The Relationship Between Fairness at Work and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour: an Empirical Study in a Retail Organisation in the Western Cape.

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I declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work save for the stated extent in the acknowledgements.

This dissertation has not been submitted and will not be submitted for a degree at any other university.

Jennifer Jardine

Note to reader

The headings, references tables and figures in this dissertation were executed according to the format of the American Psychological Association.

The Spelling used is British except where American spelling was used within quotations.

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Abbreviations

ANC	African National Congress
COSATU	Congress of South African Trade Unions
CP	Contextual Performance
CR	Contingent Reward Behaviour
DJ	Distributive Justice
IPJ	Interpersonal Procedural Justice
IRB	In-role Behaviour
JS	Job Satisfaction
LMX	Leader-member Exchange
LRS	Labour Research Service
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
PLB	Participative Leader Behaviour
POS	Perceived Organisational Support
PSOB	Prosocial Organisational Behaviour
SACCAWU	South African Commercial, Catering and Allied Workers Union
SACP	South African Communist Party
SLB	Supportive Leader Behaviour
SOB	Spontaneous Organisational Behaviour
SPJ	Structural Procedural Justice
WABA	Within-and-between-analysis

Abstract

This research explored the relationship between fairness at work and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Fairness was measured using instruments representative of five constructs: trust, perceived organisational support, leader-member exchange, procedural fairness and distributive justice. The blue-collar employees in the sample (N = 92), employed at a national retail organisation, were involved in exploratory initial focus groups which were followed by the distribution of a Likert-type survey. OCB was found to be a multidimensional construct consisting of six factors: courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, altruism, consideration and attendance. The most important finding was that younger casual employees who had worked for the organisation for a shorter period of time exhibited strong links between fairness and OCB while older permanent employees who had worked for the organisation for longer showed almost no relationship between the two. Furthermore women showed strong relationships between fairness and OCB while men exhibited almost no relationship between the two. Exchange-based fairness constructs were shown to be more important than justice-based fairness constructs to this sample, although multicollinearity is a concern. Multiple regression indicated that fairness is a predictor of OCB, the most important predictor being perceived organisational support. Trust proved to be the most important moderator between fairness and OCB in that it consistently moderated the relationship between OCB and perceived organisational support. A discussion of levels of analysis issues and the performance of within-and-between-analysis (WABA) from within the varient paradigm indicated that a micro and dyad parts level of analysis is appropriate for this sample. This attests to the fact that there are inequalities between supervisors and subordinates in this organisation. A discussion of the results emphasised the importance of the social contract and reciprocity in explaining the existence of a relationship between fairness and OCB and why the relationship between the two declines for employees in this organisation.

Chapter 1

Growth in employee productivity, together with growth in employment and investment, is one of the most important elements of the competitiveness and thus the economic growth of a nation (Skhosana, 1999). The 1999 Global Competitiveness Report highlighted better management as an important way for a nation to improve its productivity (Porter, 1999). Moreover, the latest productivity thinking emphasises the importance of intangible resources such as attitude, motivation and knowledge for increasing productivity (Yadavalli, 1999). The cost of labour in South Africa is high (Fallon & Pereira de Silva, 1994). With this country becoming increasingly involved in world trade, either decreasing the cost of labour or increasing labour productivity is imperative in order to facilitate competition in a global market.

The Research Topic

This dissertation focuses on a type of behaviour known as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). This can be likened to the notion of extra-role behaviour or 'going the extra mile'. Research in organisations has shown that organisational citizenship behaviour improves productivity and increases performance (Allen & Rush, 1998; Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). The enactment of this behaviour by employees is therefore in the best interests of the organisation; in going the extra mile, employees increase their productivity and the organisation becomes more competitive (Porter, 1999).

Researchers, beginning about twenty years ago, developed the popular notion of 'going the extra mile' or extra-role behaviour into the theoretical construct, organisational citizenship behaviour (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has been defined formally 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). It has been argued that non-prescribed behaviours like citizenship behaviours provide the flexibility the organisation requires to cope with contingencies that cannot be planned for (Smith et al., 1983).

Is there a necessity for the existence of a construct like OCB? Surely all the behaviours that are necessary within an organisation could be a prescribed part of the job thereby eliminating the need for this nebulous notion of 'going the extra mile' or extra-role behaviour. The method that has typically been used within organisations to decide what job behaviours should be prescribed, is job design which is defined as the 'creation and specification of job content' (Davis & Taylor, 1972, p. 216). Theoretically it is possible to prescribe all needed job behaviours. However, if one considers the duty of designing all the jobs for an organisation, one soon realises that it is an impossible undertaking (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). No organisation is static; behavioural requirements change as the external context changes and as time passes. In order to allow for these changes, the organisation must be internally flexible. Because of these factors, behaviours such as going the extra mile cannot be encompassed within job design.

The importance of non-prescribed behaviours such as organisational citizenship behaviour is highlighted further in the 'work to rule' tactic used by trade unions as a method of protest. This form of collective action slows down work with the performance of only those behaviours that are included in the job description. The implication of this is that at a normal (faster) pace of work, employees would be engaging in other behaviours in addition to those that are prescribed. These 'other things' include the organisational citizenship behaviours that form the basis of this research.

It has been shown empirically that if employees are treated fairly by the organisation, they will reciprocate by going the extra mile (Fahr, Podsakoff & Organ, 1990; Folger, 1993; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996; Wayne & Green, 1993; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). This means that it is beneficial for organisations to treat people fairly because fair treatment results in an increase in productivity through an increase in organisational citizenship behaviour.

The objective of the present research is to measure the relationship between fairness at work and organisational citizenship behaviour in the South African environment. Having undertaken a preliminary examination of the construct of organisational citizenship behaviour, we now focus on the notion of fairness at work.

Fairness is a construct that is quite difficult to define. Fairness depends very much on the situation and the frame of reference of the person who is making the fairness judgement. Fairness at work pertains to allocation; more specifically what and how goods are allocated (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). In addition the treatment one receives is important. Both allocation and treatment have implicit within them the important role that management plays in the way resources are allocated and employees are treated.

Another important aspect of fairness at work is that of comparison. The allocation of goods and treatment one receives at work are always compared with those of others, underlining the importance of the frame of reference of the person making the fairness judgement.

This section has examined the research topic. It has provided a brief introduction to the concepts of organisational citizenship behaviour and fairness at work. Now we need to look at the context within which the research was conducted.

The Research Context

There are several broad contextual elements of importance to the study. The two main things focused on here are the contextual origins of the theory on OCB and contextual issues in South Africa that might have a bearing on the results.

One can never be certain of the validity of theory emanating from a different context and culture to that within which it is used in research. The theory involving the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and fairness at work provides such an example. It originated in the United States whereas in the present research it is being used in the context of South Africa. Hofstede (1997) argued that universal management theories do not exist. Organ and Lingl (1995) studied employees in organisations in both Britain and the United States, arguing that national culture could moderate the relationships among satisfaction, personality and OCB. On the other hand, it is not always necessary to reinvent the wheel (Shuttleworth-Jordan, 1996); one cannot work on the assumption that what has taken place in another culture has absolutely no value for South Africa. This would be an example of mistaken cultural relativism, an attitude also known in the South African development context as 'South African exceptionalism'. It embodies the idea that

things in South Africa are different to the rest of the world and that we therefore have little to learn from the development of other societies (Community Agency for Social Enquiry and the South African National NGO Coalition, 1998).

Besides the aspect of the applicability of theory to South African organisations, we must also look at other contextual issues that might affect the results of this study. The majority of employees sampled in this study were Coloured and most of them reside on the Cape Flats. Contextual issues pertinent to responses of employees in the present study include the amount of stress relating to living on the Cape Flats, which has the highest murder rate in the world and problems with gangsterism, alcohol and drugs (Bamford, 2000). This, together with other issues that might have a bearing on the results, will be discussed further in the chapter on methodology.

The Research Delimitations

A comprehensive search of the literature linking organisational citizenship behaviour and fairness was undertaken. In addition, organisational citizenship behaviour literature that was not related specifically to fairness, but that in the opinion of the researcher is of interest within the present research has been included. The literatures on the various fairness constructs used in the research were examined to ascertain the general development of the concepts. Although the empirical study was situated in a retail organisation, this was not the focus of the dissertation. There is thus no specific focus on retailing, or the problems encountered by retailers. The literatures on certain other topics, for example that on levels issues in research were also examined for the purposes of this dissertation.

The Research Objectives and Outline of the Dissertation

As has been explored briefly above, the research presented here focused on an exploration of the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and fairness at work. Five constructs that are representative of fairness at work were used in the study (See Figure 1):

1. Distributive justice, which relates to fair distribution of goods in the organisation;
2. Procedural fairness, which relates to the fairness of procedures in the organisation;
3. Trust, which relates to the willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party;
4. Leader-member exchange, which relates to the quality of the dyadic relationship between a leader and follower;

5. Perceived organisational support, which relates to employees' perceptions of the organisation's commitment to them.

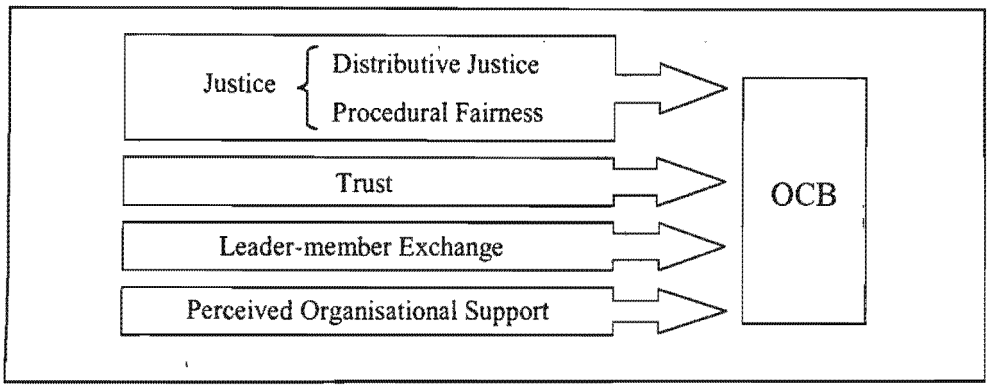

Figure 1. An Outline of the Constructs in this Research.

Chapter 2 looks at the concept of fairness. It begins with an analysis of fairness in the legal philosophy, moral philosophy and organisational behaviour literatures. This is followed by a synopsis of the fairness constructs used in the dissertation showing their links to these three fairness literatures. This chapter also includes a summary previous research on the relationship between these fairness constructs and organisational citizenship behaviour.

In chapter 3 the construct of organisational citizenship behaviour is examined in detail. OCB is placed within a broader family of constructs after which a detailed evaluation of the various OCB conceptualisations is undertaken. At the end of the chapter the choice of OCB instrument in the present research is justified.

The methodology used in the empirical part of the study is outlined in chapter 4. The organisational context, sample and procedure are discussed after which all the instruments used are outlined. The chapter ends with an outline of the analyses used in the research.

Chapter 5 presents the results of the empirical study. It begins with a look at the descriptive statistics and factor analyses of the variables in the study. Thereafter, the chapter is organised around the specific research questions. An investigation of the level of analysis within the research is also undertaken.

A discussion of the results of the empirical study can be found in Chapter 6. This chapter begins by summarising and interpreting the results. The findings are placed in context and a discussion on the implications for management practice is included. The limitations of the

methodology used in the research are also discussed. Suggestions for future research conclude this chapter.

Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the research topic and briefly examined the context in which the research was conducted. The boundaries of the research were delimited and the research objectives and outline of the chapters to follow were also given.

Chapter 2: Fairness

It was established in the previous chapter that the relationship between fairness at work and organisational citizenship behaviour is to be explored in this research. The constructs that have been chosen to represent fairness, i.e. distributive justice, procedural fairness, trust, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support were also outlined briefly. The present chapter is devoted to the concept of fairness. It is divided into two broad sections: the first explores the conceptions of fairness in different literatures; the second looks more closely at the fairness constructs used in this research. The first section commences with an exploration of fairness within legal philosophy writings after which the moral philosophy literature with regard to fairness, focusing particularly on the social contract, is examined. Thereafter, the psychological contract and social exchange, which are fairness notions often used within organisations, are explored. The second section contains a detailed discussion of the fairness constructs chosen for this research. This includes a summary of previous links that have been found between these fairness constructs and organisational citizenship behaviour. Each construct is placed in context in terms of the literature discussed in the first section of the chapter and its inclusion in this research is justified.

Literature Search

Before beginning the two chapters that focus on the literature used within this research, it is important to explore the extent of the literature search for this dissertation. A search was made of the local university library as well as the PsychLIT, PsychINFO Humanities Full Text, Social Sciences Full Text and Sociological Abstracts databases. These databases include information on books, chapters in books and journal articles. The literature search was limited to published works: technical reports and Masters and PhD dissertations except for those available in South Africa were excluded because of the difficulty in obtaining them. There were also a number books and papers that were not available in the country. Wherever it was financially viable these were obtained from overseas.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The terms used to find studies included 'organisational citizenship behaviour', 'prosocial organisational behaviour', 'spontaneous organisational behaviour' and 'contextual performance'. The American Psychological Association's Thesaurus of Psychological index terms (7th ed.) was consulted to find equivalent terms. The names of well-known researchers in the field, i.e. Organ, Podsakoff, Moorman, Graham, MacKenzie, Motowidlo, and others were also used to find additional literature.

Fairness

A search of the fairness literature was undertaken in order to gain an understanding of each of the fairness constructs used in the present research, together with previous links that have been made between these constructs and OCB. Furthermore, literature detailing the philosophical origins of the concept of fairness was also sought.

This section has indicated how this researcher set about exploring the literature on the present research topic. Having examined the extent of the literature search, we now return to the investigation of the concept of fairness.

Sources of Fairness

When something is said to be fair, what are the implications of the statement? In fairness at work is one judging the person as fair; the behaviour as fair; the attitude as fair; the organisation as fair; or the relationship as fair? Writings on the nature of fairness are situated predominantly in the political philosophy section of the ethics literature, the legal philosophy literature and more recently for the purposes of organisational research, the organisational behaviour literature.

Organisational behaviour is a multidisciplinary subject, the framework of which was originally drawn largely from the disciplines of psychology, sociology and cultural anthropology (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1997). As far as the literature on fairness specifically is concerned, the organisational behaviour literature is heavily dependent on notions of fairness explored in the political philosophy and legal literatures. It is therefore largely to these that we must turn in order to try to describe more clearly what is meant by fairness at work.

Fairness in the Legal Philosophy Literature

If we are to look at fairness within legal writings, we must begin with the concept of justice. Brockner and Siegel (1996) summarised three distinct stages in the development of the justice literature pertinent to this subject (see Figure 2). The first was devoted to distributive justice, the second to procedural fairness and the third to the interaction between distributive justice and procedural fairness. This last phase is still in progress.

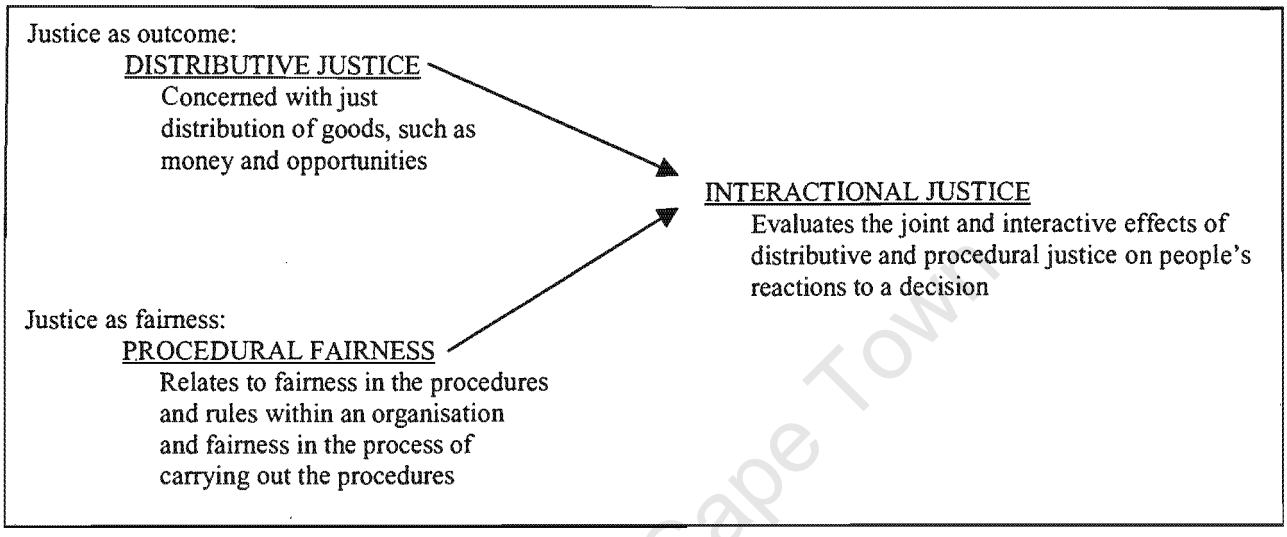

Figure 2. Conceptions of justice explored in this research.

There are also several other kinds of justice within legal writings (Fletcher, 1996). For example, corrective justice is concerned with the redistribution of incorrectly distributed rewards; retributive justice, with punishment; commutative justice, with the process of substitution in order to address inequalities in exchange. However, a discussion of these is beyond the scope of this research and would not serve to elucidate the notion of fairness that is being explored here.

Distributive justice is concerned with just distribution of goods, such as money and opportunities. Different allocation rules are available as options for distribution. Equity distribution rewards individuals on the basis of their contributions; equality distribution splits rewards evenly; need distribution rewards individuals based on necessity (Cropanzano & Randall, 1993; Sheppard, 1992). In some writings, equality has been related to equal outcomes and the absence of differences between groups, while equity has been linked to the notion of justice and fairness (Barry, 1995; Gipps & Murphy, 1994). It can be seen therefore that even within writings on fairness, notions of distribution do not always have the same meaning and writers do not always agree on what the meaning of fairness is.

For a long time in organisational research it was assumed that employees were only interested in the distribution of goods such as salaries. This assumption formed an integral part of the growth of scientific management in the twentieth century (Hollway, 1991). Relative deprivation, the idea that justice is relative and depends on the context, was first written about after the Second World War. Distributive justice remained the focus of relative deprivation. Within this theory, perceived fairness is assessed by how one feels relative to others in a certain group. Whom one uses as a referent, and into which group one fits oneself, are important within the theory (Cropanzano & Randall, 1993). In a similar manner to relative deprivation, equity theory, the next development in the distributive justice literature, also uses the notion of comparison with others. However, the difference here is that one compares a ratio of one's inputs over one's outputs to the ratio of inputs vs. outputs of another. Inputs are conceived as things one could offer the organisation, such as ability or job performance, whereas outputs are those things which one receives in return, such as pay, promotions and benefits (Adams, 1965). Equity theory predicts that comparatively high or low rewards will produce dissatisfaction and result in some sort of action to equalise the ratios. Once again, we can see that the emphasis is on distribution of goods, such as pay or promotion. These different theories of distributive justice all focus on the way that goods are distributed and the perceptions of employees about the distribution.

Rawls (1971, 1999) created the most radical shift within the justice literature this century with his exploration of the conception of procedural fairness within the general framework of justice as fairness. Procedural fairness in organisations relates to fairness in the procedures and rules within an organisation and fairness in the process of carrying out the procedures. Distributive justice, on the other hand, looks at what was distributed. Procedural fairness was first written about because of the weakness in distributive justice theories, which assume that employees only care about the outcomes they receive at work, and do not care about how they are treated during the process of working (Cropanzano & Randall, 1993). In this regard, experienced managerial and administrative decision makers believe that in instances where positive interpersonal relations are important, procedural fairness is as important as distributive justice (Tyler & Griffin, 1991).

It must be noted that Rawls' (1971, 1999) notion of justice as fairness is a particular conception of justice and is not synonymous with justice. Fairness concerns only one aspect of

justice (Fletcher, 1996). Rawls maintained that procedural fairness is something that is ongoing and that the enactment of fair procedures will lead to a just outcome. Procedural fairness refers to the part of justice that can be linked to the ethical notion of fairness (Chapman, 1974; Fletcher, 1996). As far as the terminology is concerned, it is therefore more correct to refer to the construct as procedural fairness rather than procedural justice, but not all researchers use this more exact terminology. There are many critiques of Rawls' theory of justice as fairness (Mapel, 1989; Nagel, 1990), but the reason it is significant here is that examines fairness, not justice. This is why Rawls' theory, as opposed to other theories of justice (Solomon & Murphy, 1990) is noteworthy in this context.

Procedural fairness has been divided into structural and interpersonal elements (see Figure 3). Structural procedural justice refers to the formal procedures in a company (Leventhal, 1980). This type of justice ascertains the level of consistency, bias suppression, accuracy, correctability, representativenss and ethicality of the procedures in an organisation. Interpersonal justice examines the enactment of the formal procedures in organisations and focuses on employees' perceptions of their treatment by supervisors. Respect, dignity, providing satisfactory explanations and showing empathy are examples of interpersonal procedural fairness (Scarlicki & Folger, 1997).

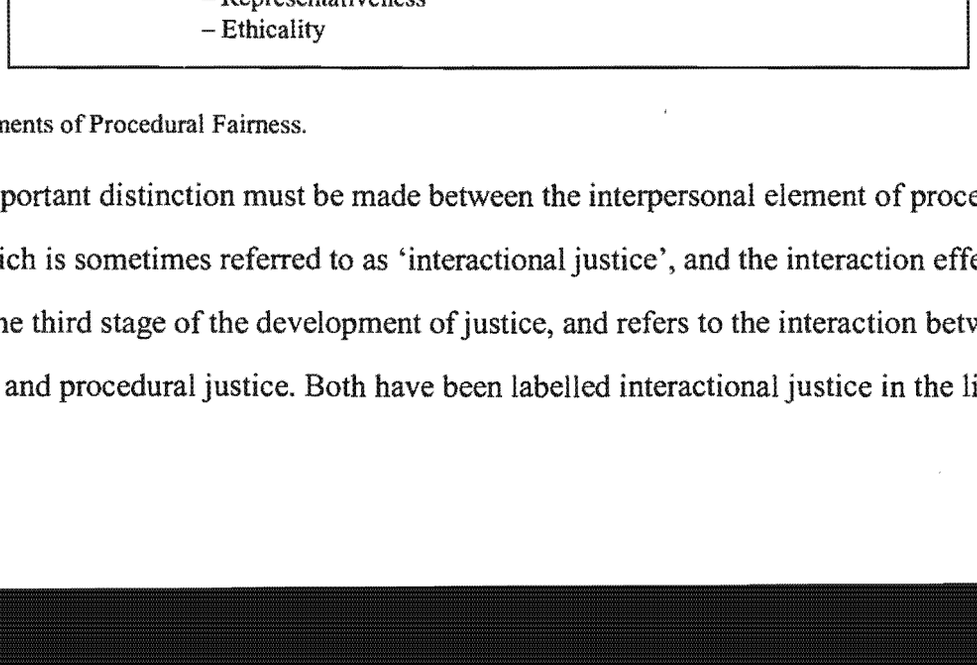

Figure 3. Elements of Procedural Fairness.

An important distinction must be made between the interpersonal element of procedural fairness which is sometimes referred to as 'interactional justice', and the interaction effect, which is located in the third stage of the development of justice, and refers to the interaction between distributive and procedural justice. Both have been labelled interactional justice in the literature

(Brockner & Siegel, 1996; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Greenberg, 1993; Scarlicki & Folger, 1997). In this study, interactional justice will refer to the interaction effect. The interpersonal element of procedural fairness will be referred to as interpersonal justice.

The third phase of justice research 'evaluates the joint and interactive effects of distributive and procedural justice on people's reactions to a decision' (Brockner & Siegel, 1996, p. 391). When the focus on procedural fairness began, researchers were interested in separating distributive justice and procedural fairness from each other. In this third phase, an attempt is being made to integrate the effects of distributive justice and procedural fairness, hence the name: the interaction effect. The findings thus far are that when procedural fairness is high, distributive justice has far less impact on individuals' reactions to decisions. Brockner and Siegel (1996) listed 20 studies that yielded this interaction effect.

Explanations of the relationship between distributive justice and procedural fairness can be found in self-interest theory and the group value model (Brockner & Siegel, 1996). Self-interest theory postulates that people are motivated to maximise outcomes. It has its roots in social exchange theory (Tyler, Degoey & Smith, 1996). People will only forgo short-term benefits if they believe that future long-term benefits will be forthcoming. 'Feeling reassured about their long-term outcomes, they may be less concerned with the distributive fairness of their immediate outcomes' (p. 399). High procedural fairness assists in this reassurance.

Self-interest theory does not completely explain the effects of procedural fairness. It has been argued that it is too rational and does not take into account social bonds among group members (Tyler et al., 1996). Lind and Tyler (1988) formulated the group value model, an assumption of which is that people are not simply economically motivated and that they value group memberships for social and psychological reasons. There are several ways in which procedural fairness can affect the way that people feel within a group. Because people define themselves on the basis of their group memberships, as explored by social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner 1979), if the group acts unfairly, they may feel that they themselves have acted unfairly, and vice versa. Their self-esteem may be affected by this perception of their own fair or unfair behaviour. The process of reflected appraisal (Mead, 1934) is one 'in which people evaluate themselves as they believe that they are

evaluated by significant others' (p. 400). They may evaluate the regard in which they are held by the group in terms of the fairness of the procedures of the group. If procedural fairness within the group is high, then self-esteem and identity needs of the individual are likely to be satisfied. If, however, procedural fairness within the group is low, and identity and esteem needs of individuals are not being met, they may redefine their relationship with the group, through placing psychological distance between themselves and the group. This might explain why low levels of procedural fairness would be linked with low levels of organisational citizenship behaviour. It could be as a result of people putting psychological distance between themselves and the group.

These two theories of the explanation of the interaction between distributive justice and procedural fairness can be viewed as fairly similar in spite of the differences between them regarding economic vs. social and psychological benefits. Within both theories similar attributions of trustworthiness will be made about the group when fair procedures exist within the group. Brockner and Siegel (1996) proposed 'that it is the degree of trust elicited by the level of procedural fairness that interacts with distributive justice to affect how people react to a resource allocation decision' (p. 401).

This brief review of the legal philosophy literature on fairness has explored the origins of distributive and procedural justice. While it was thought initially that employees were only interested in outcomes, it later became apparent that what happens during the process of distribution is just as important if not more important than the final outcome. More recently, in what has been referred to as the third stage in the development of the justice literature (Brockner & Siegel, 1996), it has been demonstrated that procedural fairness and distributive justice should not be viewed as separate unrelated constructs. Instead they should be studied in interaction with each other. An exploration of these interaction effects has highlighted the importance of social exchange theory and trust.

Fairness in the Moral Philosophy Literature: The Social Contract

Fairness within the organisational behaviour literature is strongly dependent on the conceptions of distributive justice and procedural fairness that have been explored in the previous section. For the purposes of this research, therefore, procedural fairness and distributive justice are

important fairness constructs. However the moral philosophy literature, social exchange theory and the psychological contract will also be shown to be significant for the underlying nature of some of the fairness constructs chosen for this research. The present section will explore the moral philosophy literature on the nature of fairness.

The Oxford English Dictionary (Simpson & Weiner, 1989) defines fairness as the quality or condition of being fair, equitableness, fair dealing, honesty, impartiality and uprightness. The root word 'fair' has three meanings based on what is being referred to:

1. of conduct, actions, arguments, methods
   - free from bias, fraud or injustice; equitable; legitimate
2. of persons
   - equitable, not taking undue advantage; disposed to concede every reasonable claim
3. of conditions, position
   - affording an equal chance of success; not unduly favourable or adverse to either side

This definition shows that the concept of fairness is complex and multifaceted. Fairness has been perceived as a moral concept, relating to 'uprightness' and 'impartiality'; relating to equality of condition; a characteristic of persons; and important within ongoing relations. The legal nature of fairness referred to in the definition has been dealt with in the previous section.

Harsanyi (1976) contended that there is a distinction in post-medieval moral philosophy between the utilitarian and contractarian positions. Utilitarianism contends that we must choose the moral option that has the best overall outcomes for everyone involved. The greatest balance of happiness over unhappiness must be achieved (Rachels, 1995). Harsanyi argued that the utilitarian position has thus far been the only clear precise reasonable concept of morality.

The contractarian position which has as its basis the social contract and is drawn from the philosophies of Locke, Rousseau and Kant, presents an alternative way of looking at why people choose to behave morally (Harsanyi, 1976). Contractualism requires a set of contracting parties that should be able to make and keep agreements. Each party should offer an advantage of some description to the other parties in return for their co-operation (Scanlon, 1997). Inherent within contractualism is the notion of reasonableness or what it would be reasonable to accept or reject. The contractarian position can therefore be linked to the dictionary definition of fair persons being

'disposed to concede every reasonable claim'. Thus fairness or reasonableness, as we can see, is bound up within the social contract, which is inherent within all social interactions.

Scanlon (1997) wrote that 'a satisfactory moral philosophy...must make it understandable why moral reasons are ones that people can take seriously and why they strike those who are moved by them as reasons of a special stringency and inescapability' (p. 269). In the Middle Ages, with the move towards egalitarianism, democracy and autonomy, came an increase in interest in the social contract by philosophers. One of the underlying beliefs of this shift to autonomy was the one that 'at least in some areas of their lives, people can create and incur morally binding obligations only through their consent or agreement' (Becker, 1992, p. 1171). It has been argued that rational people will agree to accept (or contract into) the implicit rules of the social contract for their mutual benefit, with the requirement that others accept and follow the rules as well. It is rational to accept the social contract, and it is to our own advantage, because by accepting it we avoid the state of nature where people are completely self-interested and think only of their own agendas (Rachels, 1995). Therefore, because both parties accept the social contract, they become morally obliged to act fairly or reasonably. In this way contractualism explains fairness within moral behaviour.

As discussed in the section on fairness within the legal literature, fairness should be perceived as something ongoing (Chapman, 1974; Rawls, 1971). It has been argued that the mutual acknowledgement of a principle or rule is the test of its fairness (D'Agostino, 1996; Rawls, 1971). In this way mutual acceptability naturally leads into a cycle of reciprocity. Rawls' theory of justice as fairness is an attempt to use the contractarian position as a basis for a theory of justice (Harsanyi, 1976). It differs from most theories of justice formulated up to then, because instead of making equality central to justice, it gives this place to reciprocity (Chapman, 1974). The legal literature and the moral philosophy literature thus have the notion of the social contract in common.

Contracting must not be thought of as a single occurrence. Chapman (1974) maintained that it is akin to a continual underlying discourse. Becker (1986) argued that we all benefit from the ongoing participation of people in social institutions and that it is therefore important to engage in reciprocal participation that will serve to maintain these institutions. He made the further point that organisations can die because people stop participating and the cost of sustaining them becomes too

high for those that remain. Becker (1986) argued that reciprocity and social exchange are indispensable to the generation and sustaining of primary human goods of equilibrium, self-esteem and reliable expectations.

This section has examined the conception of the social contract and shown that if we accept the social contract we are morally obliged to act fairly and reciprocate that which we are given. We have seen that Rawl's theory of justice as fairness is appropriate not only within the legal philosophy literature, but also the moral philosophy literature, in that it attempts to use elements of the social contract as the basis for a theory of justice that gives central importance to the notion of reciprocity. In this way, a link between these two literatures is formed.

The chapter up to this point has examined the nature of fairness from the point of view of the legal and moral philosophy literatures. Although each has its own origins, the two are ultimately linked through the concepts of reciprocity and the social contract. Social exchange has been referred to in these sections, but it will now be discussed further, followed by the psychological contract. Both social exchange and the psychological contract are important for fairness within organisations and have grown out of the philosophy of contractualism. This is why they have been included here.

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory is not exclusive to organisational literature and this section does not focus on social exchange theory within organisations, but on the origins and different types of social exchange. The idea that social interaction can be viewed as an exchange is based on the example of economic exchange in which exchange relationships are usually precisely defined, transactions are independent and no long-term relations exist (Blau, 1964). In economic exchange, resources are typically goods or services that are exchanged for money.

Social exchange as opposed to economic exchange concerns long-term relations between exchange partners (Molm, 1997). The resources exchanged within social exchange include those covered under economic exchange along with status, approval, companionship, self-esteem and satisfaction. Exchanges can be of both similar (Blau, 1964) and different resources (Foa & Foa, 1974, 1976). There is an assumption that the benefits obtained through social

interaction are dependent upon benefits provided in exchange. This has been explained with reference to reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) or learning theory (Emerson, 1976).

There are several different exchange theories, notably those of Homans, Blau, Thibaut and Kelley and Emerson. These theories are far from uniform in origin. They exhibit a wide variety of influences including learning theories, operant psychology, cognitive decision theories, economics and normative sociology (Molm, 1997). Emerson (1976) distinguished between negotiated and reciprocal transactions. Negotiated transactions require a joint agreement for either actor to obtain benefit. Reciprocal transactions can result in benefits without providing anything in return. There is a distinction between theorists who study negotiated exchange such as Cook, Emerson, Yamagishi, Weller, Markovsky, Skvoretzi, Lawler and Bacharach and the classical exchange theorists such as Blau, Homans, Thibaut & Kelley and Molm who study reciprocal transactions (Molm, 1997). The type of social exchange explored within this dissertation is that encompassed by reciprocal transactions.

Befu (1980) wrote about the independence between anthropologists' and psychologists' approaches to social exchange and the fact that they rarely refer to each other's contributions. He looked at the differences between Gouldner's norm of reciprocity and Mauss's gift giving. He argued that Gouldner's notion of reciprocity is not an active moral prescription, while Mauss gift giving is. Giving, within Gouldner's framework, is motivated by anticipation of reciprocity, while for Mauss, giving is a moral obligation in itself. We can see here shades of the two fairness literatures that have been discussed above. Gouldner's is more a legal approach, while Mauss's is a moral philosophy approach.

The literature on social exchange is vast, as has been alluded to by the different approaches mentioned above and the number of theorists writing in the field. While it is not possible to review the literature comprehensively here, it is important to take note of the ideas of reciprocity and moral prescription that are inherent within various approaches to social exchange. This is because social exchange thereby becomes linked to notions of contractualism within the legal philosophy and moral philosophy literatures which were discussed earlier in the chapter.

The Psychological Contract

The psychological contract is an individual's belief that there are mutual obligations between themselves and their employer, who may be represented by a person or an organisation (Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). The basis for this belief is the perceived promise of employment made by the employer and accepted by the employee, thus beginning a cycle of reciprocity. The psychological contract, being based on the perception of an individual, concerns perceptual issues rather than reality (Guest, 1998; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Two types of psychological contract have been written about consistently in the literature: transactional and relational contracts (Macneil, 1985, as cited in Rousseau, 1990). Transactional contracts are those with a short-term largely economic focus while relational contracts are those that are more open-ended and long-term. Transactional contracts reflect an economic exchange approach, while relational contracts reflect a social exchange approach. Organ and Moorman (1993) argued that the amount and type of citizenship behaviour displayed by an individual would reflect the degree to which the relational contract as opposed to the transactional contract is being used implicitly by that person. They argued further that trust is vital for the development of such relational contracts.

Guest (1998) criticised Rousseau's notion of the promise as the basis for the psychological contract. His contention is that if we look at the psychological contract in this way, it may be indistinguishable from the employment contract because of the restricted nature of the promise. The construct validity of the concept is also in doubt, according to Guest. He maintained that the legal metaphor used is not completely appropriate, which is often the case with metaphors which both illuminate something of the essence of a thing in trying to describe it, and at the same time could shadow other parts of that essence (Hofstadter, 1985). However, it does not follow that just because the notion of contracting underlies the contract it is a legal metaphor. Reciprocity underlies both contracts, and this is a moral, not a legal notion (Becker, 1986).

Another criticism of Guest concerns the fact that the term 'psychological contract' was initially used as a heuristic device and that it was not intended to be a major analytic construct. It is interesting to note that Becker (1992) has raised a similar criticism about the heuristic rather than legal nature of the social contract. Guest maintained however, that the psychological contract retains value in that it is useful for attempting to understand the employment relationship in an era

where industrial relations have given way to employment relations. Another reason is that the three components that are continuously articulated in the literature are trust, fairness and delivery. The elements of trust and fairness that have been articulated in the literature highlight the importance of the psychological contract for this research.

Robinson and Morrison (1995) wrote about the links between organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and the psychological contract. They maintained that these links are implicit in the OCB literature, but have not really been studied explicitly. Organ (1988) assumes the existence of a formal employment contract and defined OCBs as those behaviours falling outside of the literal contract. According to Robinson and Morrison two assumptions of OCB theory are important for the links between OCB and the psychological contract. One is that OCB will occur where the relationship between employer and employee is defined as one of social exchange; the second is that OCB can be accounted for in terms of reciprocity for fair treatment within the organisation.

One important point that Guest raised about the psychological contract is that it resides in the interaction between two parties. This may be important for the present research because of the centrality of relationships within the study. Robinson and Morrison (1995) argued that 'a psychological contract perspective may encourage researchers to consider the relationship-specific nature of OCB. Consequently, this perspective may lead to a better understanding of such behavior' (p. 296).

It has been seen in this section that the philosophy of contractualism is inherent within the nature of the psychological contract. We will now explore differences between the social and psychological contract to find the extent to which they are comparable to each other.

Comparison between the social and psychological contract.

This researcher was not able to find previous work addressing the topic of differences between the psychological and social contracts. However this was thought to be an important issue.

Both theories are hypothetical in nature. The psychological contract is concerned with perceptual issues rather than reality (Guest, 1998). In a similar manner, the social contract is not

intended to represent an actual survey of attitudes toward social arrangements, but the probable result if such a survey were conducted (D'Agostino, 1996).

The contracts differ in that the social contract refers to multiple contracts within society, contracts that may be directed up, down, sideways or obliquely. The psychological contract, on the other hand, is an implicit contract between one person and their place of employment. It is only bi-directional. There is some dissent in the literature about whether the organisation is anthropomorphised within the psychological contract or whether people represent the organisation; whether the relationship is with the organisation as an entity, or whether it remains with people (Herriot, Manning & Kidd, 1997).

Another way in which the contracts differ is through what happens when violation occurs. In the psychological contract, the person may be forced to remain in the company for economic reasons, while feeling that the contract has been violated. In social relations, there is more chance of withdrawing from the relationship or altering the relationship accordingly. There is evidence that contracts that are viewed as relational become transactional after contract violation (Herriot et al., 1997), but there is still a minimum standard of performance that is required for a person to keep a job.

The reason that similarities and differences between these contracts have been explored is to demonstrate that the differences are caused by contextual or situational factors, and are not inherent differences in the types of contract. The two differences noted here can be accounted for fairly easily. The bi-directionality of the psychological contract as opposed to the multidirectionality of the social contract can be accounted for because of the context of the organisation and the fact that it is a single type of social interaction that is being explored: only that between employer and employee. The social contract, on the other hand, explores contracts within all social interactions. The second difference, that of the ability to withdraw from the social contract more easily than the psychological contract when violation occurs is also because of the context of the psychological contract as was explored above. Both differences are therefore contextual, not inherent differences in the contracts. Within this research, this means that conclusions about both the social and psychological contract can be used during the discussion of results.

The organisational behaviour literature has conceptualised the notion of fairness in several ways. In this chapter we have explored the concepts of distributive justice and procedural fairness. We have highlighted the moral nature of fairness within the philosophy of contractualism and looked at how the notion of contractualism has been used in the social contract, the psychological contract and social exchange. The ideas explored in all these sections can be summarised as follows:

- Fairness is ongoing
- We behave fairly or reasonably because we are morally obliged to by the social contract
- Reciprocity for fairness is a moral obligation.

It will be interesting to see whether these three points apply to the results of the present study.

This concludes the first section of the chapter, which has explored the conceptions of fairness in different literatures. We now move on to look at the particular fairness constructs chosen for this research.

Fairness at Work in this Research

This section contains a detailed discussion of the fairness constructs included in the present research. Apart from justifying their inclusion in the research, it includes summaries of previous links established between the constructs and organisational citizenship behaviour. Details of the particular instruments used in the research can be found in the methodology chapter. The present section serves only to define the constructs, not to provide details of the instruments representing the constructs.

A fundamental assumption that both a formal and an informal social organisation exist within the organisation underlies this research. To elaborate on this, the formal social organisation is the domain of, among other things, the employment contract, job analysis, performance evaluations and prescribed behaviours, while the informal social organisation is the domain of the psychological contract (Guest, 1998; Rousseau, 1998; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998) and non-prescribed or extra-role behaviours. Far less attention has been paid to the informal than formal organisation in the organisational psychology literature even though its existence has long been noted. In their seminal study within the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company, Roethlisberger and Dickson

(1943) found that many patterns of interaction among members of that organisation were represented inadequately, if at all, by the formal structure of the organisation. As a result of this discovery, it was argued that the formal and informal social organisations are interdependent, and that without the assistance of the informal organisation, the formal organisation would not endure (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1943). It has since been similarly argued that if organisations concentrate on the formal social organisation to the exclusion of the informal social organisation, they are unlikely to succeed or even survive (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Although fairness has been linked to citizenship behaviour in a large number of studies, there has been no consensus in the literature regarding a definition of fairness at work. For the purposes of this research, therefore, it was decided to focus on fairness within the social organisation using fairness constructs that find their origins in the notions of fairness explored above. The fairness constructs used in the study were distributive justice, procedural fairness, trust, leader-member exchange and perceived organisational support.

Distributive Justice

The origins of distributive justice within the legal philosophy literature were summarised in the first part of the chapter. To reiterate briefly, distributive justice relates to the distribution of goods, such as money and opportunities. Various different allocation rules including need, equity and equality-based distribution were discussed. It is important to remember that distributive justice was for a long time perceived as the only type of justice worthy of study within organisations.

Although Organ (1988) postulated that distributive justice would be more important for the performance of citizenship behaviours than procedural justice, this has not proved to be the case (Organ & Moorman, 1993). The majority of researchers have not found strong links between distributive justice and organisational citizenship behaviour particularly when there is a perception of high procedural justice in the organisation. Studies that have shown links between distributive justice and OCB include Folger (1993) and Fahr, Podsakoff and Organ (1990).

Distributive justice has been included as a variable for several reasons. It has been important as a justice variable in the organisational behaviour literature (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998) and has

also played a large part in the legal literature on justice. Furthermore even though strong links between OCB and distributive justice have rarely been found, the context of the present study might result in a different pattern of relationships between the fairness variables and OCB.

Procedural Fairness

Rawls' (1971, 1999) notion of justice as fairness which encompasses procedural fairness has been described as the most important development in the justice literature during the 20th century. This was explored in the first part of this chapter together with later literature that has separated procedural fairness into the components of structural and interpersonal procedural fairness. As was discussed, structural procedural justice is concerned with whether the procedures in the organisation are fair, unbiased, consistent and ethical. Interpersonal procedural justice, on the other hand, focuses on the carrying out of procedures, specifically by the supervisor, and whether the supervisor takes into account the viewpoint of employees and treats them with consideration.

Organ and Moorman (1993) in their review of the literature linking OCB and fairness asserted that procedural fairness has been shown to have stronger links with OCB than distributive justice. Other researchers have also found strong links between procedural fairness and organisational citizenship behaviour (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman et al., 1993). Schappe (1998) found that when job satisfaction, procedural fairness and organisational commitment were examined concurrently, procedural fairness was the only one that accounted for a unique amount of variance in OCB. It has been found that citizenship behaviour is likely to occur only if the reward system, which forms a significant part of distributive justice, is procedurally fair (Folger, 1993). This last result highlights the strong links that exist between distributive justice and procedural fairness.

Procedural fairness in the form of structural and interpersonal procedural fairness has been included here because it has been an integral part of the developments in the justice literature over the past thirty years. It is postulated that fairness, because of its ongoing nature, will be more important for the performance of OCB than acts of distribution, which happen only periodically in organisations. Greenberg (1993) argued that 'an individual who believes the system is inherently unfair…would be expected to refrain from performing extra citizenship duties, whereas one who

believes a particular distributive decision is unfair would probably not take such extreme action' (p. 251).

Trust

Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) defined trust as 'the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party' (p. 712). Bigley and Pearce (1998) noted that in the social sciences, the term 'trust' is almost invariably associated with vulnerability on the part of one party. Trust therefore has its basis in social exchange. Social exchange, by its very nature, implies the existence of trust, since within the relationship one must trust the other party to fulfil their obligations (Blau, 1964). It will be remembered that the exploration of social identity theory and self-interest theory in the section on the interaction effects between distributive and procedural justice highlighted the importance of trust and social exchange.

Konovsky and Pugh (1994) saw trust as basic to relational contracts and social exchange. They found that trust leads to OCB and mediates the relationship between procedural fairness and OCB. Deluga (1995) found that interpersonal trust leads to citizenship behaviour. It has also been proposed that the level of perceived procedural fairness could be affected by the underlying degree of trust in employees' reactions to distribution of resources (Brockner & Siegel, 1996).

A significant aspect of the construct of trust is that it implies the existence of a relationship. This is primarily why it has been included in this research which is about the nature of social relationships at work. Lewis & Weigert (1985) argued that trust must be conceptualised as a social construct and a property of collective units such as dyads and groups because there would be no need to trust if there were no social relationships. Hosmer (1995) has argued that both the organisational theory and philosophical ethics literatures indicate that the presence of trust should lead to more co-operation within dyadic relationships or by the stakeholders of an organisation. This should result in an increase in citizenship behaviours.

In addition to the fact that trust implies the existence of a relationship and is therefore important within a study on relationships at work, it has been seen in the previous discussion on the underlying nature of fairness that trust is integral to several theories of fairness.

Leader-member Exchange

Leader-member exchange is based on Blau's (1964) social exchange theory. Social exchange is one of the most important theories of fairness and has been explored in the first section of this chapter. Social exchange was also one of the theories that was seen to underlie the explanation of the interaction between distributive justice and procedural fairness.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) is a theory of leadership that differs fundamentally from those classified within trait, behavioural or contingency approaches. Theories of leadership within these approaches have often been criticised for focusing only on the domain of the leader, without looking at that of the follower or the relationship between leader and follower. Instead of focusing on attributes or traits of the leader or looking at the context, LMX focuses on the dyadic relationship between a leader and follower. It examines the quality of the relationship between the two (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The 'interpersonal exchange relationship [that develops between subordinate and supervisor] determines, in large part, the type of role the subordinate will play within a particular unit' (Dienesch & Liden, 1986, p. 621).

Several researchers have found a positive relationship between LMX and OCB (Wayne & Green, 1993; Settoon et al., 1996). When employees perceive that they are being treated fairly they are more likely to view the relationship with the organisation as social rather than economic exchange (Eskew, 1993). In a similar manner, Liden and Graen (1980) found that a high quality LMX relationship resulted in employees performing duties outside their job descriptions which is one aspect of OCB, while a low-quality LMX relationship often resulted in employees performing more routine tasks. In a study comparing LMX and perceived organisational support (discussed hereafter), LMX was linked with citizenship and in-role behaviour while perceived organisational support was related to organisational commitment (Settoon et al., 1996). Wayne & Green (1993) examined the effect LMX has on the behaviour of employees toward supervisors, looking

particularly at citizenship behaviours. They found that altruism, which is one of the dimensions of OCB (Organ, 1988) was significantly related to leader-member exchange quality.

Leader-member exchange has been included as a fairness variable in this research because of the fact that it is based on social exchange theory. There is also an attempt to separate out the relationship with supervisor and the relationship with the organisation. It was the researcher's view that leader-member exchange would provide an indication of the relationship between supervisor and subordinate while the next construct to be discussed, perceived organisational support, would provide an indication of the relationship between the employee and the organisation.

Perceived Organisational Support

The construct of perceived organisational support (POS) evolved to provide an explanation for the development of organisational commitment in employees (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986). These authors theorised that the commitment of employees would be affected by their perception of the extent of the organisation's commitment to them. Thus the notion of reciprocity underlies the measurement of POS. POS was developed to measure employees' perception of the organisation's commitment to them. Aspects of the job that might indicate the organisation's commitment or lack of it include praise and approval, pay, rank, job enrichment, influence over organisational policies (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

POS concentrates on the relationship between the employee and the organisation, rather than that between the employee and supervisor, and involves a personification of the organisation. It has been found that although POS and LMX have conceptual similarities, they are different constructs (Wayne et al., 1997; Settoon et al., 1996). POS has also been found to be distinct from job satisfaction (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli & Lynch, 1997).

POS has been shown to be a predictor of OCB (Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne et al., 1997). Settoon et al. (1996) confirmed the theorised link between POS and organisational commitment in their finding that the two are linked to each other as are LMX and citizenship behaviour.

POS has been included in this study to see whether an employee's perception of their relationship with their direct supervisor as measured by LMX or their perception of support by the organisation is more important for the enactment of citizenship behaviours.

Conclusion

This chapter has considered the fairness constructs used in the present research. It has located these within the context of fairness within the legal and political philosophy literatures as well as those of social exchange theory and the psychological contract. It is now necessary to examine the construct of OCB in more detail. In the following chapter a comprehensive review of the OCB literature will be found.

Chapter 3: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

This dissertation focuses on the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and fairness at work. The nature of fairness together with the fairness constructs included in the research has been comprehensively covered in the previous chapter. The task of this chapter is to examine the nature of organisational citizenship behaviour. Before looking at organisational citizenship, however, we will explore the notion of citizenship within its usual domain, i.e. that of a country. Once we have explored general citizenship theory, we will be able to see if organisational citizenship behaviour is derived from general citizenship.

Citizenship Theory

Citizenship of a country generally entails both responsibilities and rights (Lipset, 1995). It has also been defined as the act of belonging to a political community (Kriegler, 1993). Notions of democracy, equality and community (Kriegler, 1993; Lipset, 1995) have shaped the meaning of citizenship. However, the concept of citizenship is not unproblematic and there are several conflicting ideas as to what it entails. For the purpose of this research, it is important at least, to distinguish between classical republican citizenship and modern liberal citizenship.

Classical republican citizenship entailed equality in rights and obligations as well as active political participation (Lipset, 1995). This conception of citizenship was possible only because slaves engaged in any active work required in the community; this allowed a fuller political participation by the citizens, who consisted only of free or native-born men (Kriegler, 1993). The active nature of political participation resulted in what was called direct democracy because people represented themselves directly at a government level. Later, with the spread of the Roman Empire, citizenship came to signify only equal protection under the law, and no longer included active participation. This was known as representative democracy because citizens were represented by others at a government level (Kriegler, 1993; Lipset, 1995).

With the growth of liberalism during the nineteenth century, classical republican citizenship was replaced by a new concept of citizenship as a legal status that focused on the rights of the individual within the state (Kriegler, 1993). This modern liberal conception of citizenship came

about as a result of the change from direct democracy to representative democracy (Lipset, 1995). The rights of the individual within representative democracy include things such as freedom of speech, freedom of association, the right to a fair trial, equal access to the legal system and social rights such as health, education and illness benefits (Lipset, 1995). The rejection of notions like the common good and civic virtue within liberal thought has lessened the importance of the outcomes of these notions, such as common purpose, obligation and community values. (Lipset, 1995).

The construct of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is for the most part not derived from either classical republican citizenship or modern liberal citizenship. There are exceptions to this; they will be discussed later in the chapter. It is important to point out, however, that all aspects of organisational citizenship behaviour that are drawn from general citizenship relate to classical republican citizenship, not modern liberal citizenship.

Since OCB theory is for the most part not situated within the same nomological net as general citizenship theory, it could be said that the name, organisational citizenship behaviour, is fairly misleading. This is not a matter that will be debated here. What is important is the context within which OCB can be placed. Organisational citizenship behaviour is situated within a nomological net (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955) that includes spontaneous behaviour, prosocial organisational behaviour and contextual performance. This chapter begins with a brief examination of these three constructs together with OCB. The constructs contain many similarities, which will be explored here. This will serve to elucidate the boundaries of OCB.

Thereafter, the four major conceptualisations of OCB are examined in detail. One of the weaknesses of OCB is that it is not a theory-rich construct. The four conceptualisations are therefore not theoretical conceptualisations. The development of OCB has taken place primarily through empirical research. For this reason, there is no theoretical background section in this chapter. Instead, the discussion will examine, in chronological order of development, each instrument that has been used within OCB research. A short description of each conceptualisation is undertaken. This includes how the scale was developed. An indication of the amount of research using the scale is given and relations between the scale and fairness found by other researchers are explored. In addition to this, the dimensions of OCB found by factor analysis within each scale are

examined, and other findings using the scale that are of interest to this research are highlighted. Finally the underlying assumptions of the conceptualisation are inspected. After exploring each conceptualisation, reasons for the choice of organisational citizenship scale used as a basis for the present research are furnished.

Nomological Net within which Organisational Citizenship Behaviour is Situated

This section looks at several constructs that fall within the same nomological net as OCB. They are each described briefly and this is followed by a comparison between the constructs.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

As was mentioned Chapter 1, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has been defined 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). A detailed examination of OCB will be undertaken within this chapter, so here it will only be noted that OCBs were first identified by Smith et al. (1983) and Bateman and Organ (1983). Organ (1988) outlined the behaviours in greater detail as can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1
Organisational Citizenship dimensions as outlined by Organ (1988).

Altruism	Behaviours that help a specific person under unusual circumstances such as helping another person catch up after sick leave
Conscientiousness	Attendance at work that is well beyond the minimum requirement in attendance such as when suffering from minor ailments or in poor weather conditions. Other elements include obeying rules, taking breaks, punctuality, cleanliness
Civic virtue	Participation with involvement in and concern for the organisation – support for administrative functions of the organisation, responsible participation
Sportsmanship	Tolerance of less than ideal circumstances without complaining – stressing the positive things about the organisation instead of the negative
Courtesy	Preventing work-related problems with others – taking steps in advance, consulting with others before carrying out actions

Spontaneous Behaviour

Spontaneous behaviours were first identified by Katz and Kahn (1978). The particular behaviours they identified were helping co-workers, protecting the organisation, making constructive suggestions, developing oneself and spreading goodwill. George and Brief (1992)

defined spontaneous organisational behaviour as the voluntary performance of extra-role behaviours that contribute to organisational effectiveness. George and Jones (1997) described these behaviours in more detail (Table 2).

Table 2
Elements of Spontaneous Organisational Behaviour.

- voluntarily helping co-workers with achieving their goals and completing their tasks;
- protecting the organisation such as locking doors, reporting suspicious actions, and the like;
- making constructive creative or innovative suggestions, or personal initiative to assist with the improving of individual, group or organisational functioning;
- developing oneself with regard to the attaining of new knowledge, skills and abilities with the improvement of the organisation in mind;
- spreading goodwill to assist the organisation in obtaining resources from external stakeholder groups.

Prosocial Organisational Behaviour

Prosocial organisational behaviour (PSOB) has been defined as behaviour while at work which may be aimed at an individual, group or organisation (see Table 3). The intention behind the behaviour must be to benefit the party to which it is directed (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Van Dyne, Cummings and McLean Parks (1995) noted that the definition includes both an in-role and extra-role component. Brief and Motowidlo argued that PSOB is much more inclusive than spontaneous behaviour. The differences that they noted between the two were the following: PSOB can be functional or dysfunctional to the organisation while spontaneous behaviour is only functional to the organisation; spontaneous behaviours are always extra-role, while PSOB could, but does not necessarily have to be extra-role.

Table 3
Typical prosocial organisational behaviours (Van Dyne et al., 1995).

- assisting co-workers with job-related or personal matters;
- showing leniency in personnel decisions;
- providing services or products to consumers in either organisationally consistent or inconsistent ways;
- helping consumers with personal matters unrelated to organizational services or products;
- complying with organisational values, policies and regulations;
- suggesting procedural, administrative, or organisational improvements;
- objecting to improper directives, procedures, or policies;
- putting forth extra effort on the job;
- volunteering for additional assignments;
- staying with the organisation despite temporary hardships;
- representing the organisation favourably to outsiders.

Organ (1988) argued that PSOB and OCB are different because PSOB could include behaviour that helps an individual while harming the organisation. Such behaviours would not be

considered OCB by Organ. However Graham (1991), who originally developed the civic virtue dimension of OCB, defined PSOB as responsible participation in the political life of the organisation. Organ's definition implies a much more compliant type of participation, one that does not seem to focus on the political side of organisational life. Van Dyne et al. (1995) criticised PSOB for its breadth. They maintained that this makes empirical research using the construct difficult. They also raised the question of what sort of behaviour would not qualify as PSOB.

Contextual Performance

Contextual performance contributes to 'the organizational, social and psychological context that serves as the catalyst for task activities and processes (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 100). It has five elements to it as can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4
Elements of Contextual Performance.

1.	Volunteering for jobs beyond one's job expectations;
2.	Enthusiasm for projects and persevering even when inconvenient;
3.	Assistance to others;
4.	Following rules even when inconvenient;
5.	Advocating and defending organisational objectives.

This construct is an expansion of the task performance dimension of behaviour which consists of 'job specific behaviors including core job responsibilities, for which the primary antecedents are likely to be ability and experience' (Conway, 1999, p. 3). Contextual performance on the other hand, consists of behaviours that are not job-specific, for example co-operating with colleagues and exhibiting dedication. Motowidlo, Borman and Schmit (1997) defined contextual performance as that which maintains 'the broader organisational, social and psychological environment in which the technical core must function. It includes activities that promote the viability of the social and organisational network and enhance the psychological climate in which the technical core is embedded' (p.75).

The developers of this construct acknowledged their debt to both OCB and PSOB. Relative to the other constructs described here, contextual performance theory is still in its infancy, but one of the major differences between it and OCB is the fact that contextual performance does not distinguish between in-role and extra-role performance (Motowidlo, Borman & Schmit, 1997).

Comparison Among the Constructs within the Nomological Net

Van Dyne et al. (1995) examined the differences between various extra-role behaviours. In looking at the constructs they asked the following five questions:

1. Whether the focus is on the intent of the actor or the perceived outcome of the action, as well as whether intent is perceived to be positive or negative or both;
2. Whether the behaviour is extra-role and/or in-role;
3. Whether the actor is a current or former member of the organisation;
4. Whether the action is based primarily on affiliative /promotive behaviours or challenging/prohibitive behaviours;
5. Whether the target is an individual, a group or the organisation and whether the beneficiary of the behaviour is the target, organisation, or constituency.

Using these questions as a basis, the four constructs outlined here, i.e. organisational citizenship behaviour, spontaneous organisational behaviour, prosocial organisational behaviour and contextual performance were assessed for similarities and differences (see Appendix A). In all four constructs the actor is a current member of the organisation whose motivation is primarily affiliative or promotive. The four therefore have in common a focus on the actor's intent, which must always be positive. Another similarity among the constructs is that in all of them the individual, group or organisation can be a target of the actor's behaviour.

Prosocial organisational behaviour differs from spontaneous organisational behaviour, contextual performance and organisational citizenship behaviour in several respects. In the three former constructs, the focus is on both the intent behind and the actual behaviour, which must also have positive outcomes. The three also have in common the organisation as an intended beneficiary. The target refers to the party at whom the behaviour is aimed, while the beneficiary refers to the party that ultimately benefits from the behaviour. It should be noted that the target and beneficiary could, but do not necessarily have to refer to the same party. With prosocial organisational behaviour, while the intention behind the behaviour must be positive, the actual behavioural outcome does not have to be positive. The organisation is also not necessarily the beneficiary of the behaviour. The intended beneficiary is always the target. This might be the individual, group or organisation. In essence this means that the outcome of the behaviour could be negative for the organisation, but positive to the individual or group at which it was aimed.

According to Moorman and Blakely (1995) spontaneous organisational behaviour also differs from OCB in that it can be recognised by the reward system in the organisation while OCB is

generally not rewarded. As has been mentioned already, PSOB is the only construct that includes in-role behaviours, although of course, the in-role extra-role distinction does not apply to contextual performance. Contextual performance has bowed out of the in-role/extra-role debate. The construct assesses all behaviours as different types of performances that are required by the organisation.

It can be seen from this discussion that there are significant overlaps within the research on these different constructs. Prosocial organisational behaviour on the one hand and the other three constructs on the other, have greater differences between them that are possibly not able to be resolved. Differences between the other constructs could be largely a matter of semantics rather than them being separate constructs. Although more work in this area is needed and this debate is not really central here, it seems that more has been made of the distinctiveness of these constructs than was necessary. There are several possible reasons for this. Researchers could have promoted their construct without being aware of other similar constructs already in existence. It is also possible that researchers might want the construct attached to their name to be the one that is utilised and remembered. However, no matter what the reasons are for the present situation, it could be difficult to reconcile constructs that are called different things but that describe similar things.

This section of the chapter has contextualised OCB within a nomological net of constructs consisting of spontaneous organisational behaviour, prosocial organisational behaviour and contextual performance. The following section consists of a more detailed look at various conceptualisations of OCB itself.

The Development of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

There has been very little theorising about OCB in isolation from the empirical work, particularly before empirical work was begun. It was therefore decided to use the empirical work as a framework, categorise it according to the different conceptualisations, and examine each OCB construct together with representations of the relationships that have been found between OCB and fairness. There are four conceptions of OCB that predominate in the literature. These are categorised as follows, according to the authors of the initial study that developed the measurement scale attached to each conceptualisation:

- Smith, Organ and Near (1983), a two-factor conceptualisation;

- Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990), a five-factor conceptualisation;
- Moorman and Blakely (1995), a four-factor conceptualisation;
- Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994), a three-factor conceptualisation.

In this section, these four conceptualisations will be examined in detail. The following things will be examined under each conceptualisation:

- Important general findings using the scale
- The amount of research using the construct
- Relations between fairness and OCB found using the scale
- Factors found within the scale
- Likert-type questions used within each study

In addition to this, there are several studies that have used combinations of the measurement scales from the above conceptualisations. The studies that have used mixed measuring scales that are important here or show relationships between OCB and fairness will also be examined. This section also looks at OCB measured using scenarios and a laboratory experiment designed to measure OCB. The chapter ends with a section that details the reasons for the choice of measuring scale in the present research.

Early Studies

Smith et al. (1983) were the first to theorise that OCB was a category of performance outside that of the normal working role. They constructed a scale (The Smith, Organ & Near Scale) consisting of 16 items (see Appendix B) which was tested on a sample of banking employees (N = 422). This study was the first both to use the term 'organisational citizenship behaviour' and define the construct. The items in the scale were constructed on the basis of interviews with managers in a variety of organisations excluding those eventually sampled in the survey. The brief to the managers was to identify 'helpful, but not absolutely required, job behavior' (p. 656). The pool of items generated in the interviews was pilot-tested on a sample of 67 managers and the responses of the managers were submitted to factor analysis using both orthogonal varimax rotation with communality estimates in the diagonals as well as oblique rotation. Two distinct factors emerged: altruism (α = .88), which referred to helping behaviour related to a specific person; and generalised compliance (α = .85), which referred to more impersonal helping behaviour (see

Appendix B for details of the factor analysis). For this reason, the conceptualisation using this scale will also be referred to as the two-factor model. The two different methods of factor analysis produced identical factors and the correlation between the two factors remained fairly constant at $r = .45$ ($p < .001$) and $r = .43$ respectively, this being indicative of an association between the factors. The two factors together explained 54.1% of the variance in OCB.

The study separated Altruism and Generalised Compliance for the purposes of the regression analysis because they had been found to be separate factors. Structural equation modelling indicated that the significant direct effects on altruism were job satisfaction, education and urban/rural background, while leader supportiveness, urban/rural background and scores on a lie scale had a direct path with generalised compliance. The results of the study suggested that in addition to job satisfaction, which they saw as affective in nature, non-affective factors were significant determinants of OCB. In connection with job satisfaction, they argued that higher job satisfaction suggests a more frequent state of good mood at work.

Bateman & Organ (1983) also conceptualised OCB as a measure of performance, theorising that a relationship relating to social exchange and positive affect would be found between OCB and job satisfaction. They constructed a 30-item scale (individual items were not included in the published study) measuring behaviours such as 'compliance, altruism, dependability, housecleaning, complaints, waste, cooperation, criticism or and arguing with others and punctuality' (p. 589) which was then tested twice ($\alpha = .92$ at time 1; $\alpha = .94$ at time 2), on non-academic administrative university employees ($N = 82$ at time 1; $N = 77$ at time 2). A single focus group was held to critique the scale. No factor analyses were reported. Test-retest reliability was .80. No information was given on how the Bateman scale was constructed and no mention of the dimensionality of the scale was made.

Bateman and Organ (1983) found that job satisfaction and citizenship behaviour are linked ($r = .41$ at time 1 & 2, $p < .01$), but even though the study contained a longitudinal element, a causal connection between the two was not supported. Two elements of job satisfaction, i.e. satisfaction with supervision ($r = .46$ at time 1, $p < .01$; $r = .36$ at time 2, $p < .05$) and promotions ($r = .37$ at time 1; $r = .40$ at time 2, $p < .01$) had the highest correlations with OCB, the measure for the latter

being provided by supervisors. The lack of causal connection between the two indicates that they may be related through a common antecedent variable. In both studies citizenship behaviour was measured by the responses of each subject's immediate supervisor.

No further research using the Bateman and Organ (1983) scale has been reported. The Smith Scale, however, has been used extensively within OCB research. This may be because the Smith et al. (1983) study included the questions in the report, while Bateman and Organ (1983) did not. This would have made the questions accessible to anyone wishing to use them for further research. The other reason may have to do with the dimensionality reported by Smith et al.. Bateman and Organ did not report a factor analysis and used OCB as a global construct, while the other study found different dimensions using factor analysis and divided their analyses accordingly.

The two-factor Smith, Organ and Near (1983) Model

The development of the measuring instrument used within this conceptualisation was described in the previous section on early studies. This section therefore begins with an exploration of the general findings of studies that were deemed significant for the present research using this conceptualisation. The first important finding is that the sample of people who answer a survey may well be those who would naturally engage in more OCB (Becker & Randall, 1994). This same study also showed that supervisors' ratings of OCB correspond to an objective measure. This indicates that OCB is able to be assessed by supervisors. Previously there had been questions about whether or not OCB could be accurately measured by supervisors (Organ, 1988).

The second important finding is drawn from a study involving transactional and transformational leadership in a sample of teachers and principals (Koh, Steers & Teborg, 1995). It indicates that different types of leadership behaviour can produce different levels of OCB. The finding, using hierarchical regression, was that transformational leadership has a significant add-on effect to transactional leadership in the prediction of OCB, particularly in one of their factors, the negatively worded compliance factor, which increased by 18% ($p < .01$).

Wayne and Green (1993) found that impression management and OCB were separate constructs, although they found that altruism and other-focused impression management were

significantly correlated ($r = .49$, $p < .01$). Other-focused impression management is that in which the employee focuses specifically on the supervisor, both at work and in their personal life ($\alpha = .74$). This is as opposed to job-focused impression management, in which the employee enacts a behaviour in order to create a positive impression on the supervisor ($\alpha = .74$) and self-focused impression management, in which the employee advises the supervisor of any achievements he or she accomplishes ($\alpha = .68$). This may indicate that when employees engage in altruism or helping behaviour, they are focusing on themselves in terms of the impression that the behaviour creates. It shows that altruism can be an impression management behaviour.

One study indicated that behaviours thought of as extra-role, or not evaluated, are often perceived as being evaluated by employees (Pond, Nacost, Mohr & Rodriguez, 1997). The finding was that there was no behaviour, in other words, no item in the scale that each and every participant perceived was not evaluated for performance purposes. At least 40% of the respondents rated each item as being evaluated, in other words, there were no items which less than 40% of participants regarded as unevaluated. On 10 items fewer than 50% of participants thought the behaviour was not evaluated. This means that employees could perceive citizenship behaviours as things that they have to do.

Having looked at the most important general findings using the Smith et al. (1983) conceptualisation, the next thing to be examined is the amount of research that has been done using this conceptualisation. The scale based on the Smith et al. (1983) conception is the most widely used of all the OCB instruments (Becker & Randall, 1994; Becker & Vance, 1993; Dalton & Cosier, 1998; Fahr, Podsakoff & Organ, 1990; Kelley & Hoffman, 1997; Koh et al., 1995; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Schappe, 1998; Wayne & Green, 1993). This is not intended to be an exhaustive list because the studies concentrated on in this research represent chiefly those that linked OCB and fairness.

This is the oldest conceptualisation of OCB, and has retained its popularity despite the fact that Schnake (1991) asserted that it does not include a thorough list of citizenship behaviours. Schnake believed that a more theoretically grounded approach to OCB should be followed. He was

not the first to comment on problems within the scale however. Smith et al. (1983) stated in the original study using the instrument that their measure was a simplistic one.

Relations between fairness and the two-factor (1983) model.

This section examines previous links that have been found between OCB and fairness using the two-factor (1983) model. Basing their understanding on social exchange theory, Organ and Konovsky (1989) were the first to find that fairness was related to OCB. Their sample was drawn from the employees in two hospitals owned by the same company (N = 369) which the researchers thought would make them similar because of similarities in working conditions. The fairness measure they used was a 12-item scale adapted from Scholl, Cooper and McKenna (1987) concentrating on the fairness of job outcomes. They found that OCB was related to employees' perceptions of how fairly they were treated within the organisation, using an OCB measure obtained from supervisors. This indicates that if organisations concentrate on improving the systems of distributive and procedural fairness, OCB levels in the organisation are likely to increase. They suggested that future research within 'this framework, would require more explicit measures of perceived fairness and probably some means of characterising the individual's felt relationship with the organization in terms of economic or social exchange' (p. 162). Organ (1988) had previously theorised about the relationship between fairness and OCB, arguing that perceptions of fairness may be necessary in order to facilitate the sort of trust needed for employees to engage in citizenship behaviour.

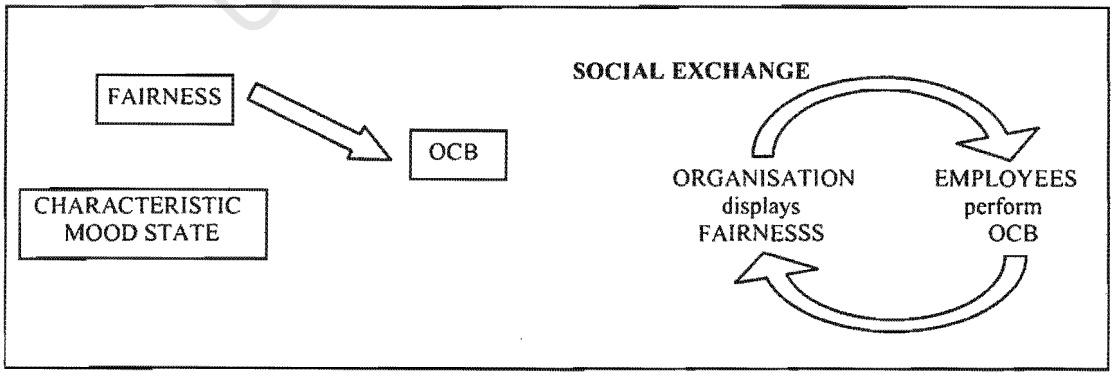

Figure 4. Diagrammatic representation of the relationship between fairness and OCB (Adapted from Organ & Konovsky, 1989).

Fahr, Podsakoff and Organ (1990) studied the perceptions of leader fairness (N = 195) using three different measures: *contingent reward behaviour (CR)*, which measures the amount of positive feedback, praise and other forms of social approval provided by the leader in return for

good performance; *supportive leader behaviour (SLB)* which measures the degree to which employees perceive their supervisors as being interested in their personal welfare, human dignity and suggestions for improvement; *participative leader behaviour (PL)*, which assesses the extent to which employees believe that their supervisors request and make use of their suggestions during decision-making. Contingent reward behaviour represents distributive justice, while the other two constructs are representative of procedural fairness. Supervisors provided the OCB measure for the study. The findings of the study were that leader fairness accounted for variance in the altruism dimension of OCB, but not in the compliance dimension. Correlations between altruism and these three forms of leader fairness were as follows: SLB ($r = .33$, $p < .001$), CR ($r = .30$, $p < .001$) and PL ($r = .38$, $p < .001$). Another possible limitation for the generalisation of these results is that the study was conducted in Taiwan, which may mean that the results are not those that would have been obtained if the study had been conducted in the United States as most of the other research has, although they did arrive at the same factor structure for OCB as Smith et al. (1983). Broadly, they found that the variance in OCB accounted for by fairness was greater than that accounted for by satisfaction. They postulated that altruism is susceptible to the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), which is in turn related to fairness, because it involves assistance to specific people. Compliance, on the other hand, is not directed at any particular person. This might be why it is not related to the norm of reciprocity.

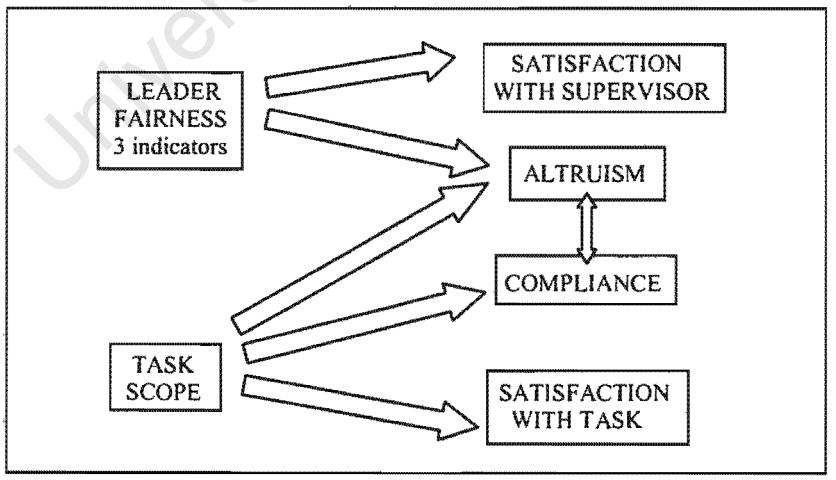

Figure 5. Representation of the relationships between leader fairness and task scope and employee satisfaction, altruism, and compliance as suggested by the results of the study (Fahr, Podsakoff & Organ, 1990).

Wayne and Green (1993) used dyads to examine how LMX influences the behaviour of employees toward supervisors in a sample of nurses and their supervisors ($N = 73$). They divided the dyads into high, medium and low LMX based on a categorical rating by supervisors. The

correlation between nurse managers and nurses for LMX was fairly high ($r = .39$, $p < .05$). OCB was scored by the subordinates in each dyad. They found that altruism ($\alpha = .76$) was significantly related to leader-member exchange quality ($r = .25$, $p < .05$). This finding is similar to that of Fahr, Podsakoff and Organ (1990) who found that leader fairness is a predictor of altruism.

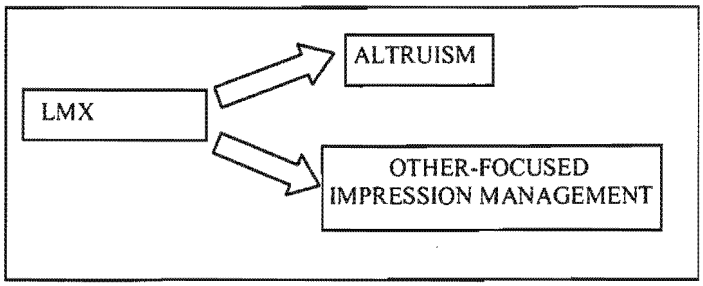

Figure 6. Representation of the relationship between LMX, altruism and other-focused impression management as suggested by the results of the study (Adapted from Wayne & Green, 1993).

Schappe (1998) found that when job satisfaction, procedural fairness and organisational commitment were examined concurrently in a sample of insurance company employees ($N = 130$), organisational commitment was the only one that accounted for a unique amount of variance in OCB ($\beta = .356$, $p < .001$) and correlated significantly with OCB ($r = .21$, $p < .01$). The fairness measure he used consisted of both structural and interpersonal procedural fairness items adapted from Moorman (1991). He used only six items from the Smith Scale, but found a largely similar factor structure, consisting of altruism and compliance which explained 61% of the variance in OCB ($\alpha = .69$). One of the possible problems with Schappe's study is that it might be affected by common method variance since all the measures are self-report measures. The OCB scale also had a relatively low reliability of $\alpha = .69$. His results are fairly unusual, as he found no relationship between OCB and fairness, whereas all the other researchers who have looked at the two together have found significant relationships.

Pond et al. (1997) measured the relationship between supervisor fairness and OCB ($N = 144$) using an instrument based on a procedural fairness scale developed by Folger and Konovsky (1989). They found that OCB and supervisor fairness were related positively when most of the behaviours mentioned in the OCB scale were seen by employees to be evaluated. However, when they were not seen to be evaluated, the relationship between OCB and supervisor fairness was negative. This indicates that employees who thought that OCBs were not evaluated reported engaging in such behaviours less often than those who thought the behaviours were evaluated did.

Pond et al. (1997) also looked at the amount of variance in organisational commitment that was uniquely accounted for by the three-way interaction between OCB, their evaluated/unevaluated index and supervisor fairness. What they found was that when most of the behaviours in the scale are thought to be evaluated, employees who see their supervisors as doing performance evaluations fairly show a strong relationship between OCB and organisational commitment. Employees who do not perceive their supervisors as being fair show a much weaker relationship between these two variables when the behaviours are considered evaluated. On the other hand, when the behaviours are considered truly unevaluated, the relationships conform to OCB theory in that the relationship between OCB and organisational commitment is positive for those employees who perceive their supervisors as completing performance evaluations fairly as well as those who do not perceive them as completing the evaluations fairly.

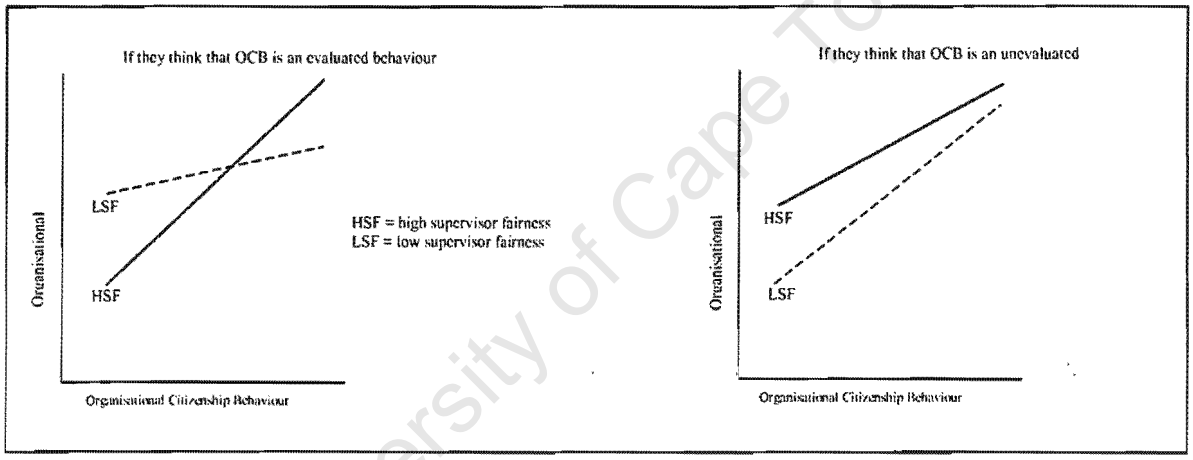

Figure 7. The interaction effects of OCB and supervisor fairness on organisational commitment (Pond et al., 1997).

The relationships described can be illustrated diagrammatically as follows:

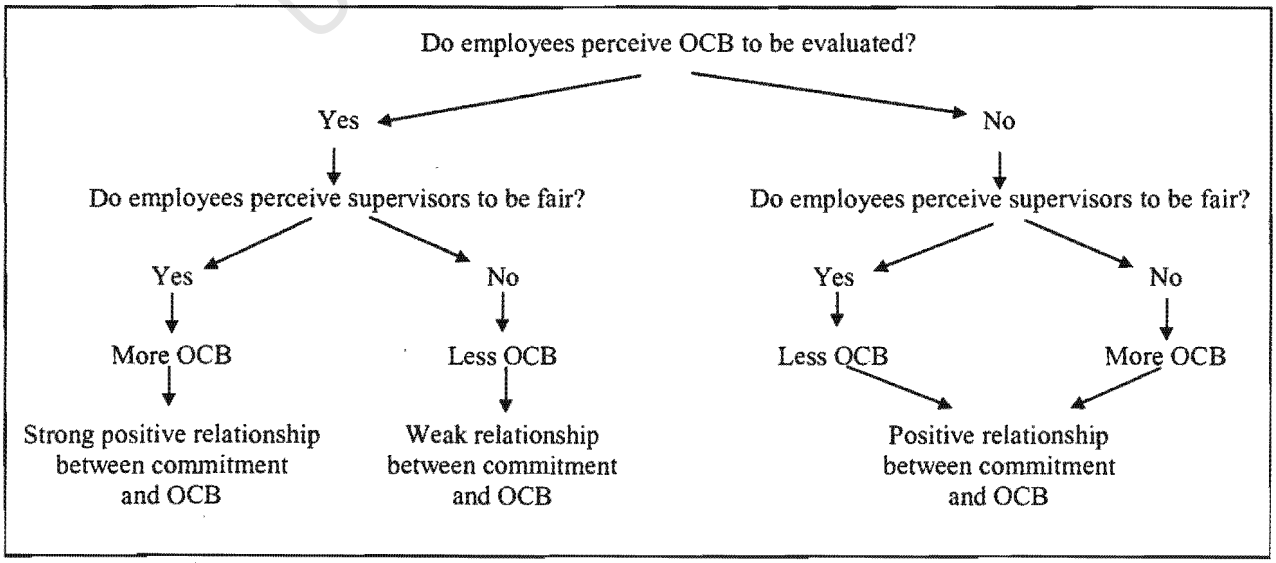

Figure 8. Flowchart representing the relationships between OCB, fairness and commitment (created from information found in Pond et al., 1997).

Pond et al. (1997) found that a positive relationship between OCB and fairness existed only when subordinates thought the citizenship behaviour was evaluated. 'Doing a lot of this behavior was associated with positive feelings about supervisor fairness when it was seen as predominantly evaluated. This same behavior was associated with negative feelings about supervisor fairness when seen as predominantly unevaluated' (p. 1539). This study is extremely important because it is the only OCB study to date that indicates that the relationship between OCB and fairness may be less functional than it seems in other research.

This section has detailed the links that have previously been found between the two-factor (1983) model of OCB and fairness. Most of the studies examined have used variations of procedural fairness and distributive justice scales to measure fairness, while one looked at measures of leader-member exchange. Fahr, Podsakoff and Organ (1990) used distributive and procedural fairness as a basis for looking at leader fairness. The majority of the studies examined found positive relationships between fairness and at least one of the dimensions of OCB (Fahr, Podsakoff & Organ, 1990; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Wayne & Green, 1993).

Factors within the two-factor (1983) model.

In the initial discussion on the Smith et al. (1983) study, it was mentioned that the scale could be divided into two factors: altruism and compliance. The empirical studies using the two-factor (1983) model as a basis have found a variety of differing factor structures within this instrument. Only two studies found the same two factors (Becker & Randall, 1994; Farh, Podsakoff & Organ, 1990) as Smith et al. (1983). In accordance with Organ (1988) however, both of these labelled the compliance factor conscientiousness. The problem of variations in dimensionality is one of those raised in a review of the literature (Schnake, 1991). Becker and Randall (N = 112) found a correlation of r = .44 between their altruism (α = .89) and conscientiousness (α = .82) factors, but no details are given of the amount of variance explained by their two factors. Farh et al. (1990) found the same factor structure as Smith et al., but their study is interesting cross-culturally since they used a Taiwanese sample of Ministry of Communication workers, consisting of managers, professionals, technical staff, clerical staff and blue-collar staff. (N = 195). Their altruism and conscientiousness factors explained 51.3% of the variance in OCB. Using only the altruism items from the Smith scale, Kelley & Hoffman (1997) obtained a single factor, but omitted one item in

order to do so (I attend functions not required because they help the company's image). They ran a confirmatory factor analysis, but details of the analysis are not reported.

Two studies found three factors in the scale (Koh et al., 1995; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). The three factors of Organ and Konovsky (1989) explained 61.3% of the variance in OCB. The factors were altruism, which was the same as the Smith et al. (1983) factor of altruism, and compliance, which was divided into two factors. The researchers decided however, that one of the two compliance factors should be left out of their calculations because it consisted only of negatively worded items and may have been caused by mistakes on the part of the respondents rather than any real third factor. The two factors that they used were therefore altruism ($\alpha = .89$) and compliance ($\alpha = .81$). Similarly the three factors found by Koh et al. (1995) were altruism ($\alpha = .72$), positively worded compliance ($\alpha = .80$) and negatively worded compliance ($\alpha = .82$). The amount of variance in OCB explained by the three factors was not reported. The factors were also inter-correlated (highest correlation $r = -.47$, $p < .05$). Since this study was completed in Singapore, it was felt that there could be cultural differences that could account for the different factor loadings.

Finally, a study ($N = 264$) intending to measure the psychometric properties of the OCB scale extracted 4 factors from the scale: helping behaviour, punctuality, effective use of time and loafing (Dalton & Cosier, 1988). These researchers did not define their different factors, but only included item numbers fitting into each factor. They also maintained that to use OCB as a global measure when there are so clearly dimensions for the instrument means that incorrect results could be reported. Dalton and Cosier maintained further that researchers should verify the psychometric properties of the scale for their own samples. On the negative side, they did not report how much of the variance in OCB these factors explained, and the factors obtained by them make use of 12 out of the 16 items. It should be noted that the scale developed by Smith et al. (1983) was mistakenly attributed to Bateman and Organ (1983) by Dalton and Cosier (1988).

This section has highlighted the fact that the two-factor (1983) model has been shown to have different factor structures by different researchers. A further difference among the various studies using this conceptualisation relates to the questions used in the measurement. This is assessed in the following section.

Likert-type questions used in the two-factor (1983) model.

It is difficult to say to what extent the studies using the two-factor (1983) model can be compared, because besides being conducted at different times and in different companies, the Likert-type questions used in the surveys varied so among them. Attitude scales are supposed to be highly positive or negative statements (strongly disagree/strongly agree). Several of the questions in both this model and the other OCB models do not fall into this category. Most of the studies use the same instrument (Appendix B) which consists of a list of statements on which the questions are based. However, the question applied to these statements is different in many cases. Unfortunately complete information is not available for all the empirical studies. Dalton and Cosier (1988) asked about the value of the behaviours (not very valuable/extremely valuable). Many of the others asked for an indication of how often the behaviour was performed (never/always) (Becker & Vance, 1993; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Wayne & Green, 1993). The remainder of the studies asked the usual attitude Likert question of strongly disagree/strongly agree (Becker & Randall, 1994; Schappe, Kelley & Hoffman, 1997).

The different questions could have affected the construct validity of the conceptualisation in each case. In those where the question relates to how often a behaviour is performed, it is more likely that the respondent would focus on the behaviour (Zebrowitz, 1990). In those studies where the question relates to how strongly the person agrees or disagrees with the statement, it is more likely that the respondent would focus on their attitude to the behaviour. Moreover, asking someone how often they engage in a behaviour does not give an indication of their attitude. Given that Likert-type scales are supposed to be attitude scales (Kerlinger, 1973; Somer & Somer, 1986), it can be seen immediately that one is not eliciting an attitude if one asks how often a person performs a behaviour.

Summary of the two-factor (1983) model.

This completes the evaluation of the first model of OCB. It is the most popular and most used OCB measuring instrument, consisting of two factors: altruism and compliance. Relations have been found between fairness and this conceptualisation by many researchers. Several problems with the model have however been noted. These include the initial way in which the measuring instrument was developed, the variety of questions used by different researchers in the survey and

the initial assumptions about the nature of altruism which were adopted by other researchers and do not seem to have been questioned.

Smith et al. (1983) made the initial assumption that citizenship acts are altruistic in nature. Based on this assumption the social psychology literature was examined for possible antecedents of altruism. No search for altruism within the philosophy literature was conducted even though there is a significant amount of literature on the topic (Nagel, 1970; Paul, Miller & Paul, 1993). Later researchers have taken up this initial assumption and continued in the examination of only selective parts of the altruism literature. This assumption is also equivocal since researchers found that altruism is only one factor of citizenship behaviour, the other being generalised compliance. There was no attempt to search the literature for explanations of generalised compliance. The assumption led to the conclusion that the determinants of OCB could be the same as the determinants of altruism.

The model includes behaviours that are said not to be evaluated because they are not described within formal role requirements, but in asking for sample items in the creation of the measuring instrument, the researchers asked for job behaviours, implying that the behaviours should be part of the job. The words 'not absolutely required' in the brief to managers also imply that the behaviours might be required to a certain extent.

Organ (1988)

Organ's (1988) book on OCB reviewed the work done on the construct until that point. It was in this book that he formally defined OCB. It was also in this book that he articulated five types of OCB. He maintained that empirical analyses of existing measures did not produce consistent results and that this meant that 'the articulation of different forms of OCB must necessarily go somewhat beyond the available data' (p. 8).

OCB was conceptualised as a multidimensional construct with five dimensions. The dimensions described by Organ are detailed in Table 5 below. These have been described previously in this chapter.

Table 5

OCB dimensions described by Organ (1988).

Altruism	Behaviours that help a specific person under unusual circumstances such as helping another person catch up after sick leave
Conscientiousness	Attendance at work that is well beyond the minimum requirement in attendance such as when suffering from minor ailments or in poor weather conditions. Other elements include obeying rules, taking breaks, punctuality, cleanliness
Civic virtue	Participation with involvement in and concern for the organisation – support for administrative functions of the organisation, responsible participation
Sportsmanship	Tolerance of less than ideal circumstances without complaining – stressing the positive things about the organisation instead of the negative
Courtesy	Preventing work-related problems with others – taking steps in advance, consulting with others before carrying out actions

Altruism was replicated from Smith et al. (1983). Conscientiousness was taken from the same source, but Organ (1988) renamed it because 'compliance too often connotes servile obedience to authority figures and fails to convey what is just as likely to be inner-directed, even nonconformist in character' (p. 10). Sportsmanship was adopted after the re-analysis of the data collected by Bateman and Organ (1983). The sportsmanship items are typically negatively worded, or actions that people refrain from doing. No studies before Organ (1988) had defined courtesy. Organ argued that the distinction between altruism and courtesy was that the former implied helping someone with a problem while the latter implied preventing a problem from occurring, or taking steps in advance. Civic virtue was the fifth behaviour articulated by Organ. He obtained this from Graham (1986, as cited in Graham, 1991) who defined it as responsible participation in the political life of the organisation or having a sense of involvement. Organ divided behaviour at work into in-role behaviour, which was part of the job description and therefore fell within the domain of the formal social organisation and extra-role or citizenship behaviour.

Organ's (1988) discussion on fairness.

Organ argued that distributive justice would be linked more closely with OCB than procedural fairness. He maintained that problems with due process in organisations could most often be related to injustices in the distribution of significant resources. He also argued in connection with procedural fairness that 'the more we seek to perfect such a system the more we generate conflict over its imperfections' (p. 65).

Organ described Blau's (1964) notion of social exchange (see Chapter 2) and contrasted it to economic exchange. He argued that relations between supervisors and subordinates would contain elements of both social and economic exchange and that organisational participants would be 'continuously engaged in working out on a piecemeal, often implicit, basis the status and terms of their exchange with the other parties that comprise the organization' (p. 69). Organ also touched on the idea of the social contract (see Chapter 2) as a basis for looking at fairness in organisations, but he did not explore this to any extent.

The five-factor Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) Model

This model was developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990, as cited in MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Fetter, 1991). The work by Podsakoff and his colleagues is of special importance to this study. This conceptualisation is unique among the different conceptualisations of OCB in that it is the only one in which there are several studies attempting to find links between OCB and performance or organisational effectiveness. An assumption that this link exists underlies most of the research into OCB, but very few researchers have attempted to study the relationship.

The researchers followed the advice of Schwab (1980) in the development of the measuring instrument (Appendix C). The first stage involved the creation of items to fit into the five construct domains that had been specified by Organ (1988). Ten faculty peers and doctoral students then evaluated the content validity of the items. Items that were correctly assigned more than 80% of the time were kept in the questionnaire. Reliabilities for the scale are reported by Moorman (1991) as ranging from $\alpha = .7$ for civic virtue to $\alpha = .85$ for altruism. He also reports that the goodness of fit in the confirmatory factor analysis produced a TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index) of .94.

One study indicated that OCB has an effect on both the quality and quantity of work group performance (Podsakoff et al., 1997). This study also has significance because it related one measure of perception (the employees did their own OCB) to objective measures of performance. What was found was that sportsmanship and helping behaviour had significant positive relationships with and explained 25.7% of the variance in the quantity of output of work group performance. Helping behaviour was negatively related to the amount of paper that had been produced which was rejected by quality control (the objective measure of performance), explaining

17% of the variance. While helping behaviour is not a distinct construct in Organ's theory, it was felt that his dimensions of altruism, courtesy, cheerleading and peacekeeping should be amalgamated because of the difficulty some managers had in recognising the distinctions between them.

Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) found indications that OCBs form an integral part of performance evaluations because of the interaction between formal and informal organisation. The study also indicates that OCBs may either help or hinder organisational performance. They found that a large amount of the variance of the evaluations was accounted for by citizenship behaviours (R^2 = 48%). They also found that about one-fifth of the variance in performance was accounted for by citizenship behaviour. However, some of the impact, particularly with regard to helping behaviour (α = .89), was negative. Only civic virtue (α = .82) and sportsmanship (α = .84) had positive effects on unit performance.

Allen and Rush (1998) provided more evidence for the fact that raters of performance look at OCB as part of the rating, and that OCB 'adds significantly to the prediction of overall evaluation and reward recommendations beyond the effect of task performance' (p. 255). This once again shows the link between the formal and informal organisation. They focused on the social-cognitive processes of raters, looking at variables such as liking, perceived affective commitment and job expectations. Their results indicated that a large amount of the effect of OCB on overall evaluations of performance occurs through the effect that it has on these other variables. 'These findings suggest that the effect that OCB has on performance evaluations found in previous studies largely occurs as a result of the cognitively elicited affective reactions and favourable impressions of the employee that engaging in OCB produces' (p. 253).

Allan and Rush (1998) also found that raters make differential causal attributions with regard to citizenship behaviour. These attributions covaried with the rate of citizenship behaviour reported. In other words, those reported as engaging in citizenship behaviour more frequently were more likely to have the behaviour attributed to altruistic behaviour by supervisors while those engaging in this behaviour less often were more likely to have it attributed to instrumental motives. This finding of different causal motives is consistent with other research on ingratiation and OCB (Eastman,

1994) in which it was found that similar behaviour resulted in different attributions on the part of respondents. Eastman raised the possibility of attitudinal biases in people which could affect the way they evaluate extra-role behaviours.

Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1997) in a review of the literature on the relationship between OCB and performance made the point that even though we know there is a relationship between the two, we do not yet know the causal direction of the relationship due to the correlational nature of the studies completed thus far. They maintained that there has been a fundamental assumption in the OCB literature that OCB causes organisational effectiveness, but that this assumption has yet to be tested directly. According to them helping behaviour has had a stronger effect than other forms of citizenship behaviour in the studies completed to date. The boundary between performance and OCB can thus be seen to be somewhat blurred. Concerns about the placement of the boundary between extra-role and in-role behaviours seem to be justified (Morrison, 1994) as do concerns about the extra-role conceptualisation of OCB (Organ, 1988).

Many OCB studies have used the measuring instrument from this conceptualisation as a basis (Deluga, 1994, 1995; Kidwell, Mossholder & Bennett, 1997; MacKenzie et al., 1991; MacKenzie Podsakoff & Fetter, 1993; Moorman, 1991, 1993; Moorman et al., 1993; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 1997; Netemeyer, Boles, McKee & McMurrian, 1997; Tansky, 1993). It is second in popularity only to the two-factor (1983) model. As has been mentioned, it is the only conceptualisation to include a significant amount of research on the link between OCB and performance, which is of vital importance to managers.

Relations between fairness and the five-factor (1990) model.

Moorman (1991) operationalised justice in terms of both distributive justice and procedural fairness (N = 225). He divided procedural fairness into two factors, which he called formal procedures, and interactional justice. Formal procedure items looked at whether fair procedures were used in the organisation, while interactional justice looked at the fairness of the interactions that look place because of the organisation procedures. For the sake of clarity in this document however, formal procedures will be referred to as structural procedural fairness and interactional justice will be referred to as interpersonal justice. The reason for the preferred terminology, as was

mentioned in Chapter 2, is that in most other writings on fairness, this terminology is utilised (Brockner & Siegel, 1996; Greenberg, 1987, 1993; Leventhal, 1980; Scarlicki & Folger, 1997;). In addition, the term interactional justice is also often used to refer to the interaction effects between procedural fairness and distributive justice, thus making its use as one of the parts of procedural fairness ambiguous. Supervisors completed the OCB measures for this study. The procedural and distributive items used in the present research were adapted very slightly from those in Moorman's study.

Using a nested model analysis comparison, Moorman (1991) found that perceptions of justice positively influence OCB. In addition, he found that when perceptions of fairness and job satisfaction were measured separately, job satisfaction was not related to OCB. He also found that interpersonal justice was the only type of fairness significantly related to OCB. Correlations between interpersonal justice and OCB ranged from $r = .07$ for civic virtue, which was the only one that was not significant, to $r = .32$ ($p < .01$) for courtesy and conscientiousness. This indicates that what supervisors do to show that fair procedures exist, is more important than the fair procedures themselves. These findings are also important in that they indicate that distributive justice does not mediate procedural fairness. Organ (1988) had argued that distributive justice would be more important for OCB than procedural fairness. Moorman argued that future studies on fairness should include sections on fair interactions as well as fair procedures and outcomes.

The Moorman (1991) study also supports the findings in other studies that procedural fairness and OCB have a more significant relationship than distributive justice and OCB. According to Moorman, the results could indicate that employees decide to manifest behaviours that will benefit their supervisors. He also maintained that operationalising this type of fairness is within the power of managers.

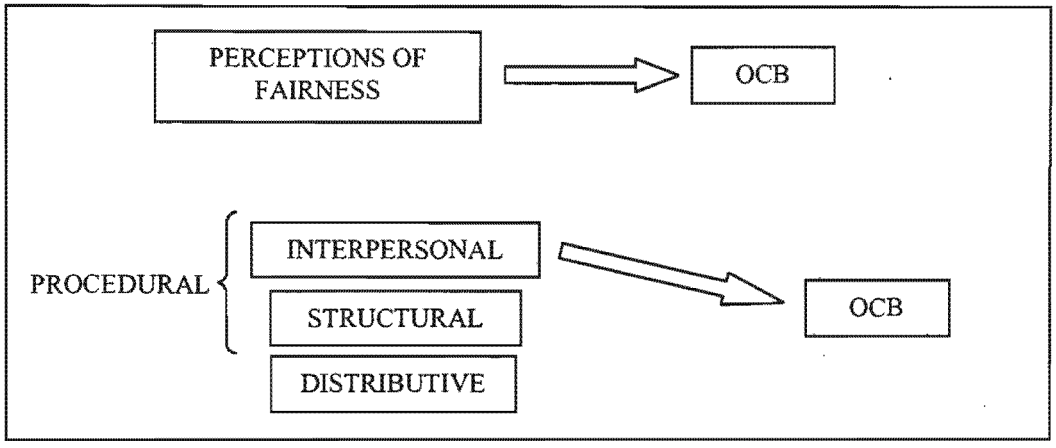

Figure 9. Representation of the relationships between fairness and OCB as suggested by the results of the study (Adapted from Moorman, 1991).

Niehoff and Moorman (1993) found that formal procedures were more important than interactional justice for their study, the antithesis of what Moorman (1991) had found. They used the same procedural fairness measure as Moorman (1991). They explained their results through the type of sample they used – the jobs were rule-governed and not subject to supervisors and subordinates working closely together.

Moorman (1993) found that job cognitions were important to OCB in a study of the relationship between OCB and job satisfaction (he used two job satisfaction scales, one representative of affect and the other of job cognitions). He argued that this could indicate that perceptions of fairness are a basis for OCB. This lends support to Organ and Konovsky's (1989) social exchange conceptualisation of the construct. Moorman ran a confirmatory factor analysis on his three measures of justice, which resulted in a 3-factor model with a goodness of fit of .92 using CFI.

Deluga (1994) found that LMX quality was both associated with and explained incremental variance above that of in-role behaviour in four of the five citizenship dimensions: conscientiousness (4%, $p < .05$), sportsmanship (6%, $p < .05$), courtesy (10%, $p < .01$) and altruism (5%, $p < .01$) in employees from various companies attending evening classes ($N = 86$). He used an eight-item scale developed by Kozlowski & Doherty (1989) to measure the quality of leader-member exchange relationships. He also found that subordinate fairness perceptions were not positively associated with the quality of the LMX relationship as measured by supervisors, which is puzzling, but he explained this unexpected finding by drawing attention to the strange distribution

of the fairness data, which did not leave much opportunity for fairness and LMX quality to covary. Deluga explained his results with the interactionist approach, using social exchange theory.

Konovsky and Pugh (1994) found that trust mediates the relationship between procedural fairness and OCB. They argued that because of this, social exchange is a theoretical model that can be used to explain the variance in OCB accounted for by procedural fairness. While Organ (1988) argued that procedural fairness would be subordinate to distributive justice in the organisation, Konovsky and Pugh, like Moorman (1991) also found that the opposite was the case.

Moorman et al. (1993) found, using nested model comparisons, that procedural fairness was related to three of the five dimensions of OCB (N = 420). They used the procedural fairness scale described by Moorman (1991) which is used in the present research. They argued that the fact that they controlled for in-role behaviour might have affected this relationship. The two dimensions that were not related to procedural fairness, altruism and civic virtue, could be thought of as more in-role than other dimensions, according to them. They also found that when the relationship between procedural fairness and OCB was controlled for, the relationships between organisational commitment and job satisfaction on the one hand and OCB on the other were not significant. They maintained that it might be more useful to think of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and OCB as consequences of the impression of the organisation created by procedural fairness. Part of the reason they argued this is because these constructs 'describe positive feelings about the organisation, instead of the degree to which the organisation values the employee' (p. 222).

Tansky (1993) used a 3-item measure of overall fairness with a sample of non-union employees working in various locations for a division of a Fortune 100 company (N = 55). Her regression analysis showed that perceptions of overall fairness did not account for a significant percentage of the variance in any OCB factor. The intercorrelations between the five OCB factors were also quite high ($r = .36$, $p < .01$ to $r = .58$, $p < .001$). What is interesting in her study is that the correlation between LMX (using the same instrument as the present research) and fairness was very high ($r = .52$, $p < .001$). In the multiple regression analysis, which controlled for years of education, sex, supervisory level and age, LMX explained 28.9% of the variance in perceptions of fairness. It

was thus shown that good supervisory/subordinate relations are significantly related to perceptions of overall fairness.

Netemeyer et al. (1997) looked at fairness in reward allocation. They reported on two studies in the sales industry, one consisted of employees selling cell phone messaging services (N = 91) and the other consisted of estate agents (N = 182). The fairness measures used for both studies were adapted from Price and Mueller's (1986) Distributive Justice Index, which was used for the distributive justice measure in the present research. They found significant correlations between fairness and OCB in both studies ($r = .27$, $p < .01$ in study one, $r = .39$, $p < .01$ in study two).

This section has detailed a variety of studies using the Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) model in which relationships between fairness and OCB have been found. These studies, as with the two-factor (1983) model, also largely examined fairness in terms of procedural fairness and distributive justice, but on the whole they used more detailed instruments for measuring fairness than were used within the Smith et al. Two-factor (1983) conceptualisation.

Factors within the five-factor (1990) model.

The five-factor structure described by Organ (1988) and used as a basis for the development of this model, has been shown in studies to be more robust than that of Smith et al. (1983). Moorman (1993) using the same data as Moorman (1991) did a factor analysis on the Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) instrument that supported a five-factor model of and explained 68% of the variance in OCB. In addition a confirmatory factor analysis on the data resulted in a goodness of fit of .97 using the CFI and .96 using TLI. Supervisors of employees in two companies in the paints industry with supervisor-client relationships provided the OCB ratings (N = 225). The factors in the scale were altruism ($\alpha = .81$), courtesy ($\alpha = .87$), sportsmanship ($\alpha = .87$), conscientiousness ($\alpha = .83$) and civic virtue ($\alpha = .77$). Intercorrelations between the variables ranged from $r = .22$ to $r = .62$ ($p < .001$).

Using a sample of employees and general managers of a national movie theatre management company (N = 213) Niehoff and Moorman (1993) ran a confirmatory factor analysis on the OCB scale. They used Bentler's (1990) comparative fit index (CFI) to find out whether the factor

structure fits the data. This index prevents the underestimation of fit than may occur with the use of smaller samples. The CFI for the five-factor model was .90.

Moorman et al. (1993) also ran a confirmatory factor analysis on their data. They found the same five-factor model of altruism (α = .83), courtesy (α = .83), sportsmanship (α = .87), conscientiousness (α = .82) and civic virtue (α = .80). Their goodness of fit index was .90 (they did not report which method they used).

MacKenzie et al. (1991) found, using focus groups, that the conscientiousness factor was not applicable to their sample of insurance industry agents (N = 259). They ran a confirmatory factor analysis and found a four-factor model with altruism (α = .79), civic virtue (α = .70), courtesy (α = .75) and sportsmanship (α = .84) as the factors. The TLI goodness of fit was .92 and intercorrelations between the factors ranged from .15 to .73 (p-level not given).

Three studies were reported by MacKenzie et al. (1993). They ran a confirmatory factor analysis on their sample of insurance agents (N = 261) as a replication of their 1991 study and found, that a 3-factor model of altruism (α = .74), sportsmanship (α = .85) and civic virtue (α = .70) fit the data. They left out both the conscientiousness and courtesy items. The CFI was .92, TLI .90.

Podsakoff et al. (1997) found a 3-factor model that explained 86.7% of the variance in OCB using a sample of blue-collar workers in a paper mill (N = 218). The intercorrelations between the factors ranged from r = .46 to r = .69 ($p < .01$). Their first two factors were civic virtue (α = .96), and sportsmanship (α = .88), which were the same as Organ's (1988) factors. The third factor, which they called helping behaviour, was a combination of altruism, courtesy, cheerleading and peacekeeping. They combined these factors because they found that managers often have difficulty in distinguishing between them.

Organ and Lingl (1995) found a 3-factor model for this scale. Their first factor was a combination of compliance and civic virtue items. The second consisted of altruism items. The third consists of items indicating punctuality and attendance. No reliabilities or correlations were reported. Their sample was very small and consisted of employees from two companies that were not related in any way. Firstly the one was in the Midlands of Great Britain (N = 42) and the other

was in the Midwest of the United States (N = 57). This brings in all sorts of cultural problems with combining data for the two, which is what they did. The second problem is the small sample sizes, which has been indicated above. The companies were not owned by the same corporation, meaning that parity in conditions or pay was unlikely. The British company was non-union and the American company was unionised, making another difference between the two. In addition to all these differences the British group was predominantly male (83%) while the American group was predominantly female (74%). They do admit that the results should be considered with caution, but it seems unlikely that the groups should have been combined in the first place. They did not report running t-tests or the like to find if the groups were similar enough to be analysed together.

Thus it can be seen, that the results of factor analyses for the Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) instrument are on the whole much more consistent than those for the Smith et al. (1983) Scale. Most studies have results that approximate the original five-factor model of the construct. This could be as a result of the fact that the Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) conceptualisation was developed in a more theoretically grounded manner than that of Smith et al..

Likert-type questions used in the five-factor (1990) model.

Most of the studies made use of the instrument without making any changes to it (Appendix C). Once again as in the two-factor (1983) model, the instrument consists of a list of statements which are answered using Likert-type scales. The question applied to these statements seems to be more standardised for this scale. Most authors used the standard Likert-type attitudinal response of strongly disagree/strongly agree (Allen & Rush, 1998; Deluga, 1994, 1995; MacKenzie et al., 1991, 1993; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 1997; Tansky, 1993). Netemeyer et al. (1997) are the only ones found to have asked a different question, that of never/as often as possible. This consistency bodes well for the comparability of the studies using the instrument.

Summary of the five-factor (1990) model.

This section has evaluated the second model of OCB, consisting of five factors: altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, sportsmanship and courtesy. Relations have been found between

fairness and this model by several researchers and in addition the model has been fairly widely used as can be seen by the studies listed in this section. This conceptualisation is the only one to explore the relationship between effectiveness and performance on the one hand and organisational citizenship on the other. The instrument was also developed in a more rigorous theoretical manner than that of Smith et al. (1983).

The four-factor Moorman and Blakely (1995) Model

Moorman and Blakely (1995) used Graham's (1991) theoretical framework to develop a four-factor model of OCB consisting of interpersonal helping, personal industry, individual initiative and loyalty. Definitions of these dimensions can be seen in Table 6.

Table 6
Definitions of Moorman and Blakely's OCB Dimensions.

Interpersonal helping:	Helping co-workers on the job
Personal industry:	performance of specific tasks above and beyond duty
Individual initiative:	communications with others in work place to improve individual and team performance
Loyalty:	Promotion of the organisational image to outsiders

A measuring instrument (Appendix D) consisting of 49 preliminary items (unpublished study, 1992) was created using Q-sort analysis (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). It also used some items from Organ's (1988) dimensions. The items were pretested on graduate and undergraduate business classes (N = 111). Confirmatory factor analysis reduced the items to 20, which were later reduced to 19 items for this study which used a sample of financial service organisation employees (N = 185). No details of the factor analysis are given. The following reliabilities were obtained for the scale: interpersonal helping (α = .74), individual initiative (α = .76), personal industry (α = .61) and loyalty (α = .86). OCB was measured by employees themselves.

Tompson and Werner (1997) expressed dissatisfaction with reliabilities they obtained for the scale: interpersonal helping (α = .67), individual initiative (α = .77), personal industry (α = .75), loyalty (α = .76). The OCB was self-report. Correlations between the variables ranged from .1 to .44, which is the lowest reported of any OCB research, indicating good discriminant validity.

Besides the two studies mentioned, no others have made use of this scale. Unfortunately therefore, there is little evidence to support the scale.

Relations between fairness and the four-factor (1995) model.

There have been no studies using this conceptualisation that explored the link between organisational citizenship behaviour and fairness.

Factors within the four-factor (1995) model.

Both studies confirmed the four-factor structure corresponding with the initially developed factors of interpersonal helping, individual initiative, personal industry and loyalty. Unfortunately neither gives any details of the factor analyses performed.

A strength of the Moorman and Blakely scale is that correlations between the OCB dimensions (.38 to .49 $p < 0.01$) are lower than reported by Podsakoff's scale and Moorman (1991) using Podsakoff's scale (.22 to .62 $p < 0.01$). According to the authors, this suggests that this scale is better at separating the OCB dimensions.

Likert-type questions used in the four-factor (1995) model.

Moorman and Blakely did not report what question they used in their research, but Tompson and Werner (1997) used the usual Likert-type scale question of strongly agree/strongly disagree. This matter is not that relevant within this model because of the fact that there are so few studies. It only becomes important when one wants to make comparisons between studies, which in this case is not really possible.

Summary of the four-factor (1995) model.

This section has evaluated the third model of OCB. The instrument developed consists of four factors: interpersonal helping, individual initiative, personal industry and loyalty. Only two studies have made use of this model and no relations have been found between fairness and this conceptualisation.

The three-factor Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994) Model

Graham (1991) proposed an understanding of organisational citizenship that uses the concept of civic citizenship as a basis. This is based on the notion of classical republican citizenship which was discussed at the beginning of the chapter and in within which both rights and responsibilities are important. This is a development from her previous theoretical stance, which was used as a basis of the Moorman and Blakely (1995) conceptualisation.

Graham (1991) identified two opposing ways of looking at citizenship behaviour. The first is that detailed within the first two conceptualisations in this chapter (Smith et al., 1983; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter, 1990) in which researchers attempted to identify behaviours that are not part of the in-role job performance. The second is an approach that uses a classical philosophy and modern political theory notion of civic citizenship as a basis and views all positive community-relevant behaviours of individuals as citizenship behaviours. This was described at the beginning of the chapter. Van Dyne et al. (1994) argued that the advantages of this approach are that it 'provides a theory-grounded definition of OCB, a more comprehensive set of substantive citizenship behaviours than has existed, and a theoretical foundation for future research on organizational citizenship' (p. 766).

Within organisations, therefore, all positive organisationally relevant behaviours of individuals are viewed as citizenship behaviours, making this conceptualisation similar to task and contextual performance combined (Borman & Modowidlo, 1997). Citizenship is thus equated with membership. As with political citizenship, organisational members are thought of as having both rights and responsibilities. OCB can thus be seen as a responsibility that is carried out if an organisation member's rights are upheld. Rights, in this way, can be equated with perceived fairness. If organisation members think their rights are being upheld (that they are being treated fairly) they will feel obliged (responsible) to enact OCB. This could indicate a broader relationship between organisational rights and individual responsibilities within organisations.

Table 7
The three categories of OCB described by Graham (1991).

Organisational Obedience	An orientation toward organizational structure, job descriptions, and personnel policies that recognizes and accepts the necessity and desirability of a rational structure of rules and regulations. Obedience may be demonstrated by respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance and task completion, and stewardship of organizational resources.
Organizational Loyalty	Identification with and allegiance to organizational leaders and the organization as a whole, transcending the parochial interests of individuals, work groups, and departments. Representative behaviours include defending the organization against threats; contributing to its good reputation; and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole.
Organizational Participation	Interest in organizational affairs guided by ideal standards of virtue, validated by keeping informed, and expressed through full and responsible involvement in organizational governance. This includes attending nonrequired meetings, sharing informed opinions and new ideas with others, and being willing to deliver bad news or support an unpopular view to combat groupthink.

Participation has been divided into three categories: social participation, advocacy participation and functional participation. Social participation includes all noncontroversial interactions with individuals. Advocacy participation consists of making suggestions for change, challenging others, maintaining high standards, and being willing to be controversial. Functional participation includes volunteering for special assignments, self-development, as well as other behaviours that focus on the individual rather than others, but that do contribute to organisational effectiveness.

The measuring instrument (Appendix E) attached to this conceptualisation was developed in the following way. Obedience items were adapted and expanded from Smith Scale. Loyalty and participation items were created using focus groups within diverse job levels at 3 of the sites sampled. The psychometric properties of the scale were obtained from the self-report responses of employees in a variety of different companies (N = 538). Internal consistency reliabilities were: overall (α = .95), obedience (α = .88), loyalty (α = .84), social participation (α = .68), advocacy participation (α = .86), functional participation (α = .75). Reliability was calculated using the supervisory ratings of employees' OCB (N = 154). Similar results were obtained for the cross-validation data. Test-retest reliability was calculated using the responses of the supervisors of employees (N = 233) four weeks after the first data was collected and the results were equally as good.

Construct validity was assessed using three different methods, and the authors noted that while none of these can prove the construct validity of an instrument (Schwab, 1980), the results provide 'strong preliminary support for the construct validity of this measure' (p. 785). They first assessed the convergent validity in the cross-validation data by comparing supervisor responses to the scale with supervisor responses to three general items that had been designed to assess the overall OCB of employees. The convergent validity found with the Pearson product-moment correlation was $r = .69$ ($p < .001$).

The researchers completed a confirmatory factor analysis of the scale on the cross-validation data with factor loadings based on the theory they had developed. This also resulted in support for the construct validity of the scale. Lastly they tested the relationships that they had proposed within the nomological net to see if the hypotheses, which were based on the theoretical framework, were valid. This approach means that the empirical expansion of the construct takes place within a theoretical framework. The lack of this has been noted as a problem by Schnake (1991).

Oblique rotation was used for the factor analyses because the theory suggested that citizenship is represented by high levels of all three categories of OCB. This led them to the conclusion that obedience, loyalty and participation needed to be positively correlated rather than orthogonally related. After preliminary testing, the scale was reduced from 54 to 34 items. Confirmatory factor analysis resulted in a five-factor model, which explained 36.1% of the variance in OCB. The correlations between the different dimensions (.33 to .67 $p < .001$) were fairly high, indicating that the dimensions are highly related.

Tompson and Werner (1997) criticised this measuring instrument because it does not include a dimension for interpersonal helping. They argued that this dimension is significant because of the increasing importance of teamwork in organisations.

Van Dyne et al. (1994) saw a major strength of their study as being the fact that it contains an expanded, more extensive understanding of OCB. They were particularly critical of the non-controversial nature of most other research, with focus on altruism and conscientiousness. They argued that even Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter's (1990) expanded scale, focusing on all Organ's five dimensions is flawed, as there was no theoretical motivation for the inclusion of

these particular dimensions. They argued that their scale looks at challenging and change-oriented behaviours as opposed to the usual helpful behaviours. One of the advantages of this scale is that it avoids the in-role extra-role problems that most other research has encountered.

This researcher located no other studies that have used this scale. Even though it was developed in a theoretically rigorous manner, the fact that no other studies have used it means that it is impossible to find out how it fares in a variety of different contexts, and this makes it more of a risk to use.

Relations between fairness and the three-factor (1994) model.

Van Dyne et al. (1994) predicted that the relationship between OCB and several antecedents, namely positive job attitudes, cynicism, workplace values, motivating job characteristics, tenure and job level would be mediated by covenant. They defined covenant as a more extreme form of relational contract than that of social exchange.

What was found in the study was that with the exception of obedience, covenant meditated the relationship between OCB and these antecedents. Obedience was largely unrelated to the antecedents in the model, while the dimension of loyalty had the strongest pattern of mediation by covenant. This indicates that trust and fairness, which can be found in covenantal relationships, are important within the sphere of citizenship behaviour, that they play a role in the build-up to citizenship behaviour, and that they could mediate the relationship between other antecedents and OCB.

Factors within the three-factor (1994) model.

The factor structure around which the measuring instrument was built, and which was extensively tested by the researchers has been described previously in this section. Since no other research has used this measuring instrument, it is not possible to explore whether other researchers have found the same factor structure as the original researchers.

Likert-type questions used in the three-factor (1994) model.

Van Dyne et al. (1994) did not give an indication of the Likert-type question that they applied to their measuring instrument. Furthermore there is no real need for any detail under this section because there are no studies among which to compare questions.

Summary of the three-factor (1994) model.

This completes the appraisal of the fourth model of OCB, which consists of three dimensions: obedience, loyalty and participation. It has undergone a theoretically rigorous development. Several problems with the conceptualisation must, however, be noted. The first relates to its name. Since this construct is so different from other conceptualisations of OCB, it would possibly have been better for the researchers to use a different term than OCB.

Inkeles notion of citizenship, on which Van Dyne et al. (1994) based their scale, is that of classical republican citizenship. Classical citizenship is more likely to work in small warring states (Kriegler, 1993). There is also an assumption that political citizenship can be equated with organisational membership.

The lack of research using the instrument since its development is a problem that has already been mentioned in this section.

Miscellaneous Conceptions of OCB

OCB studies using a mixture of the four conceptualisations.

There are several studies that used a mixture of the models that have been described thus far. Those that are pertinent to this research will be discussed here.

The study of Williams and Anderson (1991) provided evidence that in-role behaviour (α = .91), OCB directed at the organisation (OCBO) (α = .75) and OCB directed at specific people (OCBI) (α = .88) are comparatively discrete types of performance. Bolon (1997) used a combination between the Smith et al. (1983) scale and some items by Graham (1991) in order to test for these different types of OCB. He found that only OCBI was a distinct dimension of citizenship behaviour, and argued that more work needs to be done on OCBO.

Morrison (1994) found that the more broadly employees define their job responsibilities, the more they will display behaviour commonly assumed to be OCB (N = 317). This indicates that employees see OCB as in-role behaviour, that is, evaluated. Thirty items were taken from the Smith et al. (1983) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter's (1990) scales and ten were developed specifically for the context of the study. Subordinates completed questionnaires in meetings after which supervisors were asked to indicate both whether each job activity was in-role or extra-role and how characteristic each of 40 behaviours was for each subordinate on a 5-point scale.

Konovsky and Pugh (1994) found that procedural fairness was more important than distributive justice was for determining OCB levels. They tested a social exchange model of OCB using a 32- item scale based on that of Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter's (1990). They found that trust mediates the relationship, which suggests that citizenship behaviours occur in a context in which social exchange characterises the quality of superior-subordinate relationships.

Becker and Vance (1993) used a modified version of the Smith et al. (1983) scale in order to test the construct validity of the scale with self-report, peer- and supervisor ratings. They found that employees, their supervisors and peers have notably different viewpoints of organisational citizenship behaviour. They also called for the inclusion of site-specific measure of OCB, echoing Organ's (1988) highlighting of this issue. They found three types of OCB within the scale using factor analysis, which they called local altruism, distant altruism and conscientiousness, but no details of the analysis were reported (α = .71 to .92 for each factor tested separately). Local altruism is the same as the altruism factor of Smith et al. (1983) while distant altruism may be defined as altruism that benefits either a customer or someone from a different department. The significant relationships between the peer, supervisor and self-report ratings, provided evidence for convergent and discriminant validity. A very real limitation of their study is that respondents were allowed to choose which co-workers they rated. This could have resulted in selection biases by the respondents.

Bies, Martin and Brockner (1993) found that procedural fairness alone had a significant effect on citizenship behaviour. They used a three-item scale ($\alpha = .69$) to test the relationship between citizenship behaviour and fairness of employees who had been retrenched (N = 147).

A study of scenario-based OCB.

As has been discussed previously, Eastman (1994) argued that managers might have biases that cause them to view extra-role behaviours on the one hand as ingratiating or on the other, as OCB. 'A simple set of extrarole behaviors can elicit very different responses from supervisors. Employees labeled good citizens received greater rewards than those labeled ingratiators and other employees not exhibiting extrarole behaviors' (p. 1389). This study marks the only time that written vignettes have been used in OCB research. Eight scenarios were written which were either high or low in consistency, distinctiveness and consensus. These were taken from Kelley's covariation model (Chell, 1993). *Consistency* is concerned with whether the employee has behaved his way before; *distinctiveness* is concerned with whether the behaviour is applied generally or only to a few people; *consensus* is concerned with whether only this employee acts in this way or whether the behaviour is enacted by others too. Each participant was given the scenarios in the form of behavioural logs of 5 hypothetical subordinates. They were told that they had made the logs during the previous year and that now they had to render performance evaluations on the subordinates.

It was found that when consensus was low, in other words, when no other people beside the person being evaluated performed the extra-role behaviours, the behaviour was more likely to be viewed as ingratiating (Eastman, 1994). This researcher also found that attribution moderates supervisors decisions regarding outcomes, in other words, that if the behaviour was categorised as OCB, then higher rewards were awarded than if the behaviour was categorised as ingratiating. Eastman used t-tests to show that employees would receive both a higher evaluation ($t = -3.77$, $p < .001$) and higher pay increases ($t = -5.44$, $p < .001$) when labelled a good citizen.

A laboratory experiment using OCB.

Hui, Organ and Crooker (1994), in one of the few studies that has tested actual OCB as opposed to perceptions of OCB, found that those under time pressure were slightly less likely to engage in OCB. Participants completed questionnaires with regard to Type A personality and time

pressure. Upon leaving the venue they were approached by a confederate who pretended to be doing a survey on the quality and service of the School of Business to its students (the participants were all students in the school). The survey consisted of 20 items with Likert-type responses. In addition, each item had the space for comments, observations and suggestions. The students were asked to participate in the survey and their OCB was rated according to their response. Three separate ratings were carried out. Firstly they were rated on whether they would help or not. Secondly they were rated on the help they offered beyond the structured scale. And lastly they were rated on the number and quality of extra comments.

In their attempt to replicate this study, Organ and Hui (1995) returned to the perception of OCB measured, by asking participants to get a peer to rate their OCB. They also found that time pressure caused participants to perform moderately less OCB.

This research, while not really containing results that are significant to the present research, is important because it is indicative of a different type of OCB measure, one that looks at the enactment of the construct rather than the perception of it as measured by attitude scales.

Justification of the Choice of OCB Instrument

This chapter has been devoted to a discussion the four models of OCB together with the other miscellaneous ways in which OCB has been conceptualised in the research literature. This section examines the reasons underlying the choice of OCB instrument for the present research.

The first important determinant in the choice of OCB instrument was whether it had been developed in a theoretically rigorous manner. This determinant resulted in the elimination of the Smith et al. (1983) model, which as has been discussed was not constructed in a theoretically precise manner.

The second important determinant was to use an instrument that had been used quite extensively in the past. The reason was in order that any results could be compared to the results of previous studies using the instrument. This excluded the Moorman and Blakely (1995) and Van Dyne et al. (1994) conceptualisations. It also excluded the miscellaneous conceptualisations. The

scenario-based and laboratory experiment studies were eliminated because they too had not been used extensively and the proposed research was to be survey-based.

The instrument that was chosen for the research was thus that of Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990). In addition to being constructed in a more theoretically rigorous way than Smith et al. (1983), it also resulted in a far more consistent factor structure in different empirical studies. Moreover, because the Likert-type question used was similar for most of the studies, it was felt that the results were more comparable and that there was a larger base of previous research on which to draw for purposes of the discussion of results. Lastly, it was thought that the relationship between OCB and performance was particularly important. This conceptualisation included several studies attempting to measure this relationship. This was a further reason that it was chosen as the OCB instrument for the present research.

Research Questions

Having examined all the major constructs that form part of the research, it remains only to state explicitly what the research questions are. There are three main questions:

- Are there relationships between OCB and fairness?
- Which fairness constructs are most important for the performance of OCB?
- Are there any variables, fairness or other, that moderate these relationships?

There are other questions that will be dealt with, such as factor analyses of the constructs, multicollinearity and levels of analysis issues. The questions detailed above, however, are the core questions of the research.

Conclusion

This chapter has situated organisational citizenship behaviour within a nomological net of constructs that includes spontaneous organisational behaviour, prosocial organisational behaviour and contextual performance. Four major conceptualisations of OCB as well as other miscellaneous conceptualisations have been examined and the choice of instrument for the present research has

been justified in terms of the evaluation of the literature. Finally the major research questions of the study were outlined.

Thus far we have explored the nature of fairness and looked in detail at the fairness constructs included in this research. We have also situated OCB within a context and looked at the various ways in which OCB has been conceptualised by different researchers. In addition we have looked in detail at the OCB conceptualisation included in this research. We now move on to look at the methodology used in the present research.

Chapter 4: Methodology

The study made use of a two-phase research design strategy. In the first phase focus groups were conducted. Based on the results of the focus groups and previous work within the area, surveys were constructed and distributed within the target organisation. The results were analysed making use of factor analysis, multiple analysis of variance, multiple regression, and within and between analysis.

This chapter begins by examining both the environmental and organisational contextual issues of the sample surveyed. This is followed by an investigation of the sample and the procedure followed. Finally the measuring instruments used in the research are detailed.

Contextual Issues

Organisational Context

The research was conducted using blue-collar workers and their supervisors in the Western Cape region of a national retail organisation. The organisation has 106 branches in this category nationwide, 27 of which are in the Western Cape. The stores are unionised and the representative union is SACCAWU (The South African Commercial, Catering and Allied Workers Union) which is affiliated to COSATU (Congress of South African Trade Unions). COSATU is the largest union in the country and has a tripartite alliance with the ruling ANC (African National Congress) and the SACP (South African Communist Party).

One of the reasons the study is notable is because the performance of these employees is not assessed formally using appraisals. Most of the previous research in this area has been done in the United States of America on white-collar workers who are assessed using performance appraisals (Allen & Rush, 1998; Deluga, 1994, 1995; Kidwell et al., 1997; MacKenzie et al., 1991, 1993; Moorman, 1991, 1993; Moorman et al., 1993; Netemeyer et al., 1997; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Tansky, 1993). In the organisation sampled in the present research, wage increases are negotiated every year by the union. It will therefore be interesting to see whether a relationship similar to those found in the United States of Amercia between fairness and OCB will be found in South Africa. The employees sampled are not evaluated

by their supervisors and do not have to impress their supervisors in order to obtain salary increases or other benefits. These are union-negotiated.

It is possible that the staff sampled have unique stresses to contend with that would not be present in other retail organisations. As far as the interface with the customers is concerned, the branch where most of the research was carried out probably has the highest sales turnover of branches in this organisation in the Western Cape. It is situated in an affluent area of Cape Town. One of the staff at the shop in an informal interview said that the customers at this branch do not look at price, they look for quality and availability of luxury goods. As a result of these demands it is possible therefore that there are unique stresses present within this branch.

Environmental Context

This section will raise contextual issues with regard to the sample used in the present research which might be pertinent to the results of the present study. These will revolve specifically around the Coloured population from which this sample was taken. Coloureds make up 54% of the population of the Western Cape, with Blacks and Whites each making up 21% (Statistics South Africa, 1996) of the population. The issues will be examined are forced removals; the use of the Coloured population as a buffer during Apartheid; education levels in the Coloured community and in the province in general; as well as gangsterism, alcohol and drugs.

Many Coloureds were forcibly removed in line with the urban areas section of the Group Areas Act (1950) (Platzky & Walker, 1985). By 1985 more than 860 000 people in urban areas had been relocated under this act. In Cape Town during the 1960's and 1970's many people were relocated, mainly from the city to the Cape Flats. Most of the employees sampled live on the Cape Flats. It is likely that many come from families which underwent this trauma. Long-term damage to the human psyche as a result of forced removals must not be underestimated (McCarthy, 1990).

Secondly, Coloureds were used as a buffer between Whites and Blacks during apartheid. The Western Cape was officially an area where Coloureds were given preference over Africans in terms of both jobs and housing (Platzky & Walker, 1985). In addition, Coloured and Indian areas under

the Group Areas Act (1950) often served as physical buffers between Black and White areas (McCarthy, 1990).

Thirdly, Education in Coloured and Black communities has not been given the same stress as education in the White communities. Historically Coloured education was not marginalised to the extent that Black education was in terms of the amount spent per pupil (see Table 8), but certainly the most money was reserved for White education. Evidence of the Coloured community being put in place as a buffer between Black and White communities can be seen further in these statistics in which the amount spent per capita on Coloured pupils grew immensely between 1930 and 1960. In 1930 it was 18% of that of White per capita education spending, while in 1960 it was 66% of White per capita spending.

Table 8

Historical Per Capita Education Figures in South Africa.

	Whites	Coloureds	Blacks
1930	£22	£4 – 18% of Whites	£2 – 9% of Whites
1945	£38	£10 – 26% of Whites	£3 – 8% of Whites
1960	R114	R75 – 66% of Whites	R13 – 11% of Whites

(Tunmer, 1970)

At present the Western Cape is the province in South Africa with the highest number of people older than twenty with higher education qualifications (10,6%). In this province, 6,7% have no schooling, about 15% have some primary education, 39% have some secondary education and 19% have a matric (Statistics South Africa, 1996). For a comparison between this profile and that of the staff sampled in this organisation, see Table 10.

The Cape Flats has longstanding problems with gangsterism, alcohol and drugs and is known to have the highest murder rate in the world, this standing in 1999, according to the South African Institute of Race Relations at 81.2 cases of murder per 100 000 people. Of these, 60% to 70% of these are alcohol related, while 17% are gang related. (Bamford, 2000). Gangsterism has been a problem on the Cape Flats for the past 30 years and police attempts to curb this problem to date have been ineffectual (Van Zilla, 2000). The provincial community safety minister said this year that crime problems in the province were largely due to sub-economic living conditions, shebeens and alcohol (Bamford, 2000). An independent consultant to the Cape Unicity Commission said that alcohol abuse along with easy access to guns and exposure to violence at a young age both at home

and at school had led to the high crime rates in the province (Hood, 2000). According to one of the managers interviewed in the target organisation, debt and the use of microlenders are also big problems for staff in the stores.

Schwartz (1998) looked at the way in which apartheid has affected mental health in South Africa. He wrote about emotional development and the 'role for mental health professions ... in exploring the nature of oppression and responses and resistances to [apartheid]. These responses are not always, or even primarily, in the area of symptoms, but rather in the way people feel about themselves as they grow up – what they feel they can aspire to, what they deserve in life' (p. 180).

The issues that have been raised here are the contextual issues that could affect the lives and therefore the working lives of the staff sampled in this organisation.

Sample

Most of the research took place at a branch consisting of 400 employees. The subordinate respondents (N = 92) rendered a response rate of 23%. These were supplemented by surveys collected at two other stores as can be seen in Table 9. These were combined for the purposes of some of the analyses because the staff surveyed were equivalent in job type and worked for the same organisation. The supervisor respondents (N = 62) who were surveyed only in connection with the subordinates who responded, rendered a response rate of 67%. The subordinate respondents were volunteers. The supervisors may have felt under pressure to return the surveys since their identities were known by the researcher.

Table 9
Means and Standard Deviations of OCB Questionnaire from 3 Branches of the Organisation

	Valid N	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Std.Dev.
Store 1	74	3.952027	1.550000	5.000000	.507508
Store 2	27	3.890741	3.000000	4.800000	.455318
Store 3	10	3.975000	3.600000	4.300000	.291786

The mean age of the respondents was 29.1 years and 67.4% of them were women while 32.6% were men. They had been employed by the organisation an average of 5 years and had been with their current supervisors an average of 2.4 years. About 7% of the sample was English-speaking, 55% was bilingual (English and Afrikaans), 33% was Afrikaans, 4% was Xhosa and 1 person was French-speaking. The survey was completed in English which might therefore have been a problem

for some. A quarter (25%) of the sample had graduated from high school while 23 % had completed a tertiary qualification. More than half of the sample (52%) had completed 10 or fewer years of schooling. As can be seen by the accompanying table (Table 10), the staff members working in this branch of the organisation are significantly better educated than the average person in the province.

Table 10
Comparison between the Provincial and Organisational Educational Data.

Type of Schooling	Provincial Data	Organisational Data
10 or fewer years of schooling	61%	52%
Completed high school	19%	25%
Completed a tertiary qualification	11%	23%

Staff at the stores can be divided into permanent and casual workers, and their benefits differ greatly on the basis of this division. Casual staff members are paid only their hourly wages. Permanent staff members have access to medical aid and maternity benefits, annual leave, and contribute to the pension fund.

Procedure

The research followed a two-phase process. In the first phase, three focus groups were held. In the second phase, surveys were distributed to subordinates and supervisors in the target population. Both phases will be discussed in detail in this section.

Access to the branches was negotiated via the regional manager of human resources in the Western Cape and each branch manager. To facilitate the research process because of the unionised workforce, shop stewards at each store were also consulted.

Phase 1: Focus Groups

Because of the necessity of validating both the constructs and instruments for a South African population, there were several ways in which focus groups were beneficial to this study. They were used, both in order to validate whether the items in the instruments measuring the constructs cover the content of the domains sufficiently and in order to check whether the questions had the same connotations to the participants as they have for the researcher. Focus groups were also useful in constructing and verifying the wording of items (Morgan, 1997).

While there is evidence that the constructs used in this study are valid, very little of the research in this area has been conducted outside the USA as was noted in the Introduction. The questionnaires that have been developed and validated within an American context must be validated for the South African context. It would be unwise to use them as they are since there are cultural and language differences between the two countries.

Moreover because of the fact that very little research has been done in these areas within South Africa, the study could not rely on the notion of routine measurement or the fact that a 'substantial body of experience [or] an elaborated and well-articulated structure of theory and data exists that supports the measurement status of the observations' (Cliff, 1993). An uncritical replication of the American questionnaires would be more likely to lead to results that have little relevance for South Africa and in this context, little relevance for the development of the theory.

The present researcher followed Fuller, Edwards, Vorakitphokatorn, and Sermsri's (1993) suggestion and made use of small focus groups of no more than 8 participants. All participants in the focus groups were volunteers who signed an informed consent form that was part of the focus group invitation (for a facsimile of the invitation, see Appendix F). Demographic details were collected during the focus groups and a second informed consent was obtained, to make sure that all participants were willing to take part in the research (for a facsimile of the demographic details form, see Appendix G).

The venue for the focus groups was a conference room on the premises of the store. Participants were given time off work by the organisation in order to take part in a focus group. The researcher felt that this was important particularly because of the nature of what was being studied, i.e. organisational citizenship behaviour. If the focus groups had taken place outside working hours, it could easily have been the case that only those people who would be more likely to engage in citizenship behaviour would attend, thus resulting in a more biased sample.

Members of each group had limited age ranges to alleviate possible cultural deference that younger members of the cultures from which the groups were drawn might have toward older people. Toseland and Rivas (1998) recommended that participants have enough attributes in common in order that they feel at ease interacting with each other. For similar reasons, groups

containing a single gender are also recommended. Accordingly the three focus groups that were run contained either only men or only women, and the age range was never greater than 15 years. While it has been recommended that the members of the group be strangers to one another (Fuller et al., 1993; Morgan, 1988) this was not possible in this study because group members all work for the same branch of the organisation.

Kinnear and Taylor (1991) argued that focus groups have certain advantages over interviewing people alone, these being synergism between interacting group members, snowballing, with group members stimulating each other to contribute to the discussion and security from feeling as though they are part of a group. It is also far quicker from a research and organisational point of view to interview several people together. It was felt that particularly since the participants were blue-collar workers who differed in race and educational level from the researcher, they might feel more comfortable being interviewed in groups rather than alone.

The focus groups were used specifically for the improvement of the questionnaire (O'Brien, 1993; Toseland & Rivas, 1998), particularly clarification and enrichment of the questions and data. The groups were structured to contribute to the research design in the ways suggested by O'Brien, namely to look at the questionnaire and see whether the content was understandable and unambiguous and secondly to clarify what the understanding of citizenship behaviour was to the population being sampled. It should be pointed out that this is a very specific use of a focus group. In order to address the content issue, the questionnaire was worked through item by item, with attention given to ambiguities in wording, redundant questions, questions that could have two meanings and questions that were not meaningful because of the nature of the work at the store. The clarification of the constructs for the population being sampled focused particularly on citizenship behaviour. Unfortunately time constraints put in place by the target organisation meant that the fairness constructs could not be assessed in the same manner. However citizenship is the main construct of the study and the one that researchers seem to have a lot of difficulties with (Schnake, 1991; Organ, 1995). The word 'citizenship' was not used within the instructions for the focus groups because of the fact that it has political connotations that might have skewed the opinions offered within the group. Instead, 'going the extra mile' was used to describe the behaviour.

Fuller et al. (1993) also recommended one pre-test of the survey instrument before collection of the actual data. Accordingly, the instrument was tested on two employees in the organisation who had not been participants in the focus groups. In addition two independent evaluators checked the questionnaire for errors.

Phase 2: Surveys

Two separate questionnaires were used during the survey phase of the research process. The first was distributed to subordinates, while the second was distributed to supervisors of those subordinates that returned their surveys.

Surveys in sealed envelopes with participants' names on them were distributed to subordinates in the staff canteens by the researcher (for a facsimile of the survey distributed to subordinates, please see Appendices H & I). Assurances of confidentiality were made and kept. The scales used in the subordinate survey were the OCB scale, the LMX scale, the POS scale, the trust scale, the two procedural fairness scales, the distributive justice scale, the affective commitment scale and the job satisfaction scale.

Each subordinate respondent had at least one direct supervisor. In the case of those who had more than one, they were asked to identify the supervisor they would be thinking of when completing the questionnaire. Their responses were then matched with the responses from their particular supervisor. Wayne et al. (1997) recommended that the supervisor should be someone who provides support, feedback, resources and opportunities to their subordinate and that interaction between the two take place on a regular basis. The relationship between supervisor and subordinate fulfilled all these requirements. Usually the supervisor should be someone who evaluates the subordinate's job performance, but this organisation does not make use of official performance evaluations.

Once the subordinates had all completed their surveys, supervisors of the subordinates who had responded to the survey were asked to complete surveys for each subordinate respondent (see Appendix J for the supervisor survey). The scales included in the supervisor survey were the OCB

scale, the LMX scale, both of which were used in the subordinate survey, and an in-role behaviour scale that was only used for the supervisor survey.

Focus groups indicated that the employees would be unwilling to put their names on the questionnaires. This presented a difficulty in the matching of supervisor with subordinate, which was integral to this research. Because of the necessity of matching supervisors' and subordinates' responses, each employee was given a survey with a code printed on it (see Appendix H) in order that the researcher could match them correctly with their supervisor without them having to put their names on the survey. The subordinates were not told that their supervisors would be surveyed concerning their behaviour, and likewise supervisors were not told that subordinates had been surveyed. In addition, the identity of the subordinate respondents was kept hidden from supervisors by also asking the supervisors to complete surveys for several subordinates who had not participated in the survey. These were mixed in with the surveys of those who had participated.

Measures

In the previous section on the phases of the research process details of which measures were included in the subordinates' and supervisors' surveys were given. This section gives details of the measuring instruments used in the research. For all the measures used, the questions were answered using five-point Likert scales. Except where otherwise stated, answers ranged from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. A justification for the inclusion of each of the fairness measures in the present research was given in Chapter 2, while a justification for the choice of OCB measure was given in chapter 3. The Cronbach alpha reliabilities of the present study are reported in the next chapter with all the other results. The questions used contained within all these measures are detailed in Appendix I.

Leader-member Exchange

The LMX 7 (see Appendix I), originally developed in 1982 and consisting of 7 items was used for the study (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Gerstner & Day, 1997). LMX measures were taken both from the point of view of the supervisor and subordinate (Gerstner & Day; Scandura & Schriessheim, 1994). Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for member LMX has been shown as $\alpha = .89$,

and for leader LMX as $\alpha = .76$ (Gerstner & Day). This was the only scale where the responses were not strongly disagree to strongly agree. They varied from item to item.

Perceived Organisational Support

This was measured from the point of the subordinate using a shortened form of the 36-item Survey of Perceived Organisational Support (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Thirteen items with the largest factor loadings on Eisenberger's original 36-item scale were selected (see Appendix I). The reliability and validity of this instrument have been demonstrated in several studies (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Hutchison, 1997, Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Shore & Wayne, 1993). A Cronbach's alpha of .97 has been obtained for this scale (Eisenberger et al.).

Procedural Fairness

Both structural procedural justice (SPJ) and interpersonal procedural justice (IPJ) were assessed using scales developed by Moorman (1991). The SPJ scale contains 7 items, and the IPJ scale, 6 items (see Appendix I). Cronbach alpha's for the two scales were .94 for SPJ and .93 for IPJ.

Distributive Justice

The Distributive Justice Index (Price & Mueller, 1986) was used to measure this construct (see Appendix I). Cronbach alpha reliabilities obtained in three studies reported by these researchers exceed .94 on all three occasions.

Trust.

This was measured using a 3-item scale (see Appendix I) collated from two studies (Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler & Martin, 1997). The coefficient alphas for the two studies were .75 and .82.

In-role Behaviour

This was measured using a 7-item scale (see Appendix J) developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). One of the items was left out of the present study because it was not applicable to the target organisation. Williams and Anderson obtained a Cronbach alpha reliability estimate of

α = .91 for this scale. This scale was chosen because it has previously been used within OCB research.

Organisational Commitment

A widely used commitment scale (see Appendix I), the six-item measure of affective commitment (Meyer, Allan & Smith, 1993) was used in the study. alphas

Job Satisfaction

A single-item measure (Wanous & Reichers, 1996) was used to give an indication of job satisfaction (see Appendix I). The correlations between the single-item measure and sum of job facet satisfaction were r = .70 and r = .72 (no p-level given) for their two measurements. In a meta-analysis of research where single-item measures of job satisfaction were correlated with scales measuring job satisfaction, the average observed correlation was r = .63 ($p < .05$) (Wanous, Reichers & Hudy, 1997).

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

This was measured from the point of view of both subordinate and supervisor. Podsakoff et al. (1990) developed the OCB instrument used as a basis for this study (see Appendix C). As has already been mentioned, several alterations were made to the scale as a result of focus groups that were held to find out whether the items in the instrument covered the content of the domains sufficiently as well as if the OCB questions meant the same thing to the participants as they did to the researchers (see Appendix I).. Cronbach's alphas for the original instrument were α = .81 for altruism, α = .87 for courtesy, α = .87 for sportsmanship, α = .83 for conscientiousness, and α = .77 for civic virtue (Moorman, 1993).

Conclusion

This chapter has examined the methodology used in the present research. It has assessed environmental and organisational contextual issues, looked at the nature of the sample, the procedures and the measures used in the study. The next chapter examines the analyses used in the study as well as the results of these analyses.

Chapter 5: Results

This chapter presents the results of this empirical study on the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and fairness at work in a sample of blue-collar employees. The chapter is divided into several sections. The first section examines the descriptive statistics, means, and standard deviations. This is followed by a look at the reliability and validity of the different scales. The next section deals with factor analyses of all the instruments in the study. The issue of multicollinearity within the fairness instruments is examined next. Following this, the results of the specific questions examined as part of the study are reported. These questions deal with the nature of the relationship between fairness and OCB and whether fairness is a predictor of OCB. Multiple regression was used to test for the variance in OCB accounted for by perceived organisational support, trust, leader-member exchange, procedural fairness and distributive justice. Variables that mediate and moderate the relationship between the two are also examined. Finally the appropriate level of analysis of the research is investigated. Within and between analysis was used to assess the pertinent level of analysis of the study, in other words, whether individuals, dyads or work groups should be the level of focus. The data was analysed with the help of the Statistica 5.5 computer package (StaSoft, 1999).

Descriptive Statistics

Correlations, means, standard deviations and Cronbach alpha reliability estimates are reported in Table 11.

Table 11
Correlations and Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Job Satisfaction	4.19	.918	—													
2 POS	3.63	.835	.61**	.93												
3 Trust	3.71	.972	.58**	.71**	.85											
4 Commitment	3.71	1.033	.63**	.71**	.70**	.92										
5 Courtesy	4.28	.649	.32**	.37**	.35**	.27*	.85									
6 Sportsmanship	3.84	.772	.03	.36**	.09	.17	.31**	.71								
7 Civic Virtue	3.71	.809	.46**	.46**	.31**	.37**	.40**	.11	.68							
8 Altruism	3.86	1.066	.18	.23*	.15	.20	.26*	-.00	.16	—						
9 Consideration	4.09	.674	.43**	.44**	.39**	.33**	.62**	.38**	.45**	.16	.67					
10 Attendance	3.89	.857	.21*	.25*	.08	.18	.34**	.15	.25*	-.00	.33**	—				
11 LMX	3.86	.866	.48**	.54**	.54**	.56**	.64**	.14	.42**	.24*	.44**	.24*	.88			
12 IPJ	3.96	.633	.40**	.38**	.49**	.53**	.43**	.12	.36**	.24*	.40**	.17	.76**	.80		
13 SPJ	3.86	.707	.59**	.58**	.67**	.67**	.37**	.13	.40**	-.01	.47**	.06	.57**	.68**	.90	
14 DJ	3.48	1.059	.47**	.53**	.57**	.56**	.14	-.08	.19	.34**	.23*	-.06	.43**	.45**	.48**	.94

*p < .05; **p < .01
N = 92
Cronbach alpha reliability estimates are shown on the diagonal except for 1- and 2-item scales.

Reliability

Reliability was assessed using the Cronbach alpha measure of internal consistency. All of the reliabilities except for two OCB subscales, were higher than the minimum of .70 recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) as an indication of modest reliability. The reliabilities for OCB and the fairness variables are presented separately.

OCB scale.

The reliability for the complete 20-item OCB scale was $\alpha = .85$. When the OCB scale was broken down into its different factors, reliabilities for the factors were as follows: courtesy $\alpha = .85$, sportsmanship $\alpha = .71$, civic virtue $\alpha = .68$, consideration $\alpha = .67$. The reliabilities for the other two factors, i.e. altruism and attendance could not be measured because of insufficient numbers of items representing each factor. On the whole, therefore the reliability for the complete scale was higher than for individual OCB factors.

Fairness scales.

The reliabilities of the fairness scales were as follows: POS $\alpha = .93$, trust $\alpha = .85$, LMX $\alpha = .88$, IPJ $\alpha = .80$, SPJ $\alpha = .90$, DJ $\alpha = .94$. These reliabilities exceed that recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994).

Validity

The validity of the OCB scale will be assessed here since this scale was altered for use with the present sample. In addition, the fairness variables produced the same factor loadings for the present sample as they did in their initial studies. This gives an indication of their construct validity (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).The factor analysis of all the instruments will be discussed in the next section.

There are several different types of validity that could be assessed in this study. These include face validity, content validity and construct validity. However, none of these three types of validity can be assessed with the use of statistical tests (Dunbar, 1998).

The content validity of the OCB scale on which this instrument was based was assessed by faculty members and doctoral students when the scale was initially created. In the present study the

OCB instrument used was assessed successfully for face validity by members of focus groups drawn from the sample population.

One threat to the construct validity of the OCB scale is the lack of correlation between the supervisors' and subordinates' assessments of the subordinates' OCB (Becker & Vance, 1993). These differences can be seen in Table 15. There were significant differences between the two groups of ratings for all the OCB factors except civic virtue. The fact that there is so little agreement between the two groups could mean that this OCB instrument lacks construct validity. There are however other explanations for the lack of agreement such as rating bias on the part of both supervisors and subordinates (see Chapter 6).

An indication of the construct validity of the OCB instrument was given by the extremely strong 6-factor solution produced by factor analysis. This was verified by both orthogonal and oblique transformation and shows that the factors are fairly consistent.

Factor Analyses

Factor analyses were performed on both the OCB scale and the fairness scales. We look first at the factors in the OCB scale, and second at the factors in the fairness scales.

Factor Analysis of the OCB Scale

An exploratory principal components factor analysis, with varimax rotation as used by Smith, Organ & Near (1983) and Moorman & Blakely (1995), was performed on the items from the OCB questionnaire that were completed by subordinates (N = 101). Varimax rotation produces an orthogonal transformation of the factors in which no correlation between the factors is permissable. The three sets of data from three branches of the store were combined to raise the total number of usable OCB surveys from 74 to 101 (for means and standard deviations of the samples from the different stores, see Table 9). Oblique transformation of the OCB factors in the study, which allows for correlation between the factors, was also assessed because of the fact that the OCB factors in the study are correlated to a certain extent (see Table 14). This transformation produced almost the same factor structure as the orthogonal transformation of the factors, the difference being that the factor loadings were much lower.

A six-factor solution emerged, explaining 67.66% of the variance in OCB. The six factors were clearly defined, with items having a high loading (>.50) on their primary factor and a difference of at least .20 between this loading and the next highest loading as implemented by Smith et al. (1983) and Dalton and Cosier (1998). Only one item failed to fit this pattern. However, because its factor loading of .48 was close to the cut-off for factor 2, it was included within this factor for the purposes of the calculations. Another reason it was included was because of the fact that it formed part of the sportsmanship factor in the original scale used as a basis for this research (MacKenzie et al., 1991). The inclusion of factors was based on the Kaiser-Guttman rule of including those with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Loehlin, 1992).

The first four factors shown in Table 13 have the same names and are defined in exactly the same way as those postulated by Organ and operationalised by Podsakoff et al. (1990). The items loading on each factor, however, differ from Organ's conceptualisation. The first factor was defined by five items and reflected courtesy (for detailed definitions of the factors see Table 12); the second factor was defined by five items and reflected sportsmanship; the third factor was defined by three items and reflected civic virtue; the fourth factor was defined by only one item and reflected altruism.

The last two factors differ from Organ's (1998) conceptualisation of the factors of OCB. The fifth factor was defined by four items and reflected consideration. Consideration implies kindliness, concern, respect and thoughtfulness. This can be differentiated from conscientiousness, which implies a sense of principles, diligence and moral responsibility. The sixth factor was defined by two items and reflected attendance. Attendance at work and meetings seems to be regarded differently to attendance at functions, which was categorised under civic virtue. This could be explained by the fact that the staff members attend regular meetings with their supervisors, many of which are voluntary, but that they are encouraged to attend. These staff members would have viewed functions as charity events or the like, at which attendance is completely voluntary unlike the meetings with supervisors. To summarise then, the definitions of the six factors of OCB found in the factor analysis may be found in Table 12.

Table 12
Definitions of factors as found in factor analysis of the present research.

Courtesy	Preventing work-related problems with others – taking steps in advance, consulting with others before carrying out actions
Sportsmanship	Tolerance of less than ideal circumstances without complaining – stressing the positive things about the organisation instead of the negative
Civic virtue	Participation with involvement in and concern for the organisation – support for administrative functions of the organisation, responsible participation
Altruism	Behaviours that help a specific person under unusual circumstances such as helping another person catch up after sick leave
Consideration	Behaviours that show kindliness, concern, respect and thoughtfulness.
Attendance	Attendance at work and meetings

For the results of the principal components analysis, see Table 13. On the basis of these results, the items loading on each factor were averaged to create the six OCB subscales. Table 14 contains the correlations of the different OCB subscales.

Unfortunately there were not enough responses (N = 62) to perform a factor analysis on the 20-item scale as completed by supervisors (Dunbar, 1998).

Table 13
Results of Principal Components Analysis of OCB

Items	Factor Loadings[a] 1	2	3	4	5	6
Courtesy						
1. Obeys organisations rules and regulations even when no one is watching	**.62**	-.12	.12	.07	.31	.38
2. Takes steps to prevent problems with others before they happen	**.87**	.05	.16	.02	.13	-.02
3. Tries to avoid creating problems for co-workers	**.63**	.10	.08	.00	.43	.22
4. Communicates with others before doing anything that affects their work	**.79**	.21	.10	-.19	.02	.08
5. Cares about how their behaviour affects other people's jobs	**.66**	.21	.14	-.22	.24	.03
Sportmanship						
6. Always focuses on the negative things rather than the positive in work situation	-.08	**.48**	-.26	.37	.09	.03
7. Spends a lot of work time complaining about trivial matters	.13	**.80**	.00	.08	.06	-.14
8. Always finds fault with what the organisation is doing	.10	**.84**	.07	-.06	.10	.02
9. Tends to make big issues out of small issues	.11	**.63**	.25	.09	.15	.22
10. Expresses resentment with any new changes at work	.10	**.70**	-.00	-.17	.04	.17
Civic Virtue						
11. Attends functions that are not required, but help organisation's image	.07	-.12	**.56**	.00	.37	-.12
12. Keeps informed of changes in organisation	.13	.15	**.75**	-.23	.10	.10
13. Reads organisations announcements, memo's etc.	.20	.06	**.81**	.06	.01	.11
Altruism						
14. Willingly gives of own time to help others with work problems	.12	-.01	.02	**-.89**	.07	.02
Consideration						
15. Takes sick days even if not sick	.30	.27	-.09	-.11	**.56**	.15
16. Takes 'extra' breaks (unofficial)	.12	.05	.12	.11	**.79**	.13
17. Helps others who have heavy workloads	.31	.22	.16	-.12	**.56**	.11
18. Helps others who have been absent	.14	.05	.25	-.40	**.51**	-.05
Attendance						
19. Attendance record is better than others	.12	.07	-.12	.06	.15	**.79**
20. Attends meetings regarding the organisation	.13	.13	.37	-.11	.06	**.66**
Eigenvalue	6.30	2.23	1.45	1.35	1.12	1.08
Percentage of variance explained	31.5	11.2	7.2	6.7	5.6	5.4

[a] Boldface indicates factor loadings greater than .50. The associated items were averaged to create each of the five subscales.

Table 14
Correlations between OCB factor subscales

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Courtesy	1.00					
2. Sportsmanship	.22*	1.00				
3. Civic Virtue	.34**	.09	1.00			
4. Altruism	.20*	-.01	.12	1.00		
5. Consider	.57**	.34**	.36**	.20*	1.00	
6. Attendance	.37**	.20*	.22*	.02	.32**	1.00

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

Factor Analyses of the Fairness Scales

Results of the factor analyses indicated that all the predictor variable instruments used in the research are unidimensional. As with the OCB factor analysis, principal components exploratory factor analysis was run on all the predictor variable instruments.

Exploratory factor analysis combining all the independent variables confirmed their essential unidimensionality (see Appendix K). The only complication was that LMX and interpersonal procedural justic (IPJ) loaded on the same factor. This shows that they are extremely closely related, which is verified by their correlation of .76. The factor analysis combining all the independent variables should not strictly speaking have been performed because of the small number of cases (Dunbar, 1998), but the results are nevertheless interesting.

Multicollinearity

There were strong relationships between several of the fairness instruments (Table 15). The high zero-order correlations between the predictors raises fears of high multicollinearity (Berry & Feldman, 1985). Because of this, further tests for multicollinearity were conducted.

The most reliable test for multicollinearity is to regress each predictor variable on all the other predictor variables. This technique indicates which particular independent variables are closely linearly related to others. The closer the R^2 is to 1.00, the greater the degree of multicollinearity (Berry & Feldman, 1985). Table 15 indicates that the variable with the greatest degree of multicollinearity is IPJ, and also that all but one of the variables (DJ) have problems in terms of multicollinearity.

Table 15
Bivariate Correlations between the predictor variables and R^2 values when regressing each independent variable on the other five.

	POS	TRUST	LMX	IPJ	SPJ	DJ	R^2
POS	1.00						.59
TRUST	.71**	1.00					.64
LMX	.54**	.54**	1.00				.66
IPJ	.38**	.49**	.76**	1.00			.70
SPJ	.58**	.67**	.57**	.68**	1.00		.63
DJ	.53**	.57**	.43**	.45**	.48**	1.00	.40

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

Specific questions in the dissertation

The Relationship Between OCB and Fairness at Work

Upon analysis it can be seen that the results of the OCB of the employees are significantly different depending on whether supervisors or self-reports of OCB are used (see t-tests in Table 16). The differences are significant for all factors of OCB except civic virtue. These results show that when testing for the relationship between fairness and OCB self-report and supervisors ratings of OCB will have to be dealt with in separate analyses. As can be seen by the means for each OCB factor, supervisors generally rated staff much more negatively than they rated themselves (see Figure 10).

Table 16
The differences between supervisor and self-ratings of OCB

	Mean	Std.Dv.	N	Diff.	Std.Dv. Diff.	t	df	p
Self-report Courtesy	4.327586	.689468						
Supervisor Courtesy	3.696552	.702118	58	.631034	.991757	4.84576*	57	.000010
Self-report Sportsmanship	3.832727	.852677						
Supervisor Sportsmanship	2.265455	.821069	55	1.567273	1.317553	8.82181*	54	.000000
Self-report Civic Virtue	3.732143	.888580						
Supervisor Civic Virtue	3.416667	.763432	56	.315476	1.211760	1.94825	55	.056495
Self-report Altruism	3.833333	1.152252						
Supervisor Altruism	3.266667	1.055521	60	.566667	1.681068	2.61107*	59	.011426
Self-report Consideration	4.179167	.678189						
Supervisor Consideration	2.995833	.656602	60	1.183333	.950988	9.63846*	59	.000000
Self-report Attendance	3.982456	.925651						
Supervisor Attendance	3.307018	.705554	57	.675439	1.066918	4.77961*	56	.000013

*p < .05

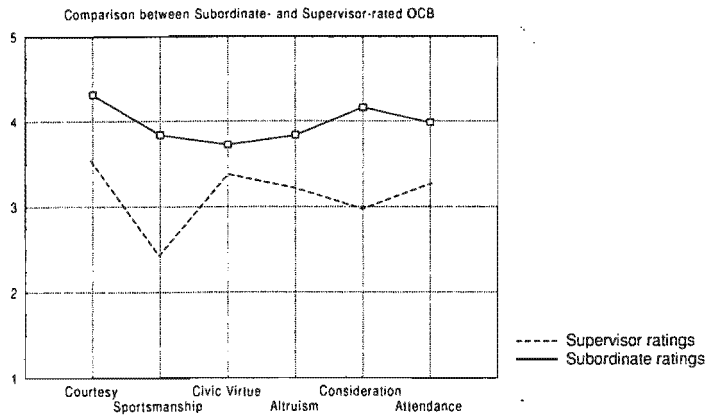

Figure 10. Graph showing the differences between subordinate- and supervisor-rated OCB.

OCB assessed by subordinates.

There were correlations between several fairness instruments and OCB when using OCB ratings of subordinates (Table 17). The two notable exceptions to this were the sportsmanship factor with only one significant correlation and the attendance factor with two significant correlations.

Table 17
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	.37**	.36**	.46**	.23*	.44**	.25*
TRUST	.35**	.09	.31**	.15	.39**	.08
LMX	.64**	.14	.42**	.24*	.44**	.24*
IPJ	.43**	.12	.36**	.24*	.40**	.17
SPJ	.37**	.13	.40**	-.01	.47**	.06
DJ	.14	-.08	.19	.34**	.23*	-.06

*p < .05; **p < .01
N = 92

There were significant differences in the relationship between OCB and fairness for the different genders (Tables 18 & 19), and between permanent and casual staff (Tables 20 & 21). This shows that there is disparity within the organisation among these different categories of staff. Staff were divided into categories based on age and the time they had been in the organisation. There were significant differences between permanent and casual staff based on both age (Table 22) and the length of time they had worked in the organisation (Table 23). For a graph indicating these differences, see figure 11.

Table 18
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for women.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	.35*	.44**	.61**	.21	.44**	.30*
TRUST	.37**	.04	.51**	.35**	.41**	.08
LMX	.71**	.17	.58**	.31*	.43**	.29*
IPJ	.54**	.06	.50**	.42**	.38**	.27*
SPJ	.44**	.13	.55**	.14	.44**	.10
DJ	.08	-.09	.36*	.37**	.24	.03

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

Table 19
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for men.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	.41*	.12	.07	.34	.51*	.11
TRUST	.30	.20	.06	-.12	.31	.05
LMX	.48**	.07	.15	.12	.49**	.07
IPJ	.28	.28	.06	-.09	.49**	-.06
SPJ	.28	.15	.22	-.31	.56**	-.06
DJ	.19	-.10	-.05	.29	.27	-.18

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

Table 20
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for permanent staff.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	-.17	.49*	.60**	.05	.12	.16
TRUST	-.18	-.10	.01	.06	-.03	-.06
LMX	.37	.29	.33	.08	.07	.05
IPJ	.27	.17	.42*	.14	.09	.34
SPJ	.20	.14	.13	-.25	.27	.10
DJ	-.42*	-.24	.05	.23	-.09	-.11

N=27
*p < .05; **p < .01

Table 21
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for casual staff.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	.52**	.30*	.41**	.33*	.58**	.26
TRUST	.45**	.19	.41**	.18	.52**	.17
LMX	.70**	.11	.45**	.29*	.55**	.32*
IPJ	.46**	.13	.34**	.28*	.51**	.15
SPJ	.43**	.15	.51**	.08	.57**	.07
DJ	.27*	-.02	.24	.37**	.35**	-.03

N=65
*p < .05; **p < .01

Table 22
MANOVA showing the differences in age between permanent and casual staff.

1-PERMTEMP

	df Effect	MS Effect	df Error	MS Error	F	p-level
1	1	6.144036	90	1.196467	5.135148	.025844

Table 23
MANOVA showing the differences in time working in the organisation between permanent and casual staff.

1-PERMTEMP

	df Effect	MS Effect	df Error	MS Error	F	p-level
1	1	21.61575	86	.376033	57.48372	.000000

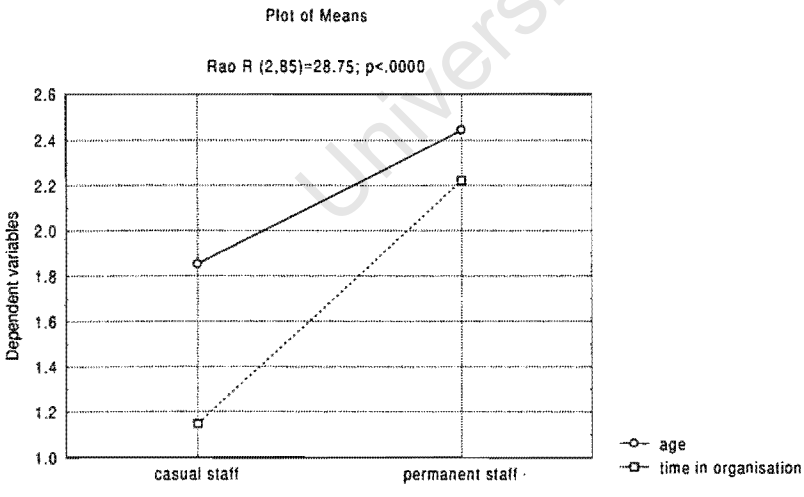

Figure 11. A graph showing the differences in age and time in the organisation between permanent and casual staff.

Because of the significant differences between permanent and casual staff with regard to age and time in the organisation, correlations between fairness and OCB were performed for these different categories too. It can be seen from the correlation results for employees separated by time

in organisation (Tables 24-26) that the majority of significant correlations occur for those staff that have worked in the organisation for 5 years or less. In a similar manner, it can be seen from the correlation results for employees separated by age (Tables 27-30) that the majority of significant correlations occur for those staff in the 21-30 year category.

Table 24
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for staff that have worked in the organisation for 5 years or less.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	.25	.27	.24	.28	.46**	.09
TRUST	.26	.14	.28*	.27*	.39**	-.06
LMX	.57**	.07	.31*	.35**	.40**	.06
IPJ	.44**	.16	.36**	.44**	.55**	.09
SPJ	.44**	.16	.47**	.30*	.66**	.07
DJ	.35**	-.00	.34*	.25	.56**	.02

N=49
*p < .05; **p < .01

Table 25
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for staff that have worked in the organisation for 6-10 years.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	-.30	-.05	.56*	-.14	.11	-.01
TRUST	.13	-.18	.04	-.25	.12	.19
LMX	.76**	.30	.20	.08	.46	.60*
IPJ	.25	.01	.20	-.03	.17	.53*
SPJ	-.13	.00	.19	-.55*	.30	-.19
AVDJ	-.25	-.21	-.40	.16	-.26	.13

N=12
*p < .05; **p < .01

Table 26
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for staff that have worked in the organisation for 11-15 years.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	.40	.78	.75	.25	.10	.62
TRUST	.30	.31	.81**	-.20	.04	.32
LMX	.34	.35	.36	-.40	-.31	-.02
IPJ	.57	.12	.47	-.36	-.42	.29
SPJ	.74*	.11	.16	-.59	-.19	.43
DJ	-.69	-.18	.74*	.76*	-.34	-.36

N=7
*p < .05; **p < .01

Table 27
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for staff age 18-20.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	.44	.11	.69*	.44	.59	-.17
TRUST	.04	-.09	.29	-.04	.51	.07
LMX	.43	.39	-.01	.09	.41	.23
IPJ	.41	.35	.32	.31	.90**	.45
SPJ	-.06	.05	.48	-.08	.61*	.20
DJ	.11	.15	.08	.01	.54	.24

N=11
*p < .05; **p < .01

Table 28
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for staff age 21-30.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	.45**	.37*	.44**	.23	.61**	.26
TRUST	.41**	.17	.40*	.30	.47**	.02
LMX	.72**	.25	.48**	.41**	.66**	.18
IPJ	.45**	.12	.28	.47**	.52**	-.08
SPJ	.39*	.19	.38*	.09	.57**	-.11
DJ	.29	-.01	.42**	.33*	.56**	-.19

N=39
*p < .05; **p < .01

Table 29
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for staff age 31-40.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	.42	.58*	.44	.44	.49*	.41
TRUST	.50*	.27	-.15	-.08	.32	.18
LMX	.71**	-.11	.44	.03	-.03	.40
IPJ	.64**	.14	.47*	-.15	.09	.41
SPJ	.68**	.17	.13	-.17	.45*	.34
DJ	.09	-.06	-.28	.55**	-.22	-.25

N=20
*p < .05; **p < .01

Table 30
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for staff age 41 or more.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	-.17	.41	.47	-.40	-.24	.59
TRUST	.32	-.38	.05	.45	-.52	.68*
LMX	.40	.98*	.22	.10	.09	.28
IPJ	.22	-.28	.41	.20	-.04	.68*
SPJ	.54	.18	.73*	.12	.32	.34
DJ	-.51	-.55	.04	.24	-.34	.55

N=9
*p < .05; **p < .01

The correlations between fairness and OCB for casual staff, aged 21-30 who have worked in the organisation for 5 years or less are shown below (Table 32). It can be seen that there are far more significant correlations than for permanent staff age 41 or more (Table 32). Unfortunately the sample sizes for these correlations are fairly small. Some were so small that it was not possible to test the combinations of various categories of staff.

Table 31
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for casual staff age 21-30 who have worked in the organisation 5 years or less.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	.44*	.31	.18	.37	.55**	.24
TRUST	.44*	.22	.31	.43*	.38	-.08
LMX	.72**	.18	.35	.49*	.61**	-.02
IPJ	.54**	.13	.34	.59**	.61**	-.03
SPJ	.61**	.32	.46*	.39	.72**	-.02
DJ	.49*	.06	.41*	.34	.65**	-.07

N=24
*p < .05; **p < .01

Table 32
Correlations between OCB (subordinate rated) and fairness for permanent staff age 41 or more.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	.11	.62	.54	-.45	-.20	.55
TRUST	.37	-.69	.04	.59	-.63	.71
LMX	.41	.99	.20	-.20	-.16	.27
IPJ	.26	-.34	.41	.16	-.10	.69*
SPJ	.42	-.10	.79*	-.07	.15	.42
DJ	-.30	-.48	.15	.24	-.37	.53

N=7
*p < .05; **p < .01

OCB assessed by supervisors.

The relationship between OCB and fairness was for the most part not significant when OCB was measured from the point of view of supervisors (Table 33). As can be seen from Tables 34 & 35, however, there were also slight differences in this regard between permanent and casual staff.

Table 33
Correlations between OCB (supervisor-rated) and fairness

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	-.05	.06	.09	.11	.05	.16
TRUST	.10	-.01	-.01	.11	.02	.15
LMX	.18	-.01	-.01	-.04	-.20	.14
IPJ	.36**	-.16	.04	.10	-.22	.28*
SPJ	.20	-.04	-.01	.28*	.08	.25
DJ	.13	-.06	.19	-.00	-.14	.08

*p < .05; **p < .01
N=62

Table 34
Correlations between OCB (supervisor-rated) and fairness for permanent staff

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	.02	-.19	-.50	-.42	-.03	-.02
TRUST	-.12	-.09	-.46	-.41	-.15	.07
LMX	.00	.02	-.35	-.16	-.25	.13
IPJ	-.01	.06	-.25	-.21	.07	.03
SPJ	-.07	-.09	-.23	-.08	.05	.13
DJ	-.27	.08	-.28	-.40	-.17	-.01

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

Table 35
Correlations between OCB (supervisor-rated) and fairness for casual staff

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
POS	-.07	.16	.18	.26	.06	.22
TRUST	.13	.06	.09	.29	.11	.15
LMX	.20	-.02	.02	-.03	-.20	.15
IPJ	.42**	-.22	.09	.18	-.27	.32*
SPJ	.27	-.01	.03	.42**	.12	.28
DJ	.20	-.10	.28	.12	-.13	.09

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

In this section we have found that there are strong relationships between the fairness instruments and the OCB scale when using the responses of subordinates about themselves, but almost no relationship between the fairness instruments and the OCB scale when using the responses of supervisors about their subordinates.

The Fairness Construct that Best Predicts OCB

The validity coefficient shown by the zero-order correlations between the OCB factors and the fairness variables (Table 11) provides initial information about which fairness measure is the most important predictor for each OCB factor. LMX has the highest correlation with courtesy (r = .64); POS with sportsmanship (r = .36), civic virtue (r = .46) and attendance (r = .25); DJ with altruism (r = .34); and SPJ with consideration (r = .47). The advantage of this method of assessing importance is that the validity coefficient does not change as additional variables are added or removed (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

To allow for the joint effects of the predictors on the criterion variables, regression analyses were performed. Each OCB scale was regressed on the predictor measures to indicate incremental variance. Initially exploratory multiple regression was used with all the predictor variable instruments to try to account for variation of the response variable. The regression coefficients resulting from these partial correlations indicate which variable is the most important predictor of each OCB factor (De Vaus, 1996). For details of the multiple regression analyses for each dependent variable factor, see Tables 36 to 41.

Table 36
Multiple Regression of Courtesy.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
JSI	.062167	.060430	.044006	.501069	.498931	.46894	.640809	91
POS	.121221	.098515	.071959	.352388	.647612	.76682	.446193	78
TRU	.071643	.058073	.042284	.348338	.651662	.45059	.653906	88
OC	-.227003	-.179767	-.132834	.342418	.657582	-1.41553	.162083	87
LMX	.728790	.503738	.423868	.338264	.661736	4.51689	.000030	82
IPJ	-.099173	-.073672	-.053697	.293167	.706833	-.57222	.569313	89
SPJ	.117385	.093003	.067897	.334561	.665439	.72354	.472163	86
DJ	-.196639	-.203074	-.150753	.587750	.412250	-1.60648	.113420	85

Table 37
Multiple Regression of Sportmanship.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
JSI	-.207801	-.172845	-.147095	.501069	.498931	-1.35931	.179136	91
POS	.767378	.477499	.455533	.352388	.647612	4.20960	.000087	78
TRU	-.234783	-.163102	-.138570	.348338	.651662	-1.28053	.205288	88
OC	.035906	.025059	.021011	.342418	.657582	.19417	.846703	87
LMX	-.091208	-.063159	-.053047	.338264	.661736	-.49021	.625775	82
IPJ	.207356	.132757	.112273	.293167	.706833	1.03752	.303658	89
SPJ	.022906	.015805	.013249	.334561	.665439	.12244	.902962	86
DJ	-.343348	-.299608	-.263227	.587750	.412250	-2.43249	.017995	85

Table 38
Multiple Regression of Civic Virtue.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
JSI	.280405	.236781	.198488	.501069	.498931	1.88778	.063894	91
POS	.382544	.268581	.227087	.352388	.647612	2.15978	.034796	78
TRU	-.190948	-.137069	-.112698	.348338	.651662	-1.07185	.288081	88
OC	-.064325	-.046168	-.037641	.342418	.657582	-.35800	.721603	87
LMX	.143837	.102179	.083656	.338264	.661736	.79564	.429378	82
IPJ	.122285	.081029	.066211	.293167	.706833	.62972	.531268	89
SPJ	.097187	.068858	.056214	.334561	.665439	.53464	.594872	86
DJ	-.161850	-.150615	-.124082	.587750	.412250	-1.18012	.242609	85

Table 39
Multiple Regression of Altruism.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
JSI	.116383	.096341	.082383	.501069	.498931	.74974	.456342	91
POS	.216120	.149047	.128294	.352388	.647612	1.16755	.247606	78
TRU	-.061311	-.042476	-.036186	.348338	.651662	-.32931	.743065	88
OC	.059031	.040551	.034543	.342418	.657582	.31436	.754336	87
LMX	-.027065	-.018491	-.015741	.338264	.661736	-.14325	.886569	82
IPJ	.417506	.256693	.226058	.293167	.706833	2.05727	.044015	89
SPJ	-.616232	-.386269	-.356436	.334561	.665439	-3.24379	.001929	86
DJ	.293483	.255569	.224998	.587750	.412250	2.04762	.044982	85

Table 40
Multiple Regression of Consideration.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
JSI	.192878	.164897	.136531	.501069	.498931	1.29502	.200276	91
POS	.287578	.204620	.170713	.352388	.647612	1.61924	.110641	78
TRU	-.007209	-.005210	-.004255	.348338	.651662	-.04036	.967940	88
OC	-.236666	-.167195	-.138488	.342418	.657582	-1.31358	.193988	87
LMX	.170473	.120524	.099148	.338264	.661736	.94043	.350767	82
IPJ	.082486	.054608	.044662	.293167	.706833	.42363	.673354	89
SPJ	.254391	.177325	.147143	.334561	.665439	1.39567	.167957	86
DJ	-.106515	-.099498	-.081659	.587750	.412250	-.77455	.441647	85

Table 41
Multiple Regression of Attendance.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
JSI	.204399	.160431	.144687	.501069	.498931	1.25900	.212905	91
POS	.369246	.239093	.219193	.352388	.647612	1.90733	.061269	78
TRU	-.155824	-.102767	-.091968	.348338	.651662	-.80027	.426714	88
OC	.099564	.065309	.058261	.342418	.657582	.50697	.614037	87
LMX	.083400	.054409	.048506	.338264	.661736	.42208	.674478	82
IPJ	.263028	.157977	.142416	.293167	.706833	1.23925	.220080	89
SPJ	-.307333	-.195829	-.177765	.334561	.665439	-1.54684	.127161	86
DJ	-.319378	-.265209	-.244851	.587750	.412250	-2.13059	.037231	85

LMX remained the most important predictor of courtesy (β = .73) while POS remained the most important predictor of sportsmanship (β = .77), civic virtue (β = .38) and attendance (β = .37). For altruism DJ was replaced with SPJ as the most important predictor (β = -.62); for consideration there was no significant predictor using this method. Table 42 summarises the predictors of the OCB factors found using these two methods.

Table 42
Most Important Predictors of the OCB Factors

OCB Factor	Validity Coefficient Method	Multiple Regression Method
Courtesy	LMX	LMX
Sportsmanship	POS	POS
Civic Virtue	POS	POS
Altruism	DJ	SPJ
Consideration	SPJ	No significant predictor
Attendance	POS	POS

While the majority of the most important predictors remained the same there were some differences between the two techniques. The difference with regard to Altruism may be explained by the fact that the Altruism factor is unstable since it is measured by only one item. The latter method is problematic because of several statistical complications explored by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). The most important is that β weights are far more sensitive to sampling error than validities. The β weights of all variables will probably be reduced when new predictors are added to the equation because the new variable has something in common with all of the other predictors. If two predictors correlate strongly, both of their β weights will be small. This is because the effects of each one will be small when the other is controlled.

In addition to finding out which fairness variable was most important for the performance of each OCB factor in this sample, it was important to be able to individualise the regression equations for each OCB factor and specify which fairness instruments fall into each OCB regression equation (De Vaus, 1996). Tables 43-48 indicate the variables that are in the regression equations for each particular OCB factor.

Table 43
Variables in the Regression Equation for Courtesy

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(66)	p-level	Valid N
LMX	.717047	.654515	.648521	.817998	.182002	7.03301	.000000	82
DJ	-.170882	-.202054	-.154552	.817998	.182002	-1.67607	.098457	85

Table 44
Variables in the Regression Equation for Sportsmanship

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(66)	p-level	Valid N
POS	.686480	.481434	.469288	.467330	.532670	4.39424	.000043	78
DJ	-.358472	-.310690	-.279264	.606904	.393096	-2.61493	.011117	85
TRUST	-.266733	-.195787	-.170576	.408962	.591038	-1.59721	.115145	88
IPJ	.143025	.140719	.121434	.720869	.279131	1.13706	.259751	89

Table 45
Variables in the Regression Equation for Attendance

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(66)	p-level	Valid N
POS	.302057	.245018	.233918	.599725	.400275	2.03750	.045675	78
DJ	-.306027	-.264811	-.254183	.689883	.310117	-2.21401	.030342	85
LMX	.208157	.182773	.172073	.683352	.316648	1.49881	.138765	82

Table 46
Variables in the Regression Equation for Civic Virtue

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(66)	p-level	Valid N
POS	.414452	.310904	.274542	.438802	.561198	2.59640	.011710	78
LMX	.235011	.211488	.181606	.597151	.402849	1.71749	.090803	82
DJ	-.127407	-.119177	-.100741	.625217	.374783	-.95273	.344367	85
SPJ	.208475	.169591	.144426	.479939	.520061	1.36587	.176836	86
TRU	-.179930	-.128185	-.108478	.363479	.636521	-1.02590	.308861	88

Table 47
Variables in the Regression Equation for Altruism

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(66)	p-level	Valid N
DJ	.306217	.275311	.245414	.642304	.357696	2.29103	.025264	85
SPJ	-.576822	-.399768	-.373749	.419832	.580168	-3.48908	.000883	86
IPJ	.400029	.318594	.288030	.518435	.481565	2.68886	.009130	89
POS	.247554	.214939	.188601	.580431	.419569	1.76066	.083073	78

Table 48
Variables in the Regression Equation for Consideration

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(66)	p-level	Valid N
SPJ	.246423	.216361	.186476	.572642	.427358	1.786682	.078652	86
LMX	.199402	.181984	.155732	.609954	.390046	1.492115	.140507	82
POS	.195269	.177333	.151622	.602914	.397086	1.452731	.151109	78

In this section, we used two methods to find which fairness variable was the most important for the performance of OCB in this sample. The results are summarised in Table 42. Most of the predictors remained the same for both methods. We also found what the full regression equations were for each OCB factor.

Variables that Moderate the Relationship Between Fairness and OCB

This section aims to discover whether there are any variables that moderate the relationships between the OCB factors and fairness instruments found in the previous section. Moderation means that the magnitude of the correlation depends on an additional variable or variables (Berry & Feldman, 1985). It should be noted that this is not the same as mediation where the effects of the predictor on the dependent variable are produced indirectly by a third variable. Moderation can be seen in the fact that the partial correlations for the multiple regression of each OCB factor are significantly less than the Beta variables. The moderating variables are summarised below in Table 48. The OCB factor, consideration is not included here because none of the betas were significant for this factor.

Table 49
Variables Moderating the Predictor Variable of LMX for the Dependent Variable: Courtesy.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
LMX	.746071	.538210	.485268	.423060	.576940	5.187918	.000002	82
IPJ	-.134189	-.114107	-.087281	.423060	.576940	-.933102	.354169	89

From Table 36 it can be seen that LMX is highly moderated by the other predictor variables. Table 49 shows that most of that is because of IPJ.

Table 50
Variables Moderating the Predictor Variable of POS for the Dependent Variable: Sportsmanship.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
POS	.608117	.426990	.425343	.489221	.510779	3.83617	.000282	78
TRU	-.346881	-.260082	-.242624	.489221	.510779	-2.18822	.032198	88

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
POS	.562985	.478651	.477009	.717894	.282106	4.42888	.000036	78
DJ	-.381784	-.346757	-.323481	.717894	.282106	-3.00342	.003769	85

From Table 37 it can be seen that POS is highly moderated by the other predictor variables. Table 50 shows that most of that is because of trust and DJ.

Table 51
Variables Moderating the Predictor Variable of POS for the Dependent Variable: Civic Virtue.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
POS	.497219	.365779	.347777	.489221	.510779	3.192861	.002159	78
TRU	-.045501	-.035942	-.031825	.489221	.510779	-.292180	.771065	88

From Table 38 can be seen that POS is highly moderated by the other predictor variables. Table 51 shows that most of that is because of trust.

Table 52
Variables Moderating the Predictor Variable of SPJ for the Dependent Variable: Altruism.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
IPJ	.464562	.341786	.341748	.541161	.458839	2.95461	.004336	89
SPJ	-.329484	-.249766	-.242380	.541161	.458839	-2.09552	.039965	86

From Table 39 it can be seen that SPJ is highly moderated by the other predictor variables. Table 52 shows that most of that is because of IPJ.

Table 53
Variables Moderating the Predictor Variable of POS for the Dependent Variable: Attendance.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
POS	.395307	.277410	.276495	.489221	.510779	2.34576	.022003	78
TRU	-.201359	-.145512	-.140839	.489221	.510779	-1.19486	.236416	88

From Table 41 it can be seen that POS is highly moderated by the other predictor variables. Table 53 shows that most of that is because of trust.

Table 54
Moderating variables of the OCB factors using the multiple regression technique.

Predictor Variables	Moderating Variables	OCB Factor
LMX DJ	IPJ	Courtesy
POS DJ Trust IPJ	Trust & DJ	Sportsmanship
POS LMX DJ SPJ Trust	Trust	Civic Virtue
SPJ IPJ DJ POS	IPJ	Altruism
SPJ LMX POS	—	Consideration
POS DJ LMX	Trust	Attendance

In this section moderating variables for the regression equations of the various dependent variable OCB factors were outlined. These are summarised in Table 54, which indicates the variables in the model and the moderators for each OCB factor.

Variables that Mediate the Relationship Between Fairness and OCB

The aim of this section is to examine the issue of mediators in the relationship between the fairness variables and the OCB factors that were detailed earlier in the chapter. As was stated in the previous section, mediation as opposed to moderation means that the effects of the predictor on the dependent variable are produced indirectly by a third variable. In order to check for mediation, a technique used by Van Dyne et al. (1994) and proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used. This follows a three-step process. Firstly the mediator was regressed on the independent variable, secondly the dependent variable is regressed on the independent variable and thirdly, the dependent variable is regressed simultaneously on both the independent variable and the mediator. For mediation to be indicated: the independent variable must affect the mediator in the first equation; the independent variable must affect the dependent variable in the second equation; the mediator must affect the dependent variable in the third equation; the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second equation. If the independent variable has no significant effect when the mediator is controlled full mediation is

indicated. Partial mediation is indicated if the independent variables effect is still significant but smaller when the mediator is controlled (Baron & Kenny).

None of the most important predictors indicated through multiple regression of any of the factors of OCB were found to have mediators. Affective commitment did not mediate any of the relationships either. The only mediator that was found was trust, which mediated the relationship between IPJ and consideration (see Table 55). This is a less significant relationship, since IPJ was not indicated as the most important predictor of consideration.

Table 55
Multiple regression results showing that trust mediates the relationship between IPJ and consideration.

Regression Summary for Dependent Variable: Trust

	BETA	St. Err. of BETA	B	St. Err. of B	t(67)	p-level	Valid N
Intercpt			.766260	.656926	1.166433	.247575	
IPJ	.486046	.106768	.746396	.163958	4.552355	.000023	89

Regression Summary for Dependent Variable: Consideration

	BETA	St. Err. of BETA	B	St. Err. of B	t(67)	p-level	Valid N
Intercpt			2.427001	.478868	5.068203	.000003	
IPJ	.395607	.112203	.421398	.119518	3.525820	.000767	89

Regression Summary for Dependent Variable: Consideration

	BETA	St. Err. of BETA	B	St. Err. of B	t(67)	p-level	Valid N
Intercpt			2.292537	.473024	4.846551	.000008	
TRU	.252984	.125553	.175481	.087089	2.014954	.047986	88
IPJ	.272645	.125553	.290420	.133739	2.171552	.033489	89

Differences in OCB Ratings as a Function of Permanent or Casual Status and Gender

There were indications in the section on descriptive statistics, that there were significant differences in the correlations between fairness and OCB between men and women and also between permanent and casual workers. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to determine whether scores on each factor of the OCB scale were systematically different between permanent and casual workers or between male and female workers. It was found that scores on OCB as measured by subordinates were not significantly different as a function of gender or permanent/casual status (Table 56).

Table 56
MANOVA to assess for differences based on permanent/casual status and gender.

1-PERMTEMP.

	Mean sqr Effect	Mean sqr Error	F(df1,2) 1,47	p-level
Courtesy	.000418	.534210	.000783	.977801
Sportsmanship	.346681	.741340	.467641	.497432
Civic Virtue	.244954	.761816	.321540	.573382
Altruism	.348430	1.147800	.303564	.584267
Consideration	.356061	.486015	.732613	.396380
Attendance	.978635	.892696	1.096268	.300441

2-GENDER

	Mean sqr Effect	Mean sqr Error	F(df1,2) 1,47	p-level
Courtesy	.176095	.534210	.329636	.568611
Sportsmanship	1.249667	.741340	1.685686	.200505
Civic Virtue	.434080	.761816	.569796	.454106
Altruism	1.725151	1.147800	1.503007	.226317
Consideration	.090014	.486015	.185208	.668902
Attendance	.002415	.892696	.002705	.958743

Differences in OCB Ratings as a Function of Supervisor

The OCB ratings on the part of supervisors were selected and a MANOVA was performed to determine whether the ratings differed as a function of supervisor. There were significant differences based on supervisor for all the OCB factors (Table 57).

Table 57
MANOVA to assess for differences based on supervisor.

	Wilks' Lambda	Rao's R	df 1	df 2	p-level
1	.032074	3.319840	60	214	.000000

	Mean sqr Effect	Mean sqr Error	F(df1,2) 10,45	p-level
Supervisor Courtesy	.507995	.418652	1.213407	.308480
Supervisor Sportsmanship	.821348	.573526	1.432102	.197513
Supervisor Civic Virtue	1.316548	.235432	5.592048	.000023
Supervisor Altruism	2.287857	.767778	2.979843	.005796
Supervisor Consideration	1.638252	.178380	9.184072	.000000
Supervisor Attendance	.381399	.414352	.920471	.523358

LMX rated by supervisors showed similar differences as a function of supervisor. Big differences were also found between subordinate supervisor ratings of LMX (see Figure 12).

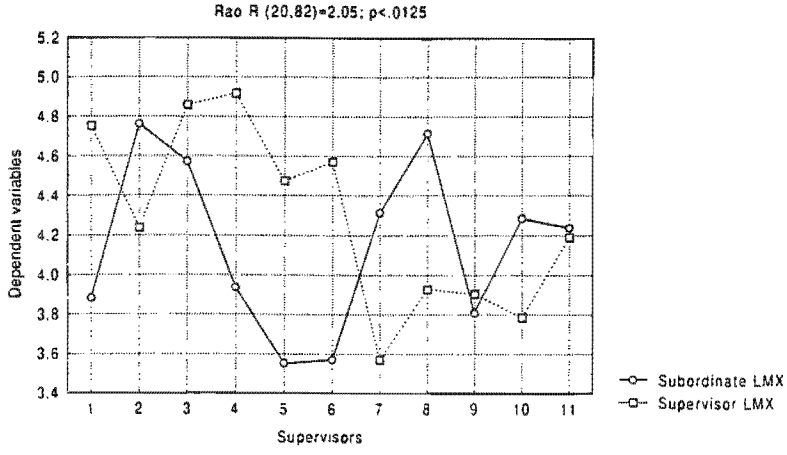

Figure 12. Graph showing the differences in means between supervisors and subordinates ratings of LMX.

Comparison between Supervisor-rated OCB and In-role Behaviour

There was a correlation of r = -.08 between supervisors perceptions of OCB and in-role behaviour (IRB). This indicates that they see almost no relationship between the performance of OCB and the performance of IRB. There were also significant differences between the ratings supervisors gave for IRB and three of the OCB factors: courtesy, sportsmanship and consideration as can be seen in the t-tests in Table 58. A comparison of means shows that supervisors rated their subordinates higher on the OCB factor than on IRB for two of the factors: courtesy and consideration.

Table 58
T-tests of the comparison between IRB and OCB.

	Mean	Std.Dv.	N	Diff.	Std.Dv. Diff.	t	df	p
IRB	3.364407	.370712						
Supervisor Courtesy	3.661017	.708816	59	-.296610	.653921	-3.48407	58	.000947
IRB	3.358757	.373722						
Supervisor Sportsmanship	2.322034	.832128	59	1.036723	1.044649	7.62287	58	.000000
IRB	3.370056	.362341						
Supervisor Civic Virtue	3.474576	.740724	59	-.104520	.785951	-1.02148	58	.311270
IRB	3.358333	.370556						
Supervisor Altruism	3.250000	1.051633	60	.108333	1.118171	.75046	59	.455958
IRB	3.361582	.372874						
Supervisor Consideration	2.983051	.654666	59	.378531	.838536	3.46742	58	.000997
IRB	3.341954	.364644						
Supervisor Attendance	3.301724	.700499	58	.040230	.757233	.40461	57	.687281

Affective Commitment as a Moderating Variable Between Fairness and OCB

When the affective commitment scale was included with the fairness instruments in the multiple regression analyses, it was not a significant predictor for any of the OCB factors. However it was a moderating variable for three of the OCB factors: courtesy (Table 59), sportsmanship (Table 60) and civic virtue (Table 61).

Table 59
Commitment and IPJ as moderators of LMX for Courtesy.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
OC	-.126366	-.137317	-.105034	.690880	.309120	-1.12624	.264144	87
LMX	.714404	.616861	.593806	.690880	.309120	6.36714	.000000	82

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
LMX	.746071	.538210	.485268	.423060	.576940	5.187918	.000002	82
IPJ	-.134189	-.114107	-.087281	.423060	.576940	-.933102	.354169	89

Table 60
Commitment and trust as moderators of POS for Sportsmanship.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
POS	.486367	.346994	.342044	.494577	.505423	3.00575	.003744	78
OC	-.177461	-.133782	-.124802	.494577	.505423	-1.09671	.276755	87

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
POS	.608117	.426990	.425343	.489221	.510779	3.83617	.000282	78
TRU	-.346881	-.260082	-.242624	.489221	.510779	-2.18822	.032198	88

Table 61
Commitment and trust as moderators of POS for Civic Virtue.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
POS	.410158	.310259	.288448	.494577	.505423	2.651398	.010027	78
OC	.076720	.060933	.053954	.494577	.505423	.495942	.621583	87

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(60)	p-level	Valid N
POS	.497219	.365779	.347777	.489221	.510779	3.192861	.002159	78
TRU	-.045501	-.035942	-.031825	.489221	.510779	-.292180	.771065	88

OCB as a Predictor of Job Satisfaction

There are obvious benefits to the organisation if employees perform OCB, but what about to the employees themselves? Does it benefit employees in any way to perform OCB? Table 62 shows that there are significant correlations between job satisfaction and OCB.

Table 62
Correlations between Job Satisfaction and the OCB factors.

	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue	Altruism	Consideration	Attendance
Job Satisfaction	.32**	.03	.46**	.18*	.43**	.21*

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

In addition to seeing that there are significant correlations between the two, it is also of interest to find out whether any of the OCB factors are predictors of job satisfaction. Accordingly, Table 63 shows the results of the multiple regression of job satisfaction on all the OCB factors. It shows that civic virtue and consideration are predictors of job satisfaction and account for about 60% of the variance in JS. The partial correlations show that these effects are unmoderated.

Table 63
Multiple Regression of Job Satisfaction.

	Beta in	Partial Cor.	Semipart Cor.	Tolernce	R-square	t(73)	p-level	Valid N
Courtesy	.015186	.013371	.011214	.545286	.454714	.11425	.909354	87
Sportsmanship	-.127096	-.136869	-.115873	.831194	.168806	-1.18052	.241628	85
Civic Virtue	.309175	.305442	.269010	.757054	.242946	2.74067	.007704	85
Altruism	.073100	.082913	.069774	.911074	.088926	.71086	.479437	90
Consideration	.303076	.252156	.218528	.519893	.480107	2.22637	.029076	90
Attendance	.049374	.054079	.045419	.846196	.153804	.46273	.644937	88

Level of Analysis of the Research

The present research has taken a micro approach. 'Micro organizational theory and research concerns the behaviour and attributes of individuals and small groups in organizations.' (House, Rousseau and Thomas-Hunt, 1995). Klein, Dansereau and Hall (1994) argued that 'precise articulation of the level of one's constructs is an important priority for all organizational scholars whether they propose single- or mixed-level theories' (p. 196). They maintained that more observance of levels issues will give greater strength to organisational theory research and development. Levels issues are important because 'by their very nature, organizations are multilevel. Individuals work in dyads, groups, and teams within organizations that interact with other organizations both inside and outside the industry. Accordingly, levels issues pervade organizational theory and research. No construct is level free. Every construct is tied to one or more organizational levels or entities, that is, individuals, dyads, groups, organizations, industries, markets and so on. To examine organizational phenomena is thus to encounter levels issues' (p. 198).

Research conclusions may vary as a function of the level of analysis. In choosing a level of theory one predicts that the relationships among the theoretical constructs are a result of differences between groups, differences between members independent of groups or differences within groups (Ostroff, 1993). The appropriate level of analysis is essential if relevant conclusions are to be drawn. The level of theory describes the target (individual, group, organisation) that a researcher wishes to represent and explain. It is the level to which generalisations are made (Klein et al., 1994). Rousseau (1985) used slightly different terminology, stating that the level of reference (individual, work group, department or organisation) is known as the focal unit. The level of theory in the present research is the individual.

Within the focal unit or level of theory, two types of levels are the level of measurement and the level of statistical analysis (Klein et al., 1994; Rousseau, 1985). Level of measurement depicts the actual source of the data, the unit to which data are directly attached. For example self-report data typically indicates an individual level of analysis (Rousseau, 1985). The level of statistical analysis (sometimes known as the level of analysis, but which should not be confused with more general discussions on levels of analysis) is the level to which data are allocated for statistical procedures. If the level of measurement is the individual, but individual scores are aggregated by using the group means in data analysis, the level of statistical analysis is the group (Klein et al., 1994). The level of measurement and the level of statistical analysis in the present research are both the individual.

If levels of theory, measurement and statistical analysis are not the same, the results of the study may reflect the level of measurement or statistical analysis rather than the level of theory. The results may alter or distort the relationship that would have been found if the data had been analysed at the same level as the theory. The level of theory, measurement and statistical analysis must be identical to avoid the drawing of incorrect conclusions, or commit what is also known as a "fallacy of the wrong level" (Klein et al., 1994).

Within and between analysis (WABA).

Dansereau, Alutto and Yammarino (1984) developed a paradigm for both theory formulation and the analysis of data that gives an indication of the appropriate level of analysis. They called it the 'varient approach' because variables and entities are important constituents of the framework. This approach is particularly interesting for this sort of research in that it was developed specifically for use in organisational analysis. The analytical procedures used are based on mathematical theory. It is an extension of the general linear tensor approach and is called within and between analysis (WABA). WABA does not establish the construct validity of the aggregated variable; it merely indicates whether there is evidence for a unit-level effect on some lower-level dependent variable (Rousseau, 1985).

In traditional approaches at the level of analysis of interest, wholes are assumed, and at the lower level of analysis a whole or an equivocal condition is assumed. In addition traditional

approaches tend to assume that entities at the level of analysis of interest are independent. This latter assumption means that an equivocal condition is assumed at a higher level of analysis. In the varient paradigm assumptions about levels of analysis or entities are viewed as theoretical assertions to be tested empirically. In the varient paradigm an indication that within-cell deviations are error is required before employing averages (between-cell scores) thereby asserting a whole condition (Dansereau et al., 1984). For example, the total correlations among the superiors reports in the present research are ambiguous because these correlations could reflect differences among the 11 whole superiors, differences perceived by each superior between his or her subordinates (parts), or nothing having to do with superiors as persons.

In within-and-between-analysis (WABA) three different groups of analyses are performed to assess the most appropriate level of analysis: person level analysis; work group level analysis; and dyad level analysis. In order for dyadic differences to be tested data must be collected from both superiors and subordinates. 'The dyadic perspective is different from the group level of analysis because the superior is not viewed as distinguishable from followers or as a leader to a group of followers but rather as a participant in a unique duo. Moreover, the dyadic perspective is different from the individual level of analysis because superiors and subordinates are dependent and not independent' (Nachman, Dansereau &Naughton, 1985, p. 661). The remainder of this section consists of an assessment of each of these levels of analysis.

Work group level analysis: The work group (n = 47) consists of all those employees working under one supervisor. The analysis looks at the subordinate's reports and divides them into cells, each of which consists of the subordinates of only one supervisor. The cells are therefore different sizes depending on how many subordinates responded for that particular supervisor. This analysis indicates whether the work group reports should be viewed as reflecting differences among whole work groups (wholes), differences within work groups (parts) or as independent of work groups (equivocal). As can be seen in Table 64 where the # signs are distributed equally between the parts and equivocal conditions, the overall inference is a parts/equivocal condition, meaning that the results are partially differences within the groups and partially independent of work groups.

Table 64
subordinate reports – work group level.

	OCB	LMX	Average
Data			
η between	.45	.41	.43
η within	.89	.91	.90
E-ratio	.51	.45	.48
F-ratio	.922	.731	.83
Inferences			
Wholes			
15° E ≥ 1.30			
30° E ≥ 1.73			
.05 F ≥ 2.1			
.01 F ≥ 2.86			
Parts			
15° E ≤ .77	#	#	#
30° E ≤ .58	#	#	#
.05 F ≤ .37 .48			
.01 F ≤ .24 .35			
Equivocal			
15° ≤ (all others)			
30° ≤ (all others)			
.05 ≤ (all others)	#	#	#
.01 ≤ (all others)	#	#	#
Overall Inference (group)	Parts / Equivocal		

Person level analysis: The person level analysis consists of the responses of the supervisor about each of their subordinates. Each cell consists of the responses of one particular supervisor. This analysis indicates whether the superiors' reports should be viewed as reflecting differences among whole superiors (wholes), differences within superiors (parts) or as independent of supervisor (equivocal). As can be seen by the results in Table 65, the overall inference for the person level analysis is equivocal, meaning that the results are independent of supervisor.

Table 65
Person level analysis – within and between person reports.

	OCB	LMX	Average
Data			
η between	.72	.65	.69
η within	.69	.76	.73
E-ratio	1.04	.86	.95
F-ratio	4.49	2.99	3.7
Inferences			
Wholes			
15° E ≥ 1.30			
30° E ≥ 1.73			
.05 F ≥ 2.07	#	#	
.01 F ≥ 2.79	#	#	#
Parts			
15° E ≤ .77			
30° E ≤ .58			
.05 F ≤ .38			
.01 F ≤ .24			
Equivocal			
15° ≤ (all others)	#	#	#
30° ≤ (all others)	#	#	#
.05 ≤ (all others)			#
.01 ≤ (all others)			
Overall Inference (person)	Equivocal		

n=52

Dyad level analysis: The dyad level of analysis consists of the responses of both supervisors and subordinates. Each cell consists of two responses, one from the supervisor and one from the subordinate. The responses of each supervisor concerning a particular subordinate and that subordinate concerning themselves are thus paired. This analysis indicates whether the reports should be viewed as reflecting differences among whole dyads (wholes), differences inside dyads (parts) or independent superior and subordinate reports (equivocal). As can be seen in Table 66, the overall inference for the dyad level of analysis is parts, meaning that the results reflect differences inside dyads.

Table 66
Dyad level analysis – within and between dyad reports.

	OCB	LMX	Average
Data			
η between	.45	.66	.56
η within	.89	.75	.82
E-ratio	.51	.88	.68
F-ratio	.27	.79	.47
Inferences			
Wholes			
15° E ≥ 1.30			
30° E ≥ 1.73			
.05 F ≥ 2.1			
.01 F ≥ 2.86			
Parts			
15° E ≤ .77	#		#
30° E ≤ .58	#		
.05 F ≤ 2.69	#	#	#
.01 F ≤ 4.22	#	#	#
Equivocal			
15° ≤ (all others)		#	
30° ≤ (all others)		#	#
.05 ≤ (all others)			
.01 ≤ (all others)			
Overall Inference		Parts	
	n=90	n=106	

This section has examined levels of analysis issues in the present study and attempted to discover which is the most appropriate level of analysis through the use of within-and-between-analysis. These results show that the most appropriate level analysis is a dyad parts level of analysis. Since the level of theory, the level of measurement and the level of statistical analysis all fall under the individual level of analysis, and the WABA shows the dyad parts level of analysis to be most suitable, further verification is given for an individual level of analysis for the present research.

Conclusion

This chapter has presented the results of the empirical investigation into the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and fairness at work. The chapter began by highlighting the descriptive statistics and examining the reliability and validity of the study. Next factor analyses of the various constructs were presented. The relationships between fairness and OCB were assessed using zero-order correlations and multiple regression. Moderating and mediating variables were also detailed. Finally issues regarding appropriate level of analysis for the study were discussed and WABA was performed on the data.

Chapter 6: Discussion

This chapter contains a detailed discussion of the results of the empirical study. It begins by summarising and interpreting the results and placing them in context. The generalisability of the results is then assessed. Limitations of the study are detailed, as are the implications for both management practice and the practice of organisational psychology. The chapter concludes with suggestions for future research.

A Summary and Explanation of the Empirical Results

This section begins by summarising the main results of the study. Thereafter different subsections discuss the factor structure found for OCB; the relationships found between fairness and OCB; and fairness constructs that were predictors of OCB. Moderators and mediators of the relationship are also discussed as is OCB as a predictor of job satisfaction. Finally the appropriate level of analysis in the research is discussed.

The results of the empirical study into the relationship between OCB and fairness at work in a retail organisation in the Western Cape indicate that relationships between fairness and OCB are present for some categories of staff, but not for others. There are no significant differences in either fairness perceptions or OCB individually for any category of staff, whether categorised by age, gender, permanent or casual status, or length of time employed in the organisation. This attests to the fact that the only differences lie within the relationships between fairness and OCB. Generally the relationships are strong when staff join the organisation, but dissipate due to employees becoming permanent members of staff, increasing in age, or working in the organisation for a longer length of time.

Factor Structure

OCB was found to be a multidimensional construct consisting of six factors: courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, altruism, consideration and attendance. Relationships were found between the five fairness instruments and these six OCB factors. The factor structure of OCB in this study was slightly different to that found in previous research OCB and comprised six dimensions instead of the five that have been found in most other OCB studies using the Podsakoff et al. (1990)

scale. This may be due to the changes in the scale that were suggested by participants in the focus groups, the context of the study, or a combination of these two effects.

Because of the fact that OCB consists of different factors, or dimensions it is better not to create an aggregate OCB score because it would not give a good indication of the complexity of the different sub-factors. This will be seen even more through the discussion where it will be seen that the predictors for each OCB factor are different, the regression equations for each factor are different and the moderating variables for each model are also different. It will therefore be seen that it would be meaningless to aggregate all these factors to form a single OCB score.

The Relationships Found Between Fairness and OCB

Strong relationships were found between fairness at work and organisational citizenship behaviour. In looking at the model from the point of view of the OCB factors, courtesy and civic virtue were correlated with POS, Trust, LMX, IPJ and SPJ. Sportsmanship was correlated only with POS. Consideration showed correlations with all the fairness variables. Altruism was correlated with POS, LMX, IPJ and DJ. Finally, attendance was correlated with POS and LMX. Distributive justice showed the least number of relationships with the OCB factors, being significantly related only to altruism and consideration. Previous studies have found that distributive justice had less relevance than procedural justice to OCB (Organ & Moorman, 1993). The significant correlations between fairness and OCB are represented graphically in Figure 13 below.

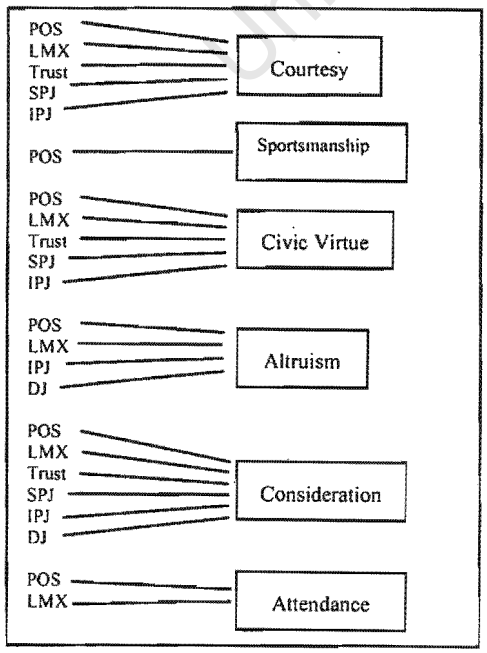

Figure 13. Significant relationships found between fairness and OCB.

In the present study women showed much stronger relationships than men did between fairness and OCB. A recent study found that while women might receive a higher OCB rating than men, there were no significant differences between the genders as regards performance appraisal (Lovell et al., 1999). After further investigation, these authors' interpretation was that a subtle form of discrimination was being enacted against the women in the study since they were performing better on OCB ratings, but that this was not being carried through to better performance appraisals. The present research also showed that while there were significant correlations between fairness and OCB for women but not men, scores on the OCB scale were not significantly different for men and women.

One of the most important findings of the present research was that casual staff members showed significant relationships between fairness and OCB while permanent staff members did not. Essentially this means that when casual staff thought they were being treated more fairly, they performed more OCB. This was as opposed to permanent staff who when they thought they were being treated more fairly did not perform more OCB. Pond et al. (1997) made a similar finding. They found that OCB and supervisor fairness were related positively when most of the behaviours mentioned in the OCB scale were perceived by employees to be evaluated. When OCB was not perceived to be evaluated the relationship between OCB and supervisor fairness was negative. In the present study instead of finding a negative relationship in the latter circumstances, correlations of almost zero were obtained.

It must be explained here that neither casual staff members nor permanent staff members receive any sort of performance appraisal. Supervisors have the power to allocate shifts to casual staff, and in that way affect how much money they earn. Permanent staff members, in contrast, because of the highly unionised environment, have their salary increases negotiated by the union. Supervisors have no influence over these negotiations. Initially it was thought that this result showing differences between permanent and casual staff indicates, without the use of performance appraisals such as were used in the Pond et al. (1997) study, that if employees feel they are evaluated (casual staff) and their jobs are not secure there is a strong positive correlation between these variables. It was also thought to indicate that if they feel that they are not evaluated (permanent staff) and their jobs are secure, there is no relationship between fairness and OCB.

On further investigation it was found that this finding was due only partially to employee status. Other factors that were important in the strength of the relationship between fairness and OCB were the age of the employee and how long they had worked in the organisation. Generally younger casual employees who had worked in the organisation for a shorter period showed significant relationships between fairness and OCB while older permanent employees showed almost no such relationship. Because of sample size constraints it is not possible to state with confidence what the relationships were for younger permanent employees or whether the effects for gender made a difference to these other categories. The decline in the relationship between fairness and OCB occurs as a result of a combination of becoming a permanent employee, working in the organisation for longer and being an older person, all of which may covary.

For the results that have been discussed thus far, OCB was measured from the point of view of subordinates (self-report by employees). In this study however, ratings were taken from both supervisors and subordinates. The reason that subordinate ratings have been used for the correlational study is that this researcher found almost no relationships between the supervisor and subordinate ratings of both OCB and LMX. In addition there were very weak relationships between fairness and OCB when OCB ratings of supervisors were used. This was the case for both permanent and casual employees. Supervisors also saw very weak relationships between the performance of OCB and the performance of in-role behaviour on the part of their subordinates. This is contrary to the suggestion of Becker and Randall (1994) that supervisors could assess OCB accurately. It is important to realise therefore, that when we talk about OCB ratings within this study, we are talking about the self-report ratings of the subordinates. The use of self-report ratings with regard to the possibility of common method variance will be discussed later in this chapter in the section on limitations of the study.

The lack of relationship between supervisor and subordinate measures of OCB and LMX was quite surprising. There are several possible reasons for this result. The first involves construct validity problems with the measuring instrument. The second involves an antagonistic relationship between supervisors and subordinates in the store which may make them exaggerate the different opinions of each one. The third possible reason is that supervisors are unreliable in the way they rate staff which can be seen in the significant effects found for supervisor (Figure 10). This result

shows how OCB and LMX ratings differ as a function of the supervisor, indicating that different supervisors rate employees very differently. In addition OCB may not come to the attention of the supervisor, supervisors may generalise other OCB ratings from those that they do observe and halo errors may cause supervisors to generalise to OCB from other performance and productivity measures. Using supervisors' ratings may compromise the integrity of OCB which is not supposed to be something that one does to impress the supervisor. This is discussed further in the section on limitations of the study.

An Explanation of the Declining Relationships Between OCB and Fairness

The performance of OCB had been shown to improve the performance of employees and thus the effectiveness of the organisation (Allen & Rush, 1998; Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). From an organisational point of view, this is why it is important to encourage employees to engage in OCB. In the chapter on fairness, after an examination of the way in which fairness is conceptualised in the various literatures, one of the summarised points emerging from the fairness literature was that reciprocity for fairness is a moral obligation. We behave fairly or reasonably because we are morally obliged to by the social contract or the social exchange relationship with the organisation.

The results of the present study show that the relationship between fairness and OCB is present when employees begin to work (and it is therefore possible to explain this in terms of the social contract), but that it dissapates as they continue working. The question here is why this should happen. These union-protected employees have a situation where whether they keep their end of the social exchange bargain or not, there is still a certainty that they they will be fairly treated. Social exchange theory cannot explain this result. The employment benefits of permanent employees within this organisation are perceived within the trade union movement as being of the best in industry, according to a researcher at the Labour Research Service (LRS). Surely, especially the permanent employees therefore, should be so obliged to the organisation for giving them such good benefits that they reciprocate for this generosity by engaging in OCB.

The group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988) may help explain this result. According to this model people place psychological distance between themselves and the group, which in this case

would be the organisation, if they perceive that their identity and esteem needs are not being met, or if procedural fairness within the group is low. An assumption behind this theory is that people value group memberships for social and psychological reasons. The results of this study indicate that employees do not think that procedural fairness in the organisation is low; and that this includes even those categories of employees who exhibit weak relationships between fairness and OCB. Psychological distancing between employees and the organisation would usually only occur as a result of there being low procedural fairness within the organisation. It is unusual that it should occur in usch an organisation as this where employees perceive that there is a high level of fairness.One hypothesis which is congruent with the group value model, is that there is a gradual realisation that the organisation is only fair to employees because the union makes the organisation act in this way. Therefore there is a gradual psychological distance placed between employees and the organisation as they realign themselves with a different group, i.e. the union.

The Fairness Constructs that were Predictors of OCB

In order to understand the relationships between OCB and fairness better it was necessary to find out which fairness construct was the most strongly related to each OCB factor. Both zero-order correlations and multiple regression were used for this purpose and the results were similar for both methods. LMX was the strongest predictor of courtesy. This is contrary to previous research (Fahr, Podsakoff & Organ, 1990; Wayne & Green, 1993) which found that LMX was most strongly related to altruism. Altruism was best predicted by SPJ, although in the correlation matrix its strongest relationship was with DJ. This could be explained by the fact that altruism is quite an unstable factor, being represented by only one item in the OCB scale. Niehoff and Moorman (1993) found that formal procedures were more important than interactional justice for their sample. They explained their results due to the type of sample they used – the jobs were rule-governed and not subject to supervisors and subordinates working closely together. The same reasoning could be applied to the present study, since the jobs are also fairly rule-governed. Finally POS was most strongly related to sportsmanship, civic virtue and attendance. Consideration was also not straightforward. SPJ had the highest correlation with consideration, but there were no significant predictors for consideration within multiple regression. All the predictors are shown in Figure 14 below. It can be seen that the exchange-based constructs were more important than the justice

constructs. This could indicate the underlying importance of reciprocity and the social contract in this study. However this claim needs to be made with caution because of the multicollinearity indicated among the fairness constructs.

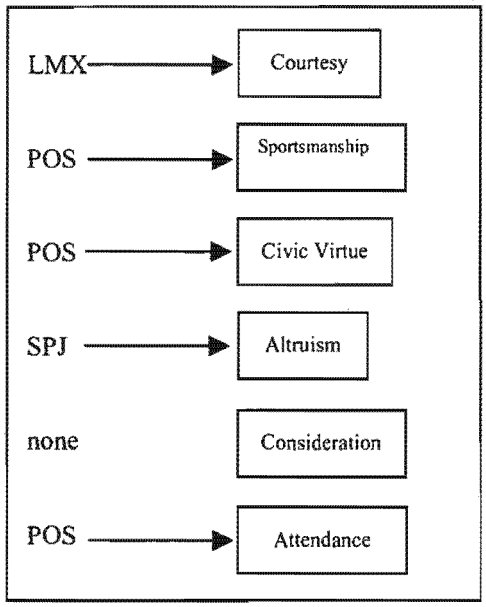

Figure 14. Most significant predictors found using multiple regression.

An unexpected finding was that POS was the only fairness construct that was correlated significantly with all the OCB factors. This finding indicates that the relationship with the organisation is more important to these employees than the relationship with their direct supervisor. It was thought that fairness from the point of view of the supervisor would be more important for the performance of OCB than fairness from the point of view of the organisation such as is indicated by POS (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In addition to being the only fairness instrument with relations with every OCB factor, POS was also the most important predictor for three of the OCB factors, and consequently was the most significant predictor of OCB. It is interesting to note that POS was important while procedural justice was not. Procedural justice has been an important predictor of OCB in several previous studies (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman et al., 1993; Schappe, 1998).

In addition to finding what the best predictors of OCB are, multiple regression was also used to find which variables were in the regression model for each OCB factor. This indicates which variables, in addition to the most important predictor, contribute to the prediction of OCB. The model for courtesy contained two variables: LMX and DJ; that of sportsmanship contained four variables: POS, DJ, trust and IPJ; the model for civic virtue contained five variables: POS, LMX,

DJ, SPJ and trust; the altruism model contained four variables: SPJ, IPJ, DJ and POS; that of consideration contained three variables: SPJ, LMX and POS; finally the model for attendance contained three variables: POS, DJ and LMX.

Thus far we have seen that there are relationships between fairness and OCB as well as which fairness constructs are the most important for the performance of OCB. The next question revolves around whether the relationships between the OCB factors and their most important predictors are affected by other variables. There are two ways in which predictors can be affected by other variables: either through moderation or mediation.

Moderators of the Relationships Between OCB and Fairness

All five OCB factors that had significant predictors in the multiple regression analyses were moderated by other fairness variables. Table 54 shows the model for each OCB factor. Trust was the most significant moderating variable, and it moderated POS for three factors, i.e. sportsmanship, civic virtue and attendance. This indicates that trust in the organisation as opposed to the supervisor was important for the relationship between POS and OCB. Organ (1988) theorised about the relationship between fairness and OCB, arguing that perceptions of fairness may be necessary in order to facilitate the sort of trust needed for employees to engage in citizenship behaviour.

In this study IPJ was found to be a moderator for the relationships between courtesy and LMX and between altruism and SPJ. This makes sense because IPJ and LMX were the most highly correlated fairness variables and IJP and SPJ are part of the same construct. These high correlations between the two have been found previously (Tansky, 1993).

When it was included in the model, affective commitment was found to be a moderator for three OCB factors: courtesy (LMX), sportsmanship (POS) and civic virtue (POS). It seems logical that if you feel fairly treated and you feel committed to the organisation you are more likely to engage in OCB than if you are not committed to the organisation. Commitment however, was not found to be a predictor of any of the OCB variables. Schappe (1998) found that when job satisfaction, procedural fairness and organisational commitment were examined concurrently, organisational commitment was the only one that accounted for a unique amount of variance in

OCB and correlated significantly with OCB. Commitment was less important in the present research, possibly because the fairness instruments used were very different to those of Schappe, who developed his own fairness instruments.

Mediators of the Relationships Between OCB and Fairness

Konovsky and Pugh (1994) found that procedural fairness was more important than distributive justice was for determining OCB levels. They tested a social exchange model of OCB using a 32-item scale based on that of Podsakoff et al. (1990). They also found that trust mediated the relationship, which suggests that citizenship behaviours occur in a context in which social exchange characterises quality of superior-subordinate relationships. In the present research trust did not mediate any relationships between distributive or procedural fairness and any of the OCB factors. Trust was found only to mediate the relationship between IPJ and consideration. IPJ was not the most significant predictor of consideration, and this relationship together with its mediator is therefore less important.

OCB as a Predictor of Job Satisfaction

There have been calls to do more research using OCB as an independent variable (Schnake, 1991), rather than as a dependent variable which is the usual way in which it is used in studies. The present research therefore attempted to discover whether OCB was a predictor of job satisfaction. Two OCB factors, civic virtue and consideration were found to be predictors of job satisfaction. These results attest to the fact that performing parts of OCB can lead to greater job satisfaction. A possible problem with this result is that job satisfaction was measured using a single-item scale. Aside from this, the result is important because it indicates that OCB could have positive outcomes for the individual. If those employees who perform OCB are more satisfied than those who do not, it means that OCB is not simply a way for organisations to manipulate employees into greater levels of performance. Previously it has been shown that OCB is beneficial to the organisation (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994), but this result indicates that it may likewise be beneficial to the individual.

Levels of Analysis

The last issue that needs to be discussed here is that of the level of analysis within the research. The three levels of analysis which are important for a study, i.e. the level of theory, level of measurement and level of statistical analysis were all indicative of an individual level of analysis. This means that any recommendations made on the basis of this study are made to individuals, and indicates further that the study is situated within a micro level of analysis. The fact that these levels were all congruent is advantageous because it means that a fallacy of the wrong level is not being committed (Klein et al., 1994).

The finding within WABA of a dyad parts level of analysis is furthermore indicative of an inequality between actors within social exchange theory (Dansereau et al., 1984). In essence this means that supervisors and subordinates in this organisation are not equal in status. This result is what might be expected in this sort of organisation between a sample of less-educated blue-collar workers and their supervisors.

This section of the chapter has examined the results of the present study. These results have also been interpreted and relevant findings within the literature have been referred to. To summarise briefly, OCB was found to be a multidimensional construct consisting of six factors. There were strong relationships between fairness and OCB, but only for casual, younger staff that had worked within the organisation for a shorter period. For older, permanent staff the relationships between fairness and OCB were very weak. POS was found to be the most important predictor of OCB. There were several moderators of the relationships between OCB and the fairness constructs, but only one mediator of the relationship was found. Finally OCB was found to be a predictor of job satisfaction. Results of the level of analysis studies showed that a micro individual level of analysis is appropriate for the study.

Limitations

There are always limitations to empirical research. This section begins by discussing method-related errors which exist as a result of the way in which the research was set up. Next the issues of perception and attribution are dealt with. The limitations with using attitude scales are also

examined. Finally the problem and likelihood of common method variance having been a problem in this research is investigated.

Method-related Error

Method-related error involves the extent to and ways in which the empirical results could have been influenced by the methods used within the study (Brewer & Hunter, 1989). There are several types of method-related error that may be present in this study. Each of these will be discussed below.

The cross-sectional nature of the study places one of the most important limitations on the results. Essentially, because the study is cross-sectional, causality cannot be claimed. It cannot be stated with certainty that fairness causes OCB on the basis of the results of a cross-sectional study.

The following quotation describes several problems that occur as a result of the use of questionnaires:

> 'Interviews and questionnaires intrude as a foreign element into the social setting they would describe, they create as well as measure attitudes, they elicit atypical roles and responses, they are limited to those who are accessible and will cooperate, and the responses obtained are produced in part by dimensions of individual differences irrelevant to the topic at hand' (Webb, Campbell, Schwartz & Sechrest, 1966, p. 1).

Because the questionnaires are determined in advance there is a risk that they may consist of questions pertaining to topics that have no relevance to the respondent. This is especially the case in the sort of questionnaire that were used in this study where the questions are answered using a forced choice Likert-type scale. Survey methodology also provides responses retrospectively. This means that results can be affected by memory participants have of events (Kelley & Hoffman 1997).

In survey research, the awareness of being tested, or guinea pig effect, may affect both internal and external validity. Confidentiality comes into this too, because the guarantee of privacy might influence the response (Webb et. al., 1966). Van Dyne et al. (1995) noted that both self-report and supervisor ratings of extra-role behaviours have serious weaknesses. Self-report ratings may result in social desirability within responses as well as inflating the correlations with other variables. Self-report questionnaires are also subject to self-presentation bias. Supervisor ratings may result in

problems because of selective memory, memory distortion, the halo effect, and may also be inadequate because of the difficulty of observing many of the type of behaviours characterised by citizenship behaviour. Observers are also more likely to make attribution errors than actors are (Zebrowitz, 1990).

Role selection is also likely to take place, both with supervisors' and subordinates' responses. Role selection involves choosing a response from the variety of 'true selves or proper behaviours' available to the respondent. The unconscious question asked by the respondent could relate to what kind of person they think they should be as they answer the questions (Webb et al., 1966). Those that are less acquainted with being tested and with less formal schooling are more likely to produce a nonrepresentative response (Webb). In this study 52% of the respondents had had less than 10 years formal schooling.

In addition to intruding into the lives of people, surveys can cause people to produce a particular response set (Backstrom & Hursh-César, 1981). Response sets could have influenced responses of both supervisors and subordinates. It has been found that respondents are more likely to agree with a statement than disagree with its opposite. This is known as the acquiescence response set (Webb et al., 1966). Respondents are also known to have a preference for strong rather than moderate or indecisive responses. Sequences of questions asked in a very similar format produce stereotypical responses. Decreasing attention can also produce reliability biases. This might particularly have occurred with some of the supervisors who had several subordinates for whom to complete questionnaires.

Sampling error could also possibly have occurred. The use of a convenience sample raises questions particularly about external validity. According to Webb 'the curious, the exhibitionistic and the succorant are likely to overpopulate any sample of volunteers' (p. 16). This could apply to the subordinates in this study. It seems likely that those more likely to engage in citizenship behaviour would voluntarily fill in a questionnaire on any subject, let alone the subject in question. The effective return rate for the questionnaire was only 23%. This raises further questions about the representativeness of the sample. If the results of the present research are anything to go by, then the situation is even worse for the organisation as far as their older, permanent staff members are

concerned. Those that responded showed no relationship between fairness and OCB. The possibility exists that those who did not respond would have showed a negative relationship between the two.

It must be remembered that the existence of multicollinearity is a serious possibility among almost all of the fairness variables. The extremely high zero-order correlations (see Table 15) between the fairness instruments gave an initial indication of high multicollinearity (Berry & Feldman, 1985). Furthermore, as was reported in the previous chapter, IPJ had the greatest degree of multicollinearity with the other fairness variables. All the fairness variables except DJ were problematic in terms of multicollinearity. What this means is that the fairness instruments are to a large extent measuring the same construct. In the chapter on fairness, significant theoretical links were made between the different types of fairness constructs. The notions of reciprocity and the social contract that underlie most of the different theoretical paradigms were also discussed. The fact that multicollinearity exists to such an extent among the instruments in this empirical study confirms this theoretical supposition.

Perception and Attribution

Research on organisational citizenship behaviour focuses on the study of a type of behaviour in organisations – or does it? What is measured in the majority of empirical work on the subject is the perception of OCB. Because of this, a careful consideration of the perception process is required. There are three main epistemological approaches to social perception: structuralist, constructivist and ecological (Zebrowitz, 1990). The structural approach sees perception as being built up from smaller sensory units that are related to the object being perceived. The constructivist approach argues that the perceiver creates the structure from the observable cues. The ecological approach argues that perceivers detect (rather than construct) different realities. It is an approach that views the joint effects of both perceiver and target as important. Whereas in the structuralist approach there is an objective reality and in the constructivist approach there is no objective reality, in the ecological approach there is an interaction of both approaches. This approach uses the notions of affordances and attunements. *Affordances* relate to the opportunities that the target of perception provides while *attunements* are the specific pieces of information that the perceiver attends to. This

implies the existence of objective reality but argues that this may be perceived differently by different people.

Whether or not objective reality exists, however, is a philosophical question that cannot be resolved here. Rather we need to take a more practical look at perception. Perception of behaviour measures two things: the actual behaviour and the reason the perceiver thinks the behaviour is being engaged in, or to put this another way, what the perceiver thinks the behaviour means. This second part of perception is what has been referred to as attribution. Causal attribution has been further defined as the process whereby motives or causes are assigned to the behaviour of others (Zebrowitz, 1990). As Weiner (1992) maintained, 'reality depends on the eye of the beholder' (p. 225). This section examines firstly the notion of the attribution of behaviour by the perceiver and secondly looks more closely at the actual perceiver, and at factors within the perceiver that could result in differences in perception.

For some reason the fact that citizenship behaviours are not officially prescribed in the job description, has resulted in the assumption in the literature that the motivation for engaging in these behaviours is different to that for engaging in other organisational behaviour (Smith et al., 1983; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Pond et al. (1997) argued that a problem in OCB research is that 'a prosocial, desire-to-help motive for a behavior' (p. 1541) has been decided upon a priori while there are many possible motives for people to engage in behaviour. The enactment of OCBs is often attributed to altruistic motives whereas a self-interested motivation is presumed for ingratiation or impression management. The problem here is that the enacted behaviours of these different constructs are often not distinguishable from each other (Bolino, 1999). It is therefore possible that the type of behaviour in terms of OCB of ingratiation attributed to a subordinate could be dependent upon the supervisor's feelings towards that person.

It has been shown in previous research that the same behaviour can be viewed as either ingratiation or OCB. Eastman (1994) studied managers' reactions to behaviour with regard to ingratiation and organizational citizenship behaviour. He approached the subject of OCB in a different way to many other researchers in that his methodology made use of written vignettes as opposed to a survey instrument. Raters classified the responses of managers to five different

hypothetical employees as either ingratiating or citizenship behaviour. Eastman found that managers rewarded employees much more generously when the behaviour the employee exhibited had been rated as citizenship behaviour than when it had been rated as ingratiating behaviour. He argued that some managers might be biased toward viewing the behaviour of a certain employee as ingratiating while others may view it as citizenship behaviour. His findings support those of other researchers who have raised questions about the prosocial motivational set (Pond et al., 1997) attributed to organisational citizenship behaviour by researchers. It shows very clearly that the same employee extra-role behaviours can be viewed very differently by different managers because of the different motivations ascribed to the behaviours.

These findings on attribution need to be supplemented by a discussion detailing additional ways in which attribution has been explained. Behaviour has most often been divided on the basis of whether it can be attributed to causes internal or external to an actor. These distinctions have also been seen as either dispositional (internal) or situational (external). It has been found that an actor will be more likely to favour situational attributions of their behaviour while observers tend to favour dispositional attributions (Storms, 1973). The fundamental attribution error is the propensity that observers have for overestimating dispositional and underestimating environmental influences on actors. However, Storms found that these attributional errors were directly reversed when the roles were reversed. 'Reoriented self-viewing actors attributed their behaviors relatively less to situational causes than did observers' (p. 173). Storms videotaped participants and made them watch the videos to produce this extremely interesting effect. He postulated that the reason these attributions occur in the first place is that actors watch their environments while observers watch actors. This means that attributions result from those things on which people concentrate and which are most easily brought to their attention.

Kruglanski (1975) divided the attribution of behaviours into endogenous and exogenous attributions. Behaviour is perceived as endogenous when it is presumed to be an end in itself and exogenous when it is presumed to be a means to an end. Kruglanski maintained that the possibility of an exogenous attribution lessened the likelihood of behaviours being endogenously attributed. Thibaut and Riecken (1955) found similarly that when no possible exogenous reason was present, actors were perceived as wanting to help rather than being coerced to do so, and also perceived as

more likeable, in which case reciprocal benevolence was more likely. Kruglanski argued that 'the benevolence inferences and reciprocated benevolence (assumed to follow from an endogenous attribution of a benevolent action) ought to be correlated with the inferences of the actor's freedom (assumed to follow from an endogenous attribution of any action)' (p. 399). He concluded that an endogenous attribution is likely to be made only when there are no exogenous attributions available or when there is evidence that supports an endogenous attribution.

Within the domain of causal schemas, which are essentially the attributions that are made without complete information, the area of linguistically-based schemas is particularly interesting. It has been found (Zebrowitz, 1990) that different types of verbs give rise to different causal schemas. Verbs that express emotional or cognitive states give rise to target attributions whereas action verbs give rise to actor attributions.

It can be seen therefore, that attributions could result from the way the supervisor feels about the subordinate (Bolino, 1999). Because of these differing attributions, differing motivations could be ascribed to subordinates (Eastman, 1994). Bolino's solution was to attempt to isolate self-serving from other-serving motivation in order to discover whether behaviour is impression management or citizenship behaviour. Schnake (1991) similarly suggested the inclusion of a scale to control for the effects of social desirability in self-report OCB instruments. He also suggested that motive is important, and that one could be measuring behaviours that are ingratiating or political in some other way, while attempting to measure citizenship behaviours.

All these aspects of attribution could have been present within the subordinate and supervisor ratings. Attributional errors could have resulted from both sources (Storms, 1973). Supervisors could have been more likely to make exogenous attributions than endogenous ones (Kruglanski, 1973). Lastly, the particular verbs used could have influenced the ratings of supervisors (Zebrowitz, 1990). This means that we must be cognisant of the fact that the results may not be completely accurate. With supervisors' reports we are measuring their attributions of subordinates' behaviour, while with self-reports we are measuring employees' attributions of their own behaviour. Because of the possibility of attributions, the motivation for engaging in particular behaviour becomes extremely difficult to measure. It is therefore argued here that questioning the motivation for

citizenship behaviour is not useful to the present research. If we were measuring actual behaviour, motive might be useful, but we are not. We are measuring perceptions of behaviour.

In addition to looking specifically the sort of attributions that the observer or perceiver might make about the actor, it is also important to look at how the perceiver might affect the results of a survey. Zebrowitz (1990) examined both cognitive and affective factors in the perceiver which may have an impact on impressions and may affect what information is registered initially, remembered at a later stage, how it is evaluated and what personal meaning it has for the perceiver. It is important to remember that whatever perceiver or target effects are noted, that they are important because we are not relying on the perception of one person but of many different people in a study such as this. If we were relying on the perception of one person these effects would be less problematic because many of the effects would hold steady.

The cognitive factors examined by Zebrowitz (1990) include priming effects, expectancy effects, group stereotypes and cognitive heuristics. Priming effects occur when the perceiver refers to descriptive terms because they are primed to remember them either by frequency or recency. Expectancy effects occur when people are expected to be something and are then perceived as being that. Expectancy has two sides to it. The assimilation effect occurs when behaviour that is not too different to the expected behaviour is absorbed as the expected behaviour by the perceiver, while the contrast effect occurs when behaviour that is not similar enough to be absorbed appears to be even more different. Group stereotypes include race and particularly racial similarity of the target to the perceiver. Perceivers also sometimes use cognitive heuristics to make judgements easier. The availability heuristic judges the frequency or probability of an event occurring according to how easy it is to think of examples of the event while the representativeness heuristic puts people into categories based on how representative they are of the average person in the category.

Affective factors in the perceiver that might have an impact on the impression created are also important. Perceivers might perceive qualities in the target that threaten the fulfilment of their own goals. The emotional frame of mind of the perceiver might also influence the impression he or she receives. If the perceiver is in a positive frame of mind he or she is more likely to notice positive information in the target.

Context effects also come into play here. These include halo, primacy and recency effects, as well as dilution effects where behaviour might have a smaller effect on the impressions of perceivers because they are diluted by the presence of other neutral behaviours than they would have if they appeared alone. Salience in the target draws attention to itself and might be evaluated as either more positive or more negative. Attractiveness or babyishness of the target, information in the voice, body or gait can increase halo effects.

It can therefore be seen that perception is problematic firstly because it may not relate to objective reality and secondly because perception may differ based on attribution. In this section, attribution has been examined in detail. We have also looked at factors within the perceiver that can alter the way things are perceived. All the results that have been reported in this study need to be looked at within the context of the biases that could result from perception and attribution differences.

Attitude Scales

The survey used in this research required participants to respond to Likert-type questions. Summated rating scales, of which Likert-type scales and Thurston-type scales (Somer & Somer, 1986) are a subset, are attitude scales (Kerlinger, 1973). Each item is designed to have more or less equal value and items and are responded to with varying degrees of intensity. The scores of items are usually summed in order to place the individual somewhere on the continuum of the attitude being studied. A Likert-type scale should contain only statements that are obviously favourable or unfavourable (Sommer & Sommer, 1986). All the items are given the same weighting, to make the scale easier to use. The scoring makes use of whole numbers, from 1 for *strongly disagree* to 5 for *strongly agree*.

The fact that the survey made use of an attitude scale needs to be discussed further here. The Oxford English Dictionary (Simpson & Weiner, 1989) defined an attitude as 'a settled opinion or way of thinking'. In the chapter on OCB the question asked in the surveys for each OCB conceptualisation was explored. It should be apparent that asking how often one engages in a behaviour as is often asked within particularly the two-factor Smith et al. (1983) conceptualisation,

will not elicit an attitudinal response. Furthermore it does not constitute an obviously favourable or unfavourable statement.

Limitations of attitude scales are that they often do not predict behaviour very accurately (Sommer & Sommer, 1986). They also assume that 'attitudes lie along a single dimension of favorability' (p. 136), whereas opinions may be multidimensional. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) had a problem with Likert scales. They argued that the assumption that individual items perfectly 'cut' the population in terms of θ based upon correct versus incorrect responses is a major reason why Likert scales are unrealistic. In the case of the OCB questionnaire, even though the aim is to measure behaviour, what is really being measured is the attitude to the behaviour either of the supervisor or the subordinate.

The fact that the scales allow for intensity of attitude expression means that there is the advantage of greater variance. This also has the disadvantage of response-set variance. Certain people within the population being tested may have tendencies to use different types of responses such as neutral responses, or extreme positives or negatives. Kerlinger (1973) cautioned that the differences yielded by summated rating scales are partly due to response sets.

Common Method Variance

The problem of common method variance pertains to the analysis of the relationship between measures of different concepts that have been gleaned from a single source at a single point in time, for example, a self-administered questionnaire (Bryman, 1992). The problem is that if measures are obtained from a single source, the likelihood of a relationship between them could possibly be either increased or decreased as a result of the single source. In this research, an attempt was made to resolve the common method variance problem by using subordinate responses for the fairness instruments and supervisor responses for the OCB instrument. Unfortunately this did not work out, as has already been discussed in this chapter, and so we are left open to the possibility of common method variance.

Bryman (1992) raised several potential problems that could occur as a result of common method variance. The first problem is the consistency effect, in which people attempt to answer the

questionnaire consistently. The second problem is one of common format, where if one has to say to what degree one agrees or disagrees with a statement, a false consistency may be obtained from responses. Another problem could be similar questions in different sections that are supposed to be representing different constructs.

Solutions that are available to assist with common method variance are factor analysis, and the use of data from different sources (Bryman, 1992). We have already discussed reasons why data from different sources was not able to be used. Factor analysis is used to see whether one overriding factor emerges from a questionnaire containing different constructs. If this occurs, there is a possible case for common method variance, but the technique is not infallible. The factor analysis on all the fairness instruments in the present research showed very distinct and different constructs (Appendix K). It is therefore hoped that the problem of common method variance has not occurred in this research.

Generalisability of the study

It is important to think about both how far and how accurately the findings of the present study can be generalised. The convenience sample used means that the results cannot be said to be accurate for the general population. The type of questionnaire used limited the possibility of participants including additional information that may have been relevant to them. Causality also cannot be claimed because of the cross-sectional nature of the study. Furthermore there could be a common cause of both OCB and fairness, one that is located prior to both these variables (Fahr, Podsakoff & Organ, 1990).

In short, generalisability claims must be made with caution. It is possible that the results could be generalised no further than this particular branch of the organisation, or no further than the organisation as a whole. This, however, does not mean that the results of the study have no value. They are important in that they provide an initial indication of OCB for an organisation in South Africa. The fact that could be of use to management within this particular organisation also means that they are worthwhile.

This brings to an end the discussion on possible limitations in the present research. While the results must be treated with caution, the possibility of biased responses must not be allowed to paralyse the study. All empirical research contains potential limitations of some sort, but limitations do not necessarily compromise the results of the study.

Implications for Practice

The previous section looked at the possible limitations of the study and the extent to which the results may be generalised. This section examines the implications of the results for management practice and for organisational psychology practice.

Morrison (1994) argued that it may be important for managers to change the perception of subordinates with regard to what activities that they do not perceive as part of their jobs, as there are many activities often perceived as not part of the job that are essential to the running of the organisation. Her research indicates that if people view behaviours as evaluated, they are more likely to engage in them. This means that if the span of evaluated behaviour were increased, the performance levels of OCB would increase.

Different models were found in the present research for each OCB factor. In practice this means that if managers wish to improve, for example, the civic virtue of their employees, they need to concentrate on those fairness variables that were indicate in the civic virtue model. This significantly narrows down the areas in which they need to concentrate to produce a better civic virtue result.

The results that were found in the present study indicate that the relationship between fairness and OCB declines as employees get older, as they have worked in the organisation for longer, and as they become permanent members of staff. These results have been explained theoretically in terms of a psychological distancing of the organisation by employees and a realignment with the union. It is important that management find a way to stop the decline in the relationship and there are two possible ways in which management could attempt to prevent this decline. The first would take the form of an incentive scheme administrated by supervisors which would reintroduce evaluation of subordinates by supervisors and in so doing keep the cycle of reciprocity going. The

second would be an attempt to psychologically realign the workers with the organisation. This would probably have to take the form of organisation-wide improvements in conditions of work and conditions of pay above and beyond that which the union have ever demanded. In this way, employees would eventually realise that they do not need the union to fight for them and that the organisation is willing to treat them well without being forced to by the union.

Labour law in South Africa is quite restrictive at the moment in terms of recruitment and selection and the use of psychological testing. Only requirements of the job are valid reasons to test employees according to the Employment Equity Act (1998). Treating employees fairly in combination with evaluating them, is likely to result in increased performance. If employees feel evaluated, the results of this study indicate that they are likely to perform more OCB and in this way improve the effectiveness of the organisation.

If it is beneficial for people to perform OCB, possibly the nature of labour relations in South Africa needs to be re-examined. Is the labour legislation environment in this country conducive to OCB, or is there a way in which we are legislating against OCB by enforcing the use of job descriptions and encouraging a unionised workforce?

Trust was an important moderator in the study. Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard and Werner, (1998) wrote about the way in which managers can initiate trustworthy behaviour and how organisations can support the behaviour. They discussed five categories of behaviour, which they argued are important for the development of trust between managers and subordinates. These are behavioural consistency, behavioural integrity, sharing and the delegation of control, communication and the demonstration of concern for others. The categories were created by Whitener et al., but according to these authors, the categories bear similarities to those proposed by other researchers. They argued that if managers include these five factors of trustworthiness in their behaviour, they would more easily be able to initiate successful exchange relationships with subordinates. 'From the manager's perspective, initiating involves engaging in trustworthy behaviour pre-emptively, perhaps before the subordinate has demonstrated his or her worthiness' (p. 523). Both the obligation and challenge of initiating such relationships lie with management.

South African society and previous governments have been rather authoritarian and rule-based and it is possible that rules are something that people will respond to because that is how they have been socialised. This may be why POS, the institutional exchange construct, is more important to these employees. Managers should take this possibility into account and try to make sure that the organisation presents itself to employees as consistently as possible in terms of fairness.

As far as organisational psychology is concerned, the similarities and differences between the exchange-based constructs and the justice-based constructs should be examined. There has been very little theorising about the issue of fairness within the subject, and given its ability to trigger the moral notion of reciprocity or the social contract. The importance of fairness to organisational psychology should not be underestimated. The importance of fairness for the performance of OCB and thus organisational effectiveness must also be emphasised.

It must not necessarily be assumed that performing OCB is only good for the company. It has been shown here that OCB is a predictor of job satisfaction. Of course there may be some common antecedent of both these variables, so more research should be done to determine whether this is the case. However these preliminary results indicate that the performance of OCB can have some benefit to the individual.

Lastly the way in which job descriptions could be counter-productive to the effectiveness of organisations should be studied. There is a possibility that organisational psychologists have become involved in developing ways in which organisations can be regulated – through job analysis, job design, job description and the like – without having given attention to whether these constructs are useful and effective for organisational and individual performance.

Suggestions for Future Research

This study has made new contributions to knowledge about OCB in several ways. Firstly it was conducted in a different country to most other research on OCB, so it adds to the cross-cultural understanding on the subject. It attests to a clear distinction between fairness and exchange constructs, and also shows that exchange variables are more significant than fairness variables for this sample of workers. The finding about the differences between workers who show a significant

relationship between fairness and OCB and those who do not, is a particularly important contribution to the knowledge on OCB.

The findings of the present research suggest two new distinctions that need to be made in the literature in the future. The first concerns the factor structure of OCB. It is possible that a new factor structure will have to be considered either for this type of employee, i.e. blue-collar workers in a unionised environment or for employees in South Africa. Future research is needed to indicate which of these is the case. Secondly a distinction needs to be made within the fairness literature, between exchange variables and justice variables. They should not be called the same thing. Future research could be done to verify the differences that have been found between these variables.

Because of its importance as a moderator in this research, trust within organisations should be given priority within future research. A lot of theoretical work has been done recently on trust. A whole issue of the Academy of Management Review in 1998 was devoted to the construct of trust and recently a book has been written on trust in organisations (Kramer & Tyler, 1996). The empirical work done on trust in the future should greatly benefit from these additions to the trust literature.

Methods other than self-report instruments should be used to further the study of OCB (Greenberg, 1993). 'Once an association has been established between classes of variables, and this pattern has been replicated in various setting, the stage is then set to begin to use other techniques, ones that help focus on the underlying processes involved' (p. 254). Greenberg suggested in-depth open-ended interviews and laboratory experiments, which would both go further than merely looking at perceptions of the connections between justice and OCB.

Citizenship behaviour should also be studied more often as an independent variable rather than the outcome of some other variable (Schnake, 1991). This would lead to more focus on the outcome of citizenship behaviour, rather than citizenship behaviour as an outcome. This is particularly pertinent as far as benefits to both employees and organisations are concerned. More research therefore needs to be done in this area.

Extra-role behaviour in reality refers to extra-job or extra-position behaviours (Katz & Kahn, 1978), and not extra-role behaviours as defined by role theory. Within role theory all patterned behaviour falls into the concept of a role (Biddle, 1979). The original extra-role conceptualisation of OCB (Bateman & Organ, 1983) was criticised because of the necessity of determining precisely what constitutes in-role or extra-role behaviour (Graham, 1991) and also because OCB has been found not to be a clear-cut construct (Morrison, 1994). She also found that the boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviour is not well defined. It varies across employees making it difficult to decide whether behaviours are either in-role or extra-role without investigating individual cases. Agreeing with the fact that an extra-role conceptualisation of OCB is not justifiable, Organ (1997) has lent support to and in fact redefined citizenship behaviour along the lines of the conceptualisation of contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997) which was described in the chapter on OCB. This construct considers all behaviour within organisations as performance. Task performance consists of job specific behaviours like core job responsibilities while contextual performance consists of behaviours that are not job-specific and maintain the social and psychological environment of the organisation. Organ also noted that there could be a problem with the concept of the job or role in the future and that extra-role behaviour may cease to be meaningful within the context of work which is defined in other ways than using job descriptions. If Organ is right, then the possibility exists that for some jobs OCB will not be a useful construct in the future and that contextual performance might be the place to concentrate.

Conclusion

The results of the empirical study have been discussed and interpreted in this chapter. The generalisability of the research and limitations of the study have been considered. Suggestions for future research have been made, together with suggestions for how the results impact on management practice and organisational psychology as a field.

Summation

The purpose behind this dissertation was the exploration of the relationship between fairness at work and organisational citizenship behaviour in an organisational setting. The nature of fairness was explored, concentrating on both justice- and exchange-based constructs. Organisational citizenship was placed in context within a nomological net of similar constructs and the different ways in which it has been conceptualised were discussed in detail. In addition relationships between fairness and OCB found in previous studies were detailed. The empirical research was carried out in a national retail organisation, after which the results were analysed and interpreted.

The exchange-based fairness variables were more important in explaining the performance of OCB than the justice-based variables. It was particularly interesting that POS, the institutionally-based exchange construct, was more important for these employees than LMX, the supervisor-based construct. A major finding of the research was that there was a relationship between fairness and OCB for younger casual staff members who have worked in the organisation for a shorter length of time, but not for older permanent staff members. The results for the former group are interpretable within the framework of the social contract or social exchange theory where a cycle of reciprocity is set up with the initiation of fairness on the part of the organisation. The results of the latter group, however, must be interpreted using the group value model, which serves to explain them using the notion of psychological distancing of employees from the organisation and realignment with the union. This occurs over time after realising that their supervisors do not have the power to evaluate them and that the organisation only treats them fairly because the union forces it to.

It is therefore theorised that the joining of an organisation is an area where employees can incur morally binding reciprocal obligations upon a show of fairness by the organisation; and further that these moral obligations could entail employees making contributions above and beyond those of job performance.

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Appendix A

Comparison among the constructs in the same nomological net as OCB

	OCB	PSOB	CP	SOB
Focuses on the actor's intent	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Focuses on the perceived outcome	Yes	**No**	Yes	Yes
Is the actor's intent + or -?	+	+	+	+
Extra-role	Yes	Yes	**N/a**	Yes
In-role	No	**Yes**	**N/a**	No
Actor status – member of organisation	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Actor motivation	Promotive	Promotive	Promotive	Promotive
Target of the behaviour				
Individual	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Group	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Organisation	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Intended beneficiary	Organisation	**Target**	Organisation	Organisation

OCB – Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
PSOB – Prosocial Organisational Behaviour
CP – Contextual Performance
SOB – Spontaneous Organisational Behaviour

Appendix B

The Smith, Organ & Near (1983) OCB Scale

	Smith, Organ & Near (1983)			
	1. Helps others who have been absent	Altruism	.81	
	2. Punctuality		.61	Compliance
	3. Volunteers for things that are not required	Altruism	.78	
R	4. Takes undeserved breaks		.52	Compliance
	5. Orients new people even though it is not required	Altruism	.72	
	6. Attendance at work is above the norm		.59	Compliance
	7. Helps others who have heavy work loads	Altruism	.76	
R	8. Coasts towards the end of the day			
	9. Gives advance notice if unable to come to work		.52	Compliance
R	10. Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations		.51	Compliance
	11. Does not take unnecessary time off work		.62	Compliance
	12. Assists supervisor with his or her work	Altruism	.70	
	13. Makes innovative suggestions to improve department	Altruism	.76	
	14. Does not take extra breaks		.63	Compliance
	15. Attends functions not required but that help company image			
	16. Does not spend time in idle conversation		.55	Compliance

Factor loading of .50 and above are reported.

R = reverse-coded

Appendix C

The Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) OCB Scale

	Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990)		
	1.	Never takes long lunches or breaks	Conscientiousness
	2.	Does not take unnecessary time off work	Conscientiousness
	3.	Does not take extra breaks	Conscientiousness
	4.	Attendance at work is above the norm	Conscientiousness
	5.	Obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching	Conscientiousness
	6.	Takes steps to prevent problems with other workers	Courtesy
	7.	Tries to avoid creating problems for co-workers	Courtesy
	8.	Does not abuse the rights of others	Courtesy
	9.	Touches base with others before initiating actions	Courtesy
	10.	Is mindful of how his-her behaviour affects other peoples jobs	Courtesy
	11.	Helps others who have heavy workloads	Altruism
	12.	Helps others who have been absent	Altruism
	13.	Willingly gives of his-her time to help others with work problems	Altruism
R	14.	Always focuses on what's wrong with his/her situation	Sportsmanship
R	15.	Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters	Sportsmanship
R	16.	Is the classic 'squeaky wheel' that always needs greasing	Sportsmanship
R	17.	Always finds fault with what the organisation is doing	Sportsmanship
R	18.	Tends to make 'mountains out of molehills'	Sportsmanship
R	19.	Expresses resentment with any new changes in the department	Sportsmanship
	20.	Attends and participates in meetings regarding the organisation	Civic virtue
	21.	Attends functions that are not required, but help the company image	Civic virtue
	22.	Keeps abreast of changes in the organisation	Civic virtue
	23.	Reads and keeps up with organisation announcements, memo's etc.	Civic virtue
	24.	Keeps up with developments in the company	Civic virtue

R = reverse-coded
Factor Loadings not Available

Appendix D

Moorman & Blakely (1995) OCB Scale

Moorman & Blakely (1995)			
1.	Goes out of his/her way to help co-workers with work-related problems	Interpersonal helping	.351
2.	Voluntarily helps new employees settle into the job	Interpersonal helping	.597
3.	Frequently adjusts his/her work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time-off	Interpersonal helping	.461
4.	Always goes out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group	Interpersonal helping	.460
5.	Shows genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations	Interpersonal helping	.378
6.	For issues that may have serious consequences, expresses opinions honestly even when others may disagree	Individual initiative	.443
7.	Often motivates others to express their ideas and opinions	Individual initiative	.764
8.	Encourages others to try new and more effective ways of doing their job	Individual initiative	.526
9.	Encourages hesitant or quiet co-workers to voice their opinions when they otherwise might not speak-up	Individual initiative	.803
10.	Frequently communicates to co-workers suggestions on how the group can improve	Individual initiative	.557
11.	Rarely misses work even when he/she has a legitimate reason for doing do	Personal industry	.309
12.	Performs his/her duties with unusually few errors	Personal industry	.359
13.	Performs his/her job duties with extra-special care	Personal industry	.440
14.	Always meets or beats deadlines for completing work	Personal industry	.483
15.	Defends the organisation when other employees criticise it	Loyal boosterism	.884
16.	Encourages friends and family to utilise organisation products	Loyal boosterism	.849
17.	Defends the organisation when outsiders criticise it	Loyal boosterism	.946
18.	Shows pride when representing the organisation in public	Loyal boosterism	.991
19.	Actively promotes the organisations products and services to potential users	Loyal boosterism	.772

All of the factor loadings in this table are significant at or below p=.05

Appendix E

The Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994) OCB Scale

	Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch (1994)			
	1.	Represents organisation favourably to outsiders	Loyalty	.75
R	2.	Does not go out of way to defend organisation against outside threats	Loyalty	.68
R	3.	Does not tell outsiders this is a good place to work	Loyalty	.68
R	4.	Does not defend organisation when employees criticise it	Loyalty	.68
	5.	Actively promotes organisation's products and services	Loyalty	.60
R	6.	Would accept job at competing organisations for more money	Loyalty	.59
R	7.	Would not urge co-workers to invest money in organisation	Loyalty	.54
	8.	Rarely wastes time while at work	Obedience	.66
	9.	Produces as much as capable of at all times	Obedience	.64
	10.	Always comes to work on time	Obedience	.60
	11.	Regardless of circumstances, produces highest quality work	Obedience	.55
R	12.	Does not meet all deadlines set by organisation	Obedience	.53
	13.	Is mentally alert and ready to work when arrives at work	Obedience	.53
	14.	Follows work rules and instructions with extreme care	Obedience	.52
R	15.	Sometimes wastes organisational resources	Obedience	.52
	16.	Keeps work area clean and neat	Obedience	.50
R	17.	Sometimes misses work for no good reason	Obedience	.39
R	18.	Only attends work-related meetings if required by job	Social Participation	.67
	19.	Shares ideas for new projects or improvements widely	Social Participation	.65
	20.	Keeps informed about products and services and tells others	Social Participation	.62
	21.	Works so personal appearance is attractive and appropriate	Social Participation	.61
	22.	Is not involved in outside groups for benefit of organisation	Social Participation	.48
	23.	Frequently makes creative suggestions to co-workers	Advocacy Participation	.66
	24.	Uses professional judgement to assess right/wrong for organisation	Advocacy Participation	.58
	25.	Encourages management to keep knowledge/skills current	Advocacy Participation	.56
	26.	Encourages others to speak up at meetings	Advocacy Participation	.55
	27.	Helps co-workers think for themselves	Advocacy Participation	.55
	28.	Keeps well-informed where opinion might benefit organisation	Advocacy Participation	.50
R	29.	Does not push superiors to perform to higher standards	Advocacy Participation	.43
R	30.	Does not pursue additional training to improve performance	Functional Participation	.64
R	31.	Avoids extra duties and responsibilities at work	Functional Participation	.57
R	32.	Does not work beyond what is required	Functional Participation	.56
	33.	Volunteers to overtime work when needed	Functional Participation	.47
R	34.	Has difficulty co-operating with others on projects	Functional Participation	.39

R = reverse-coded

Appendix F

INVITATION TO A WORKSHOP

Dear Participant

I would like to invite you to take part in a study being conducted through the University of Cape Town. We want to better understand what makes people want to 'go the extra mile' at work.

You are invited to attend an interactive workshop for about 1 hour during normal working hours. Participation is completely voluntary and what is said during this workshop as well as the responses to the following questions will be kept confidential. Your name will not be used in reporting the results.

You have been selected as a potential participant because it is believed that you will be a valuable contributor to the group. To participate, please sign the consent form below and return it to Mr Joffe. You will be informed of the day and time of the interview by Mr Joffe.

Please complete the attached form and bring it to the discussion. If you have any questions about this study, please contact Jenny Jardine on 797-6091. Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

Jenny Jardine

I am willing to participate in the study described above.

_____ _____

Signature **Date**

_____

Please print your name above

Please answer the following questions:

Highest Standard of Education Completed:

Standard 8	Matric	Tertiary Qualification

Gender:

Female	Male

Age:

21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50

Appendix G

Demographic Details

Please answer the following questions:

Name and surname:

Female	Male

Highest Standard of Education Completed:

Standard 8	Matric	Tertiary Qualification

Age:

21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50

I am willing to participate in the research on 'going the extra mile'.

Signature

Date

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please read the attached instructions before answering the questionnaire.

[redacted] AS AN ORGANISATON

1. [redacted] values my contribution.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

2. If [redacted] could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

3. [redacted] appreciates any extra effort from me
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

4. [redacted] strongly considers my personal goals and values
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

5. [redacted] considers my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

6. [redacted] would help me if I had a problem
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

7. [redacted] really cares about my well-being.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

8. If I did the best job possible and worked as hard as possible, [redacted] would fail to notice
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

9. [redacted] is willing to help me when I need a special favour
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

10. [redacted] cares about my general satisfaction at work
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

11. If given the opportunity [redacted] would take advantage of me
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

12. [redacted] shows a lot of concern tor me
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

13. [redacted] cares about my opinions
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

14. I trust management to treat me fairly
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

15. I trust local [redacted] management
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

16. I trust corporate [redacted] management
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

17. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in [redacted]
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

18. I really feel as if [redacted] problems are my own.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

19. I feel like 'part of the family' at [redacted]
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

20. I feel 'emotionally attached' to [redacted]
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

21. [redacted] has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

22. I feel a strong sense of belonging to [redacted]
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

YOU AT WORK

1. I take sick days even if I'm not sick
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

2. I take 'extra' breaks (unofficial)
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

3. My attendance record is better than others
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

4. I obey [redacted] rules and regulations even when no one is watching
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

5. I take steps to prevent problems with others before they happen
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

6. I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

7. I communicate with others before I do anything that affects their work
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

8. I care about how my behaviour affects other people's jobs
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

9. I help others who have heavy workloads
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

10. I help others who have been absent
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

11. I willingly give of my own time to help others with work problems
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

12. I always focus on the negative things rather than the positive in my work situation
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

13. I spend a lot of work time complaining about trivial matters
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

14. I always find fault with what [redacted] is doing
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

15. I tend to make a big issue out of small issues
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

16. I express resentment with any new changes at work
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

17. I attend meetings regarding [redacted]
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

18. I attend functions that are not required, but help [redacted] image
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

19. I keep informed of changes in [redacted]
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

20. I read [redacted] announcements, memo's etc.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

21. How satisfied I am with my job over all.
Very dissatisfied Dissatisfied Undecided Satisfied Very satisfied

NAME OF YOUR SUPERVISOR_____
(If you have more than one supervisor, please fill in the name of the person you will think of when you fill in the questionnaire)

1. I know how satisfied my supervisor is with what I do
Rarely Occasionally Sometimes Fairly often Very often

2. My supervisor understands and sympathises with my job problems and needs.
Not a bit A little A fair amount Quite a bit A great deal

3. My supervisor recognises my potential in the company
Not at all A little Moderately Mostly Fully

4. What are the chances that my supervisor would use her/his power to help me solve problems in my work?
None Small Moderate High Very high

5. What are the chances that my supervisor would stand up for me even if it meant that s/he would get into trouble?
None Small Moderate High Very high

6. I have enough confidence in my supervisor that I would defend and justify his/her decisions if he/she were not present.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

7. My working relationship with my supervisor is _____.
Extremely ineffective | Worse than average | Average | Better than average | Extremely effective

8. My supervisor considers my viewpoint in making decisions.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

9. My supervisor is able to suppress personal biases when making decisions.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

10. My supervisor provides me with timely feedback about decisions and their implications.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

11. My supervisor treats me with kindness and consideration.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

12. My supervisor shows concern tor my rights as an employee.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

13. My supervisor takes steps to deal with me in a truthful manner.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

[redacted] DECISION-MAKING PROCEDURES ARE DESIGNED TO: -

1. ...Collect accurate information necessary for making decisions.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

2. ...Provide opportunities to appeal or challenge the decision.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

3. ...represent all sides affected by the decision.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

4. ...Generate standards so that decisions can be made with consistency.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

5. ...Hear the concerns of all those affected by the decision.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

6. ...Provide useful feedback regarding the decision and its implementation.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

7. ...Allow for requests for clarification or additional information about the decision.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

REWARD (pay or other recognition) FOR EFFORT

1. I am fairly rewarded considering the responsibilities I have.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

2. I am fairly rewarded given the amount of education and training that I have had.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

3. I am fairly rewarded given the amount of experience I have.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

4. I am fairly rewarded for the amount of effort I make at work.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

5. I am fairly rewarded for the work I have done well.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

6. I am fairly rewarded for the stresses and strains of my job.
Strongly disagree Disagree Undecided Agree Strongly agree

Gender: male ☐ **female** ☐

Date of birth: dd/mm/yy ____/____/____

Education | Less than Std 8 | Standard 8 | Matric | Tertiary Qualification |

Number of years in [redacted]: _____

Number of years with this supervisor: _____

Position at [redacted]: _____

Home language: _____

COMPUTER NO.

Front Page

Middle Pages

Back Page

Copy of what the subordinate survey looked like

Appendix I

Details of the scales included in the Subordinates' Survey.

Note: The blacked out portions refer to the company's name

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

1. I take sick days even if I'm not sick
2. I take 'extra' breaks (unofficial)
3. My attendance record is better than others
4. I obey [redacted] rules and regulations even when no one is watching
5. I take steps to prevent problems with others before they happen
6. I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers
7. I communicate with others before I do anything that affects their work
8. I care about how my behaviour affects other people's jobs
9. I help others who have heavy workloads
10. I help others who have been absent
11. I willingly give of my own time to help others with work problems
12. I always focus on the negative things rather than the positive in my work situation
13. I spend a lot of work time complaining about trivial matters
14. I always find fault with what [redacted] is doing
15. I tend to make a big issue out of small issues
16. I express resentment with any new changes at work I attend meetings regarding [redacted].
17. I attend meetings regarding [redacted].
18. I attend functions that are not required, but help [redacted] image
19. I keep informed of changes in [redacted].
20. I read [redacted] announcements, memo's etc.

Trust

1. I trust management to treat me fairly
2. I trust local [redacted] management
3. I trust corporate [redacted] management

Perceived Organisational Support

1. [redacted] values my contribution.
2. If [redacted] could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so.
3. [redacted] appreciates any extra effort from me
4. [redacted] strongly considers my personal goals and values
5. [redacted] considers my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me
6. [redacted] would help me if I had a problem
7. [redacted] really cares about my well-being.
8. If I did the best job possible and worked as hard as possible, [redacted] would fail to notice
9. [redacted] is willing to help me when I need a special favour
10. [redacted] cares about my general satisfaction at work
11. If given the opportunity [redacted] would take advantage of me
12. [redacted] shows a lot of concern for me
13. [redacted] cares about my opinions

Affective Organisational Commitment

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in [redacted].
2. I really feel as if [redacted] problems are my own.
3. I feel like 'part of the family' at [redacted].
4. I feel 'emotionally attached' to [redacted].
5. [redacted] has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
6. I feel a strong sense of belonging to [redacted].

Job Satisfaction

1. How satisfied I am with my job over all.

Leader-member Exchange

1. I know how satisfied my supervisor is with what I do
2. My supervisor understands and sympathises with my job problems and needs.
3. My supervisor recognises my potential in the company
4. What are the chances that my supervisor would use her/his power to help me solve problems in my work?
5. What are the chances that my supervisor would stand up for me even if it meant that s/he would get into trouble?
6. I have enough confidence in my supervisor that I would defend and justify his/her decisions if he/she were not present.
7. My working relationship with my supervisor is _____.

Interpersonal Procedural Justice

1. My supervisor considers my viewpoint in making decisions.
2. My supervisor is able to suppress personal biases when making decisions.
3. My supervisor provides me with timely feedback about decisions and their implications.
4. My supervisor treats me with kindness and consideration.
5. My supervisor shows concern for my rights as an employee.
6. My supervisor takes steps to deal with me in a truthful manner.

Structural Procedural Justice

[redacted] DECISION-MAKING PROCEDURES ARE DESIGNED TO: -

1. ...Collect accurate information necessary for making decisions.
2. ...Provide opportunities to appeal or challenge the decision.
3. ...represent all sides affected by the decision.
4. ...Generate standards so that decisions can be made with consistency.
5. ...Hear the concerns of all those affected by the decision.
6. ...Provide useful feedback regarding the decision and its implementation.
7. ...Allow for requests for clarification or additional information about the decision.

Distributive Justice

1. I am fairly rewarded considering the responsibilities I have.
2. I am fairly rewarded given the amount of education and training that I have had.
3. I am fairly rewarded given the amount of experience I have.
4. I am fairly rewarded for the amount of effort I make at work.
5. I am fairly rewarded for the work I have done well.
6. I am fairly rewarded for the stresses and strains of my job.

Appendix J

NAME: _____

Please complete both section A and section B
Each question relates to the person whose name is at the top of this page, or your relationship with this person

SECTION A

Please tick the appropriate block for each question

	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	UNDECIDED	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
➨ Takes sick days even if not sick					
➨ Takes 'extra' breaks (unofficial)					
➨ Attendance record is better than others					
➨ Obeys [redacted] rules and regulations even when no one is watching					
➨ Takes steps to prevent problems with others before they happen					
➨ Tries to avoid creating problems for co-workers					
➨ Communicates with others before doing anything that affects their work					
➨ Cares about how his/her behaviour affects other people's jobs					
➨ Helps others who have heavy workloads					
➨ Helps others who have been absent					
➨ Willingly give of his/her own time to help others with work problems					
➨ Always focuses on the negative things rather than the positive in his/her work situation					
➨ Spends a lot of work time complaining about trivial matters					
➨ Always finds fault with what [redacted] is doing					
➨ Tends to make a big issue out of small issues					
➨ Expresses resentment with any new changes at work					
➨ Attends meetings regarding [redacted]					
➨ Attends functions that are not required, but help [redacted] image					
➨ Keeps informed of changes in [redacted]					
➨ Reads [redacted] announcements, memo's etc.					
➨ Adequately completes assigned duties					
➨ Fulfils responsibilities specified in job description					
➨ Performs tasks that are expected of him/her					
➨ Meets formal performance requirements of the job					
➨ Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform					
➨ Fails to perform essential duties					

OCB

In-Role Behaviour

SECTION B

Please circle the appropriate response for each question

1. **Does (*Substitute the name of the person at the top of the page*) usually know how satisfied you are with what he/she does?**
   Rarely | Occasionally | Sometimes | Fairly often | Very often

2. **How well do you understand and sympathise with _____'s job problems and needs?**
   Not a bit | A little | A fair amount | Quite a bit | A great deal

3. **How well do you recognise _____'s potential in the company?**
   Not at all | A little | Moderately | Mostly | Fully

4. **What are the chances you would use your power to help _____ solve problems in their work?**
   None | Small | Moderate | High | Very high

5. **What are the chances that you would stand up for _____ even if it meant that you would get into trouble?**
   None | Small | Moderate | High | Very high

6. **_____ has enough confidence in you that he/she would defend and justify your decisions if you were not present.**
   Strongly disagree | Disagree | Undecided | Agree | Strongly agree

7. **Which one of the following best describes your working relationship with _____?**
   Extremely ineffective | Worse than average | Average | Better than average | Extremely effective

LMX

Appendix K

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized) of all the Fairness Instruments

Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .450000)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
POS1	**.79**	.21	.11	.17	.15	.15	-.06	-.15
POS2	.37	.23	-.03	.32	-.20	-.17	-.01	**.54**
POS3	**.67**	.07	.05	.37	.21	.02	.07	-.12
POS4	**.69**	.17	.23	.15	-.01	.01	-.02	.21
POS5	**.57**	.13	.19	**.46**	.13	-.09	.23	.18
POS6	**.74**	.32	.13	.10	-.02	.14	-.24	.12
POS7	**.76**	.22	.15	.18	-.05	.02	-.26	.28
POS8	**.71**	.11	.02	-.02	-.04	-.05	.42	.07
POS9	**.64**	.33	.23	.22	.05	-.23	.09	.12
POS10	**.49**	.30	.20	.39	.32	.03	.36	.09
POS11	.33	-.00	.23	.06	.30	.12	.03	**.71**
POS12	**.65**	.20	.28	.38	.12	-.09	.03	.26
POS13	**.82**	.02	.18	.23	-.01	-.03	.07	.04
TRU1	.33	.33	.19	**.53**	-.10	-.04	-.20	.19
TRU2	.39	.23	.32	**.53**	.06	-.33	.00	.26
TRU3	.37	.30	.25	**.46**	.02	-.33	.03	.11
LMX1	.17	.22	-.13	.10	**.75**	-.04	.09	-.01
LMX2	.26	**.80**	.15	.04	.01	.20	-.08	.08
LMX3	.26	**.78**	.16	.01	.07	.09	.11	-.16
LMX4	.21	**.78**	.19	.11	.16	-.16	-.12	.07
LMX5	.26	**.64**	.14	.39	.03	-.04	-.27	.00
LMX6	.12	**.72**	.21	.34	-.00	-.09	-.02	.12
LMX7	.19	**.75**	.08	.05	.27	.16	-.02	-.19
IPJ1	.21	**.62**	.25	.34	.27	-.15	-.16	.02
IPJ2	-.09	.26	-.05	.13	.61	.32	-.22	.22
IPJ3	.18	**.55**	.21	.34	.07	.06	.12	.03
IPJ4	-.20	**.72**	.10	.26	-.07	.14	.26	.18
IPJ5	.13	**.74**	.15	.32	.04	.09	.09	.22
IPJ6	.18	**.62**	.12	.29	.17	.02	.18	.13
SPJ1	.16	.38	.15	**.55**	-.14	.20	.44	-.02
SPJ2	.07	.28	.02	.38	.15	**.75**	.04	.02
SPJ3	.18	.32	.24	**.72**	-.03	.03	.08	.08
SPJ4	.03	.26	.19	**.69**	.02	.35	.11	.21
SPJ5	.25	.14	.21	**.66**	.25	.16	-.02	-.00
SPJ6	.31	.16	.13	**.72**	.17	-.01	-.11	.03
SPJ7	.32	.23	.21	**.73**	.05	.12	.01	-.04
DJ1	.19	.19	**.80**	.06	-.00	-.03	.11	.11
DJ2	.07	.16	**.78**	.25	-.12	.11	-.13	-.06
DJ3	.14	.23	**.75**	.35	-.01	.00	-.14	.06
DJ4	.14	.12	**.90**	.17	.02	-.04	-.03	.09
DJ5	.14	.25	**.87**	.07	-.00	.08	.06	.03
DJ6	.25	.13	**.77**	.20	-.00	-.13	.15	.03
Expl.Var	6.89	7.13	5.13	5.69	1.66	1.45	1.16	1.53
Prp.Totl	.16	.17	.12	.14	.04	.03	.03	.04