. This low standard deviation with the close mean, median and mode scores showed that the

group was homogeneous and the distribution was close to normal. The range was between 3,19 and 5,00 stating that there was no big difference between the minimum and maximum scores.

Likert type scales provide information about the position of the individuals according to a reference (neutr) point (neither agree nor disagree). The position of the individuals on the Likert type scale is important. Our mean score for OCB which was 4,26 fell within the Strongly Agree range on the Likert type scale. This was an indicator that the teachers in our sample had high levels of OCB which was an expected finding. Teaching as a profession inherently involves high organizational citizenship like behaviors.

Being a teacher requires the devotion of most part of one's life to the profession which is a never ending task. Teachers have to be models in every aspects of their life; in the classroom, in the school system, and in the society. It requires being a teacher every hour of the day which cannot be put in the back of the mind even at home as stated by Oplatka (2006). Oplatka has pointed out that "teacher OCB is a result of a general disposition toward altruism and helping others everywhere and not particularly at school and in class" (Oplatka, 2006, p. 407). Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino, and Rosner (2005) have also stated that teachers are involved deeply in citizenship like behaviors, extra role activities in their work places. Somech and Bogler (2002) have stated that teachers' OCB toward the team or the other teachers was greater than the OCB toward the organization in general. It suggested that teachers involved in OCB however they engaged in more extra role activities toward their colleagues than the extra role activities which benefited the whole organization.

Çetin (2004) has tried to measure how much the teachers are involved in OCBs by using a 5 dimensional scale consisting of Altruism,

Conscientiousness, Courtesy, Sportsmanship and Civic Virtue. The research was performed on 719 teachers working in various levels of education system in İstanbul during 2001–2002 education year. She has also calculated means between 3,48 and 4,02 for these five dimensions with standard deviations changing between 1,16 and 1,52; which is an indicator of high levels of OCB. She has suggested that teaching profession includes a great deal of OCB due to its nature. Teachers devote themselves to their profession without expecting much for themselves. Their main objective is to contribute to the development of high skilled and well educated people which is a main factor for the development of the country. "Holding this kind of belief encourages teachers, for example, to contribute to the school's aims, participate in a wide variety of extra-role activities, and think of many creative teaching methods" (Oplatka, 2006, p. 417).

After stating that the mean value of the OCB of the teachers are high, we performed preliminary analyses of t-tests to determine whether there were significant differences of OCB according to the demographic variables. We used 0,05 significance level throughout all of our tests.

The Altruism dimension of OCB includes helping behavior, and since these are mostly attributed as female characteristics, and according to the socialization process favoring these kinds of behavior on the part of the females in our culture, we expected that females would indulge more in organization citizenship like behaviors.

Table 3 : OCB by Gender

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value	p
Female	112	4,25	0,33	-1,44	0,15
Male	23	4,36	0,37		

The means of OCB for females and males are high and close to each other same as the mean for the total group which was 4,26. The table 3 stated that there is no significant difference between OCB of females and males. This finding is consistent with the finding of Schappe (1998) who found out no significant correlation between gender, age and OCB. Çetin (2004) has found significant difference for gender variable for Altruism and Civic Virtue dimensions of OCB. Females were more altruistic and males were more willing to participate in the political life and keeping up with the developments in the schools. According to Podsakoff *et al*. (2000), in their review of theoretical and empirical literature on OCB, demographic variables like tenure and gender were found to be unrelated to OCB. Although it is expected that due to empathy and perspective taking characteristics mostly associated with females, they are expected to show altruistic and courtesy behaviors and due to their preference of equity, males are expected to show conscientious behaviors. Podsakoff *et al*. (2000) concluded that existing literature did not support the effects of gender on OCB and additional evidence was needed on this issue.

Another demographic variable included in our research was age. We expected a linear and positive relationship between age and OCB therefore we performed Pearson correlation analysis. The correlation between OCB and age is (r = 0,22, p= 0,01) which shows a significant correlation between OCB and age for our sample. This finding is not consistent with the findings

of Schappe (1998) and Ertürk *et al.* (2004) who found out no significant correlations between age and OCB.

In contrast, Çetin (2004) has found out significant differences for Altruism, Conscientiousness, Courtesy, and Sportmanship dimensions of OCB and age for her sample of teachers. On the basis of further analysis, she has concluded that teachers over 36 years old are lower in altruistic types of OCB. The teachers under 36 years old, are more willing and open to communication; therefore the older teachers delegate activities which require voluntariness to the younger teachers. The teachers under 36 years old, may be more idealistic and may try to gain prestige in their social environment by engaging in activities beyond their normally expected role performances. Çetin (2004) has proposed this explanation for the lower Conscientiousness levels of teachers over 36 years old. On the other hand, teachers under 25 years old are lower on Courtesy and Sportsmanship dimensions of OCB. These young teachers have not yet accumulated the necessary perspective for realizing the problems in advance and therefore lack the formal experience to prevent the problems from occurring. Besides they have not yet gained enough maturity to look at events from above and therefore lack the tolerance to avoid excessive complaints.

Consistent with the comments of Podsakoff *et al.* (2000), and Ertürk *et al.* (2004), we did not find significant correlation between organizational tenure and OCB (r= 0,06, p= 0,52). Schappe (1998) has found a significant negative correlation between organization tenure and OCB (r= -0,23, p< .01). Smith *et al.* (1983) have also found insignificant negative correlations between years with company and Altruism and Compliance dimensions of OCB (r = -0,04 and r = -0,08 respectively).

In our research we have also collected data on the career experiences of the teachers. We have grouped teachers according to their career experiences into four categories.

We expected a significant difference between OCBs of different career experience levels and OCB would increase as the career experience increased. Since we tried to compare four groups and the groups were categorical, we performed One Way ANOVA test.

Table 4 : ANOVA Table for Career Experience and OCB

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1,47	3	0,49	4,70	0,04
Within Groups	13,65	131	0,10		
Total	15,12	134			

We identified a significant difference between categories of career experience and OCB. In order to identify the source of this difference, we performed post-hoc (multiple comparison) tests. We used Bonferroni pairwise test comparison to find out which categories are different from the others. The results indicated significant differences between 1st,2nd and 4th categories. If we integrate the first two categories, then we can say that the mean OCBs of teachers with less than 15 years and more than 21 years of experience are significantly different. Çetin (2004) has also found significant differences between categories of career experiences and the five dimensions of OCB. The teachers with an experience level between 16 – 20 years in her sample are evidently higher in all five dimensions of OCB namely Altruism, Conscientiousness, Courtesy, Sportmanship and Civic Virtue. We have also identified the same trend in our sample. The mean OCBs of the teachers with a career experience level between 16 - 20 years are higher than the

mean OCBs of teachers with other experience levels. The teachers in our sample are working in the private sector and we may assume that some of them have retired from the public sector and started to work in the private sector. Starting to work in a different work environment, may increase organization citizenship like behaviors in the beginning. The teachers may indulge in OCBs due to their emphasis on making a place for them in their new environment. The mean OCBs after 21 years decrease only a little and it is very close to its level with experience level for 16 – 20 years. 74% of the teachers in our sample had experiences under 10 years. The senior teachers may be more engaging in organizational citizenshiplike behaviors due to the lack of expertise of this young group. The senior teachers may be involving in activities like orienting, helping these younger teachers and be a model to them. The experience and maturity levels of the senior teachers help them to see potential problems in advance and contribute to the prevention of them, to contribute to the positive image of the school in the society. The increasing work culture, maturity levels and emphasis on education help senior teachers to be engaged in OCBs. Çetin has found that Conscientiousness dimension is lower for teachers with experience levels over 21 years and she suggested that teachers who are close to retirement do not indulge in behaviors which exceed their formal job requirements (Çetin, 2004). Smith *et al.* (1983) have found insignificant negative correlation between years in positon and Altruism ($r = -0,06$) and no correlation with Compliance dimensions of OCB ($r = 0,00$).

We analyzed the demographical characteristics of our sample from the perspective of their responses to the questions related to OCB. We compared the relationships between demographic variables and OCB. We concluded that gender does not create a significant difference in OCB levels of private primary school teachers in our sample. In contrast, career

experience levels create a significant difference. Age is correlated; however organizational tenure is not significantly correlated with OCB.

8.2 JOB SATISFACTION

Table 5 : Job Satisfaction Scale

Item No	Item Description	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
JS 1	Being able to keep busy all the time	4,35	,69	
JS 2	The chance to make the use of my abilities	4,27	,76	
JS 3	The chance to do different things	4,22	,80	
JS 4	The feeling of accomplishment I get	4,34	,81	
JS 5	The chance to be somebody in the community	4,19	,86	
JS 6	The chance to do things with other people	4,21	,77	
JS 7	The chance to try my own methods	4,28	,73	
JS 8	The chance to work alone	3,60	1,01	
JS 9	The way my job provides for steady employment	3,38	1,25	
JS 10	The freedom to use my own judgement	3,83	,93	
JS 11	The chance to tell people what I do	4,13	,84	0,89
JS 12	The chance to do things that don't go against my conscience	4,44	,72	
JS 13	The way my boss handles his/her workers	3,55	1,01	
JS 14	My supervisor's competence in making decisions	3,64	,98	
JS 15	The praise I get for doing my job	3,33	1,18	
JS 16	The way the company policies are put into practice	3,45	,87	
JS 17	The way my co-workers get along with each other	3,63	1,06	
JS 18	The working conditions	3,58	1,00	
JS 19	The chances for advancement on this job	3,47	1,03	
JS 20	The pay and amount of work I do	2,93	1,11	

The short form of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) is used to measure the job satisfaction of teachers in our sample. MSQ which consists of 20 items, asks the respondents' degree of satisfaction with many facets of their present jobs like being able to keep busy all the time, the chance to make the use of one's abilities, the feeling of accomplishment one gets, the working conditions, the pay and amount of work one does.

We used the MSQ as a unidimensional scale although there were studies taking the MSQ consisting of two factors: measuring extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction (Moorman, 1993). Extrinsic factors composed of items related with the extrinsic nature of the job like working conditions, the way the company policies are put into practice and the pay and the amount of work one does. On the other side, the intrinsic factors composed of items related with the intrinsic nature of the job like the chance to do different things, the feeling of accomplishment one gets and the chance to make the use of one's abilities (Moorman, 1993). However since we did not try to measure job satisfaction with different facets of the job like satisfaction with pay, with supervisors, with promotion opportunities etc. seperately, we decided to use MSQ as a unidimensional scale. As has been stated previously in the methodology section, the cognitive job satisfaction scales measure the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB more strongly and MSQ is a measure of cognitive based job satisfaction (Moorman, 1993).

We analyzed the characteristics of our sample from the perspective of their responses to the questions related to job satisfaction.

In 10 of the questionnaires filled there were missing values related to job satisfaction; therefore we excluded them from our analysis and based our analysis on 125 valid cases which are 93 % of the total.

The Cronbach alpha reliability of job satisfaction scale in our sample is 0,89 which shows that the reliability of our scale is high. Schappe (1998) has also used the short form of MSQ in his research and stated the reliability of MSQ as 0,92.

The mean score for job satisfaction was 3,84 and the standard deviation was 0,55 for our sample. The median was 3,85 and the mode was 4,00. This low standard devation with the close mean, median and mode scores showed that the group was homogeneous and the distribution was close to normal. The range was between 1,95 and 4,95 stating that there was a big difference between the minimum and maximum scores.

Our mean score which was 3,84 fell within the Agree range. Job satisfaction mean score was not as high as the mean score of OCB. The minimum score (1,95) was within the Disagree range and the maximum score (4,95) fell within the Strongly Agree range.

Job satisfaction mean values being under the mean value for OCB can be explained from the perspective of teachers. In Turkey teachers do not earn much. 91% the teachers in our sample mentioned that they were earning between 501 YTL – 1.500 YTL although they were working in the private sector. Since even the teachers working in the private sector do not earn much and according to the discussions with some of them; we assume that teachers are not satisfied with the amount of pay. However we have to take into consideration that 74% of the teachers in our sample have less than 10 years experience and 75% have worked utmost 4 years in their current schools and 50% are under 30 years old. Our sample is composed of relatively young teachers. Not much time has past since their graduation, they are enthusiastic towards their jobs and agree that they are satisfied with their jobs.

On the other hand, the discussions with some of the managers in Ministry of National Education revealed that our society in general have great expectations from the teacher. The teachers have to be role models not only in the classroom, in their schools but also in society as well. However against these great expectations, and although teaching career is accepted as prestigious in the society, the teachers are not provided with enough opportunities to continue a satisfied life.

Table 6 : Job Satisfaction by Gender

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value	p
Female	112	3,82	0,57	-0,97	0,34
Male	23	3,94	0,42		

The means of job satisfaction for males are slightly over the means of job satisfaction of females. The mean value for the total group is 3,84 and the mean value of job satisfaction of females and males in our sample are almost equal to this value. The table 6 stated that there is no significant difference between job satisfactions of females and males.

Another demographic variable included in our research was age. We expected a linear and positive relationship between age and job satisfaction; therefore we performed Pearson correlation analysis. The correlation between job satisfaction and age is ($r = 0,07$, $p= 0,44$) which shows a non-significant correlation between OCB and age for our sample. Organ and Near (1985) have stated age as being correlated positively and strongly with job satisfaction. According to them, in the literature, the reported job satisfactions of older workers are greater than the reported job satisfactions of younger workers. However our finding of no significant correlation

between age and job satisfaction, is not consistent with this statement of Organ and Near (1985).

We did not find significant correlation between organizational tenure and job satisfaction in our sample. The correlation between job satisfaction and tenure in our sample is (r= 0,09, p= 0,31).

We expected a significant difference between job satisfactions of different career experience levels. Job satisfaction would increase as the career experience increased. Since we tried to compare four groups and the groups were categorical, we performed One Way ANOVA test.

Table 7 : ANOVA Table for Career Experience and Job Satisfaction

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1,03	3	0,34	1,16	0,33
Within Groups	38,89	131	0,30		
Total	39,92	134			

We could not identify a significant difference between categories of career experience and job satisfaction. The descriptive statistics showed that there was a slight increase of job satisfaction when experience levels increased. The mean value of job satisfaction of teachers with less than 10 years was 3,79 with standard deviation of 0,56 and the mean value of job satisfaction of teachers with more than 21 years was 4,02 with standard deviation of 0,47; however this difference was not significant.

Above we have compared the relationships between demographic variables and job satisfaction. We concluded that gender, and career experience levels did not create a difference in job satisfactions of private primary school

teachers in our sample and age and tenure is not correlated with job satisfaction.

8.3 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Table 8 : Organizational Commitment Scale

Item No	Item Description	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
OC 1	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be succesful	6,01	1,01	
OC 2	I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for	5,55	1,22	
OC 3 ®	I feel very little loyalty to this organization	6,00	1,45	
OC 4	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization	4,11	1,83	
OC 5	I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar	5,59	1,39	
OC 6	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization	6,02	1,05	
OC 7 ®	I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar	3,62	1,50	
OC 8	This organization really inspires the very best of me in the way of job performance	5,15	1,41	0,90
OC 9 ®	It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization	4,88	1,64	
OC 10	I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined	5,96	1,21	
OC 11 ®	There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely	4,83	1,62	
OC 12 ®	Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees	4,73	1,56	
OC 13	I really care about the fate of this organization	6,37	,85	
OC 14	For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work	5,57	1,24	
OC 15 ®	Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part	6,55	,79	

We used the scale developed by Mowday *et al.* (1979) to measure organizational commitment.

In 12 of the questionnaires filled there were missing values related with organizational commitment; therefore we excluded them from our analysis and based our analysis on 123 valid cases which are 91 % of the total.

Items no 3, 7, 9, 11, 12, and 15 are reverse scored items. Mowday *et al.* (1979) stated that most of the items were phrased negatively and reverse scored to reduce the response bias. "It was intended that the scale items, when taken together, would provide a fairly consistent indicator of employee commitment levels for most working populations" (Mowday *et al.*, 1979, p. 227).

The Cronbach alpha reliability of organizational commitment scale in our sample is 0,90 which is an indicator of high reliability for our scale. Mowday *et al.* (1979) found a median of 0.90 coefficient alpha reliability estimate of the scale on the groups they have applied the questionnaire. Schappe (1998) used the short form of organizational commitment questionnaire and found coefficient alpha as 0.91.   Ertürk *et al.* (2004) applied the questionnaire on blue collar workers in the manufacturing sector in İstanbul and found the reliability estimate as 0.93.

The mean score for organizational commitment was 5,38 and the standard deviation was 0,94. The median was 5,60 and the mode was 6,0. This low standard devation with the close mean, median and mode scores showed that the group was homogeneous and the distribution was close to normal. The range was between 2,0 and 6,92 stating that there was a big difference between the minimum and maximum scores.

Our mean score for organizational commitment which was 5,38 fell within the Agree range. The mode and median scores were also in this range. We can assume that organizational commitment of the teachers in our sample are high. In order to be able to make some comments on our sample, we have to make detailed analysis on the nature of their organizational commitment and the demographic variables. Same as with the other statistical analysis for all variables in our sample, we used 0,05 significance level throughout all of our tests.

Table 9: Organizational Commitment by Gender

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value	p
Female	112	5,30	0,98	-2,17	0,03
Male	23	5,76	0,62		

According to table 9, we can say that there is a significant difference of organizational commitment on the basis of gender. The mean score of males are higher than the mean score of females. This may be interpreted by the traditional roles submitted to males in our society. Traditionally men are given the role of the head of the family, and they have to provide a sufficient income for the living of the family. They think they have greater financial and family responsibilities. Therefore men are more hesitant to leave their jobs and are more committed to their jobs. They value stable and secure jobs.

We expected a linear and positive relationship between age and organizational commitment therefore we performed Pearson correlation analysis. The correlation between organizational commitment and age is (r=0,19, p=0,03) which shows a significant correlation between organizational commitment and age for our sample. This is in accordance

with the correlations stated by Ertürk *et al.* (2004). They have calculated the correlation of age and organizational commitment in their sample of blue collar workers in İstanbul as 0,41. We can say that as age increases, organizational commitment of the teachers in our sample increases.

The correlation between organizational commitment and tenure in our sample is ($r = 0,175$, $p= 0,045$) which shows a significant correlation between the two variables.

Previous researches have found significant and positive correlations between age, organizational tenure and organizational commitment (Steers, 1977; Angle and Perry, 1981; Meyer and Allen, 1984; Shore *et al.*, 1995; Chughtai and Zafar, 2006). Increasing age restricts the chance of the person to find better job opportunities and it may be costly to leave the organization because of the investments made like retirement benefits, seniority privileges, specific training obtained (Meyer and Allen, 1984). Besides the person may develop an emotional attachment to the organization when age and tenure in the organization increases.

We expected that a significant difference existed between organizational commitment of different career experience levels. Organizational commitment would increase as the career experience increased. Since we tried to compare four groups and the groups were categorical, we performed One Way ANOVA test.

Table 10 : ANOVA Table for Career Experience and OC

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8,51	3	2,84	3,38	0,02
Within Groups	109,92	131	0,84		
Total	118,43	134			

We identified a significant difference between categories of career experience and organizational commitment.

Table 11 : Post Hoc Analysis Table for Career Experience and OC

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	Post Hoc
Less than 10 years	100	5,24	0,96		4
11 – 15 years	7	5,62	0,71		
16 – 20 years	4	5,33	1,54	3,38	
More than 21 years	24	5,89	0,58		1
Total	135	5,38	0,94		

In order to identify the source of this difference, we performed post hoc (multiple comparison) tests. We used Bonferroni pairwise test comparison to find out which categories are different from the others. The results of Bonferroni analysis indicated significant differences between 1st, and 4th categories. We can say that the mean organizational commitment of teachers with less than 10 years and more than 21 years of experience are significantly different. The teachers with less than 10 years of experience are less committed to their schools than the teachers with more than 21 years of experience. The teachers with more than 21 years of experience are in their retirement stage and prefer to stay with their school. As a second alternative, we may suggest that some of these teachers have retired from

the public sector and started to work for the private sector. Therefore since they have selected to work for the private schools, and they are in the second stage in their careers, they prefer to continue in these schools and are committed to them.

Depending on the above analysis between demographical variables and organizational commitment, we concluded that gender, and career experience levels create a significant difference in organizational commitment of private primary school teachers in our sample and age, and tenure is positively correlated with organizational commitment of them.

8.4 PROCEDURAL JUSTICE

Table 12 : Procedural Justice Scale

Item No	Item Description	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
OJ 1	Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner.	5,05	4,61	
OJ 2	My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	4,53	1,65	
OJ 3	To make job decisions, my general manager collects accurate and complete information	4,60	1,58	
OJ 4	My general manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees	4,85	1,64	
OJ 5	All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees	4,52	1,64	
OJ 6	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager	4,63	1,66	
OJ 7	When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with kindness and consideration	5,35	1,57	
OJ 8	When decisions are made about my job, the general manager treats me with respect and dignity	5,47	1,57	0,97
OJ 9	When decisions are made about my job, the general manager is sensitive to my personal needs	5,02	1,63	
OJ 10	When decisions are made about my job, the general manager deals with me in a truthful manner	5,13	1,64	
OJ 11	When decisions are made about my job, the general manager shows concern for my rights as an employee	5,25	1,47	
OJ 12	Concerning decisions made about my job, the general manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me	5,01	1,54	
OJ 13	The general manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job	5,03	1,52	
OJ 14	When making decisions about my job, the general manager offers explanations that make sense to me	5,02	1,57	
OJ 15	My general manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job	5,01	1,59	

We used the scale of Niehoff and Moorman (1993) to measure organizational justice. This scale consisted of one dimension which measured distributive justice and another dimension which measured procedural justice. Procedural justice scale is composed of 15 items. The first six items of procedural justice scale tried to measure procedural justice and the

remaining nine items tried to measure the interpersonal side of procedural justice. The distributive justice scale of Niehoff and Moorman (1993) is used in our research to measure distributive justice.

As we have stated earlier in the end of organizational justice section, we have analyzed procedural justice and distributive justice seperately; and included interactional justice as a form of procedural justice.

In our sample, in 3 of the questionnaires filled there were missing values to the responses made to procedural justice scale; therefore we excluded them from our analysis and based our analysis on 132 valid cases which are 98 % of the total.

Researchers using the scale of Niehoff and Moorman (1993) had reported reliabilities 0,90 and over (Niehoff, Moorman, 1993; Ertürk *et al*., 2004). Our Cronbach alpha reliability is 0,97 and it shows that our scale can be used reliably.

The mean score for procedural justice was 4,94 and the standard deviation was 1,36. The median was 5,27 and the mode was 5,40. This low standard devation with the close mean, median and mode scores showed that the group was homogeneous and the distribution was close to normal. The range was between 1,07 and 7,00 stating that there was a big difference between the minimum and maximum scores; the lowest score being in the Strongly Disagree and the highest score being in the Strongly Agree range. Our mean score for procedural justice which was 4,94 fell within the Slightly Agree range.

After stating that the mean value of the procedural justice of the teachers are moderate, we performed preliminary analyses of t-tests to determine

whether there were significant differences or correlations of procedural justice according to the demographic variables. Same as with the other tests, we used 0,05 significance level throughout all of our tests.

Table 13 : Procedural Justice by Gender

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value	p
Female	111	4,79	1,39	-3,74	0,01
Male	23	5,65	0,90		

The means of procedural justice for males are higher than the mean scores of procedural justice for females and there is a significant difference between procedural justice of females and males. The mean score for males are even higher than the mean score for the total sample. Since women are expected to prefer the maintenance of group welfare (Leventhal and Lane, 1970) and are more sensitive to interpersonal issues, they are expected to prefer procedural justice more than men (Kulik, Lind, Ambrose, and MacCoun, 1996). Since men are expected to protect their interests and are more sensitive to material outcomes, (Leventhal and Lane, 1970) than women, they are expected to prefer distributive justice (Kulik *et al.*, 1996). However the findings of Kulik *et al.* were contrary to these predictions and they found that women emphasized outcomes rather than procedures more than men. Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) concluded that gender differences are more complex to explain than the above mentioned predictions.

We expected a linear and positive relationship between age and procedural justice; therefore we performed Pearson correlation analysis. The correlation between procedural justice and age is (r = 0,17, p= 0,047) which shows a significant correlation between procedural justice and age for our sample.

We did not find significant correlation between organizational tenure and procedural justice. The correlation between procedural justice and tenure in our sample is (r = 0,10, p= 0,27).

We expected that a significant difference existed between procedural justice of different career experience levels and procedural justice would increase as the career experience increased. Since we tried to compare four groups and the groups were categorical, we performed One Way ANOVA test.

Table 14 : ANOVA Table for Career Experience and PJ

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	16,96	3	5,65	3,21	0,02
Within Groups	228,74	130	1,76		
Total	245,70	133			

We identified a significant difference between categories of career experience and procedural justice.

Table 15 : Post Hoc Analysis Table for Career Experience and PJ

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	Post Hoc
Less than 10 years	99	4,77	1,40		4
11 – 15 years	7	5,16	1,12		
16 – 20 years	4	4,27	1,79	3,21	
More than 21 years	24	5,65	0,90		1
Total	134	4,94	1,36		

In order to identify the source of this difference, we performed post hoc (multiple comparison) tests. We used Bonferroni pairwise test comparison to find out which categories are different from the others. The results indicated

significant differences between 1st, and 4th categories. We can say that the mean procedural justice perceptions of teachers with less than 10 years and more than 21 years of experience are significantly different. The teachers with less than 10 years of experience perceive that the fairness levels in the procedures and the implementation of those procedures in their schools are lower than the fairness perceptions of teachers with more than 21 years of experience.

Above we have compared the relationships between demographic variables and procedural justice. We concluded that gender, and career experience levels create a significant difference in the perceptions of procedural justice of private primary school teachers in our sample and age is positively correlated with procedural justice.

8.5 DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE

Table 16 : Distributive Justice Scale

Item No	Item Description	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach Alpha
DJ 1	My work schedule is fair	5,35	1,46	
DJ 2	I think that my level of pay is fair	4,08	1,83	
DJ 3	I consider my work load to be quite fair	4,73	1,64	0,91
DJ 4	Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair	4,09	1,75	
DJ 5	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair	4,76	1,62	

We used the scale of Niehoff and Moorman (1993) to measure distributive justice. The distributive justice scale consisted of five items. As stated in the previous section, the reliability of all the three dimensions were reported to be over 0,90 (Niehoff and Moorman, 1993). Ertürk *et al*. (2004) have

reported the reliability of this scale as 0,95 in their study. The Cronbach alpha reliability of distributive justice scale in our sample is 0,91, and we can say that it is highly reliable.

In 8 of the questionnaires filled there were missing values; therefore we excluded them from our analysis and based our analysis on 127 valid cases which are 94 % of the total.

The mean score for distributive justice was 4,61 and the standard deviation was 1,45. The range was between 1,00 and 7,00 stating that there was a big difference between the minimum and maximum scores.

Our mean score for distributive justice which was 4,61 fell within the Slightly Agree range. The mean score for distributive justice was within the same range as procedural justice.

After stating the mean value of the distributive justice, we performed preliminary analyses of t-tests to determine whether there were significant differences of distributive justice according to the demographic variables. We used 0,05 significance level throughout all of our tests.

Table 17 : Distributive Justice by Gender

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value	p
Female	109	4,51	1,44	-1,71	0,09
Male	23	5,08	1,45		

The means of perceptions of distributive justice for males are higher than of females but there is no significant difference between distributive justice of females and males. Major and Adams (1983) have offered two possible

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explanations for gender differences in distributive justice perceptions. From self presentation perspective, men are expected to be equitable and react more strongly than females to inequitable outcomes. Their main concern is to protect their own interests. On the other side the women are expected to be more generous and look after the maintenance of the welfare of group members (Leventhal and Lane, 1970). Therefore the expectations of each gender in the distribution of rewards are different from self presentation perspective offered by Major and Adams (1983). The second possible explanation offered by Major and Adams has cognitively oriented perspective in which each gender evaluate their inputs differently. Women are expected to perform poorly than men and are expected to attribute their success more to external factors than to internal factors. However Major and Adams (1983) failed to support any of these perspectives on gender differences in distributive justice (Charash and Spector, 2001).

Since we expected a linear and positive relationship between age and distributive justice; we performed Pearson correlation analysis. The correlation between distributive justice and age is (r = 0,24, p= 0,01) which shows a significant correlation between distributive justice and age for our sample.

We did not find significant correlation between organizational tenure and distributive justice. The correlation between distributive justice and tenure in our sample is (r= 0,10, p= 0,25).

We expected that a significant difference existed between distributive justice of different career experience levels and distributive justice would increase as the career experience increased. Since we tried to compare four groups and the groups were categorical, we performed One Way ANOVA test.

Table 18 : ANOVA Table for Career Experience and DJ

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	26,77	3	8,92	4,70	0,004
Within Groups	248,30	128	1,94		
Total	275,07	131			

We identified a significant difference between categories of career experience and distributive justice.

We have compared the relationships between demographic variables and distributive justice. We concluded that age is correlated with distributive justice and career experience levels create a difference in the perceptions of distributive justice of private primary school teachers in our sample.

8.6 CORRELATION AND REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Table 19 : Correlations Matrix

	Mean	Standard Deviation	OCB	OC	JS	PJ	DJ	Age	Tenure
OCB	4,26	,34	1						
OC	5,38	,94	,38(**)	1					
JS	3,84	,55	,32(**)	,62(**)	1				
PJ	4,94	1,36	,18(*)	,78(**)	,63(**)	1			
DJ	4,61	1,45	,22(**)	,67(**)	,54(**)	,69(**)	1		
Age	32,38	8,59	,22(*)	,19(*)	,07	,17(*)	,24(**)	1	
Tenure	3,34	2,52	,06	,18(*)	,09	,10	,10	,49(**)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

We calculated the correlations between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, procedural justice, distributive justice and OCB for our sample. We proposed a linear and positive relationship between all of these four dependent variables and OCB; therefore we performed Pearson correlation analysis. As seen on the correlation matrix above, there is a significant

positive correlation between job satisfaction and OCB (r= 0,32, p= 0,0001), between organizational commitment and OCB (r= 0,38, p= 0,0001), between procedural justice and OCB (r= 0,18, p= 0,05), and between distributional justice and OCB (r= 0,22, p= 0,01). Therefore our first hypothesis that job satisfaction is positively related to OCB; our second hypothesis that organizational commitment is positively related to OCB; our third hypothesis that procedural justice is positively related to OCB, and our fourth hypothesis that distributive justice is positively related to OCB are supported.

The correlation of procedural justice with OCB is less stronger than the correlations of the other independent variables with OCB; however it is still significant at the 0.05 level.

Schappe (1998), and Ertürk *et al.* (2004) have also found positive correlations between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational justice, distributive justice and OCB.

Table 20 : Linear Regression Analysis

Variable	B	Beta	Sig.
Constant	3,050		,000
JS	,128	,215	,059
OC	,214	,599	,000
PJ	-,103	-,430	,004
DJ	-,019	-,086	,486
Gender	,064	,077	,367
Age	,006	,174	,438
Tenure	-,018	-,141	,200
Experience 1- less than 10 years	-,046	-,063	,794
Experience 2- between 11-20 years	-,156	-,138	,305
Wage 1- between 1.001-1.500	,092	,144	,118
Wage- 1.501 and over	,136	,110	,248

Dependent Variable: OCB
R^2 = ,27   SEE = ,28

We performed linear regression analysis in order to test our fifth hypothesis. The results of the regression analysis are shown in Table 15 above. The high constant figure (3,05) for the regression formula is in accordance with the characteristics of our sample. Our sample had high levels of OCB. The two factors which are significantly related to OCB in our sample are organizational commitment and procedural justice. It seems that the most important factor increasing OCB in our sample is organizational commitment. It is the strongest determination of OCB compared to other independent factors. Organizational commitment had also the highest correlation (r= 0,38, p= 0,0001) with OCB as shown on Table 14 above. Procedural justice is the second factor explaining significant variance in OCB. However the relationship of procedural justice to OCB is negative. Therefore our fifth hypothesis stating that organizational commitment, procedural justice and distributive justice each have significant effects on OCB is partially supported.

The correlation between procedural justice and OCB is r= 0,18; p= 0,05, and it is lower than the correlations of job satisfaction and organizational commitment to OCB. The negative relationship between procedural justice and OCB is a surprising and unexpected finding and contrary to the findings in the literature. In the next section these findings will be discussed and the negative relationship between procedural justice and OCB will tried to be explained.

CHAPTER IX

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The degree of OCB was high in our sample of primary school teachers working in the private sector in Ankara. The high degree of OCB is not surprising when we take into account the nature of teaching career. It involves high levels of OCB by its very nature. Besides, in today's high competing environment, the importance of information economy requires organizations to encourage their employees to engage in organization citizenship like behaviors. Organizations have to distinguish themselves in terms of goods/services they provide. OCB is a way of differentiating themselves in the competition and achieving organizational effectiveness.

The results of our regression analysis revealed two significant determinants of OCB in our sample; commitment and procedural justice perceptions. These are among the factors which have arisen in the literature to be important antecedents of OCB (Schappe, 1998; Ertürk *et al.*, 2004; Köse, Kartal, and Kayalı, 2003; İşbaşı, 2001, Moorman *et al.*, 1993; Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ, 1990; Folger and Konovsky, 1989).

Organizational commitment is a significant factor in determining the OCBs of private primary school teachers in our sample. According to the results of the regression analysis, organizational commitment is the most significant factor which increases OCB. This result is in line with the findings of Schappe (1998) who found out when all job satisfaction, organizational commitment and perceived organizational justice were considered together, only organizational commitment accounted for a unique amount of variance in OCB.

In the educational settings, commitment increases the association of the teachers to their schools, and make them perform better, go beyond the levels of formal job descriptions in the form of OCBs and make positive contributions to their schools. Commitment is a long term relationship. Schools having dedicated and reliable teachers will be in a better position in the education sector (Chugtai and Zafar, 2006). The teachers highly committed to their schools will likely be more enthusiastic towards teaching and show great effort in the classroom thereby contribute to the success of teaching and the standard of education.

Encouraging commitment has important implications for the schools in Turkey. The radical change of the primary education system starting from 2005 – 2006 education year confronted the schools and the teachers with new demands. The schools will need teachers highly committed to school goals, values, intent to stay with the school and are willing to show effort beyond the minimal expectations (Somech and Bogler, 2002). The curriculum change in 2005 – 2006 education year has required the schools to perform training for their teachers. Teachers had to gain new skills in order to be able to cope with the changes. Therefore schools had to invest time, money and energy for the training activities. If the qualified teachers leave the school, then they will take the expertise and teaching skills with them and the schools will have to make more expenses to replace them. Therefore encouraging commitment among teachers may have important effects for the private primary schools and the school management should take steps to increase the commitment of the teachers taking also into consideration the relationship of commitment with OCB.

The other significant predictor of OCB in our study was procedural justice. However procedural justice variable had a negative relationship to OCB in our sample. This is an interesting and unpredicted finding. In the literature the

relationship between procedural justice and OCB is positive (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Moorman, 1991; Bies *et al.*, 1993; Eskew, 1993; Folger, 1993; Greenberg, 1993; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Konovsky and Organ, 1996; Konovsky, 2000). It is generally assumed that fair procedures will be more likely to induce people to enter into OCBs and OCB will increase as a result of increase in procedural justice.

Below we shall try to explain this unexpected finding from the perspectives of in-role, extra-role distinction, culture, power distance and impression management motives.

In the literature there is debate on the distinction of in-role and extra-role distinction on which the early studies of OCB was based. The extra-role assumption of OCB was challenged by researchers (Graham, 1991; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994; Morrison, 1994). Morrison has defined the boundary between in-role and extra-role behavior as "perceived job breadth" (Morrison, 1994, p. 1544). When the perceived job breadth increases, the individual will perceive activities he/she carries out as in-role. Since the roles are not fixed and may be revised and changed during time, and they are psychological contracts and cognitively constructed due to social and behavioral cues, the definitions of in-role may even differ between employees and employers and within employees over time (Morrison, 1994). Morrison further states that if employees define their jobs broadly, as to include more extra-role behaviors as in-role, they will be engaged in performing them. "It implies that individuals rated as good citizens by their supervisors may simply be doing what they feel is part of their jobs rather than purposefully engaging in extra-role behavior" (Morrison, 1994, p. 1546). Therefore OCB is a function of the definition of in-role and extra-role job behavior by the employees.

Vey and Campbell (2004) have performed a similar study to Morrison's (1994) study. However they have also included a number of in-role behaviors to the OCB items that are required to be categorized as either in-role or extra-role. Conscientiousness and courtesy dimensions were considered more in-role whereas altruism and civic virtue dimensions were considered more extra-role by the participants. Vey and Campbell (2004) have concluded that the traditional measures of OCB like Smith *et al.*'s 1983 study may also be measuring in-role behavior. "With the exception of several altruism and civic virtue items, the majority of behaviors on these scales are thought of as in-role behaviors" (Vey and Campbell, 2004, p. 131). However Vey and Campbell have also stated that in order to understand OCB fully, studying the reason or the motivation behind the engagement into OCB is more important than whether or not it is considered in-role or extra-role.

> Much of the current research on the causes of OCB either implicitly or explicitly assumes that engaging in such behavior is a reaction or a response to an individual's perceptions of his or her job and the organization for which he or she works (Rioux and Penner, 2001, p. 1306).

However people may also enter into OCB in order to satisfy certain motives. Rioux and Penner (2001) have shown that motives play crucial role in OCB. They have identified three motives namely Organizational Concern (OC), Prosocial Values (PV), and Impression Management (IM). OC motives included concern to do well for the company, "and a desire for the participants to show pride in and commitment to the organization" (Rioux and Penner, 2001, p. 1307). PV motives included the need to be helpful to the others and to be accepted and have positive, smooth relationships with them. IM motives "concerned with a desire to avoid looking bad to coworkers and supervisors and to obtain rewards" (Rioux and Penner, 2001,

p. 1307).   In other words, IM motives included the need to maintain a positive image.

Rioux and Penner (2001) have found out that PV motives correlated significantly with Altruism dimension of OCB and OC motives correlated significantly with Conscientiousness dimension of OCB and concluded that "OCB is, at least in part, a proactive behavior driven by motives" (Rioux and Penner, 2001, p. 1313).   They found no significant correlation between IM motives and OCB.   They also stated that the strength of OC motives affects the relationship between OJ and OCB.

Finkelstein and Penner (2004) have tried to integrate motives (functional approach) and role identity theory to predict OCB. They have also shown that motives predicted self reported OCB strongly.   PV, OC, and IM motives all correlated with OCB.   PV motives were strongly related to OCBI; i.e. OCB directed at individuals and OC motives were the predictors of OCBO; i.e. OCB directed at the organization.   IM although correlated significantly but weakerly with OCB, seemed to have significant weight in the regression analysis.   Finkelstein and Penner (2004) have explained the weak relation of IM with OCB by taking the long duration of employment in their study into consideration.   Participants with long duration of employment may have developed genuine interest in the organization and the colleagues.   They may have identified themselves with the organization, become involved in the organization and the welfare of it; therefore rather than showing interest for the improvement of the self for IM purposes, they have shown interest for the welfare of the whole.   Finkelstein and Penner (2004) have stated that identification of the motive is important for understanding the reason of the behavior; i.e. for the initial engagement in the behavior.   The experiences in the inital stage determine one's role identity.   Role identity affects the future activity directly.   If the person is identified with a specific role, he/she will

internalize the role and will make it a part of his/her self-concept. Finkelstein and Penner (2004) have stated that maintenance of OCB is related with the internalization of citizen self-concept.

Morrison (1994) have found a negative relationship between job breadth and tenure. She has predicted that since the new employees are inexperienced and unsure about their responsibilities, they may prefer to define their jobs more broadly rather than miscalculating their responsibilities. As they become more experienced and more socialized, the vagueness about the responsibilities become more clear due to social cues from their colleagues therefore they narrow their definitions of their roles. The mean age of the respondents in our sample was 32,38; with a standard deviation of 8,588 and with a median age of 29 which means that half of the sample was under 29 years old. The mean tenure was 3,34; with a standard deviation of 2,519 and with a median tenure of 3. 74% of our total sample had experience less than 10 years and 18% had experience more than 21 years. The respondents with less than 10 years of career experience had a mean of 3 years in the current school. The above data shows that our sample consisted of relatively young people with relatively low levels of tenure in the current school. These relatively young and ambitious teachers have fresh and up to date information since little time has passed after their graduation. The composition of the respondents in our sample are in accordance with the teacher population in Turkey. According to a researcher from Research and Development Department of Ministry of National Education, 70% of teachers in Turkey have career experience of less than 10 years. The finding of the negative relationship between job breadth and tenure in Morrison's 1994 study, may be an explanation of high OCB in our sample. Rather than being erred on the wrong direction, these relatively inexperienced teachers may be defining their jobs more broadly to include more extra-role behaviors.

Tepper, Lockhart, and Hoobler (2001) have studied the relationship between justice, OCB and role definitions. "Morrison suggested that employees with more favorable attitudes define their job requirements more broadly, which in turn, causes them to perform those activities with greater frequency" (Tepper *et al.*, 2001, p.790). This explanation is in contrast to Organ's (1988) who suggested that employees having favorable attitudes will perform more extra-role behaviors and will engage in OCB. Tepper *et al.* (2001) "recently proposed a role discretion hypothesis, which supports the notion that employees' role definitions vis-á-vis OCB moderate the relationship between attitudes and OCB" (Zellars, Tepper, and Duffy, 2002, p. 1069). Tepper *et al.* (2001) have proposed that if employees consider the job behaviors as extra-role, the correlation between justice and OCB will be more stronger. "Hence, employees' role definitions may be viewed as a boundary condition or a moderator of the justice –OCB linkage such that the relationship is stronger when employees define OCB as extrarole behavior" (Tepper *et al.*, 2001, p. 790). Organ (1988) has also stated that the relationship between extra-role behavior and attitudes is powerful than the relationship between in-role behavior and attitudes. (Tepper *et al.*, 2001) In Tepper *et al.*'s study, many employees have defined OCB as more in-role and role definitions have moderated the relationship between procedural justice and OCB. In other words, the relationship between procedural justice and role definitions was stronger for the individuals who defined OCB as extra-role compared to individuals defining OCB as intra-role. Tepper *et al.* (2001) have stated that in order to fully understand the relationship between procedural justice and OCB, employees' definitions of their roles should also be taken into consideration. They have also stated that "employees define OCB as in-role behavior so as to create favorable impressions of themselves" (Tepper *et al.*, 2001, p. 795) or because of impression management motives; to look like a good citizen.

Bolino (1999) has studied the relationship of citizenship and impression management (IM) by asking whether the employees engaging in citizenship behavior are good soldiers or good actors. He has suggested that OCB may be self-serving and image enhancing and IM concerns may motivate OCB as well as social exchange or personality/disposition processes. People engaging in citizenship like behaviors will more likely be positively perceived by the other parties. Bolino (1999) has stated three reasons why people engage in OCB for IM motives:

> (1)they believe that citizenship will facilitate the achievement of a "good organizational citizen" image, (2) they value being seen as good organizational citizens, and (3) there is a discrepancy between the good organizational citizen image that they believe others hold of them and how they wish to be viewed (Bolino, 1999, p. 83).

Bolino (1999) states that the relationship between OCB and motives traditionally associated with OCB like attitudes based on social exchange processes and personality, will be weaker if IM motives are present. According to Bolino, the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and OCB will be weaker if IM motives are present.

> The interactions that we found (which suggest that the relationship between justice and OCB was weaker among those who defined OCB as inrole behavior) could be construed as support for Bolino's moderation prediction to the extent that the employees in our sample defined OCB as inrole behavior to manage favorable impressions (Tepper *et al.*, 2001, p. 795).

Zellars *et al.* (2002) have studied abusive supervision and subordinates' OCB and found out that this relationship was stronger for the employees who are defining OCB as extra-role behavior compared to those defining OCB as intra-role behavior and "this effect was fully mediated by the interactive effect of procedural justice and OCB role definitions" (Zellars *et al.*, 2002, p. 1068). They have suggested that abused employees may be defining their jobs

broadly to decrease their supervisors' hostile behaviors and to be viewed favorably by them; because of IM concerns. They have recommended these kinds of OCB to be studied from the perspective of IM for future research.

Bolino (1999) has suggested that when the employees face difficulty in distinguishing their performances because they work with equally capable coworkers; they may engage in organizational citizenship like behaviors. Also jobs having no formal or objective quantifiable performance criteria will induce individuals to engage in OCB.

The dramatic changes in the Turkish primary education system beginning from 2005 – 2006 education year is not finalized yet. The new system was initiated without much training provided to the teachers. Ministry of National Education (MONE) has provided only three weeks of training to the teachers in August and September 2005, just before the openning of the schools. Besides most of the textbooks and teachers manuals were printed and provided late. The new sysytem has changed the role of the teachers and the methods of teaching. Active learning became the primary method of teaching and the teachers had to adapt their methods according to the new methods. MONE is still working on determining the general and genetic teacher competencies. The performance criteria for the teachers are not published yet. One of the most outstanding weaknesses of the new system is its initialization from bottom to top instead of top to bottom. The training of school principals on the principles of the new system has started in December 2006. Initially the teachers were trained and the sysytem was started. 1,5 years after the initialization of the new curriculum, school principals and the inspectors are started to be trained on the new methods of teaching. It is important for the top management (school principals) to believe in the new system, to understand it and to communicate it to the workers (teachers) in order for a change to be effective. Therefore 2005 –

2006 education year, characterized by ambiguous roles and ambigious job descriptions, was a challenge for most of the primary school teachers in Turkey. The lacking of objective criteria for assessing their in-role performance may be a factor to engage in OCB as Bolino (1999) has suggested. Bolino has concluded that Organ and Ryan's (1995) meta-analysis on the antecedents of OCB has found weak and inconsistent relationships between personality/dispositional factors. The overlap between IM and OCB may be a possible explanation for small amounts of variance explained by attitudes on OCB and inconsistent relationships between between personality/disposition and OCB. "By seperating good soldiers from good actors, researchers may be better able to predict true acts of citizenship" (Bolino, 1999, p. 96).

Another explanation for the negative relationship between organizational justice and OCB, may be based on individualism–collectivism dimensions studied by Moorman and Blakely (1995) as individual difference predictors of OCB. Collectivism is towards the collective and orientation is on the social system rather than self interest. Membership in the group and the welfare of the group is prior to the achievement of one's goals or one's self interest as in individualism (Moorman and Blakely, 1995). "Collectivism is characterized by a tight social framework in which people distinguish between in-groups and out-groups; they expect their in-group to look after them, and in exchange for that, they feel they owe absolute loyalty to it" (Paine and Organ, 2000, p. 48). Moorman and Blakely (1995) have concluded that collectivists are more likely to perform OCB. "However, for a collectivist, seemingly extra-role behaviors may instead be considered 'part of the job' and thus the reasons historically cited for OCB performance may not hold" (Moorman and Blakely, 1995, p. 140). Collectivists may be defining their jobs more broadly to include extra-role behaviors and as Morrison (1994) have pointed out people who define their jobs in broad terms are more likely

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to perform OCBs. Individualism–collectivism dimensions studied by Moorman and Blakely were also offered to explain the relationship between procedural justice and OCB. Since procedural justice is a way of showing concern for the welfare of the whole and OCB is a way of responding to the fairness of the procedures, "it makes sense that such sensitivity may also grow from an employee's orientation towards collectivism" (Moorman and Blakely, 1995, p. 130).

Paine and Organ (2000) have also suggested that culture may influence the antecedents of OCB like commitment and perceived fairness. The acception by the society of unequal distribution of power in organizations is referred as Power Distance (PD). "Employees in high PD cultures may keep demonstrating OCB even when things are not fair because inequity is accepted" (Paine and Organ, 2000, p. 50). They have performed an explaratory survey on 38 people from 26 countries and have found out that OCB is more expected in collectivist cultures and perceived fairness are less important in high PD cultures. OCB appears to be accepted as part of the role or general expectation from the job holder therefore OCB is considered more in-role.

As stated before, the organizational commitment factor has emerged as the most significant factor predicting OCB in our research. Morrison (1994) has found out that affective commitment had a strong effect on perceived job breadth. "It appears that commitment causes employees to define their job responsibilities more broadly and thus, committed employees are more likely to engage in what others may see as OCB" (Morrison, 1994, p. 1562).

Collectivism may be another reason of higher organizational commitment. Paine and Organ (2000) have suggested that collectivist cultures would be high on organizational commitment "due to the importance of the in-group, on which an individual bases his or her identity" (Paine and Organ, 2000, p. 49).

CHAPTER X

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The present study contributes to the literature by making clear the relative effects of the three previously most studied antecedent variables on OCB; namely job satisfaction, organizational commitment and perceived organizational justice. The conduct of the present study in Turkey is another contribution to the understanding of OCB in different cultures. One of the most significant contributions is the performance of the study in the educational sector in which OCB is rarely studied even in the other countries. Since the effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceptions of procedural justice on OCB were considered simultaneously, a clearer picture of the attitudinal influences on OCB in the sample studied has emerged. Previous research has shown that when considered alone, job satisfaction, procedural justice perceptions, and organizational commitment all influence OCB. However in our study we have determined that when all the three are considered altogether in the education sector in Turkey, only organizational commitment and perceived procedural justice emerges as significant predictors of OCB. The relationship of perceived procedural justice to OCB is negative; contrary to most studies in the literature. The discussion of these findings are provided especially from the perspective of distinguishing between extra-role and in-role performances, impression management and finally taking into consideration individualism-collectivism dimensions of culture studies and power distance.

It appears that studying OCB in the education sector has largely been ignored. The teaching career involves duties highly interpersonal and have vague boundaries. "OCBs are defined as helping behaviors, which makes it difficult to determine which behaviors in the helping professions are extra-

role" (Hannam and Jimmieson, 2004, p. 8). Bolino (1999) has stated that when there is no objective criteria for assessing in-role performance, employees will be more likely to engage in OCB. Teaching is a profession with ambiguous and unclear input-process-output technology and vague boundaries. The perception of what is in-role or role regulated task and what is OCB, will change depending on the interpretation of each individual. This perception will be affected by the role position and experience of each individual (Oplatka, 2006). The teachers in our sample were relatively young and had a mean tenure of three years in their schools. The short duration of employment coupled with the challenges and changes they have faced due to the curriculum change starting from 2005- 2006 education year may have contributed to their definition of their jobs broadly so as to include extra-role behaviors as in-role. In the literature it is shown that the relationship of perceived procedural fairness is moderated by the role definitions of the employees (Morrison, 1994; Vey and Campbell, 2004). When considered in-role, the relationship of procedural justice to OCB is weaker (Tepper *et al.*, 2001; Zellars *et al.*, 2002). Another possible explanation of the negative relationship of perceived procedural justice and OCB is provided from the perspective of culture studies (Moorman and Blakely, 1995; Paine and Organ, 2000). People of collectivist cultures may be defining their jobs more broadly and defining OCBs to include more in-role behaviors. High power distance in collectivist cultures makes inequity accepted and continue to perform OCBs even under inequity conditions (Paine and Organ, 2000).

CHAPTER XI

LIMITATIONS

Our research contributed to the literature by stating that organizational commitment and the procedural justice were the two variables predicting OCB in the education sector when all the three most studied antecedent factors namely; job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational justice were studied simultaneously.

However our study has some limitations which needs to be noted. First of all, we relied on teachers' subjective perceptions of OCB; in other words their self-reports of OCB. The teachers completed the questionnaires themselves and reported about their OCBs. This procedure might lead to common-method bias and increase or decrease the relationships among the variables. However the correlations among our variables varied from 0,18 to 0,78 and this may be an indicator of the fact that common-method bias is unlikely. Most of the studies on OCB in the literature relied on supervisor rated OCBs (Smith *et al.*, 1983). This method was not feasible for our group because of the unique structure of the schools. The teachers reported to the principal, therefore it was not feasible to ask the principal to dedicate time for filling questionnaires for each teacher. Especially the principals in Keçiören district were too much involved with the registration of new students for the coming education year and were too busy. Besides the principal might not be in a position to notice the OCBs of teachers in every day routine.

> The unique structure of schools restricts the ability of principals to monitor and supervise teachers' in role performance and, all the more, extrarole performance. Therefore, the main source of information about these behaviors can only be the teachers themselves" (Somech and Bogler, 2002, p. 572).

Therefore we relied on self-report questionnaires to measure OCBs of teachers in our sample.

Another limitation of our study is cross-sectionality. Our study is cross-sectional; therefore we are not in a position to make comments on the causality direction of the variables included in our study. We cannot indicate the nature of the relationships between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and perceived organizational justice with OCB.

Our sample is limited in nature. We have distributed questionnaires to the randomly selected private primary schools. The decision to participate is made by the principals of schools. We have chosen schools from two districts in Ankara namely Keçiören, and Çankaya randomly and the total number of questionnaires collected were 135. Therefore our sample may not be a representative of the total population of education sector. The results of our study is limited to our sample and our research may be considered as a case study. However in spite of this limitation, the unexpected results of our study is interesting and may prove useful for future research especially from the point of view of impression management.

CHAPTER XII

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

We have found out that the impact of procedural justice on OCB was negative. This is an interesting finding and is in the opposite direction to the findings in the literature. According to our findings, an increase in the perceived procedural justice decreases the OCBs of the teachers working in the private sector primary schools in Ankara. We have tried to explain this finding from the perspective of impression management. Future research should explore the role of motives especially impression management motives in OCB. Bolino has stated that:

> by separating good soldiers from good actors, researchers may be better able to predict true acts of citizenship. Second, because motivation is likely to adversely affect the impact of OCBs on organization/work group effectiveness, gaining a better understanding of these effects is relevant for researchers and practitioners alike (Bolino, 1999, p. 95).

Besides impression management motives, future research should try to replicate the findings with other samples. As stated before in the significance of the study section, Oplatka (2006) has stated that teaching is a profession with ambiguous and unclear input-process-output technology and vague boundaries. The perception of what is in role or role regulated task and what is OCB, will change depending on the interpretation of each individual. Whether our findings are limited to our sample due to their characteristics of their jobs or they are general across other jobs and job-holders should be studied in the future.

In our research, we have relied mainly on the private sector primary schools. The private sector is in a better position to adapt to the changes initiated by the Ministry of National Education in 2005 – 2006 education year. They are

more flexible and work as profit organizations. They can decide on their own policies and procedures and can hire or fire their own personnel. However future research should also take into consideration the public schools. In this way we can test whether the same antecedent factors predicts OCB in public schools, compare our results and may be in a better position to make generalizations about the whole population.

Longitudinal studies are required in the future to establish the true nature of the relationships between the variables. Future longitudinal studies exploring the relative effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational justice on OCB in the education sector may help us to make comments on the causality of the variables studied.

It could also prove useful to ask questions about behaviors seen as in-role as well as OCBs in future research. In this way the conceptualization of various job behaviors by the employees may be determined more specifically (Morrison, 1994). Moorman *et al.* (1993) have also stressed the importance of including and controlling for in-role behaviors when studying OCB, because each different organization may emphasize different dimensions of OCB depending on its nature and therefore make some dimensions more in-role.

Another possible explanation of the positive relationship between organizational commitment and OCB and the negative relationship between procedural justice and OCB, is proposed from the perspective of culture mainly individualism–collectivism dimensions. The relationship between culture and the antecedents of OCB may be stressed in future studies in order to show whether culture moderates these relationships. Paine and Organ (2000) have proposed that OCB exists in all cultures but "understanding and defining what constitutes OCB in various cultures and countries" (Paine and Organ, 2000, p. 58) is a challenge. In this way more

meaningful correlations can be made and antecedents and consequences can more definitely be identified.

Future work should also take into consideration the effects of interactional justice as a separate category of justice. In our research we included interactional justice under procedural justice. Taking into consideration the highly interpersonal nature of teaching career, interactional justice can be studied in the future together with procedural justice, and distributive justice. The highly interpersonal nature of teaching career involves interactions with the superiors. The superiors are the representatives of top management and through superiors, employees make their beliefs about how the organizations views them, how it values them. (Moorman, 1991) The interpersonal side of procedural justice is gaining importance because the perceptions on the structural side of procedural justice may increase or decrease depending on the perceptions of how they are performed. Another issue to take into consideration combines the impression management motives and the interaction justice. The superiors are in a position to evaluate the performance of the employees. Their behaviors directly affect the decision of the individual to perform OCBs or not. However as Moorman (1991) suggested employees might choose to perform OCBs, because these OCBs would benefit directly the immediate superior. They may choose to perform OCBs based on impression management motives, to get a favorable performance evaluation from their superiors.

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