

T.C.
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SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI
YÖNETİM VE ORGANİZASYON (İNG.) BİLİM DALI

**THE EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED NEPOTISM AND JOB STRESS ON
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY IN
KYRGYZ FAMILY-MANAGED COMPANY**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

DJULIETTA MAHAMATJAN KYZY

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Danışman: YRD. DOÇ. DR. MÜJDELEN YENER

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1) Tez Danışmanı : YRD. DOÇ.DR. MÜJDELEN İPEK YENER

2) Jüri Üyesi : DOÇ. DR. BERİL DURMUŞ

3) Jüri Üyesi : PROF. DR. İNCİ ARTAN ERDEM

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE

Name and Surname	Djulietta Mahamatjan kyzy
Field	Business Administration
Program	Management and Organization
Supervisor	Assist. Doc. Dr. Müjdelen Yener
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ABSTRACT

This paper was conducted in order to analyze data obtained from an empirical research study which investigated the effect of perceived nepotism on organizational citizenship behavior through job stress in context of Kyrgyz family owned group of food and beverage companies Shoro.

Post-Soviet situation brought to business management new tendencies especially family-managed businesses which were restricted in communistic regime. For a long period family run businesses were growing and nowadays they are in arms of second generation, so nepotistic behavior became a real part of management. In these conditions the effect of perceived nepotism on organizational citizenship behavior (here and after used in abbreviation OCB) could be analyzed wrongly. In other countries effect of perceived nepotism on OCB was measured and showed negative relationship, while in Kyrgyz companies you can face to surprises, so to show real case there must be added disturbing element like job stress, which is negative and decreases OCB. So the real face of perceived nepotism can be shown through this examining.

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İsim ve Soyadı	Djulietta Mahamatjan kzy
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ÖZET

Bu tez, Kırgızistan’da gıda ve içecek üreten Shoro aile şirketine nepotizmin iş stresi ile örgütsel davranış üzerindeki etkilerini ölçen araştırmadan elde edilen verileri analiz etmek için yapılmıştır.

Post-Sovyet devri işletmelere, özellikle aile işletmelerine, eskiden komünist rejimi tarafından kısıtlanan birçok yeni eğilimler getirdi. Uzun süre büyüyen aile işletmeleri şimdilerde ikinci neslin omuzlarında, bu yüzden nepotist davranış işletmenin ayrılmaz bir parçası haline gelmiş. Bu koşullarda, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışın (bundan sonra OCB kısaltması kullanılacak) üzerinde nepotizmin etkisi yanlış analiz edilebilir. Başka ülkelerde nepotizmin OCB üzerinde etkisi araştırılmış ve negatif etki görülmüştür. Ama Kırgız şirketlerde bunun aynısı görülmeye bilir. Bu yüzden gerçek durumu göstermek için modele örgütsel davranış negatif etkileyen iş stresini eklememiz gerekir. Ve bundan sonra nepotizmin gerçek yüzü incelenebilir

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1. INTRODUCTION

Kyrgyz people always say- “Our government is poor, but people are rich”. This comes from real situation in Kyrgyzstan: privatization, which started after USSR fall, pushed people to find the ways to survive and try to learn managing business they have owned. On the other hand government could not surround all the needs of people. Privatization brought two opposite results: relatives were employed in order to help them to survive in that hard time and nowadays it is overspread situation in business, other part preferred to employ specialists.

Most of people in Kyrgyzstan employ through ties and acquaintances the situation that causes weaker efficiency in development of economy within the market and country whole. Preference of relatives and friends while employing and managing personnel can be undertaken as corruption, lack of good governance and transparency weakens faith and moral values in company.

The problem of owner managed business is ‘Nepotism’, its negative effect on employees’, its consequences as a job stress, ending with ruining organizational citizenship behavior. Nepotism brings many problems and it is not very clear where it starts and ends. Unconsciously people think that nepotism is regulated in some way, and the biggest disappointment is - everybody is used to nepotism, employees learned to cope with this and live in it. But according to the results nepotism has significant effect on employees’ organizational citizenship behaviors. By imagining of those workplace uncertainties, lack of trust, zero scaled motivation, clashes of morality here nepotism’s effect can be easily guessed, but again and again, cultural specificity comes around to turn clear minds into real misunderstanding.

Kyrgyz nation has an oriental traditional culture that has intensive influence on the managing style. Since family structure is patriarchate, therefore father has a big impact on his children, and oldest man in family generally has to look after other siblings; these traditions prepare great ground for nepotism.

The historical heritage comes from Turkic traditions, where tribalism had big efficiency on becoming a nation; it made a root in psychological face of nation. Family

head has a big impact on choices of rest of family and everybody must help each other in family, generally families were very big and there were many close relatives that are why family was always on the first place.

Old boy networks are structures which affect society, indirectly or directly, in decision-making. Nepotism does not relate to the self-interests of an official directly, but to the interests of someone near him or her, such as a family member, a member of a political party, a tribe member, or a member of the same religious group. Favoritism is based on several things, such as race, religion, geographical factors, political affiliation or personal and organizational relationships (clubs, associations). Favoritism also has another side, namely the discrimination of certain groups. (Salminen, 2010, p. 55)

Nepotistic behavior in Kyrgyz companies generally is accepted as logical situation, because these are traditions, but even in small company we can find somebody who is not delighted by preference to blood rather than professionalism. "Business owners and their advisers have often feared that non-family employees would resent and possibly treat unkindly family members brought into the business or would see the family members as roadblocks to their own career success," noted Sharon Nelton (www.referenceforbusiness.com, 3) in Nation's Business. "They also feared that some family members themselves might be incompetent or lazy yet have an attitude of entitlement."

1.1. IMPORTANCE OF THE TOPIC

Seen from the overlapping systems perspective, nepotism occurs when the ground rules that define fairness in the task system are violated - that is, when family are given rewards and privileges in the firm to which they are not entitled on the basis of merit and competence (Lansberg, 1983, p. 43). Huseyn Arasli and Mustafa Tumer (2008, p. 1237) found that nepotism, favoritism and cronyism create job stress in the workplace and this increases dissatisfaction of the staff about their organizations; and in the study nepotism has the greatest negative effect on job stress.

Kiechel and Hagen with Amin claimed in Abdalla, Maghrabi, & Raggad (1998, p. 554) that some researchers believe that nepotism is declining in the age of giant corporations; there are others who believe that nepotism is still alive and flourishing in American and European businesses. Similar arguments indicate that nepotism is also a dominant issue in less-developed countries. Where wish of parents is a law and children obey them without any word. This lays in culture of the nation and children are afraid not to be blessed in their life by parents if they will not obey. Generally they start “work” in childhood; parents try to give family education in the company. In developed countries leaders of family owned businesses find out that their children have no willing to follow their parents, and it become obvious that 3rd generation shortens life of family corporations. There are many ways to make family members effective and valuable for company. Leaders bring their children to the head of company and to earn trust of other leaders must continue to advertise and sell his child.

Kyrgyz nation has an oriental traditional culture that has intensive influence on the managing style. Since family structure is patriarchate father has a big impact on his children. And oldest man in family generally has to look after other siblings, though the ground for nepotism is prepared.

As it was mentioned above about tribalism, it has left print even on business face: if all belongings was divided between sons, then business also passed to son, as it must be according to culture and country traditions. It is unusual if business will be left to non-family member, nobody trusts to people from outside of family. This is a sad truth about business done in Kyrgyzstan.

Furthermore, nepotism is so usual in business that it become unseen feature of management. But if careful view is done into heart of social life of company, it can be said that somewhere unconsciously it has an impact on behavior of employees. No company agree with this statement, they say that whole country has same situation, and from the beginning of business occur it had never been in family owned companies that a guy from outside manages the company.

On the other hand there is an unseen mood of workplace: employees have no ambitions. There is no career future for a real specialist. Or again these specialists could never earn trust of company holders, just because they are not from their families. Today, while some workers demonstrate extra discretionary contributions to their job by going beyond the call of duties prescribed in their jobs, others choose to withhold such appropriate work. This condition brings many concerns about the employees behavior in workplace their attitudes toward colleagues and tasks they are given. All these statements push to the thoughts of presence of stress at work. The most frightening type of stress: unconscious stress, that always been kept inside of employees. Technically it can be investigated if non family member employees live in stress because of the nepotism perception, and how it concerns with citizenship behavior of employee at workplace.

Although organizational nepotism can have a serious impact on the firm, its impact has rarely been empirically measured. Arasli & Tumer (2008, p. 1247) find that nepotism has a negative effect on job stress and organizational commitment.

In this study a family owned company will be examined and true situation will be drawn according to results gained from research. There are very few studies in this field, that's why all hypotheses given before the research will be examined. This study is contributed for the future studies in international, organizational behavior, human resources and strategic management.

1.2. SCOPE AND ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

The paper is organized as follows. Current chapter gives general picture of the topic and explains reasons for studying this field. Chapter II describes the related literature including definitions, dimensions and relationships of variables. The literature review is laid out by depending on the empirical studies conducted up to now. Chapter III thoroughly lists the hypotheses given to research, sampling, data analysis, survey instruments and method of research. The theoretical model of the study is presented in the beginning of this chapter; it is based on the literary works discussed in previous

sections. Chapter VI discusses results and concludes based on conducted analysis and consequent conclusions. In this chapter, the findings, limitations, and implications for future research are highlighted. Finally, the thesis ends with the conclusions inferred from the study.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 PERCEIVED NEPOTISM

The organization of this part is based on explanation of concept - nepotism, its background, importance of research and its relationship to other variables. Since nepotism derives from discriminative form of recruitment, in this part we can observe explanation how corruption and discrimination cause nepotistic behavior in companies.

2.1.1 Nature of Nepotism: Discrimination.

In family-owned enterprises there is an organizational problem: discrimination on ground of consanguinity. There is an unethical situation between owners and non family member employees, insisting to discrimination based on kinship. Consanguinity refers to employment preferences for relatives. It is not uncommon to find, in companies, the employment of fathers and sons, uncles and nephews, brothers and sisters, and even husbands and wives. In this situation non family member employees are most of time discriminated in means of privileges given at work, career, opportunities for career, etc. Non family member workers can be better specialists, but protégés have really good protection from top level management or owners.

For instance, in early societies, the aristocracy had the “right of blood” to privileged positions, including top civil service positions, and thus nobility determined the elite composition. With the advent of modern societies, though, elite education and evaluation systems were created as a way to replace a system based on aristocratic nepotism with a system where meritocracy would prevail. In that vein, in many countries in Europe, Latin America and Asia, top civil service positions are allocated through very competitive selection processes. (Bagues & Esteve-Volart, p. 2)

In general, nepotism cause conflicts within teams which would disrupt the activities of the team (Okyere-Kwakye, Nor, & Nor, 2010, p. 3510). Nepotism cause an unhealthy atmosphere at workplace because it is perceived that there is unfair

conditions of workplace competitiveness. In many if not most cases, there might be little non family member can do if the family owns the company since they can run it as they see fit. Certainly, nepotism can be de-motivating if there is no matter what non family member does he always ends up with less than people who are only treated better because they happen to be related to the owner.

2.1.2 Discrimination Against and in Favor

The discrimination optionally gives us negative and positive versions: against and in favor. By discrimination against people generally define racism, caste discrimination, feminism, chauvinism, sexism, Semitism etc., all those “isms” which abuses rights of person, who are perceived to be different in color of their skin, gender, faith, style, beliefs, or other contexts. Eventually we determine under discrimination in favor generally those types which protect somebody: in this case it is nepotism, and protected people are relatives. Nepotism is mentioned to be under social subgroup of discrimination, it explains the behavior of managers giving some privileges to chosen people, “favorites”.

However, results gained in this do not tell us anything about nepotism: perhaps relatives succeed more because they are better qualified. Managers who employee their relatives believe that they can be more loyal, responsible, work more time and they will not pass to another company with huge experience taken here. On the one hand, that could be the case if, for instance, relatives receive profession-specific knowledge, either through networking or through access to more qualified coaches for example. (Bagues & Esteve-Volart, 2008, p. 1). This happen in families where both parents have same professional specifications and they are giving education to their children in the same field, in such kind of situation family member becomes more suitable for the vacant position.

Fershtman, Gneezy, & Verboven (2002, p. 4) define “discrimination against” as the behavior displayed when individuals treat anonymous individuals positively, as they would treat members of their own group, and treat members from another group

negatively. On the other hand, “nepotism” characterizes situations where players treat identically (and negatively) anonymous players and members of other groups, while favorably treating identified members of their own group.

This study is concerned with investigating second type of discrimination: discrimination on grounds of kinship. Kinship discrimination includes three types preferential treatment during recruitment; those are cronyism, favoritism and nepotism.

2.1.3 Kinship Related Discrimination Types

Broad definitions and differences between favoritism, cronyism and nepotism given reffers to explain these discrimination types. All these terms are related with family, acquaintances and friends. In each of these cases rights of people who are abused in recruitment, career increasing and work privileges procurement.

The most broadest of these related terms is favoritism, we'll start with its definition. Basically favoritism is just what it sounds like; it's favoring a person not because he or she is doing the best job but rather because of some extraneous feature-membership in a favored group, personal likes and dislikes, etc. Favoritism can be demonstrated in hiring, honoring, or awarding contracts. A related idea is patronage, giving public service jobs to those who may have helped elect the person who has the power of appointment (Nadler & Schulman, 2006, 1).

Favoritism has always been a complaint in procurement of anybody. Mostly it occurs in politic games inside parliament. But it is also very widespread in governmental environment, those can be all kind of state departments. We can see these kind of problems in shareholders' and family owned companies too. So it does not matter where you work, but it really helps whom you know.

Cronyism is a more specific form of favoritism, referring to partiality towards friends and associates. As the old saying goes, "It's not what you know but who you know," or, as blogger Danny Ferguson (Nadler & Schulman, 2006, 3) put it, "It's not

what you don't know; it's who your college roommate knows." Cronyism occurs within a network of insiders-the "good ol' boys," who confer favors on one another.

At last, nepotism is an even narrower form of favoritism, and refers to exactly family member. Coming from the Italian word for nephew, it covers favoritism to members of the family. Both nepotism and cronyism are often at work when political parties recruit candidates for public office, as in business companies this is less spread, where profitability is higher demanded. Moreover, both nepotism and cronyism are negative mechanisms that can flourish easily when there is recruited by means of referral recruitment methods.

Favoritism is not the only characteristic that nepotism and cronyism share in common. They also share the following characteristics: reciprocal exchange, a shared network, and a third person that will be disadvantaged by these practices.

As it was always in ethics one of the most popular and basic themes in ethics is fairness, as in study of Nadler & Schulman (2006, 5) stated this way by Aristotle: "Equals should be treated equally and unequals unequally." Favoritism, cronyism, and nepotism all interfere with fairness because they give undue advantage to someone who does not necessarily merit this treatment.

In the public sphere, favoritism, cronyism, and nepotism also undermine the common good. When someone is granted a position because of connections rather than because he or she has the best credentials and experience, the service that person renders to the public may be inferior.

Generally all relationships are hidden (very few employed people are stupid enough to show open connections to friends, and family), this practice undercuts the transparency that should be part of hiring and contracting processes.

Maybe the greatest dilemma brought by favoritism is that, under many different other names, so few people realise it as a problem. Relationships, connections, networking, acquaintances, friends, family-almost everyone has drawn on these sources of support in job hunting in the private sphere.

And everyone can point to instances where cronyism or nepotism is an accepted fact of life in political sphere, as well Bakiev, for example, appointed his brother Janysh Bakiyev as a head of the presidential guard, brother Marat Bakiyev as Kyrgyzstan's ambassador to Germany, and another brother Adyl Bakiyev as an adviser to Kyrgyzstan's ambassador to China. Every president and governor names close associates to key cabinet positions. Mayors put those they know and trust on citizens committees and commissions. Friends and family can usually be counted on for loyalty, and officeholders are in a good position to know their strengths.

The first issue is competence. For cabinet level positions, an executive will probably be drawn to experienced, qualified candidates, but historically, the lower down the ladder, the more likely for someone's brother-in-law to be slipped into a job for which he is not qualified. Also, the appearance of favoritism weakens morale in government service, not to mention public faith in the integrity of government.

There comes, reasonable people will differ about the appointment of friends and family in high-level positions, but public officials should be aware that such choices can give the appearance of unfairness. The practice of nepotism troubling enough to enact laws against it. Others may restrict the hiring of relatives or friends in more general conflict-of-interest rules.

Senior managers should also note that dilemmas involving favoritism extend beyond hiring and contracting practices to the more general problem of influence. Club members, people who come over for Sunday dinner, members of the same congregation all are likely to exert a greater influence over an official than a stranger might. Council members, mayors, and legislators must make special efforts to ensure that they hear all sides of an issue rather than just relying on the views of the people they know. Further, many conscientious lawmakers have discovered that they must change their patterns of socializing when their work involves many decisions affecting friends and associates. At the least, they may choose to recuse themselves from votes where social relationships may exert undue influence.

2.1.3.1 Cronyism

First dimension of kinship discrimination refers to cronyism: employing or supporting children of close relatives or friends. Cronyism refers to preferences given to friends or their children, fellow church members, classmates etc. (Mo, 2007, p. 201). Arasli (2008, p. 1239) in his study defined cronyism as giving preference to politicians' particularly to cronies (close friends of long standing), especially as evidenced in the appointment of hangers-on to office without regard to their qualifications.

Generally, cronyism is favouritism shown to associates without regard to their qualifications. Often, decisions are based on who is liked and not premised on merit. For example, an employee with a good performance record loses out on a promotion or pay increase because the person in charge favoured another person on the basis of friend-friend, informal relationship. Thus, merit takes a back seat in cronyism, as it is favouritism that determines who gets ahead. (Khatri, Wen, Fuei, & Geok, p. 5)

Cronyism is similar to nepotism but does not specifically incorporate family; instead it focuses on favoritism for friend. It is the most widespread type of discrimination, because every person has friends and at least once was asked to make such kind of favor.

Guanxi may be seen as synonymous with cronyism in that it involves interpersonal obligations and is based on relationships rather than objectivity. Guanxi literally means "relationship" or "connection". It can be best translated as friendship with implications of continued exchange of favors (Khatri, Wen, Fuei, & Geok, p. 7). Guanxi is a long-term relationship and it embodies reciprocal obligations of the parties involved. A Guanxi base must exist which comprises both blood base and social base, where the former includes only familial connections while the latter encompasses other social (i.e., non-familial) connections. However, it extends beyond our definition of cronyism, as it comprises both familial and non-familial relationships, while our definition is confined to non-familial, informal relationships in the organization.

2.1.3.2 Favoritism

“Favoritism” for the purpose of this policy, favoritism is defined as the basing of decisions regarding hiring, selection, promotion, wages, hours, or other conditions of employment on relationship rather than on objective standards and the needs of the university (www.case.edu, 2008, 5).

Favoritism generally refers to a person being given preference over another at workplace, not necessarily because of better performance or discharge of duties. Its notions can be seen through faster and unfair promotions, salary hikes though at the same job profile as others, more opportunities for making income with commission by being given more profitable and easier jobs, delays in timings etc. In all conditions, they seem to be treated better than others for no reason.

The most common form of favoritism that gets noticed is the disparity in salary or perks (Han, 2009, 2). The person being favored might be promoted before it was really due, without giving any consideration to the contributions made by others for doing the same or a similar job. Another very common form of favoritism is to give some kind of uncalled for degree of freedom, like coming or leaving the office during working hours.

To most other personnel it might appear that a particular employee is being given a preferential treatment, for no evident reason. These workers feel underprivileged and conclude that favoritism has more to do with knowing the right person or keeping in good humor a select band of higher-ups rather than professional competence and abilities (Han, 2009, 3).

Displays of favoritism, or even its perception, can destroy relationships, initiative and trust. We must always be alert to its presence and suppress it. Seeing workplace favoritism can be one of the most demotivating things you might experience. In the workplace, it can refer to when someone - or perhaps a group of people - appear to be treated better than others and not necessarily for reasons related to superior work performance (Mueller, 2). It might result in this person being promoted faster than

others unfairly, being paid more to do the same job as others, being given more leeway to come and go during the day as they please, that sort of thing.

Referral recruitment may be resulted to be treated better than others and for no valid reason. In each case, the preferential treatment appears to correlate less on their abilities and more because they know the right person or people.

2.1.3.3 *Nepotism*

Historically, selection or promotion based on consanguinity used to mean the advantages, or opportunities for advancement, enjoyed by a Pope's nephew. However, the meaning enlarged to include unfair preferment of - or favouritism shown to - friends, protégés or others within one's personal sphere of influence. (Bascerville, 2006, p. 1)

Discrimination against versus nepotism: two related phenomena may explain discriminatory behavior. It's an extremely sensitive and touchy issue in business, and it can work wonders - or wreak havoc.

The first is group stereotyping, situations in which there are commonly held beliefs in a population that members of a certain group may have some shared characteristics that affect their behavior or their abilities. Such stereotypes may be correct, or incorrect. When the group stereotyping is correct the discriminatory behavior is denoted as statistical discrimination. When this pattern applies, people may be discriminated against due to their ethnicity or race, as a result of some common beliefs regarding characteristics or abilities, but no role is played by emotions such as "hate" or "love." That is, discrimination in such cases is not the outcome of discriminatory preferences.

The second explanation for discriminatory behavior involves discriminatory preferences, denoted by Becker in study of Fershtman, Gneezy, & Verboven (2002, pp. 7-8) as a "taste for discrimination". In this type of discrimination, people simply like or dislike members of another group. For example, workers with such a preference may

“suffer” if they work with workers from the other group and are willing to sacrifice monetary payoffs in order to avoid associating with people from the other group. Note that there is a difference between the phenomena of group stereotyping and taste for discrimination although they both may yield similar behavior. Stereotyping may likewise imply that people will be willing to make monetary sacrifices in order not to be associated with players of specific groups. But this is not because they do not like them but because they have certain beliefs about their characteristics or behavior. Discrimination based on taste does not have to involve stereotypes or beliefs, it can simply reflect a general dislike of certain groups.

Simply put, the definition of nepotism is favoring relatives. Nepotism in the workplace occurs when employers favor relatives in making employment decisions, with little to no regard for anything but kinship. Wong & Kleiner (1994, p. 10) claim that it has implications not only for management development, promotion, and control, and not only for the image and public relations of business, but also for executives who have, or would like to have, relatives in management positions.

One might argue that nepotism in business is different from nepotism in politics because a family business is private. Author Adam Bellow argues that people do not mind if leaders appoint relatives to jobs as long as they are competent. (Ciulla, 2007, p. 79)

2.1.4 Definition of Nepotism

In this part several authors’ ideas about defining the term nepotism will be given, at the end concluded in common definition.

Etymologically the word nepotism actually originates from *nepotes*, Latin for nephew. The origin has been attributed to the fact that, in the middle ages, bishops were sometimes accused of favoring their nephews. (Bagues & Esteve-Volart, 2008, p. 14)

Nepotism, understood as favoritism (as in appointment to a job) based on kinship could be generated in two ways. First, a form of direct nepotism might be

present if relatives are favored over equally good candidates. Direct and indirect nepotism: First, a form of direct nepotism might be present if relatives are favored over equally good candidates. Another, more indirect form of nepotism exists if the selection process is designed in such a way that certain candidates are more likely to get the position. (Bagues & Esteve-Volart, 2008, p. 5)

In internet sources there are given broader explanations: Practice of appointing relatives and friends in one's organization to positions for which outsiders might be better qualified. Despite its negative connotations, nepotism (if applied sensibly) is an important and positive practice in the startup and formative years of a firm where complete trust and willingness to work hard (for little or no immediate reward) are critical for its survival (<http://www.businessdictionary.com>, 1).

In Louisiana's Code it is broadly explained which cases become nepotistic discrimination and rights of other people are violated (<http://ethics.la.gov>, 2009, p. 1):

"Nepotism is commonly understood to mean preference of any sort given to relatives. Some prohibitions against nepotism are contained Louisiana's Code of Governmental Ethics. The purpose of this information sheet is to outline these prohibitions and to highlight some common misconceptions.

An "agency head" is the chief executive or administrative officer of an agency OR any member of a board or commission who exercises supervision over the agency. If a person qualifies as an agency head, then the following family members may not be employed in his agency because they classify as members of his immediate family:

1. His children
2. The spouses of his children (daughters-in-law and sons-in-law)
3. His brothers and sisters
4. The spouses of his brothers and sisters
5. His parents

6. His spouse

7. The parents of his spouse (mother-in-law and father-in-law)

An “agency” is a department, office, division, agency, commission, board, committee, or other organizational unit of a governmental entity. In other words, an “agency” is the smallest unit or division in which the public servant works.

A common misconception is that direct supervision is needed before a violation can occur. However, the law does not require direct supervision. If you are an agency head or a member of a governing authority, then no member of your immediate family may be employed in your agency or by your governmental entity, regardless of whether you actually supervise that employee’s day to day activities.”

An example is hiring or promoting relatives solely because they are family members, with no consideration of the qualifications or merits of other job candidates or employees. That’s why ethic laws are violated and rights of other employees are harmed, but generally this kind of cases are hided, because of silence kept about this topic such cases passes unnoticed.

There are main clues to understand when there's nepotism at work (<http://www.people-communicating.com>, 2):

- Supervisor spends too much time with the favored employee
- Supervisor praises the favored person for smaller accomplishments that others don't get praised for
- Supervisor lets errors slide when they are made by his/her favorite person
- Manager gives employee additional help and coaching during completion of assignments
- Manager socializes more with favored employee than others in the department

- Employee enjoys more resources, better office, added perks and benefits than others in his/her position do.

2.1.5 Characteristics of Nepotism: Against and In Favor

Nepotism is two-sided: according to condition it changes its polarity from negative to positive. This was being discussed thoroughly by social scholars for a long time, there are many studies about if it is good or bad, but in practice it differs, because not only rationality is included but also family bounds, and it emotionally overcomes rational decisions.

Becker in Fershtman, Gneezy, & Verboven (2002, p. 3) argues that nepotism is empirically indistinguishable from discrimination against, and “the social and economic implications of positive prejudice or nepotism are very similar to those of negative prejudice or discrimination”

The ethical problem with nepotism is not that it is wrong to care for your friends and family. (Ciulla, 2007, p. 79) In democratic societies the problem with nepotism is that it is unfair and undercuts the ideal of equal opportunity, but the bigger problem with it is that it may keep the most competent people from holding leadership positions.

Fershtman, Gneezy, & Verboven (2002, p. 4) defined “discrimination against” as the behavior displayed when individuals treat anonymous individuals positively, as they would treat members of their own group, and treat members from another group negatively. On the other hand, “nepotism” characterizes situations where players treat identically (and negatively) anonymous players and members of other groups, while favorably treating identified members of their own group.

Here in two subtopics their pluses and minuses were collected, indications were taken from next studies: Okyere-Kwakye, Nor, & Nor; Abdalla, Maghrabi, & Raggad; Hernandez & Page.

2.1.5.1 Advantages of Nepotism

Barmash (Abdalla, Maghrabi, & Raggad, 1998, p. 556) indicated that nepotism is not that bad, and it has the following advantages:

- Nepotism provides at least a semi-balance of sustained entrepreneurialism in an age of corporate takeovers.
- Nepotism provides a separate infrastructure in a company, around which non-family employees can rally.
- Nepotism engenders a family competition that in its finest moments insures to the benefit of the company.
- Nepotism keeps difficult younger generations off the streets.
- Nepotism keeps companies alive. Chances are that if succeeding generations are brought into oneness, they will develop a pride of ownership and family ties.
- Nepotism is good for the small family-owned organization because it provides an efficient way to identify dedicated personnel to staff such organizations.
- Permitting nepotism allows consideration of all potential employees who might be effective contributors to the organization rather than arbitrarily excluding a large pool of potential employees simply because they are related by blood or marriage to an existing employee.
- Nepotism tends to foster a positive family-oriented environment which boosts morale and job satisfaction for all employees – relatives and nonrelatives.

When qualified employees are selected through nepotism, they offer the following advantages (Hernandez & Page, 2006, p. 8):

- Their training has often been life long, instead of beginning in college. They grew up around a business or a vocation and its value systems, often sparking early interest and a superior motivation driven by a desire to please or imitate their parents.

- Their network of external contacts and working friendships in their field is often superior.
- The family-oriented search process is less costly because it is less extensive.
- Family ties are lasting, reinforcing long-term values of loyalty, trust and commitment.
- The conduct of a relative is the best proven predictor of the behavior of a prospective worker, bar none.

2.1.5.2 Disadvantages of Nepotism

Nepotism within team creates a lot of agony within members who are sidelined, which weakens the cohesion within the team. In addition, Ichniowski (Okyere-Kwakye, Nor, & Nor, 2010, p. 3510) has identified the following primary disadvantages:

- Allowing nepotism lowers morale for those people who supervise relatives of high-level executives, those who must work with them, and those who feel that promotions and rewards are given unjustifiably to a relative.
- Nepotism puts incredible and unfair pressure on the “nepot”. It can be an awful burden for the relative to be unsure if organizational rewards were earned by what he or she did or only because of who he or she is.
- Permitting nepotism needlessly exposes the organization to problems of family conflicts, sibling rivalry over managerial succession, and improper combinations of business with corporate decision-making processes. (Abdalla, Maghrabi, & Raggad, 1998, p. 557)
- Nepotism – the recruitment and promotion of under qualified candidates on the basis of bloodlines instead of merit (Hernandez & Page, 2006, p. 5)
- Perceptions of nepotism – even when decisions involving family members are made as fairly as possible, rumors of bias can percolate through the organizational grapevine

- Conflicts of interest – when related workers make opportunistic decisions which subordinate the good of the firm to the good of their family members
- Legal complications – nepotism can result in discrimination and generate legal challenges, including lawsuits, from those unfavorably affected.
- Homogeneity – nepotism limits diversity, and can undermine the flow of new ideas and perspectives into the decision making processes of the organization.
- Inertia – nepotism can undermine healthy change, resulting in waste and inefficiency. Family-based systems often remain socially valued and defended long after their function utility is in decline.

These are the most serious concerns (Nadler & Schulman, 2006, 6):

- ✓ ***Fairness.*** Was the same opportunity given to all members of the public to apply for these positions? It looks like the mayor's relatives had an advantage not offered to others.
- ✓ ***Competency.*** Favoritism undermines the confidence in the qualifications of the employee. In other words, was this person hired on the basis of ability and experience, or because of a family connection? Favoritism can also create tension among employees who may feel there is an unfair standard in performance reviews.
- ✓ ***Public trust.*** As the comments from the readers show, there is already skepticism about government employees, and nepotism only makes it worse.

2.1.6 Perceived Nepotism in Context of Kyrgyz Family-Owned Businesses and Company Shoro

Generally it should be thought that perceived nepotism should have a negative effect on OCB but in context of Kyrgyz companies we cannot say this exactly, it comes from high quantity of family-run businesses in KGZ and relatives taken on positions they want. It is because from childhood they have been taught to be part of company

and the company from the beginning is used to the thought that one day son, brother or other close relative will come to change leader of the company. All close relatives are always in company, leaders believe that they can trust only them because this company belongs to that family; other employees are thought to be coming and going, not staying in the company forever. This nepotistic situation is clear to both sides: managers (owners) and employees. Whenever really good specialist seems to be not satisfied, his salary rises or other privileges are given, and leader of company never gives position of his son to anybody, even if it is the best specialist in country. And position is not mentioned to be very important by good specialist, important is salary, responsibilities, tasks and privileges given according to skills.

Perceived nepotism exists even on government level: Askar Akaev “started tradition” of taking or giving good positions to his family, his daughter was in politics too, she opened party that was supported by president.

Kurmanbek Bakiyev, second president of Kyrgyzstan had more unethical black points in his presidential experience. During his time as president, several Bakiyev family members had prominent positions in the government, with at least five close relatives working in the upper echelons of power. His brother Janysh Bakiyev was head of the presidential guard, his brother Marat Bakiyev was Kyrgyzstan's ambassador to Germany, and another brother Adyl Bakiyev was an adviser to Kyrgyzstan's ambassador to China. Bascerville (2006, p. 6) in his study pointed this case as nepotism is everywhere and “far from being controversial, it seems as natural as breathing”.

Since the overthrow Maksim Bakiyev has been charged with embezzlement and abuse of power by the interim government. It is suspected that transferred about \$35 million of a \$300 million loan from Russia into his private bank accounts. When the revolt took place, Bakiyev was headed to the US for a series of meetings in Washington. On June 14, 2010 Maksim was arrested in the UK when he landed at Farnborough Airport in Hampshire in a privately hired jet. The interim Kyrgyz government is demanding his extradition.

Kyrgyzstan is a country with a nepotistic head, that's why it is much easier to accept the truth of perceived nepotism in companies. Perceived nepotism is a complicated problem for the ethics and effectiveness of all leaders. People who are not in leadership positions are free to aid their family members in any way they desire. One might argue that they have a moral obligation to do so. Leaders have an obligation to put the interests of their constituents ahead of their own interests and the interests of friends and families (although in many cases these interests coincide). Chinese leaders recognized the problem with perceived nepotism a long time ago. In the words of an old Chinese proverb: 'When a man becomes an official, his wife, children, dogs, cats, and even chickens fly up to heaven.' (Ciulla, 2007, p. 78) Confucius discussed at length the problem of how to balance the duties of filial piety with duties to the public and principles of merit.

In the company Shoro leaders are one family and their children in the following years entered company on the high positions. In their company's site is described (<http://www.shoro.kg>, 2, 4):

"The idea of producing national home drink of Kyrgyzs and Kazakhs, which is called "Maksym", was first invented by the President of the company Taabaldy Egemberdiev in 1987. Back then; this idea seemed fantastic for many people, but found support from younger brother Jymadyl Egemberdiev and their mother Suyun, who actually was the keeper of a secret ferment.

1992 became the symbolic year for the company. By that time, five Egemberdiev family representatives, who were: Jumadyl Egemberdiev, his spouse Jekin, brother Taabaldy, his elder son Almaz, brothers' sister Anara and his former subordinates Dokturbek Kenjebaev and Oskon Akmatov, both construction engineers, left unemployed. They, together with the chief technologist Suyun-Apa, established "Shoro" company on May 25th, 1992 and brought their first 80 liters of Maksym on the local market."

2.2 JOB STRESS

2.2.1 Definitions of Job Stress

Job stress is very common in workplace, but in this study it is related to inner family connections and discrimination in nepotistic context. This chapter will define stressful work in family owned companies while a threat of perceived nepotism is above your head.

The most popular scholars in the field of work stress studies are Matteson and Ivancevich, Karasek, Burke and Weir, Behr. Researches after their studies generally made upon their studies on job stress and stressors. Definition of job stress has been conceptualized by Karasek, and later by other scholars.

Pamela L. Perrewe and Daniel C. Ganster (1989, p. 214) claimed that definitions of stress vary in regard to being more responded - based or more stimulus-based. Response-based definitions depict stress as a psychological or physiological response made by an individual to an environmental stressor. Stimulus-based definitions, however, define stress as the force or demand acting upon an individual those results in psychological or physiological strain.

The majority of definitions do not further define 'stressful' but rather cast stress. (Latack & Havlovic, 1992, p. 480) In most cases the stress defined are the 'stressful situation or the attendant negative emotions'.

Tang and her friends (2001, p. 888) in the research made on mental health outcomes regard to Schwarzer and his colleagues' study. They resume, that Schwarzer and his colleagues have highlighted the importance of perceived self-efficacy and proactive attitude as stress resource factors. Perceived self-efficacy refers to a broad and stable sense of personal competence to deal effectively with a variety of stressful situations. Individuals with a low sense of self-efficacy tend to have low self-esteem and have pessimistic thoughts about their accomplishments and personal development. On the other hand, individuals with a high level of self-efficacy will be motivated to perform more challenging tasks and demonstrate better decision-making abilities.

Another important component of stress resource factors is proactive attitude, which is a personality characteristic that also has implications for motivation and action. The proactive individual believes in the existence of sufficient internal and external resources to improve oneself and one's environment. Proactive attitude is positively related to self-determination, optimism, and self-efficacy.

The other term that must be noted here is strain, another main concept with which stress has relation. **Strains** - strains may be behavioral (e.g., acts of aggression at work), physical (stomach ulcers, hypertension), or psychological (depression, decreased job satisfaction). Strains are broadly defined as any potentially negative outcome of a stressful work environment. Given this definition, strains may include negative evaluations of one's self, dissatisfaction with one's life or job, frustration, lack of confidence in the organization and/or desire or intention to leave the organization. (Barsky, Thoresen, Warren, & Kaplan, 2004, p. 918)

2.2.2 Approaches about Job Stress

Guglielmi and Tatrow in study of Tang et al. (2001, p. 887) have summarized several theoretical models on job stress. In general, these models can be termed as stress-strain interaction models, which view job stress as the result of an interaction among the work environment, the person, and strain.

According to Spector's job stress model described in the study of Penney and Spector (2005, p. 779), incivility would be classified as a stressor, that is, some event or condition in the environment that requires a response. Workplace incivility is primarily concerned with the target's perspective and reactions. That is, how does perceiving one-self to be the target or recipient of uncivil behavior affects attitudes and behavior.

Research has demonstrated that being exposed to job stressors such as organizational constraints and interpersonal conflicts is negatively related to job satisfaction. (Penney & Spector, 2005, p. 780) Organizational constraints refer to situations at work that interfere with an individual's task performance, such as a lack of

time, resources, or help from others. Interpersonal conflict refers to how well an individual gets along with others at work, such as the frequency of arguments and how often others are nasty.

2.2.3 Causes of Job Stress

These are main job stressors: role ambiguity, role conflict, workload, job insecurity, organizational constraints, and interpersonal conflict. According to Latack and Havlovic (1992, p. 501) role conflict and role overload are common stressors.

Environmental stressors are perceived by individuals as such, leading to the experience of negative emotions, such as anger or anxiety, which may be followed by reactions to the stressors, called job strains. (Penney & Spector, 2005, p. 778) Job strains can be classified as psychological, physical, or behavioral. Behavioral strains are a means for individuals to cope with the stressor either by reducing the emotions elicited by the stressor (e.g., drinking alcohol, avoiding work) or by eliminating the stressor itself (e.g., talking with the supervisor, developing a solution). Behavioral strains such as yelling at a co-worker, staying home from work, and decreasing work quality or quantity. Gossip creates uneasy, harmful and emotionally stressful working environments. (Gouveia, Vuuren, & Crafford, 2005, p. 61)

Due to the confusion in terminology, ‘strain’ will refer to the psychological and physiological responses made by individuals to environmental demands and ‘stressors’ will refer to the objective and perceived environmental demands. (Perrewe & Ganster, 1989, p. 214)

The following job stressors, which are also identified in widely known stress models, were examined by Mauno & Kinnunen (1999, p. 880): job insecurity, job autonomy, time pressures at work, leadership relations, and work-family conflict. Job insecurity refers to the amount of uncertainty a person has about his or her job continuity. Job insecurity is a stressful experience, because it concerns the future; an

employee does not know whether she/he will actually lose his/her job, and this uncertainty restricts coping processes available in a stressful situation.

The most important ones are collected and defined by Mauno & Kinnunen (1999, p. 881), these concepts totally explain all the features related to stressors. For recent research they do exactly face all the needs of study:

Job autonomy or control over one's work refers to task authority, which involves the employee's freedom to determine how work gets done, setting one's own work goals and using one's skills at work, and having a contribution to decision making. Many studies have indicated that low job autonomy is associated with psychological distress and reduced well-being, for example, burnout.

Time pressures at work can be defined as having too much to do in a limited amount of time. Severe pressures of time have been identified as a source of work stress, for example, for preschool teachers, physicians and health care personnel. Studies have shown that high work pressures (e.g., time shortages), work load, and schedule considerations are significantly linked to emotional exhaustion and burnout

The quality of leadership relations encompasses, for example, an employee's relationship with his/her supervisors, and particularly both the quality and the quantity of supervisory support. A low level of supervisor support has been related to psychosocial stress and to burnout and emotional exhaustion.

Work-family conflict reflects the interference of work with family activities, for example, where work prevents the performance of duties at home and spending time with one's family. Conflict between work and family may be perceived as a form of role conflict; such a conflict could be regarded as a source of job stress. In fact, work-family conflict has predicted job exhaustion and burnout, which in turn has been associated with reduced marital satisfaction.

Laboratory research on the strain-reducing effects of behavioral control has examined a number of different types of stressors. (Perrewe & Ganster, 1989, p. 217)

For example, stressors have been operationalized in the form of shocks, loud noise, administration of an intelligence test, cold pressers, and aversive photographs.

Furthermore, there is an accumulating body of knowledge about the impact of changing marriage roles on job stress, performance, employee loyalty, and occupational mobility, especially in organizations that expect people to choose between their work and family responsibilities. One study of 5,000 employees with children under the age of 18 found that 77 percent of women and 73 percent of men had dealt with family problems during working hours. In another study, 1600 employees were surveyed and 36 percent of the fathers and 37 percent of the mothers reported that “a lot of stress” was caused by trying to balance home and work. (Bruce & Reed, 1994)

Fair process (in the family firm) minimizes stressors that may cause the “alliance” between the family and the business to break down: every bit of unfairness weakens the alliance; all evidences of fairness consolidates it and generates commitment. (Van der Heyden, Blondel, & Carlock, 2005, p. 21)

When a person faces a situation of role conflict, ambiguity, or overload, it becomes difficult to meet all of the sent expectations. According to role dynamics theory, such expectations define, in effect, one's role in the organization. When the expectations are easy to meet, role stress is lowest; when they are more difficult to meet, role stress increases. (Zohar, 1995, p. 487)

Among role stressors, researchers historically have examined the concepts of role conflict and role ambiguity. Role conflict refers to 'the simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other. (Barsky, Thoresen, Warren, & Kaplan, 2004, p. 918). Role ambiguity refers to deficient or uncertain information about role behaviors available to or required by a given position. Role conflict and role ambiguity may be theoretically understood as alternate indicators of generalized role stress construct, defined as the amount of hassles an individual experiences as a result of an ambiguous and conflicted role at work.

A new construct, workplace incivility, can also be considered a social job stressor. (Penney & Spector, 2005, p. 778) Workplace incivility refers to relatively mild, rude, and discourteous behavior in the workplace. Specifically, workplace incivility is defined as ‘low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect.

Stressors are defined as antecedent conditions (real or perceived) which lead to the experience of aversive states, while ‘strains’ is a general term related to a class of psychological, physical, or behavioral outcome variables thought to be adversely affected by stressors. (Barsky, Thoresen, Warren, & Kaplan, 2004, p. 915) Empirical studies investigating occupational stress traditionally have been narrow in scope, focusing almost exclusively on how situational factors within the organization (i.e., stressors) impact employee physical and psychological well-being (i.e., strains).

Interactions between stress and support by proposing that the relationship between stress and strain will be weaker for those enjoying a high degree of social support. Social support was conceptualized as including both the helpful activities of others and the ease of communications with others. Various operationalizations of social support have been used. Most of the studies have assessed support from specific sources, that is, the supervisor and the co-workers; yet some have ignored support from family or friend. Leader support was more closely related to specific job satisfaction measures and that co-worker support was more relevant to overall satisfaction with the organization. (Seers, McGee, Serey, & Graen, 1983, p. 274)

The social support concept entails a number of component characteristics the most important of which are emotional or psychological support and instrumental/active support. Emotional or psychological support involves providing emphatic listening, caring, love, social approval, sympathy and the like (Abdel-Halim, 1982, p. 282). Instrumental/active support involves instrumental, active behaviors in the form of information cues, cooperation and help needed by the focal person to solve his/her conflicting, ambiguous work problems. By far, the emotional or psychological support is the dominant characteristic of the social support concept. For example, 'when individuals think of people being "supportive" toward them, they think mainly of

emotional support'. Thus, 'even if there are strong stressors on the job, the person with social support would not feel as much strain as he or she would without such support being available'.

Abdel-Halim (1982, p. 282) claim that social support can operate in two different ways. First, it can directly enhance employee responses on the job because it meets important human needs (such as security, social contact, approval, belonging and affection). That is, positive effects of social support on employee responses under conditions of stress can offset or counterbalance negative effects of stress. Second, social support has the potential to mitigate or buffer the impact of stress on employee responses. In this buffering or moderating role, social support may act to modify the relation between job stressors and employee responses.

2.2.4 Symptoms of Job Stress

Workplaces are full of stressors, and to understand and prevent stress at workplace there must be some main criteria to diagnose stress. Stress results from change, uncertainty, and an imbalance between the demands made on individuals and their ability to respond to them. (Perrewe & Ganster, 1989, p. 214). Perhaps the most explicit statement of the role of control in occupation stress, however, is Karasek's model of job demands and job decision latitude. (Perrewe & Ganster, 1989, p. 216)

Karasek postulated that psychological and physiological strain results from the joint effects of job demands or 'work load' and the range of decision latitude or 'job control'. The model makes two predictions. First, strain occurs when job demands are high and decision latitude is low. Second, incremental increases in competency are predicted to occur when the challenge of the situation (job demands) is matched with the individual's control in dealing with the challenge (decision latitude). When job demands and decision latitude are high, Karasek defines the job as 'active'. (Perrewe & Ganster, 1989, p. 216)

Many different factors condition a worker's response to the critical work events. Some proposed person factors are (Brief & Atieh, 1987, p. 120):

- ✓ Financial resources other than the person's work-related income (e.g. savings and spouse's income),
- ✓ Financial need as indexed by such things as number of dependents, life-style, and life-stage,
- ✓ Job performance capabilities in terms of both motivation to work and task relevant skills and abilities,
- ✓ Job/career mobility opportunities.

Workers with few financial resources, high financial needs, poor job performance capabilities, and low mobility opportunities are likely to be particularly at risk when exposed to critical work events which they perceived as relevant to the maintenance or improvement of their financial well-being.

Potential environmental factors conditioning worker reactions include (Brief & Atieh, 1987, p. 120):

- ✓ Presence/ absence of a union to protect workers,
- ✓ Employer's policies regarding the management of human resources (e.g. posture towards employment security and pay for performance);
- ✓ General economic conditions
- ✓ Governmental regulations relevant to plant closing, termination at will, unemployment compensation, and the like.

Workers whose incomes are protected by effective union representation, humane management policies, a healthy economy, and/or by socially sensitive legislative bodies, courts, and governmental agencies are unlikely to experience stress-associated risks as high as one could imagine upon exposure to the critical work events under discussion.

2.2.5 Consequences of Job Stress

In a study by Sales (Perrewe & Ganster, 1989, p. 214), physiological strain was examined in a work overload and under load simulation. As expected, his results indicated that objective overload can lead to significant increases in cholesterol levels. Positive work experiences (e.g., job satisfaction) are related to positive marital functioning, whereas negative work experiences (e.g., work stress) are associated with marital dysfunction. (Mauno & Kinnunen, 1999, p. 879)

French and Caplan in research of Perrewe and Ganster (1989, p. 215) conducted two laboratory experiments to clearly demonstrate a causal relationship between overload and psychological and physiological strain. In the first experiment, subjects exposed to qualitative work overload suffered from embarrassment, loss of self-esteem (psychological stress), and demonstrated more physiological strain as measured by their basal skin resistance level. Their second experiment involved giving subjects quantitative work overload. Overloaded subjects demonstrated lower self-esteem, more task errors, increased heart rate, and elevated cholesterol levels. These two experiments support the notion that work overload is the cause rather than the effect of psychological and physiological strain.

Recent studies have shown that negative work experiences, usually conceptualized and measured as work stress or stressors, exert an influence on marital functioning via their effect on individual well-being. (Mauno & Kinnunen, 1999, p. 880) Individual well-being has been used to refer to various factors covering both occupational (e.g., job satisfaction, job exhaustion) and overall well-being (e.g., psychosomatic health, depressive symptomatology), while marital functioning has been used to refer, for example, to the quality of interaction (warmth and supportiveness), psychological aggression, divorce propensity, and marital satisfaction.

Work-family conflict affected marital quality and stability via greater psychological distress, marital hostility and lowered marital warmth and supportiveness. Job insecurity has been associated directly with increased marital tension, and with decreased marital satisfaction. (Mauno & Kinnunen, 1999, p. 881) Reduced job

autonomy influenced the marital relationship: individuals responded to reduced autonomy at work by controlling their spouses at home or by becoming depressed and consequently withdrawing at home.

Job stress in the form of role conflict and role ambiguity, for example, has been shown to have a negative impact on employees' attitudes and behaviors on the job, resulting in considerable economic and human costs for the individual as well as the employing organizations. While the negative consequences of job stress are well documented in the literature less attention has been paid to the discovery of factors that might buffer or alleviate the effects of stress. (Abdel-Halim, 1982, p. 281)

2.2.6 Managing Stress

All stress management interventions involved some sort of training of workers so that they would be better able to cope with work stressors. Even though some have advocated the desirability of intervening so as to remove the sources of strain rather than teaching employees to better tolerate existing noxious conditions (Perrewe & Ganster, 1989, p. 214).

It is typically believed that active attempts to change the environment could lessen or eliminate the cause of the stress, while passive efforts to handle negative consequences of stress may drain a person's energy without affecting or eliminating the source of the problem. Research has also shown that a person can apply both problem-focused and symptom-focused coping strategies at the same time in the same context. However, it is probable that problem-focused coping is more commonly resorted to in situations where individuals believe that the source of stress can be affected. (Selmer, 2002, p. 22)

On the other hand, individuals are more likely to use symptom-focused coping when they think that the situation must be tolerated and cannot be changed. Furthermore, symptom-focused coping strategies could create a vicious circle which

adds to the direct effects of stress to increase the discomfort even more. (Selmer, 2002, p. 22)

The unprecedented managerial concern about detrimental effects of job stress continues to grow and is unlikely to subside. This concern is fueled by the widely-publicized estimates that stress costs American industry over \$150 million (Latack & Havlovic, 1992, p. 479) annually in lost work time, accidents and medical costs.

Coping is part of a person-environment transaction that occurs when an individual appraises a situation as stressful. (Latack & Havlovic, 1992, p. 480)

Several definitions of coping (Latack & Havlovic, 1992, p. 481):

-Coyne, Aldwin and Lazarus state that 'coping refers to efforts, both cognitive and behavioral, to manage environmental and internal demands and conflicts affecting an individual that tax or exceed a person's resources'.

-Dewe refers to 'active or passive attempts to respond to a situation of threat with the aim of removing the threat or reducing the discomfort'.

-Burke and Belcourt 'Burke and Mann (unpublished manuscript) attempted to determine specific activities managers undertook to cope with job tension. 'Some examples of these methods of coping were:

- ✓ Change to an engrossing non-work or play activity,
- ✓ Analyze the situation and change strategy of attack (problem-solving),
- ✓ Withdraw temporarily from the situation,
- ✓ Work harder,
- ✓ Talk situation through with others on the job'.

-Carver et al., Lazarus stress definition is utilized. 'Lazarus argued that stress consists of three processes. Primary appraisal is the process of perceiving a threat to oneself. Secondary appraisal is the process of bringing to mind a potential response to the threat. Coping is the process of executing that response'

-Ilfeld '. . . coping styles are responses to ongoing stressors in daily roles. The following three major patterns emerge: taking direct action against the perceived stressor, rationalizing or avoiding the stressor, and accepting the stressor without trying to change it.... definition of coping, attempt by a person to resolve life stressors and emotional pain...'

Table 2.2.6.1 Evaluative Framework Applied to Coping Measures

Methods	FOCUS	
	Problem/task	Emotions/reactions
Cognitive	Control: Planning, organizing and prioritizing assignments (Parasuraman and Cleek)	Control: Try to think of myself as a winner - as someone who always comes through; Get mad at yourself and tell yourself that you could have avoided the situation (Dewe)
	Escape: Try to pay attention only to your duties in order to overlook difficulties in your work situation (Menaghan and Merves)	Escape: Tell yourself difficulties are unimportant (Fleishman, 1984); I am able to put out of my when I go home (Osipow and Sopkane)

Behavioral	Social: Sit down and talk things out (Ilfeld)	Social: Express your irritation to other work colleagues just to be able to let off steam (Dewe)
	Solitary: I do what has to be done, one step at a time (Carver et al.)	Solitary: Spend time on a hobby (O'Hare and Tamburri)
	Control: Ask callers to hold (is both social and control strategy); delay or leave undone some of normal job responsibilities (Kirmeyer and Dougherty)	Control: Had no emotional reaction (McCrae, 1984) not communicating distress to anyone (Parkes)
	Escape: Got busy with other things in order to keep my mind off the problem (Billings and Moos)	Escape: Change to a nonworking activity (Burke and Belcourt, 1974); taking pills, smoking more (Feldman and Brett)
Cognitive coping methods have a solitary classification.		
The four sub-dimensions of behavioral coping are not mutually exclusive, but rather could be nested		

Source: Latack & Havlovic (1992, p. 497)

2.3 ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

2.3.1 Definition of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The term Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) first emerged in the literature of work and organizational psychology in the early 1980s, when Organ with his colleagues in an effort to explain the satisfaction-causes-performance relationship, suggested an alternative form of job performance, which they called citizenship behavior (Akinbode, p. 1) In establishing the basis for this alternative for job

performance, they argued that job performance has been partly misunderstood as quantity of output or quantity of craftsmanship.

Previously, it is important to picture out the organizational citizen: in Nezakati et al. (p. 2) it is defined as a person who exhibits discretionary behaviors beyond its role, duties and official job description. An organizational citizen is not seeking rewards from the organization for his discretionary behaviors.

The parental right of the conceptualized term Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) definition belongs to Dennis Organ and his colleagues based on Banard's explanation "distinction between dependable role performance and innovative and spontaneous behaviors". Barnard in Podsakoff's study (2000, p. 513) criticized the "Classical Management Theory" which states that job incumbents could not cooperate and stated that cooperation was the first important requirement of organization that must supplement the formal structure for an effective work environment.

Organizational citizenship behavior by Organ in Podsakoff's study (2000, p. 514) is a group of organizationally beneficial behaviors and gestures that can be neither enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by contractual guarantee of recompense. There are three critical components of this definition. First, the employee's job requirements do not comprise citizenship behavior. Second, there are no formally guaranteed rewards for citizenship behavior. Third, citizenship behavior is contributing to organizational effectiveness when cumulated across people and time.

Katz (1964, p. 132) mentioned "an organization which depends solely upon its blueprints for prescribed behavior is a fragile social system that would break down", by this we understand that organizations to perform efficiently and effectively need interrelated cooperation between employees.

Companies must prepare ground for citizenship behavior in organization, according to main criteria of good mood at workplace three areas of behavior which were included in the importance list of organizations is brought by Katz & Kahn (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, p. 515):

- First, organizations must attract and maintain employees in the system.
- Second, organizations must ensure that employees perform duties meeting or exceeding certain minimal requirements.
- And third, they must exhibit innovative and spontaneous behavior performance beyond role requirements for accomplishments of organizational functions. This one is not written in company policy, employment contract and is not an official expectation from an employee.

These areas also interact with three features: behavior must be voluntary, behavior benefit from organization perspective and OCB have multidimensional nature (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, p. 512).

Review of selected literature related to OCB brought main ideas in conceptualizing the term of OCB, here and after selected ones will be given in italic.

1. “*Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), define as behavior that: a) goes beyond the basic requirements of the job; b) is to a large extent discretionary; and c) is of benefit to the organization*” Lambert (<http://wfnetwork.bc.edu>, 1).
2. A second definition of OCB comes from Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch, who proposed the broader construct of extra – role behaviour. For them *it is a discretionary behavior which benefits or is intended to benefit the organization and it goes beyond existing role expectations* (Okediji, Esin, Sanni, & Umoh, 2009, p. 71)

Definitions given above for OCB are broad and main ideas are given, but for this research paper, the most proper one seems to be Organ’s definition of organizational citizenship behaviors in Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 513) study that claims:

3. “*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. By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person’s employment contract with the organization; the*

behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable.”

Organ’s definition was based on Chester Barnard’s concept of the “willingness to cooperate,” and Daniel Katz’s distinction between dependable role performance and “innovative and spontaneous behaviors” (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, p. 513).

2.3.2 Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Since the birth of the term Organizational Citizenship Behavior, several types of citizenship behavior has been suggested. Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 517) distinguished about 30 potentially different forms of citizenship behavior dimensions of OCB that have been applied by researchers in their examinations but argue that there is considerable conceptual overlap among these dimensions. The first empirical studies identified altruism and generalized compliance (later renamed conscientiousness by Organ) as the two primary dimensions of OCB (Bateman & Organ; Smith, Organ, & Near, in study of Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 516)). According to the previous studies, altruism stands for the behavior that is directly and intentionally aimed at helping a colleague in face-to-face situations (examples of altruism include helping a new coworker acclimate to the company and helping a coworker with a specific job task.). Generalized compliance refers to a more impersonal type of conscientiousness that does not provide immediate aid to a particular individual, but it is indirectly helpful to other people in the organization (e.g., being punctual to meetings, such as arriving to work on time and adhering to company policy).

According to Podsakoff et al. table of all the dimensions are divided into main dimensions and concepts related to those groups are given next to them, they have collected all the dimensions researched and conceptualized by other authors. Enriched definitions are given too.

HELPING BEHAVIOR:

1. Williams & Anderson: **OCBI** - in their study, Williams & Anderson (1991) state that empirical and conceptual work in this area suggests, again, two broad categories: OCBI and OCBO, second one belongs to organizational compliance, therefore will be mentioned under that dimension. OCBI (OCB-individual)-behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly through this means contribute to the organization (e.g., helping others who have been absent, takes a personal interest in other employees).
2. Smith, Organ, & Near: **Altruism** - capture(s) behavior that is directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face-to-face situations (e.g., orienting new people, assisting someone with a heavy workload)
3. Organ: **Altruism**—voluntary actions that help another person with a work problem—instructing a new hire on how to use equipment, helping a coworker catch up with a backlog of work, fetching materials that a colleague needs and cannot procure on his own.

Courtesy—subsumes all of those foresightful gestures that help someone else prevent a problem—touching base with people before committing to actions that will affect them, providing advance notice to someone who needs to know to schedule work.

Peacemaking—actions that help to prevent, resolve or mitigate unconstructive interpersonal conflict. In other words, dispute resolution and play agent stabilizer role.

Cheerleading— (to encourage others and give hope to them) the words and gestures of encouragement and reinforcement of coworkers' accomplishments and professional development.

4. Graham; Moorman & Blakely: **Interpersonal Helping**—focuses on helping coworkers in their jobs when such help was needed. Interpersonal helping entails a co-worker assisting another in the organization resulting, either directly or indirectly, in enhanced individual job performance ultimately contributing to organizational functioning. (Bowler, 2006, p. 260)

5. George & Brief; George & Jones: **Helping coworkers** - includes all voluntary forms of assistance that organizational members provide each other to facilitate the accomplishment of tasks and attainment of goals. Helping coworkers includes behaviors ranging from helping a coworker with a heavy workload and sharing resources, to calling attention to errors and omissions and providing instruction in the use of new technology when one is not required to do so.
6. Borman & Motowidlo: **Helping and Cooperating With Others** –assisting/helping coworkers; assisting/ helping customers; and altruism
7. Van Scotter & Motowidlo: **Interpersonal Facilitation** - consists of interpersonally oriented behaviors that contribute to organizational goal accomplishment. . . In addition to the spontaneous helping behaviors that Smith et al. called altruism, and George and Brief labeled helping coworkers, interpersonal facilitation encompasses deliberate acts that improve morale, encourage cooperation, remove barriers to performance, or help coworkers perform their task-oriented job activities. Thus, interpersonal facilitation encompasses a range of interpersonal acts that help maintain the interpersonal and social context needed to support effective task performance in an organizational setting. (Blakely, Andrews, & Fuller, 2003, p. 135)

SPORTSMANSHIP:

1. Organ: **Sportsmanship** – a citizen-like posture of tolerating the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without whining and grievances.
2. Borman & Motowidlo: **Helping and Cooperating with Others**— organizational courtesy and not complaining.

ORGANIZATIONAL LOYALTY:

1. Graham; Moorman & Blakely: **Loyalty Boosterism** - the promotion of the organizational image to outsiders. Loyal boosterism is the type of OCB where the individual identifies with the organization and supports its image and reputation to the external environment – individuals, competitors, etc. Loyal boosterism, compared to the other dimensions of OCBs, has a more organizational and

collective nature and this extra-role behavior tend to be more related to the conscious involvement of an employee in the organizational life. (Markovits, 2011, p. 76).

As per Redman & Snape the Loyal Boosterism is positively predicted by commitment to customers and co-workers (hence resulting in the behavior, beneficial to the organization) with evidence of partial mediation by global commitment. Yen & Neihoff, acts of Loyal Boosterism would include employees offering suggestions for cost improvements or other resource-saving ideas, which might directly influence operating efficiency. (Akinbode, p. 8)

2. Graham: **Organizational Loyalty** - allegiance to the organization as a whole; identification with and allegiance to organizational leaders and the organization as a whole, transcending the parochial interests of individuals, work groups, and departments. Representative behaviors include defending the organization against threats; contributing to its good reputation; and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole. Promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions. This dimension of OCB, which consist - according to Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 521) - of behaviors that protect and defend the image and good reputation of the organization towards the external environment is of minor importance in the research of personality factors and their linkage to OCB.
3. George & Brief ; George & Jones: **Spreading Goodwill**—is the means by which organizational members voluntarily contribute to organizational effectiveness through efforts to represent their organizations to wider communities in a beneficial light, whether it be describing one's organization as supportive and caring or describing an organization's goods and services as being high-quality and responsive to customers' needs; instances of spreading goodwill contribute to organizational effectiveness by insuring that organizations obtain needed resources from various stakeholder group.
4. Borman & Motowidlo: **Endorsing, Supporting, and Defending Organizational Objectives**—organizational loyalty; concern for unit objectives; staying with the

organization during hard times and representing the organization favorably to outsider.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMPLIANCE:

1. Smith, Organ, & Near: **Generalized Compliance** - pertains to a more impersonal form of conscientiousness that does not provide immediate aid to any one specific person, but rather is indirectly helpful to others involved in the system. The behavior (e.g., punctuality, not wasting time) seems to represent something akin to compliance with internalized norms defining what a “good employee ought to do”. Generalized compliance is a factor defined by a more impersonal sort of conscientiousness. It implies more of a "good soldier" or "good citizen" syndrome of doing things that are "right and proper", but doing them for the sake of the system rather than for specific persons.
2. Graham: **Organizational Obedience** - the acceptance of the necessity and desirability of rational rules and regulations; 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 a respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance and task completion, and stewardship of organizational resources.
3. Williams & Anderson (1991): **OCB-O**—behaviors that benefit the organization in general (e.g., gives advance notice when unable to come to work, adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order). Prior research has labeled the OCB-O dimension as generalized compliance.
4. Borman & Motowidlo: **Following Organizational Rules and Procedures** - following orders and regulations and respect for authority complying with organizational values and policies, conscientiousness, meeting deadline.
5. Van Scotter & Motowidlo: **Job Dedication** - centers on self disciplined behaviors such as following rules. It encompasses Smith et al.’s generalized compliance dimension.

INDIVIDUAL INITIATIVE:

1. Organ: **Conscientiousness** - is a pattern of going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance.
2. Graham; Moorman & Blakely: **Personal Industry**— the performance of specific tasks above and beyond the call of duty.

Individual Initiative - communications to others in the workplace to improve individual and group performance. Individual initiative focuses on communications to others in the work place to improve individual and group performance. For example, one of the interpersonal helping items is “goes out of his/her way to help co-workers with work related problems” and one of the individual initiative items is “encourages hesitant or quiet co-workers to voice their opinions when they otherwise might not speak-up.

3. George & Brief; George & Jones: **Making Constructive Suggestions** - includes all voluntary acts of creativity and innovation in organizations. Such suggestions can range from the relatively mundane (a more efficient way to handle paperwork) to the more monumental (reorganization of an entire unit to better serve a changing customer base), workers who engage in this form of organizational spontaneity, actively try to find ways to improve individual, group, or organizational functioning.
4. Borman & Motowidlo: **Persisting with Enthusiasm and Extra Effort** - as necessary to complete own task activities successfully. Includes perseverance and conscientiousness and extra effort on the job.

Volunteering to Carry Out Task Activities - that are not formally part of own job suggesting organizational improvements and initiative and taking on extra responsibility.

5. Van Scotter & Motowidlo: **Job Dedication** - centers on self disciplined behaviors such as working hard, and taking the initiative to solve a problem at work. It encompasses the “will do” factors identified in. Job dedication is the motivational foundation for job performance that drives people to act with the deliberate intention of promoting the organization’s best interest.

CIVIC VIRTUE:

1. Organ: **Civic Virtue**—is responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organization, including not just expressing opinions but reading one's mail, attending meetings, and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organization.
2. Graham: **Organizational Participation**— active and responsible involvement in organizational affairs; 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 non-required meetings, sharing informed opinions and new ideas with others, and being willing to deliver bad news and support an unpopular view to combat groupthink.
3. George & Brief; George & Jones: **Protecting the Organization**—includes those voluntary acts organizational members engage in to protect or save life and property ranging from reporting fire hazards, securely locking doors, reporting suspicious or dangerous activities, to taking the initiative to halt a production process when there is the potential for human injury.

SELF DEVELOPMENT:

1. George & Brief; George & Jones: **Developing Oneself** – includes all the steps that workers take to voluntarily improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities so as to be better able to contribute to their organizations. Seeking out and taking advantage of advanced training courses, keeping abreast of the latest developments in one's field and area, or even learning a new set of skills so as to expand the range of one's contributions to an organization. Self Development includes.

This study is based on five multiple dimensions of OCB identified by Organ building upon Smith, Organ & Near's identification (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, p. 526). According to Organ, there are five dimensions of OCB that are altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. These five dimensions include most of the left 30 dimensions, they are similar in names and meanings, most of them can stand instead of other.

1. Altruism refers to behaviors which have the effect of helping a specific other person with an organizationally relevant task or problem. For example, showing a new employee how to use a machine.
2. Courtesy identifies proactive gestures that are sensitive to the point of views of other job incumbents before acting, giving advance notice, and passing along information. Some examples of courtesy are referring to people who will be possibly influenced by one's acts, being sensitive to the claims of others on commonly used organizational resources, and using advance notice proactively.
3. Sportsmanship refers to behaviors which entail avoiding excessive complaining railing against mostly imagined slights. For example, forbearance of filling petty grievance against the organization.
4. Conscientiousness refers to behaviors which allow one to carry out their specific role requirement to levels well beyond those normally expected. It indicates surpassing the minimum levels of compliance in areas such as care for organizational resources, use of company time, attendance, cleanliness, and punctuality.
5. Civic virtue refers to responsible participation in the political life of the organization. For example, participating in organizational meetings, following organizational developments, and offering opinions to the organization appropriately.

Asgari and his colleagues (2008, p. 228) give short explanations to the following five major categories of organizational citizenship behaviors include altruism (helping out coworkers), civic virtue (staying up on company policies), conscientiousness (doing an exceptional job in one's role), courtesy (being kind to coworkers), and sportsmanship (not complaining about little inconveniences in the workplace).

2.3.2.1 Altruism (*Helping Behavior*)

Altruism means helping others such as providing support and orienting new co-workers. It represents helping behavior, which was mentioned in Podsakoff's table of 30 dimensions. Organ (Akinbode, p. 2) in his study found that altruism refers to behavior, which is directed towards an individual in face-to-face situations aiming at helping him/her (e.g., assisting someone with a heavy workload, or orienting new colleagues at work), directed not only towards colleagues, although this is the most frequent use, but also towards outsiders (e.g., customers, clients, suppliers), as long as these actions have organizational relevance.

Altruism is a motive for acting, but it is not in and of itself a normative principle. Requiring leaders to act altruistically is not only a tall order, but it does not guarantee that the leader or his or her actions will be moral (Ciulla, 2007, p. 77). Examples of altruism include helping a new coworker acclimate to the company and helping a coworker with a specific job task.

According to Todd's revision in Akinbode (p. 6) altruism, for instance, usually is interpreted to reflect the willingness of an employee to help a coworker, also is referred to and explained as the selflessness of an employee towards organization. Also, in the same study Redman & Snape (Akinbode, p. 6) asserted that 'Altruism' is concerned with going beyond job requirements to help others with whom the individual comes into contact.

OCB in PRC, a study of Farh, Zhong and Organ (2004, p. 244) regards that the OCB "altruism" or "helping" is defined as assistance given to coworkers for job-related matters, i.e., the help is given to the coworker because the coworker is just that, a colleague defined by work roles. In a culture emphasizing more in-group versus out-group, we might not see helping as constrained to assistance in job operations. The coworker is also considered a friend, neighbor, comrade, and fellow community member

Altruism is accounted as the most helpful one of the significant antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), reason being, as Pare' & Tremblay

(Akinbode, p. 6) explains such behaviors as helping a colleague who has been absent from work, helping others who have heavy workloads, being mindful of how one's own behavior affects others' jobs, and providing help and support to new employees represent clear indications of an employee's interest for its work environment. Socially driven values emphasizing the group over individual concerns are likely to encourage altruistic behaviors benefiting the group.

Akinbode (p. 7) discussed in his paper that altruism and compassion may arise as a natural consequence of experiences of interconnection and oneness. He collected interesting clues from several authors:

- ✓ Altruism or helping coworkers makes the work system more efficient because one worker can utilize his or her slack time to assist another on a more urgent task (Yen & Neihoff).
- ✓ 'Altruism' involves helping specific individuals in relation to organizational tasks (Redman & Snape).
- ✓ The altruistic person can obtain utility from other persons' utility (by convincing them with their selflessness aspect of personality) (Wu).
- ✓ Allen & Rush states that, an abundant body of social psychological research indicates that there are gender differences with regard to helping behavior and altruism.
- ✓ Participants (employees) who were allowed to work individually (i.e., did not perceive any group boundaries) were much more likely to engage in altruism and courtesy behaviors as found by Yorges.
- ✓ The measure of altruism may be akin to citizenship behavior directed toward one's colleagues (resulting in the benefit of the organization) as established by Brennan & Skarlicki.
- ✓ Altruism encourages teamwork and cooperation, allowing employees to increase the pool of available knowledge (Yen & Neihoff).
- ✓ Nevertheless, Konovsky and Organ predicted that agreeableness would relate particularly with altruism, courtesy and sportsmanship, whereas

conscientiousness would relate with generalized compliance (Nikolaou & Robertson).

2.3.2.2 *Courtesy*

Helping behavior which is described by altruism and courtesy shows the good side of employee, and demands much suffer to follow rules of these two concepts. Courtesy helps preventing problems by keeping others informed of one's decisions which may affect them and passing along information to those who may find it useful.

Helping behavior has been identified as an important form of citizenship behavior by virtually everyone who has worked in this area (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, pp. 516-517). Conceptually, helping behavior involves voluntarily helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of, work-related problems. The first part of this definition (helping others with work-related problems) includes Organ's altruism, peacemaking, and cheerleading dimensions; Graham's interpersonal helping; Williams and Anderson's OCBI; Van Scotter and Motowidlo's interpersonal facilitation; and the helping others constructs from George and Brief and George and Jones. The second part of the definition captures Organ's notion of courtesy, which involves helping others by taking steps to prevent the creation of problems for coworkers. Empirical research has generally confirmed the fact that all of these various forms of helping behavior load on a single factor.

Economists view of courtesy stands for friendliness that is full and exact picture of courtesy. Courtesy was several times explained in table of 30 dimensions, and common idea of it is being kind to people next, for this study's context, employees. Courtesy involves politeness, respect, consideration and friendliness of personnel. It includes clean and neat appearance of personnel too.

There is a notion that courtesy is similar to altruism, indeed it differs from altruism by checking with others before doing anything in order to prevent overloading others, i.e. before an action is done informing or warning others of impending actions that can affect them.

2.3.2.3 Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship is explained by Podsakoff and his colleagues (2000, p. 517) as a form of citizenship behavior that has received much less attention in the literature. Organ has defined sportsmanship as “a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining.” However, his definition seems somewhat narrower than the label of this construct would imply. For example, in our opinion “good sports” are people who not only do not complain when they are inconvenienced by others, but also maintain a positive attitude even when things do not go their way, are not offended when others do not follow their suggestions, are willing to sacrifice their personal interest for the good of the work group, and do not take the rejection of their ideas personally. Empirical research that has included this construct in the context of other forms of citizenship behavior has shown it to be distinct from them, and to have somewhat different antecedents and consequences.

Sportsmanship or the inclination demands for relief and redress, in order to absorb minor inconveniences and impositions accruing from the job without complaints or excessive, (Konovsky & Organ, 1996, p. 255).

2.3.2.4 Conscientiousness: Behaviors

Conscientiousness’ refers to discretionary behaviors that go beyond the basic requirements of the job in terms of obeying work rules, attendance and job performance, studied by Redman & Snape (Akinbode, p. 8). In other words, conscientiousness means the thorough adherence to organizational rules and procedures, even when no one is watching. It is believed to be, the mindfulness that a person never forgets to be a part of a system (organization).

Conscientiousness can be explained by its main facets: going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance (Kwantes, Karam, Kuo, & Towson, 2008, p. 235).

Conscientiousness or generalized compliance is directly helpful to other people within the firm (peers, supervisors, or subordinates) in running the organization in general, such as being punctual, giving advanced notice if unable to attend meeting or work. Founded by Organ that mostly it includes instances where the employee carries out certain role behavior well beyond the minimum level required from the position (Akinbode, p. 2).

Conscientiousness appears to capture the personal qualities of dependability, planfulness, and perseverance (Konovsky & Organ, 1996, p. 255). This factor might well have much to do with forms of OCB that are more impersonal, i.e. not directed to specific persons but constitute commendable, constructive forms of supporting the larger context of organized efforts. Thus, Conscientiousness is a plausible candidate for predicting the OCB dimension of Generalized Compliance, which refers to contributions in the form of exemplary adherence to rules regarding attendance, punctuality, use of time while at work, and respect for organizational property and resources. Conscientiousness might also well be a personal quality underlying the OCB factor Civic Virtue, e.g. attendance at meetings, keeping informed about developments that arise within or impinge upon the organization, reading and answering mail, and otherwise practicing constructive and appropriate forms of involvement in the governance of the workplace.

Conscientiousness, and Openness are all better predictors of decision-making performance when adaptability is required than decision-making performance prior to unforeseen change (Akinbode, p. 8). More conscientious employees will stay informed with up-to date knowledge about products or services offered. High conscientious individuals, in contrast, persisted longer than individuals lower in conscientiousness whether or not there was an additional benefit and whether or not they varied the procedure while performing (Akinbode, p. 8).

2.3.2.5 Civic Virtue

Loyal Boosterism which Redman & Snape (Akinbode, p. 8) called 'Civic Virtue' refers to behaviors that demonstrate a responsible concern for the image and wellbeing of the organization. Borman, Penner, Allen & Motowidlo (Akinbode, p. 9) defines civic virtue as responsibly involving oneself in and being concerned about the life of the company. Civic virtue is behavior indicating that an employee responsibly participates in, and is concerned about the life of the company, such as voluntary attendance at meetings. Baker (Akinbode, p. 9) explains Civic virtue is responsible, constructive involvement in the political processes of the organization.

Akinbode (pp. 9-10) reflects several conclusions about Loyal Boosterism related with civic virtue of different scholars:

- ✓ There was an impact of fairness for only a single form of OCB (civic virtue), as found by Bacharach & Jex.
- ✓ As per Redman & Snape the Loyal Boosterism is positively predicted by commitment to customers and co-workers (hence resulting in the behavior, beneficial to the organization) with evidence of partial mediation by global commitment.
- ✓ Yen & Neihoff, acts of Loyal Boosterism would include employees offering suggestions for cost improvements or other resource-saving ideas, which might directly influence operating efficiency.
- ✓ Coole argues that Loyal Boosterism was more limited in their relation to organizational effectiveness; i.e. the more the organization is effective the chances of emergence of this very behavioral aspect is the most.
- ✓ Extraversion was negatively related to the citizenship behaviors of Altruism, Loyal Boosterism, and Conscientiousness (Baker).
- ✓ Todd points out that, it is noteworthy that some different types of OCBs such as helping behavior and civic virtue appear to impact distinct measures of organizational effectiveness in their own ways.

- ✓ Civic virtue is more likely to involve a purposeful contribution (in OCB) by employees compared to other dimensions (Shapiro, Jacqueline, Kessler, & Purcell).
- ✓ If employees identify strongly with the organization (i.e., high civic virtue), one would expect them to exert extra effort to improve their productivity, resulting in improved efficiency Yen & Neihoff.

Civic virtue represents a macro-level interest in, or commitment to, the organization as a whole. This is shown by a willingness to participate actively in its governance (e.g., attend meetings, engage in policy debates, express one's opinion about what strategy the organization ought to follow, etc.); to monitor its environment for threats and opportunities (e.g., keep up with changes in the industry that might affect the organization); and to look out for its best interests (e.g., reporting fire hazards or suspicious activities, locking doors, etc.), even at great personal cost (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, p. 525). These behaviors reflect a person's recognition of being part of a larger whole in the same way that citizens are members of a country and accept the responsibilities which that entails.

2.3.3 Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

What causes behavior, what are their reasons of organizational behavior were studied by several scholars. Researchers have attempted to determine attitudes or situational factors, which correlate with OCB, since OCB has a potential value to the organization. There are four major categories of antecedents of OCBs:

1. Personality (individual or employee) characteristics (here and after authors who researched, studied and conceptualized are given: Alotaibi; Organ; Organ & Konovsky; Organ & Lingl; Organ & Ryan; Parnell & Crandall; Penner, Midili & Kegelmeyer),
2. Task characteristics (Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie & Williams; Podsakoff & MacKenzie; Podsakoff et al.),
3. Organizational characteristics (Kidwell, Mossholder & Bennett; Lambert,).

4. Leadership behaviors (Kent & Chelladurai; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer).

Next 4 subtopics will broadly explain each of these categories of antecedents of OCB.

2.3.3.1 Personality Characteristics

Personality characteristics in study of Okediji et al. (2009, p. 71) were revealed as important predictors of OCB. Personality plays a role in behaviors that are discretionary or performed in weak situations with limited external constraints. Given that personalities reflect enduring tendencies to think, feel, and behave in certain ways and that organizational citizenship behavior are discretionary, there is a strong relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and personality characteristics (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000)

Also, personality characteristics can potentially yield organizational citizenship behaviors in the workplace through several simultaneous and interrelated processes. First, differences in personality may influence how individuals are motivated. Thus, motivation may be a mechanism by which personality yields organizational citizenship behavior. Also personality characteristics may affect how individuals interpret situations that arise and the likelihood that they react in an interpersonally facilitative manner. Commonly associated with efficiency, organizational, reliability, and thoroughness, personality is a dimension of human behavior that may both organize and direct behaviors. However, personality comes in different dimensions such as extraversion, and introversion.

Personality characteristics have substantial validity and utility for prediction and explanation of behavior in organizational settings. There are theories that explain how and why personality variables come to influence the behaviors and outcomes they do. Clearly, individual differences in personality are relevant and important. (Akinbode, p. 19)

Personality characteristics divide into two subgroups: personal attitude and personal dispositions of employees. These two subgroups totally explain personal factor's effects on OCB.

Employee Attitudes: it includes job satisfaction, perceptions of fairness, and organizational commitment and perceptions of leader supportiveness.

Attitudinal variables, like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, justice, and perceived organizational support have received much empirical attention as antecedents of OCB. (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, p. 527). Moreover, attitudinal factors have proven to be more strongly related to OCB compared to other types of individual difference antecedents.

The unique contribution by Organ (Okediji, Esin, Sanni, & Umoh, 2009, p. 71) was to identify a class of employee work behavior OCB whose relationship with job satisfaction, among other variables, might be meaningfully examined in the search for practically significant workplace behaviors related to employee job attitudes.

Job satisfaction: the most important of these features is job satisfaction that directly impacts and has a close relationship with OCB. In general, HR practitioners understand the importance of the work situation as a cause of employee attitudes, and it is an area HR can help influence through organizational programs and management practices. (Saari & Judge, 2004, p. 396). And perceived organizational support is very important in situation of job satisfaction. For a Company to gain a good employee performance it is must to support and always attract employee intention to work and give all attention to what he is doing.

Organ (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, p. 528) defined job satisfaction as: "Employees who view their work contributions as part of an exchange, benefit from satisfying work environments and they will reciprocate by engaging in citizenship behaviors". Emerging of OCB research is also related with Organ's belief about job satisfaction and performance of broader sort are functionally related. Organ stated that "satisfaction would affect people's willingness to help colleagues and work

associates and their disposition to cooperate in varied and mundane forms to maintain organized structures that govern work.

Perceptions of fairness: if it is said to be a family run company, then here can be given a point taken from the study of Lubatkin et al. in the study of Sharma P. (p. 15), who by using behavioral economics and distributive justice theories suggested that nonfamily employees' perceptions of fairness, in terms of resource allocation exhibited by controlling owners, will be dependent on the extent of self-control exhibited by these individuals. If they are perceived to make decisions that gratify immediate needs of family members as opposed to promoting long-term value for the family firm, they will be perceived as unjust. Such perceptions are likely to lead to dissatisfaction of nonfamily employees and reduce the likelihood of high performance or long tenures of these employees.

Perception of fairness directly related to organizational justice, and has big impact on OCB, due to its radical polarity of moods. If employees see any unjust situation or behavior towards him, it suddenly turns his wish to totally opposite pole. Employees' performance decreases, becomes unsatisfied with tasks given, and begins to look through the contract or other official paper where his tasks are certainly written. His productivity decreases as a consequence of low performance and wish to work.

Organizational commitment: Bateman and Strasser in Schultz (p. 2) state that organizational commitment has been operationally defined as "multidimensional in nature, involving an employee's loyalty to the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, degree of goal and value congruency with the organization, and desire to maintain membership"

There are three types of commitment: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

Affective commitment is defined as the emotional attachment, identification, and involvement that an employee has with its organization and goals.

Continuance commitment is the willingness to remain in an organization because of the investment that the employee has with “nontransferable” investments. Nontransferable investments include things such as retirement, relationships with other employees, or things that are special to the organization. Continuance commitment also includes factors such as years of employment or benefits that the employee may receive that are unique to the organization. Meyer and Allen (Schultz, p. 3) further explain that employees who share continuance commitment with their employer often make it very difficult for an employee to leave the organization.

Normative commitment, according to Bolon (Schultz, p. 3) is the commitment that a person believes that they have to the organization or their feeling of obligation to their workplace. Weiner discusses normative commitment as being a “generalized value of loyalty and duty”. Meyer and Allen (Schultz, p. 3) supported this type of commitment prior to Bolon’s definition, with their definition of normative commitment being “a feeling of obligation”.

Perceptions of leader supportiveness or POS (perception of organizational support): is one’s belief that one’s organization values one’s contributions and cares for one’s welfare (Eisenberger et al.).

For the theory of organizational support, Eisenberger and Fasolo (1990, p. 55) explained POS as employees’ general perception concerning the extent to which organization values their contributions and cares about their well beings. Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe in study of Ma, Lai and Long (Ma, Lai, & Long, p. 8) noted that high perceived organizational support would strengthen affective commitment to the organization through the following mechanisms:

- Perceived organizational support would generates a “felt” obligation to contribute to the organization, and employees then repay the organization through greater affective commitment and increased effort.
- Through affective commitment resulting in the incorporation of employees’ membership and role status into their social identity.

- Perceived organizational support generates experience which employees feel comfortable and perceived higher competence. This perceived support from the organization created positive mood leading to greater organizational affective commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis - La Mastro, 1990, p. 55)

Research findings from Eisenberger's (Ma, Lai, & Long, p. 8) study indicated that POS is negatively related to absenteeism and was positively related to employees' job performance. From the above explanation, POS also denotes member attachment and social identity. Moreover, in a recent meta-analysis by Rhoades and Eisenberger (Ma, Lai, & Long, p. 8), it reveals three major categories of "beneficial treatment" received by employees from POS, namely:

1. *Fairness,*
2. *Supervisor support,*
3. *Organizational rewards and favorable job conditions.*

Rhoades and Eisenberger (Ma, Lai, & Long, p. 9) reviewed that POS provides favorable outcomes related to employees' reactions, e.g. JS, positive mood, affective commitment, performance, and lessen withdrawal behavior. This affective commitment feeling from employees is also found in studies related to OI literature. In other words, POS is more than just an emotional issue, it does relate to job attendance. In view from the social exchange theory, POS can be considered as 'norm of reciprocity'. Eisenberger et al (Ma, Lai, & Long, p. 9) and Eisenberger and Fasolo (1990, p. 55) indicated that POS is influenced by organization's various treatments of employees which in turn influence employees' interpretation of organization's motive. Tansky and Cohen (Ma, Lai, & Long, p. 9) also concluded that organizational commitment and POS is significantly correlated with satisfaction which also relate with career development.

Employee disposition:

Personality characteristics including positive affectivity, Organizational Citizenship Behavior negative affectivity, conscientiousness and agreeableness have all

been found to predispose people to orientations that make them more likely to engage in OCB reflected by Organ & Ryan (Jahangir, Akbar, & Haq, 2004, p. 80). Which in turn, increases the likelihood of receiving treatment that they recognize as satisfying, supportive, fair, and worthy of commitment. OCB does not seem to depend on personality traits such as extraversion, introversion, or openness to change.

The fact that OCB is conceptualized as a set of behaviors primarily influenced by perceptions of the workplace (rather than by enduring personal traits) might be why measures of personality have not been widely applied in studies of OCB. Nonetheless, personality may be an important measure in order to control for its influence on behavior or to investigate any moderating effects it may have. (Jahangir, Akbar, & Haq, 2004, p. 81).

The attention must be given to main dimensions of employee attitude: affectivity, conscientiousness and agreeableness. These three concepts together bring full view of employee's attitude at workplace.

Affectivity: positive and negative. Positive affect is a higher order personality variable describing the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, active, and alert. Whereas, negative affect is a general dimension of subjective experiences of aversive mood states such as anger, hostility, guilt, fear, or anxiety.

Conscientiousness: is associated with dependability, the need for achievement, and good organizational skills. Individuals high on this trait are considered hard working and persevering.

Agreeableness: is associated with being courteous, flexible, compliant, and good-natured; individual differences in the motivation to maintain positive relations with others. Individuals high on agreeableness tend to be sympathetic, trusting, cooperative and modest. (Moss & Ngu, 2006, p. 82)

Agreeable individuals are likely to experience an aversion to transactional leadership. In particular, transactional leadership, in which leaders provides rewards or criticism to motivate behavior, underscores the divergent, and indeed conflicting, goals

of leaders and followers. Agreeable individuals, who attempt to circumvent conflict, are thus less inclined to prefer transactional leadership than are other employees.

2.3.3.2 Task Characteristics

Definition of task characteristics and its dimensions were discussed by Barrow (1977, p. 244). According to his study the task characteristics factor refers to those task attributes which define its nature, scope, and work requirements regardless of the leaders' and subordinates' behaviors in performing the task. Only characteristics descriptive of a task are relevant to this factor, not how it is performed, by whom, or under what circumstances. Such task characteristics as repetitiveness, danger, complexity, creativeness, difficulty, structure, standardization, and solution multiplicity comprise this factor.

Based on their review of theoretical and empirical OCB research, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000, p. 526) concluded that citizenship behaviors typically stem from positive job attitudes, task characteristics, and leadership behaviors.

Task feedback, task routinization, and intrinsically satisfying tasks are the three forms of task characteristics that have been investigated (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000, p. 531). By these three task characteristics:

Task feedback: characterizes the knowledge of employees about how well they are performing their jobs. Tasks that provide feedback are more self-rewarding and give enhanced opportunities for improving performance. Van Dyne et al. (Asgari, Silong, Ahmad, & Samah, 2008, p. 102) argued that jobs that provide feedback to employees or that are made more meaningful to employees by making them aware of how their job contributes to the organization are likely to increase feelings of embeddedness in and accountability toward the organization and that that these feelings are characteristic of covenantal relationships.

Asgari et al. claim that task feedback stands (2008, p. 96) for the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by a job results in the individual's obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance.

Task routinization: Task routinization, which means having a repetitive job, is negatively related to OCB. Routine tasks prevent employees from helping their coworkers and the organization.

Intrinsically satisfying tasks: high organizational commitment is associated with intrinsically satisfying tasks, where performance feedback is readily available as much as with leader role classification.

Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 531) found that all three forms of task characteristics included in the substitute's literature (task feedback, task routinization, and intrinsically satisfying tasks) were significantly related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Task feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks were positively related to citizenship behavior, while task routinization was negatively related to OCBs.

Task characteristics may also be related to goal commitment. For example, on difficult or complex tasks, the link between effort and performance will not be as strong as on simple tasks. Research by Barley, Steers and Porter (Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987, p. 216) has documented this relation between task characteristics and goal commitment. One aspect of a task that may be critical for determining goal commitment may be the extent to which there are a number of external influences on task outcomes.

Peters and O'Connor in study of Hollenbeck & Klein (1987, p. 216) have emphasized the influence of situational constraints on work outcomes such as performance and satisfaction. The presence of such performance constraints is also likely to diminish the expectancy of goal attainment. Goal commitment would be low under such circumstances because failure to achieve the goal can be readily attributed to factors beyond the individual's control.

2.3.3.3 Organizational Characteristics

Organizational formalization is often defined (Asgari, Silong, Ahmad, & Samah, 2008, p. 95) as the extent to which an organization clearly specifies rules and procedures for dealing with various contingencies, whereas organizational inflexibility is defined as the extent to which the organization rigidly adheres to those rules and procedures. One might expect highly formalized and inflexible rules and procedures to be disliked by employees, to reduce their job satisfaction and to have detrimental effects on OCB because they encourage employees to focus on formalized job procedures and requirements, perhaps to the exclusion of “extra-role” or citizenship behaviors. There are some compensating benefits of formalization/ inflexibility. For example, organizational formalization and/or inflexibility may enhance perceptions of fairness and procedural justice because formal rules make the organization’s expectations clear (i.e., decrease role ambiguity and conflict), and inflexibility may be an indication that everyone is expected to play by the same rules, thereby increasing employee satisfaction, commitment, and trust in the organization.

Kerr and Jermier (Asgari, Silong, Ahmad, & Samah, 2008, p. 95) investigated organizational characteristics into:

- a. Organizational formalization
- b. organizational inflexibility;
- c. highly specified and active advisory and staff functions;
- d. cohesive work groups;
- e. organizational rewards not within the leader's control;
- f. Spatial distance between a superior and subordinates

2.3.3.4 Leader Behaviors

Leadership is an ability to influence people toward the attainment of goals. There are various theories about leadership, but all these theories can be grouped into three: Trait approach, behavioral theories and situational (contingency) theories. Whereas trait theory emphasizes what a leader is, and personal behavior theory what a leader does, situational theory focuses on certain forces beyond these two dimensions. (Dietzer, Shilliff, & Jucius, 1979, p. 201). Generally, these theories differentiated following types of leader behavior: (House, 1996, p. 327)

- ✓ **Supportive** – is directed toward the satisfaction of subordinates needs and preferences, such as creating friendly climate, displaying concern for employees' welfare.
- ✓ **Directive** – the leader tells subordinates exactly what they are supposed to do, by scheduling and coordinating work, giving specific guidance, clarifying policies, rules and procedures.
- ✓ **Participative** – the leader encourages subordinate influence on decision making process and consults with his or her followers in decisions.
- ✓ **Achievement-oriented** – occurs when the leader sets clear and challenging goals for subordinates. Leader behavior stresses high-quality performance and improvement over current performance, shows confidence that subordinates will attain high standards of performance.

Beyond this classification, scholars proposed new approaches to leadership behaviors, such as, transformational leadership, transactional leadership and leader-member exchange theory:

Transactional leaders attempt to satisfy the current needs of followers by focusing attention on exchanges. (Ergeneli, Gohar, & Temirbekova, 2007, p. 704) This leadership offers employees only limited participation in decision-making or even none at all. Transactional leadership style is likely to provide favorable results in a stable environment. (Patlar & Mia, 2009, p. 255).

Leader behaviors by two representatives, supportive leadership and leader role clarification, according to Organ have a significant relationship. Additionally, both the aspects of the path-goal theory of leadership are positively related to OCB. Transformational leadership behaviors have significant positive relationships with organ's dimensions of OCB.

Transformational leaders can motivate and improve followers' motivation and organizational commitment by giving them opportunity to show creativity in solving problems and also understanding their needs. (Lo, Ramayah, & Run, 2010, p. 5386) Transformational leadership is more effective than transactional leadership in situations of uncertainty or crisis, such as acquisition integration, because it provides subordinates with direction and reassurance. (Nemanich & Vera, 2009, p. 21)

Leader-Member Exchange theory, which is also called Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory, was developed by George Graen and his followers. The theory views leadership as consisting of a number of dyadic relationships linking the leader with a follower. (Krishnan, 2005, p. 15) The theory makes every subordinate (follower) feel part of the in-group, in turn avoids the inequities and negative implications of being in an out-group. The leader should develop quality relationships with all members and makes everyone feel like they're in the in-group. Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that leader-member exchange was positively related to altruism and an overall composite measure of OCB.

2.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED NEPOTISM, JOB STRESS AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Perceived nepotism known by its discriminative nature cause a stress at workplace, here and after it will be mentioned by next concepts: discrimination, family run businesses (due to nepotistic appearance), favoritism, nepotism and cronyism (in several studies similarity in their effects are noticed).

Apart from demands on the job, job stressors can also be in the form of control, relationship, role, change, and support. Relationships include bullying from senior

colleagues, 'god-fatherism', dealing with conflict situations, feeling that personal inputs are not valued, favoritism, nepotism, ethnicity, tribalism, statism, 'indigenisity' (Duze, 2011, p. 4).

If discrimination (since nepotism is a discrimination grounded on kinship) is indeed stressors, it should produce psychological consequences known to result from stress, such as negative effect, reported stress, and psychological or psychiatric symptoms. However, since out-group threat usually heightens own group identification (Dion, 2001, p. 4), another predictable consequence or correlate of discrimination should be increased identification in the larger group. Identifying with one's own group (or in-group) and receiving support from it should ultimately reduce stress resulting from discrimination, i.e. nepotism.

Fair process minimizes stress that may cause the “alliance” between the family and the business to break down: every bit of unfairness weakens the alliance; all kind of evidences of fairness consolidates it and generates commitment (Van der Heyden, Blondel, & Carlock, 2005, p. 21). Stress is very common for family run companies due to nepotism born in such nepotistic managerial team.

Arasli and Tumer (2008, p. 1240) in their paper discuss that there are many different stressors, and nepotism is one of them. Job stress can occur because of irregular work hours, loud noises, boring jobs, inability to socialize, role ambiguity, and responsibility for the results without sufficient authority or lack of autonomy. It is suggested in their study that nepotism, favoritism and cronyism may lead to these job stressors within the workplace. Arasli and Tumer found that nepotism, favoritism and cronyism create job stress in the workplace and this increases dissatisfaction of the staff about their organizations. Nepotism has the greatest negative effect on job stress.

If it is spoken about OCB's relationship to job stress, there are two totally opposite findings from several studies. Motowildo et al. and Bolino & Turnley had found respectively negative and positive effects of job stress on OCB.

The participants of the study applied by Mauno & Kinnunen (1999, p. 880) were married or cohabitating couples, which enabled to study job stress crossover

between the partners. Crossover describes how stress and strain experienced by a partner affects the behavior and well-being of the other. There is notion that job stress affect behavior of person, it has also an impact on organizational citizenship behavior. For example, there is discrimination at workplace, which caused stressful situation for a specialist that has been worked for this company; of course person in stress will not pay much attention to his behavior.

Job stress can also have various effects on the individual as well as on the organization (Arasli & Tumer, 2008, p. 1240). Job stress negatively affects correctional staff, resulting in higher incidences of heart attacks, illnesses, divorce, substance abuse, suicide, and shortened life expectancy (Lambert, Hogan, & Griffin, 2008, p. 59). Arguably, employees who are stressed are less likely to take the time to engage in OCB. Arasli and Tumer explained that job stress in employee context has an effect on organization; that is its atmosphere at work; that is behavior of employees; that is managerial aspects, etc.

Lambert et al. (2008, p. 56) researched effect of job stress on OCB-I, and states that the results indicate that organizational citizenship behavior is affected by both organizational commitment and job stress. Therefore, positive job attitudes are likely to manifest themselves in positive work behaviors, including OCB. Three salient job attitudes are organizational commitment, job stress, and job involvement.

Job stress had a significant negative association with organizational citizenship, (Lambert, Hogan, & Griffin, 2008, p. 62), from the results of research study it was gained that: job stress exerted a statistically significant negative effect on organizational citizenship; as job stress increased, organizational citizenship decreased.

Job stress is a negative affective state that causes discomfort and even pain for the person, particularly in the long term. As noted, job stress has many negative consequences for the employee. These effects stretch far beyond job performance and can also impact the employee's health and personal relationships. The employee may very well place blame on the organization for feelings of stress. Most job stress experienced by correctional employees is attributable to work stressors, such as role

conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, dangerousness of the job, and lack of participation in decision making, (Lambert, Hogan, & Griffin, 2008, p. 63). If the organization is seen as causing tension and strain for the individual, it is doubtful that this individual will put forth extra effort to engage in OCB.

A few studies have examined the relationship between job stress and OCB and provided different findings. Using a sample of nurses, Motowidlo, Packard, and Manning in study of Paille (2011, p. 3) provide data showing that interpersonal effectiveness is not influenced by both the frequency and intensity of stressful events, but rather by subjective stress. Despite these findings and because interpersonal effectiveness aggregates different dimensions such as concentration, perseverance, composure, morale, teamwork cooperation, sensitivity to patients, adaptability and caring for uncooperative patients, it is difficult to distinguish how exactly OCB and stress are related. More recently, Bolino and Turnley (Paillé, 2011, p. 3) studied the effects of individual initiatives on job-related stress. Based on empirical data, Bolino and Turnley show that a high level of individual initiative and ensuing efforts can lead to stress in the workplace, thereby suggesting a health cost associated with employees. Thus, while Motowidlo *et al.* report a negative relationship, Bolino and Turnley report a positive relationship between stressful work and OCB. (Paillé, 2011, p. 3)

The relationship between nepotism and OCB were not researched, and there is lack in this field. Furthermore, there is no study about the relationship between nepotism, job stress and OCB. Therefore, this paper will be useful for future study about the relationship between nepotism, job stress and OCB.

3. STUDY RESEARCH, METHODOLOGY & FINDINGS

The primary objective of this study is to provide detailed insight with regard to the nature of associations among the concepts of perceived nepotism, organizational citizenship behavior and job stress to the perceptions of employees of Kyrgyz Company Shoro. This chapter of the present study encompasses sample characteristics, the method adopted, measures used, procedures followed and the statistical tools used for the analysis of the data conducted.

3.1 THE AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of this paper is to analyze data obtained from an empirical research study which investigated the effect of perceived nepotism on organizational citizenship behavior through job stress in context of Kyrgyz family owned group of food and beverage companies SHORO.

Post-Soviet situation brought to business management new tendencies especially to family-managed businesses which were restricted in communistic regime. For a long period family run businesses were growing and nowadays they are in arms of second generation, so nepotistic behavior became a real part of management. In these conditions the effect of perceived nepotism on OCB could be analyzed wrongly. In other countries effect of perceived nepotism on OCB was measured and showed negative relationship, while in Kyrgyz companies you can face to surprises, so to show real case there must be added some disturbing elements like job stress, which is negative and decreases OCB. So the real face of perceived nepotism can be shown through this examining.

For the developed countries it is fact that perceived nepotism brings stressful situation into the workplace atmosphere, it awakens intention to through stress out and though the OCB is affected. Job stress can occur because of irregular work hours, loud noises, boring jobs, inability to socialize, role ambiguity, and responsibility for the results without sufficient authority or lack of autonomy. It is suggested here that

nepotism may lead to these job stressors within the workplace (Arasli & Tumer, 2008, p. 1240). Job stress has different effects on the employee individually as well as on the organization. Stress might lead to losing adaptability to the work, to negative comments and to an intention to quit.

3.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

There are two main questions which must be investigated in this research:

- Does the perceived nepotism effect on organizational citizenship behavior?
- How job stress effects on relationship between perceived nepotism and OCB?

3.3 HYPOTHESES

This study has been designed to investigate the role of intervening variable in the relationship between perceived nepotism and organizational citizenship behavior. The review of relevant literature has revealed that studies investigating the relation among perceived nepotism, work stress and organizational citizenship do not exist. Building on relevant theories and logical inducement the following presumptions are derived about the relations among the variables in question.

Presumption - 1: Favoritism shown to relatives adds unfair competitive advantage to family member employee, disrupts atmosphere of workplace, and brings conflicts into corporate life. Thus, it should be thought that perceived nepotism should have a negative effect on OCB but in context of Kyrgyz companies we cannot say this exactly. Therefore, it is possible to assume that perceived nepotism creates job stress which has an impact on OCB. But also perceived nepotism has a relationship with OCB too.

Presumption-2: Differing perceived nepotism may have an increasing or decreasing effect on job stress.

Presumption–3: The relationship between perceived nepotism and organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by job stress.

In accordance with the presumptions defined above the following hypotheses are generated to test the relationships formulated above.

Hypotheses 1. Perceived nepotism affects job stress.

Hypotheses 2. Job stress mediates the relationship between perceived nepotism and organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypotheses 3. Perceived nepotism is related to organizational citizenship behavior.

3.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

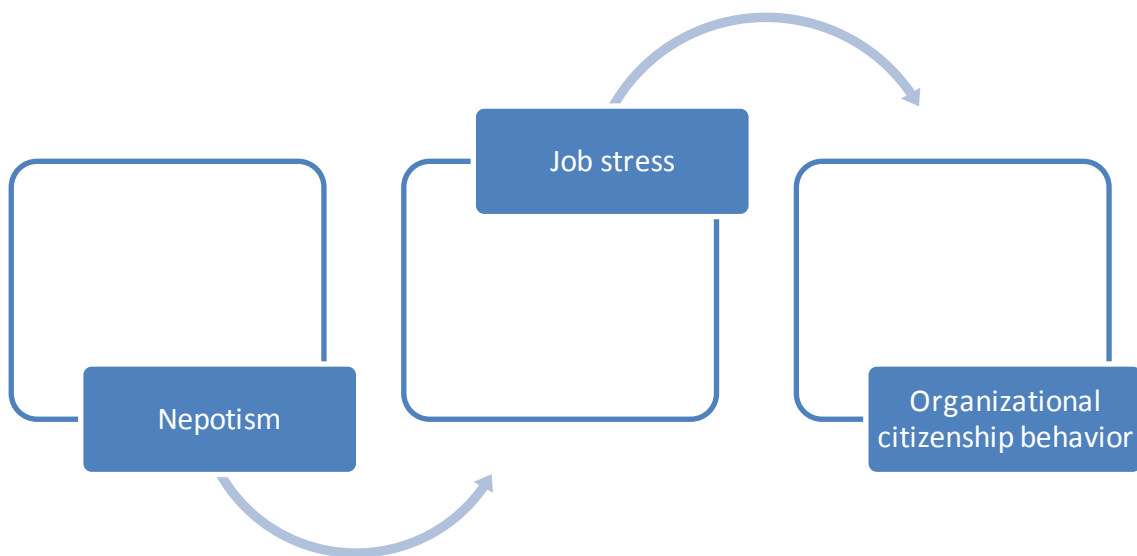


Figure 3.4.1 Conceptual Model

Independent variable: Perceived nepotism

Dependent variable: Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Intervening variable: Job Stress

3.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.5.1 Sample

In Kyrgyzstan there are several family-run companies, the most popular is Shoro, it manufactures beverage and food, and it has 4 daughter firms each of them produces food and beverage products under their brand name. All the manufacturing subdivisions are situated in one place: They are divided into three subdivisions: kurut (national dried cheese kind) bottled national drinks and bottled distilled and mineral water. All names are taken from national drinks, heroes in Kyrgyz legends and famous Kyrgyz landmarks.

National drinks: "Shoro" produces "Maksym-Shoro", "Chalap-Shoro", "Tagai", Zharma-Shoro", "Tagai", "Bozo-Shoro Zhumshak", "Bozo-Shoro Kuchtuu", and "Kumys Sayak".

Bottled water: "Shoro-Suu" company produces bottled mineral and spring water, "Arashan", "Baytik", "Issyk-Ata", "Ala-Archa", "Jalal-Abad", "Shoro-Suu", "Kara-Suu", "Aisberg" and "Bishkek".

Tien Shan: "Tien Shan Legend", "Tien Shan Legend sport", "Legenda" Dispensers and based on "Tien Shan Legend" "Ice-Tea".

Kurut: "Kurut" produces "Kurut detskiy", "Kurut klassicheskiy", "Kurut s chesnokom", "Kurut s ukropom", Kurut s kopchenostyami" and "Kurut s chili".

Modis (Mobile Distribution Services), daughter company is situated in Kazakhstan.

There are branches of the company with its own production bases and personnel in the south of Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan, which operate under a common strategy, developed by the company headquarters in Bishkek.

Questionnaires on paper were distributed to approximately 350 employees working in a Shoro Food and Beverage Company and 20 requests for questionnaire were sent by e-mail (electronic versions were sent to middle and top level managers)

3.5.2 Data Collection

350 questionnaires were distributed to the employees on paper and 20 questionnaires were sent by mail. As for standardization, written directions were provided with each survey. One of the concerns that the intended respondents were deemed likely to have when asked to participate, were confidentiality of results. Confidentiality was assured in the mail text that contained the surveys. Participation was voluntary and questionnaires were returned back by e-mail or by the respondents themselves. Questionnaires are sent and asked to be completed within 4 weeks. 215 paper based questionnaires were returned and 194 of them could be analyzed. 13 questionnaires were answered online and all of them could be analyzed. Total valid answers are 207.

3.5.3 Survey Instrument

Two different language versions of the questionnaire were used – English and Russian. Scale is translated by the researcher and reviewed by the academician for the appropriateness with the original text. The translated questionnaire is shared with 12 people from the targeted sample group. They are asked if all the statements are clear and understandable. Final form of the translated document is used for the study. The versions of the questionnaires are presented in Appendices A and B. The original scales are in English. Sources of the scales will be mentioned below.

There are 5 sections in the questionnaire; demographic information, perceived nepotism, organizational citizenship behavior and job stress. In demographic nominal scale was used, and on all others 6-point rating scale anchored by 1=strongly agree and 6= strongly agree.

The demographic section includes seven items: gender and age of participant, total work experience, worked years in this company, position, knowledge of which acquaintances of manager working in Shoro and relationship to manager respectively.

a. Perceived Nepotism Scale

Perceived nepotism is measured by 10 items developed and validated by Arasli and Tumer (2008, p. 1243)

2 sample items from the scale:

1. Employees of this company always feel that they need someone they know (a relative or a friend) in a high-level position.
2. Supervisors are afraid of subordinates who are related to high-level executives.
3. Employees who are promoted or rewarded only because of connections (friends or family ties) are a negative influence on others working at this company.
4. I am always careful when speaking to relatives, friends or acquaintances of company executives.
5. Relatives, friends and acquaintances of company executives are frustrated by the fact that they never really know if they are promoted or rewarded based on merit or personal reasons.
6. If a relative, friend or acquaintance of an executive gets a job here, he/she can never meet the expectations of the other employees.
7. Executives are more interested in keeping relatives, friends and acquaintances in good positions than they are in those employees' performance or the organization's profitability.
8. Family or acquaintances' disagreements become business problems in organizations.
9. Company executives and corporate executives who permit employment of executives' relatives and acquaintances have a hard time attracting and retaining quality people who are not relatives or acquaintances.
10. High level executives of this company have a hard time demoting or firing relatives, friends and acquaintances if they prove inadequate.

b. Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

Organizational Citizenship Behavior is measured by 24 items developed and validated by Organ (1989). Below scale is given with division into dimensions:

Altruism

1. I help others who have been absent
2. Help others who have heavy work loads
3. Helps orient new people even though it is not required
4. I willingly help others who have work related problems
5. I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her

Conscientiousness

6. Attendance at work is above the norm
7. Does not take extra breaks
8. Obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching
9. Is one of my most conscientious employees?
10. Believes in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay

Sportsmanship

11. Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters (R)
12. Always focuses on what's wrong, rather than the positive side (R)
13. Tends to make "mountains out of molehills" (R)
14. Always finds fault with what the organization is doing (R)
15. Is the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing (R)

Courtesy

16. Takes steps to try to prevent problems with other workers
17. Is mindful of how his/her behavior affects other people's jobs
18. Does not abuse the rights of others
19. Tries to avoid creating problems for coworkers
20. Considers the impact of his/her actions on coworkers

Civic Virtue

21. Attends meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important
22. Attends functions that are not required, but help the company image
23. Keeps abreast of changes in the organization
24. Reads and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on

c. Work stress

Work stress is measured by 9 items developed and validated by Arasli and Tumer (2008, p. 1243)

1. It is difficult to tell others at the company what it is necessary to do to increase their reward
2. It is not easy for employees of the company to understand what it takes to get a promotion.
3. Because there is no clear job description, I have to do whatever my supervisor tells me to do.
4. I can see uncertainty in the work environment
5. Employees know their jobs and expectations of them
6. The goals and aims of the company are explained well to the employees.
7. I often feel under stress.
8. I feel very tired at the end of the work day.
9. The stress and tension at work are very high.

3.5.4 List of Variables

Independent variable: Perceived nepotism

Dependent variable: Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Mediating variable: Job Stress

3.5.5 Data Analysis Methods

To analyze obtained data statistical program for social sciences (SPSS 16) was used, hypotheses have been tested through statistical analysis. There are general steps through which logical analyze passes: 1) frequency distributions are used to evaluate the features of sample based on the demographic items of the questionnaire; 2) exploratory factor analysis distributed valuable components into factors; 3) reliability analysis; 4) independent sample t-test and ANOVA.

Factors of perceived nepotism, work stress and OCB were examined by exploratory factor analysis, after excluding weak value and last factor analysis reliability analysis was conducted.

Exploratory factor analysis is, first, conducted to examine the factors of leadership and factors of team cohesiveness. After finding out the relevant factors of the variables, reliability analysis is conducted by Cronbach's Alpha model for testing the consistency between the items of a factor. Cronbach's α is calculated separately for both dependent and independent variables. The significance level of 0.5 is determined for the analyses.

The multiple regression tests are conducted to test the significance of the research model. The test is also used for testing the relationship between independent and dependent variables. To test the effects of demographic variables on the dependent variable of our model, team cohesiveness, independent t-tests are conducted many times. Moreover, one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests are utilized to

determine whether there would be differences on team cohesiveness according to different age levels, number of years worked in the organization, educational level and marital status.

One Way ANOVA is used to see the differences between demographic characteristics with respect to dependent variable, i.e. OCB. One Way ANOVA helps to determine whether there are significant mean differences in a dependent variable among data that is detected to more than two groups. Since the aim is to determine whether there are significant mean differences on organizational citizenship behavior among demographic differences, ANOVA test is conducted.

3.6 FINDINGS

3.6.1 Demographics

The demographic variables such as gender, age, total work experience, position in the organization, number of years worked in organization, relationship to top level managers and perception of relationship to top level managers are examined by following frequency tables. As it is seen, the demographics include 7 items.

Table 3.6.1.1 Frequency Distribution of Gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Male	93	44,9	44,9	44,9
Female	114	55,1	55,1	100,0
Total	207	100,0	100,0	

In the table above it can be inferred that, 44.9% of the respondents with a count 93 are males and 55.1 % of the respondents with a count 114 are females. From this table it is obvious that, the number of male respondents is less than female ones.

Table 3.6.1.2 Frequency Distribution of Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Under 25	79	38,2	38,2	38,2
	26-35	81	39,1	39,1	77,3
	36-45	41	19,8	19,8	97,1
	over 46	6	2,9	2,9	100,0
	Total	207	100,0	100,0	

According to the table above it is shown that, 38.2 % of the respondents with a count 79 are at the age of 25 and lower, 39.1 % of the respondents with a count 81 are between the age of 26-35, 19.8 % of the respondents with a count 41 are between the age of 36-45, 2.9 % of the respondents with a count 6 are at the age 46 and higher.

Table 3.6.1.3 Frequency Distribution of Total Work Experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 1 year	78	37,7	37,7	37,7
	1-5	78	37,7	37,7	75,4
	6-15	36	17,4	17,4	92,8
	more than 16 years	15	7,2	7,2	100,0
	Total	207	100,0	100,0	

From the table above it can be stated that, 37.7% of the participants with a count 78 have work experience for less than a year, 37.7% of the participants with a count 78 have work experience between 1 and 5 years, 17.4% of the participants with a count 36 have work experience between 6 and 15 years, 7.2% of the participants with a count 15 have work experience for more than 16 years.

Table 3.6.1.4 Frequency Distribution of Worked Years in Organization

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 1 year	97	46,9	47,1	47,1
	1-5	74	35,7	35,9	83,0
	6-15	33	15,9	16,0	99,0
	more than 16 years	2	1,0	1,0	100,0
	Total	206	99,5	100,0	
Missing	System	1	,5		
Total		207	100,0		

As seen from the table above, one of the participants skipped this question and for this the total amount of respondents is 206. According to the table, it can be inferred that, 46.9% of the respondents with a count 97 have worked in the organization less than a year, 35.7% of the participants with a count 74 have worked in the organization between 1 and 5 years, 15.9% of the respondents with a count 33 have worked in the organization between 6 and 15 years, 1% of the respondents with a count 2 have worked in the organization more than 16 years.

Table 3.6.1.5 Frequency Distribution of Position in the Company

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Employee	145	70,0	74,0	74,0
	middle level manager	25	12,1	12,8	86,7
	top level manager	26	12,6	13,3	100,0
	Total	196	94,7	100,0	
Missing	System	11	5,3		
Total		207	100,0		

In the table above, it can be seen that, eleven participants from 207 skipped this question and for this the total amount of respondents is 196. According to the table, 70.0 % of respondents with a count 145 are employees, 12,1 % of the respondents with a count 25 are middle level managers and 12,6 % of the respondents with a count 26 are top level managers in the organization.

Table 3.6.1.6 Frequency Distribution of Employees Who are Related to Top Level Managers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Relative	40	19,3	19,5	19,5
	Friend	64	30,9	31,2	50,7
	None	101	48,8	49,3	100,0
	Total	205	99,0	100,0	
Missing	System	2	1,0		
Total		207	100,0		

As shown in the table above, two participants from 207 skipped this question and for this the total amount of respondents is 205. From this table it can be stated that, 19.3 % of the respondents with a count 40 are relatives of top level managers, 30.9 % of the respondents with a count 64 are friends of the top level managers and 48.8 % of the respondents with a count 101 have no close relationship to top level managers.

Table 3.6.1.7 Frequency Distribution of Employees Who are Acquaintance of Top Level Managers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	relative	45	21,7	21,7	21,7
	friend	60	29,0	29,0	50,7
	none	102	49,3	49,3	100,0
	Total	207	100,0	100,0	

From the table it can be seen that, 45 or 21.7% of participants perceive that they work with a relative of a top level manager, 60 participants that makes 29% thinks that they work with friend of top level manager, and 102 participants and it makes approximately half of participants, i.e. 49.3% don't think that close relatives work with them.

3.6.2 Exploratory Factor Analyses

Factor analysis seeks to find the latent factors that account for the patterns of collinearity among multiple metric variables, approval of factors left tested by reliability test.

For each set of the exploratory factor analyses the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) is used to check for the adequacy of sampling, if the chosen data set of variables to be entered for factor analysis is homogeneous or not. KMO value has to be higher than 0,500. Bartlett's test of sphericity calculates the determinate of the matrix of the sums of products and cross-products (S) from which the intercorrelation matrix is derived. The determinant of the matrix S is converted to a chi-square statistic and tested for significance. The acceptable significant value $0,000 < 0,050$ is used. In the anti image correlation table the items that the value are less than 0.500 are deleted.

Principle components analysis and Varimax rotation are applied as well to figure out the relevant items. After finding out the relevant factors of the variables, reliability analysis is conducted by Cronbach's Alpha model for testing the consistency between the items of a factor. In order to have reliability, items' Cronbach's Alpha coefficient should be higher than 0,60.

3.6.2.1 *Perceived Nepotism*

Factor analysis of perceived nepotism including items n1-n10 gave KMO value of 0.628 that is higher than 0.50, Bartlett's test of Sphericity shows 0,000 (less than 0.05) adequacy of factors analyzed. Principal Component Analysis extracted all items into 3 factors, and it explains 60,213% of total variance, where last factor must exclude its item n8 (Family disagreements become business problems in organizations), because factor loadings in rotated principal component analysis by varimax with Kaiser Normalization are too close (0.485 and 0.513).

1. Factor's reliability test: contain next items - n6, n5, n7, n9. Cronbach's alpha is $0,668 > 0,600$, and it is found to be reliable.

2. Factor's reliability test: in item n3 is found to be reverse data because it gave negative meaning, n3 was transformed into n3R and reliability test was repeated. After second reliability test applied Cronbach's alpha become 0,532 that is less than 0,600, so this factor is not reliable and was excluded from analysis.

Deleted items are:

- Employees who are promoted or rewarded only because of family ties are a negative influence on others working at this company.
- I am always careful when speaking to relatives of company executives.
- High level executives of this company have a hard time demoting or firing relatives if they prove inadequate.

3. Factor's reliability test: factor with 2 items n1 and n2 is excluded due to Cronbach's alpha value is less than required, $0,556 < 0,600$.

Deleted items are:

- Employees of this company always feel that they need a relative in a high-level position.
- Supervisors are afraid of subordinates who are related to high-level executives.

Final factor analysis was applied, 1 factor left – “n6, n5, n7, n9”; Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy rose to 0,709 and it explains good correlation between items; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is 0,000, i.e. significant. Principal Component Analysis extracted items into 3 significant factors and explained 77,086% of total variance. In the table below summary of testes and results are given.

Table 3.6.2.1.1 Perceived Nepotism Factor Analysis Report

<i>Factor name</i>	<i>Questions</i>	<i>Factor loadings</i>	<i>Reliability</i>
<i>Perceived nepotism</i>	If a relative of an executive gets a job here, he/she can never meet the expectations of the other employees	,742	0,668
	Relatives of company executives are frustrated by the fact that they never really know if they are promoted or rewarded based on merit or personal reasons	,718	
	Executives are more interested in keeping relatives in good positions than they are in those employees' performance or the organization's profitability	,678	
	Company executives and corporate executives who permit employment of executives' relatives have a hard time attracting and retaining quality people who are not relatives or acquaintances	,658	
Sum 100 (since this variable has single factor)			
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy			,709
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square			112,819
df			6
Sig.			0.000

3.6.2.2 Job Stress

In the dataset next comes set of questions related to job stress, factor analysis conducted to following items: n35, n26, n37, n38, n39, n40, n41, n42, n43. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy value is 0,550 that is higher 0,500 and is adequate for analysis, Bartlett's test of Sphericity is 0,000(less than 0.05). Principal Component Analysis extracted all items into 3 components, and explained 61,435% of total variance. Reliability test was conducted; third component (n35, n36, n37, n38) was deleted because reliability statistics show value of Cronbach's Alpha 0,477 that is less than 0,600.

Items deleted:

1. It is not easy for employees of the company to understand what it takes to get a promotion.
2. Because there is no clear job description, I have to do whatever my supervisor tells me to do.
3. I can see uncertainty in the work environment.
4. It is difficult to tell others at the company what it is necessary to do to increase their reward.

In final factor analysis KMO value increased to 0,515; P value is 0,000; component analysis extracted into 2 factors: “n39, n40” and “n41, n42, n43”; and 71,716% of total variance is explained (look at the table below).

Table 3.6.2.2.1 Job Stress Factor Analysis Report

<i>Factor name</i>	<i>Questions</i>	<i>Factor loadings</i>	<i>Factor explanation</i>	<i>Reliability</i>
<i>Job Stress Level</i>	I feel very tired at the end of the work day.	,878	40,422	,726
	I often feel under stress.	,782		
	The stress and tension at work are very high.	,756		
<i>Clarity</i>	The goals and aims of the company are explained well to the employees.	,898	31,294	,716
	Employees know their jobs and expectations of them	,864		
Sum 71,716				
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy				0,515
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square				269,538
df				10
Sig.				0,000

3.6.2.3 Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Factor analysis of OCB including items n11-n34 brought out KMO value of 0.800 that is higher than 0.50, Bartlett's test of Sphericity shows by 0,000(less than 0.05) adequacy of factors analyzed. By this examine 66.393% total variance is explained. Principal Component Analysis extracted all items into 7 components, in which 1st component must exclude its item n23 (I tend to make "mountains out of molehills" - reverse question), because factor loading -0.352 is less than 0.500. Excluding item n23 increased KMO to 0.804, it is still significant ($0.000 < 0.05$) and total variance explained into 68.490%.

In the next factor analysis second component excluded n15 (I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me) because factor loading is less than 0.600 (0.499). Factor analysis excluded all week items, and there left 7 components, after reliability test was conducted.

1. Factor's reliability test: it contains these items – n29, n28, n30, n27, n31, n26; and it is found reliable. Cronbach's Alpha- ,889
2. Factor's reliability test: n18, n17, n16, n19 - items n16, n17 (My attendance at work is above the norm; I do not take extra breaks) are deleted due to increase Cronbach's Alpha from 0.727 to 0.775.
3. Factor's reliability test: n33 n34 n32 - factor is found reliable. Cronbach's Alpha- 0,759
4. Factor's reliability test: n12, n11, n13 – item n13 (I help orient new people even though it is not required) is deleted in order to increase value of Cronbach's Alpha 0,745 to 0,772.
5. Factor's reliability test: n22, n21 – factor is found reliable and Cronbach's Alpha- 0,724
6. Factor's reliability test: n24, n25 Cronbach's Alpha- 0,423 that shows insignificance of this component. Whole factor is deleted.
7. Factor's reliability test: n14, n20 Cronbach's Alpha- -0,102. The value is negative due to a negative average covariance among items. This violates

reliability model assumptions. You may want to check item codings. Whole factor is deleted.

As a result of reliability test 5 factors left and next items will be conducted to final factor analysis: “n11, n12”, “n18, n19”, “n21, n22”, “n26, n27, n28, n29, n30, n31”, “n32, n33, n34”. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy rose to 0,816 and it explains good correlation between items; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is 0,000, i.e. significant. Principal Component Analysis extracted items into 5 reliable and significant factors and explained 75,433% of total variance. In the table below summary of testes and results are given.

Table 3.6.2.3.1 Organizational Citizenship Behavior Factor Analysis Report

Factor name	Questions	Factor loadings	Factor explanation	Reliability
<i>Courtesy</i>	I do not abuse the rights of others	,846	26,999	,899
	I try to avoid creating problems for coworkers	,843		
	I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs	,825		
	I consider the impact of my actions on coworkers	,795		
	I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important	,647		
	I take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers	,615		
	I do not abuse the rights of others	,846		
<i>Civic Virtue</i>	I keep abreast of changes in the organization	,864	14,463	,775
	I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on	,729		

	I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image	,696		
Altruism	I help others who have been absent	,904	11,430	,759
	I help others who have heavy work loads	,858		
Sportsman ship	I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side (R)	,863	11,373	,772
	I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters (R)	,736		
Conscien tiousness	I am one of the most conscientious employees	,908	11,167	,724
	I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching	,847		
Sum 75,433				
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square df Sig.				0.816 1,540E3 105 0.000

Before analyzing relationship all the dimensions of independent (perceived nepotism), dependent (OCB) and intervening (job stress); variables are given in the figure below.

3.6.2.4 Modified Research Model

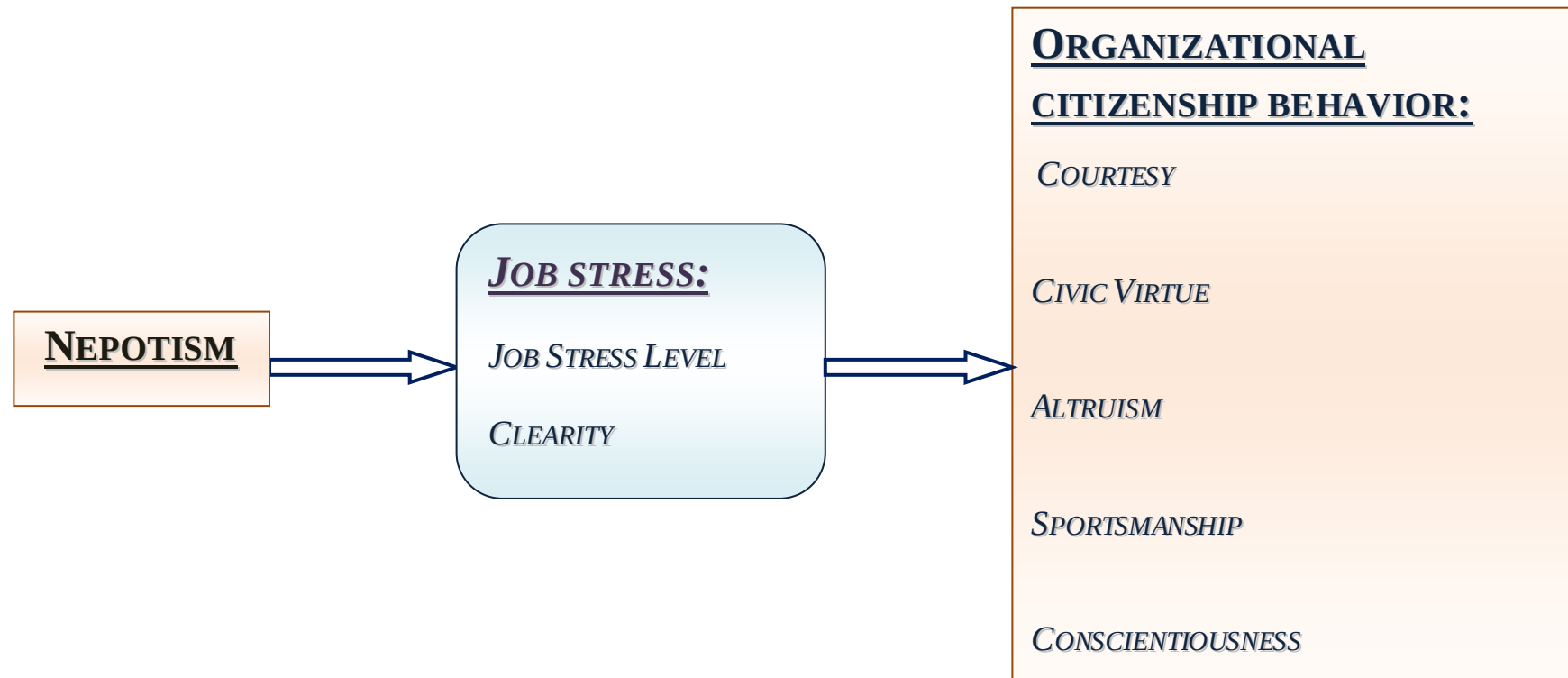


Figure 3.6.2.4.1 Modified Research Model after Factor and Reliability Analyses

List of modified hypotheses after Factor and Reliability analysis:

a. Ha: Perceived nepotism affects OCB

Ha1: Perceived nepotism affects Courtesy

Ha2: Perceived nepotism affects Civic Virtue

Ha3: Perceived nepotism affects Altruism

Ha4: Perceived nepotism affects Sportsmanship

Ha5: Perceived nepotism affects Conscientiousness

b. Hb: Perceived nepotism affects job stress

Hb1: Perceived nepotism affects job stress level

Hb2: Perceived nepotism affects clarity.

c. Hc: Job stress affects OCB

Hc1: Job stress affects Courtesy

Hc2: Job stress affects Civic Virtue

Hc3: Job stress affects Altruism

Hc4: Job stress affects Sportsmanship

Hc5: Job stress affects Conscientiousness

Regression analysis will be conducted to each modified hypothesis. The multiple regression tests are conducted to test the significance of the research model. The test is also used for testing the relationship between independent and dependent variables. To test the effects of demographic variables on the dependent variable of the suggested model, independent t- tests are conducted many times. Moreover, One Way

ANOVA tests are utilized to determine whether there would be difference between the examined demographics.

3.6.3 Test of Hypotheses through Regression Analysis

To analyze the relationship between dependent variable OCB and its dimensions, independent variable perceived nepotism and its dimensions, and intervening variable job stress Regression Analysis has been conducted. Since all the variables are measured in interval scale, regression analysis can be conducted.

Hypothesis Ha:

Ho: Perceived nepotism does not affect OCB

Ha: Perceived nepotism affects OCB

Table 3.6.3.1 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Perceived Nepotism and OCB

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,068 ^a	,005	,000	,74301

a. Predictors: (Constant), Nepotism

b. Dependent Variable: OCB

Table 3.6.3.2 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Perceived Nepotism and OCB

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3,613	,198		18,204	,000
Nepotism	,049	,051	,068	,949	,344

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

As seen from the Model Summary table, R value is 0,068, which indicates the weak correlation value between dependent and independent variable. R square is 0,005; it means that perceived nepotism explains 0,5 % variation of OCB.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of perceived nepotism is 0,344. Since $p = 0,344 > 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is accepted. That means, perceived nepotism does not affect OCB.

Hypothesis Ha1:

H_0 : Perceived nepotism does not affect Courtesy

H_a : Perceived nepotism affects Courtesy

Table 3.6.3.3 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Perceived Nepotism and Courtesy

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,015 ^a	,000	-,005	1,21242

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived nepotism

b. Dependent Variable: Courtesy

Table 3.6.3.4 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Perceived Nepotism and Courtesy

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3,987	,324		12,310	,000
Perceived nepotism	,018	,083	,015	,213	,832

a. Dependent Variable: Courtesy

As seen from the Model Summary table, R value is 0,015, which indicates the weak correlation value between dependent and independent variable. R square is 0,000; it means that perceived nepotism explains 0 % variation of courtesy.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of perceived nepotism is 0,832. Since $p = 0,832 > 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is accepted. That means perceived nepotism does not affect courtesy.

Hypothesis Ha2:

Ho: Perceived nepotism does not affect Civic Virtue

Ha: Perceived nepotism affects Civic Virtue

Table 3.6.3.5 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Perceived Nepotism and Civic Virtue

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,003 ^a	,000	-,005	1,29574

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived nepotism

b. Dependent Variable: Civic Virtue

Table 3.6.3.6 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Perceived Nepotism and Civic Virtue

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,366	,345	9,758	,000
	Perceived nepotism	,004	,089	,041	,967

a. Dependent Variable: Civic Virtue

At the Model Summary table, R value is 0,003, which indicates the weak correlation value between dependent and independent variable. R square is 0,000; it means that perceived nepotism explains 0 % variation of civic virtue.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of perceived nepotism is 0,967. Since $p = 0,967 > 0,05$, Ho hypothesis is accepted. That means perceived nepotism does not affect civic virtue.

Hypothesis Ha3:

Ho: Perceived nepotism does not affect Altruism

Ha: Perceived nepotism affects Altruism

Table 3.6.3.7 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Perceived Nepotism and Altruism

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,175 ^a	,031	,026	1,21850

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived nepotism

b. Dependent Variable: Altruism

Table 3.6.3.8 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Perceived Nepotism and Altruism

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2,914	,318		9,162	,000
Perceived nepotism	,207	,082	,175	2,524	,012

a. Dependent Variable: Altruism

As seen from the Model Summary table, R value is 0,175, which indicates weak correlation value between dependent and independent variable. R square is 0,031; it means that perceived nepotism explains 3,1 % variation of altruism.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of perceived nepotism is 0,012. Since $p = 0,012 < 0,05$, H_0 hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. That means, it can be stated that, perceived nepotism affects altruism.

Hypothesis Ha4:

H_0 : Perceived nepotism does not affect Sportsmanship

H_a : Perceived nepotism affects Sportsmanship

Table 3.6.3.9 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Perceived Nepotism and Sportsmanship

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,179 ^a	,032	,027	1,15455

Table 3.6.3.10 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Perceived Nepotism and Sportsmanship

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2,520	,301		8,361	,000
Perceived nepotism	,199	,078	,179	2,564	,011

a. Dependent Variable: Sportsmanship

As seen from the Model Summary table, R value is 0,179, which indicates the weak correlation value between dependent and independent variable. R square is 0,032; it means that perceived nepotism explains 3,2 % variation of sportsmanship.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of perceived nepotism is 0,011. Since $p = 0,011 < 0,05$, H_0 hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. That means, it can be stated that, perceived nepotism affects sportsmanship.

Hypothesis Ha5:

H_0 : Perceived nepotism does not affect Conscientiousness

H_a : Perceived nepotism affects Conscientiousness

Table 3.6.3.11 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Perceived Nepotism and Conscientiousness

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,069 ^a	,005	,000	1,36614

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived nepotism

b. Dependent Variable: Conscientiousness

Table 3.6.3.12 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Perceived Nepotism and Conscientiousness

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	4,622	,357		12,962	,000

Perceived nepotism	-,090	,092	-,069	-,980	,328
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a. Dependent Variable: Conscientiousness

As seen from the Model Summary table, R value is 0,069, which indicates the weak correlation value between dependent and independent variable. R square is 0,005; it means that perceived nepotism explains 0,5 % variation of Conscientiousness.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of perceived nepotism is 0,328. Since $p = 0,328 > 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is accepted. That means perceived nepotism does not affect Conscientiousness.

Hypothesis Hb:

H_0 : Perceived nepotism does not affect job stress

H_a : Perceived nepotism affects job stress

Table 3.6.3.13 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Perceived Nepotism and Job Stress

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,062 ^a	,004	-,001	,86345

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived nepotism

b. Dependent Variable: Job Stress

Table 3.6.3.14 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Perceived Nepotism and Job Stress

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3,529	,232		15,234	,000
Perceived nepotism	,052	,060	,062	,863	,389

a. Dependent Variable: Job Stress

At the model summary table R value is 0.062 that shows weak relationship between variables. R square = 0.004, perceived nepotism explains 0,4% of job stress. There is no statistically significant relationship between variables.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of perceived nepotism is 0,389. Since $p = 0,389 > 0.05$, Ho hypothesis is accepted. That means perceived nepotism does not affect job stress.

Hypothesis Hc:

Ho: Job stress does not affect OCB

Ha: Job stress affects OCB

Table 3.6.3.15 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Job Stress and OCB

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,212 ^a	,045	,040	,73033

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job Stress

b. Dependent Variable: OCB

Table 3.6.3.16 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Job Stress and OCB

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,124	,230		13,607	,000
	Job Stress	,181	,060	,212	3,016	,003

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

In the Model Summary table, R value is 0,212, which indicates the correlation value between dependent and intervening variable. R square is 0,045; it means that job stress explains 4,5% variation of OCB.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of job stress is 0,000. Since $p = 0,000 < 0.05$, Ho hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. That

means, it can be stated that, job stress affects OCB. As the general hypothesis is accepted, other hypotheses also can be tested.

Hypothesis Hc1:

Ho: Job stress does not affect Courtesy

Ha: Job stress affects Courtesy

Table 3.6.3.17 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Job Stress and Courtesy

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,162 ^a	,026	,021	1,19746

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job Stress

b. Dependent Variable: Courtesy

Table 3.6.3.18 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Job Stress and Courtesy

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,221	,376		8,576	,000
	Job Stress	,226	,098	,162	2,302	,022

a. Dependent Variable: Courtesy

In the Model Summary table, R value is 0,162, which indicates the correlation value between dependent and intervening variable. R square is 0,026; it means that job stress explains 2.6% variation of Courtesy.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of job stress is 0,000. Since $p = 0,000 < 0.05$, Ho hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. That means, it can be stated that, job stress affects Courtesy.

Hypothesis Hc2:

Ho: Job stress does not affect Civic Virtue

Ha: Job stress affects Civic Virtue

Table 3.6.3.19 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Job Stress and Civic Virtue

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,146 ^a	,021	,016	1,28141

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job Stress

b. Dependent Variable: Civic Virtue

Table 3.6.3.20 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Job Stress and Civic Virtue

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,569	,401		6,409	,000
	Job Stress	,218	,105	,146	2,081	,039

a. Dependent Variable: Civic Virtue

In the Model Summary table, R value is 0,146, which indicates the correlation value between dependent and intervening variable. R square is 0,021; it means that job stress explains 2,1% variation of Civic Virtue.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of job stress is 0,000. Since $p = 0,000 < 0,05$, Ho hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. That means, it can be stated that, job stress affects Civic Virtue.

Hypothesis Hc3:

Ho: Job stress does not affect Altruism

Ha: Job stress affects Altruism

Table 3.6.3.21 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Job Stress and Altruism

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,031 ^a	,001	-,004	1,22565

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job Stress

b. Dependent Variable: Altruism

Table 3.6.3.22 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Job Stress and Altruism

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,849	,384		10,037	,000
	Job Stress	-,043	,100	-,031	-,433	,666

a. Dependent Variable: Altruism

In the Model Summary table, R value is 0,031, which indicates the correlation value between dependent and intervening variable. R square is 0,001; it means that job stress explains 0,1% variation of Altruism.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of job stress is 0,000. Since $p = 0,000 < 0,05$, H_0 hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. That means, it can be stated that, job stress affects Altruism.

Hypothesis Hc4:

H_0 : Job stress does not affect Sportsmanship

H_a : Job stress affects Sportsmanship

Table 3.6.3.23 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Job Stress and Sportsmanship

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,158 ^a	,025	,020	1,15523

Table 3.6.3.24 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Job Stress and Sportsmanship

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2,483	,362		6,855	,000
Job Stress	,213	,095	,158	2,240	,026

a. Dependent Variable: Sportsmanship

In the Model Summary table, R value is 0,158, which indicates the correlation value between dependent and intervening variable. R square is 0,025; it means that job stress explains 2,5% variation of Sportsmanship.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of job stress is 0,000. Since $p = 0,000 < 0,05$, H_0 hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. That means, it can be stated that, job stress affects Sportsmanship.

Hypothesis Hc5:

H_0 : Job stress does not affect Conscientiousness

H_a : Job stress affects Conscientiousness

Table 3.6.3.25 Regression Analysis Model Summary for Job Stress and Conscientiousness

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,120 ^a	,014	,009	1,36092

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job Stress

b. Dependent Variable: Conscientiousness

Table 3.6.3.26 Regression Analysis Coefficients Table for Job Stress and Conscientiousness

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3,567	,426		8,379	,000

Job Stress	,190	,111	,120	1,704	,090
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a. Dependent Variable: Conscientiousness

In the Model Summary table, R value is 0,120, which indicates the correlation value between dependent and intervening variable. R square is 0,014; it means that job stress explains 1,4% variation of conscientiousness.

According to the Coefficient table, p value of job stress is 0,000. Since $p = 0,000 < 0,05$, H_0 hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. That means, it can be stated that, job stress affects conscientiousness.

3.6.4 Independent Sample T-test

Examination of difference between gender groups (the only demographic variable with two labels scale) in terms of independent, dependent and intervening variables was conducted through Independent Sample T-test. In order to decide which p value of the t-test will be used in the analysis, Levene's test for the equality of variance is examined

H_0 : There is no difference between male and female participants in terms of perceived nepotism.

H_a : There is difference between male and female participants in terms of perceived nepotism.

In this hypothesis the T-test grouping variable is gender and test variable is an independent variable, perceived nepotism.

Table 3.6.4.1 T-Test Group Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Perceived nepotism	Male	91	3,6154	,90393	,09476
	Female	112	3,8281	1,14147	,10786

Table 3.6.4.2 Independent Sample T-test for Gender and Perceived Nepotism

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Perceived nepotism	Equal variances assumed	5,562	,019	-1,447	201	,149	-,21274	,14703	-,50267	,07718
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,482	200,880	,140	-,21274	,14357	-,49584	,07036

Independent T-test gave these results: Levene's test for Equality of Variances F value is 5,562 and p value is 0.019, that is less than 0,05, therefore null hypothesis in this test is rejected. Analysis passes to 2-tailed P value and "equal variances not assumed" dimension is taken into consideration. Since on the t-test for equality of means p value is 0.140>0.05, Ho hypothesis is failed to reject and alternative hypothesis is not accepted. According to the group statistics table males' mean score is 3,6154, females' mean score is 3,8281. As a result of this analysis, it can be stated that, there is no significant difference between male and females' perception of nepotism.

Ho: There is no difference between male and female participants in terms of OCB

Ha: There is difference between male and female participants in terms of OCB

In this hypothesis the grouping variable is gender and test variable is a dependent variable, OCB

Table 3.6.4.3 T-Test Group Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OCB	Male	91	3,8300	,66698	,06992
	Female	108	3,7772	,80177	,07715

Table 3.6.4.4 Independent Sample T-test for Gender and OCB

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
OCB Equal variances assumed	5,498	,020	,500	197	,618	,05288	,10576	-,15569	,26144
Equal variances not assumed			,508	196,972	,612	,05288	,10412	-,15246	,25821

From the table above, following results are taken: Levene's test for Equality of Variances F value is 5,498 and p value is 0.020, that is less than 0,05, therefore null hypothesis in this test is rejected, it brings analysis to 2-tailed P value and "equal variances not assumed" dimension is taken into consideration. Since on the t-test for equality of means p value is $0.612 > 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is failed to reject and alternative hypothesis is not accepted. According to the group statistics table males' mean score is 3.8300, females' mean score is 3.7772. As a result of this analysis, it can be stated that, there is no significant difference between male and females' job stress.

H_0 : There is no difference between male and female participants in terms of Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Altruism, Sportsmanship, and Conscientiousness

H_a : There is difference between male and female participants in terms of Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Altruism, Sportsmanship, and Conscientiousness

In this hypothesis the grouping variable is gender and test variable is a dependent variable's factors, Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Altruism, Sportsmanship, and Conscientiousness.

Table 3.6.4.5 T-Test Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Courtesy	Male	92	4,0797	1,15059	,11996
	Female	111	4,0616	1,25367	,11899

Civic Virtue	Male	93	3,3584	1,20209	,12465
	Female	113	3,4100	1,34740	,12675
Altruism	Male	92	3,6793	1,18038	,12306
	Female	113	3,6991	1,27919	,12034
Sportsmanship	Male	93	3,3656	1,25139	,12976
	Female	111	3,2027	1,12083	,10638
Conscientiousness	Male	93	4,4516	1,26204	,13087
	Female	114	4,1535	1,41598	,13262

Table 3.6.4.6 Independent Sample T-test for Gender and OCB Dynamics

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Courtesy	Equal variances assumed	1,209	,273	,107	201	,915	,01815	,17033	-,31771	,35401
	Equal variances not assumed			,107	198,887	,915	,01815	,16896	-,31504	,35134
Civic Virtue	Equal variances assumed	2,257	,135	-,287	204	,774	-,05161	,17976	-,40603	,30281
	Equal variances not assumed			-,290	202,647	,772	-,05161	,17778	-,40213	,29892
Altruism	Equal variances assumed	2,005	,158	-,114	203	,909	-,01977	,17355	-,36195	,32242
	Equal variances not assumed			-,115	199,801	,909	-,01977	,17212	-,35917	,31964
Sportsmanship	Equal variances assumed	2,029	,156	,980	202	,328	,16289	,16617	-,16477	,49054
	Equal variances not assumed			,971	186,694	,333	,16289	,16780	-,16814	,49391
Conscientiousness	Equal variances assumed	3,204	,075	1,581	205	,115	,29810	,18851	-,07355	,66976
	Equal variances not assumed			1,600	203,367	,111	,29810	,18632	-,06926	,66546

From the table above, following results are taken:

For Courtesy dimension: Levene's test for Equality of Variances F value is 1,209 and p value is 0.273, that is higher than 0,05, therefore null hypothesis in this test is accepted. Analysis passes to 2-tailed P value and "equal variances assumed" dimension is taken into consideration. Since on the t-test for equality of means p value

is $0.915 > 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is failed to reject and alternative hypothesis is not accepted. According to the group statistics table males' mean score is 4,0797, females' mean score is 4,0616. As a result of this analysis, it can be stated that, there is no significant difference between male and females' courtesy.

For Civic Virtue dimension: Levene's test for Equality of Variances F value is 2,257 and p value is 0,135, that is higher than 0,05, therefore null hypothesis is accepted. Analysis passes to 2-tailed P value and "equal variances assumed" dimension is taken into consideration. Since p value is $0.774 > 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is failed to reject and alternative hypothesis is not accepted. On the group statistics table males' mean score is 3,3584, females' mean score is 3,4100. It can be stated that, there is no significant difference between male and females' civic virtue.

For Altruism dimension: Levene's test for Equality of Variances F value is 2,005 and p value is 0,158, that is higher than 0,05, therefore null hypothesis in this test is accepted. Analysis passes to 2-tailed P value and "equal variances assumed" dimension is taken into consideration. Since on the t-test for equality of means p value is $0.909 > 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is failed to reject and alternative hypothesis is not accepted. According to the group statistics table males' mean score is 3,6793, females' mean score is 3,6991. As a result of this analysis, it can be stated that, there is no significant difference between male and females' altruism.

For Sportsmanship dimension: Levene's test for Equality of Variances F value is 2,029 and p value is 0,159, that is higher than 0,05, therefore null hypothesis is accepted. Analysis passes to 2-tailed P value and "equal variances assumed" dimension is taken into consideration. Since p value is $0.328 > 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is failed to reject and alternative hypothesis is not accepted. On the group statistics table males' mean score is 3,3656 , females' mean score is 3,2027. It can be stated that, there is no significant difference between male and females' sportsmanship.

For Conscientiousness dimension: Levene's test for Equality of Variances F value is 3,204 and p value is 0,075, that is higher than 0,05, therefore null hypothesis is accepted. Analysis passes to 2-tailed P value and "equal variances assumed" dimension

is taken into consideration. Since p value is $0.115 > 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is failed to reject and alternative hypothesis is not accepted. On the group statistics table males' mean score is 4,4516 , females' mean score is 4,1535. It can be stated that, there is no significant difference between male and females' conscientiousness.

H_0 : There is no difference between male and female participants in terms of job stress.

H_a : There is difference between male and female participants in terms of job stress.

In this hypothesis the T-test grouping variable is gender and test variable is an intervening variable, job stress.

Table 3.6.4.7 T-Test Group Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Job Stress	Male	90	3,6489	,92424	,09742
	Female	111	3,7802	,81037	,07692

Table 3.6.4.8 Independent Sample T-test for Gender and Job Stress

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Job Stress	Equal variances assumed	1,542	,216	-1,072	199	,285	-,13129	,12243	-,37273	,11014
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,058	178,438	,292	-,13129	,12413	-,37624	,11365

Independent T-test gave these results: Levene's test for Equality of Variances F value is 1,542 and p value is 0.216, that is higher than 0,05, therefore null hypothesis in this test is accepted. Analysis passes to 2-tailed P value and "equal variances assumed" dimension is taken into consideration. Since on the t-test for equality of means p value

is $0.285 > 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is failed to reject and alternative hypothesis is not accepted. According to the group statistics table males' mean score is 3,6489, females' mean score is 3,7802. As a result of this analysis, it can be stated that, there is no significant difference between male and females' job stress.

3.6.5 One Way ANOVA

One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests are utilized to determine whether there would be difference between the examined demographics.

In this paper One Way ANOVA helps to determine whether there are significant mean differences in a dependent variable, OCB among demographic factors more than two groups as age, total work experience, work experience in the company, position at company, relatedness to top level manager, and existence of relatives in company.

There is a condition that must be common in all ANOVA tests: the p value of Levene's Statistic has to be higher than 0.05.

H_0 : There is no difference between participants who are "Under 25", "26-35", "36-45" and "over 46" years old in terms of OCB.

H_a : There is difference between participants who are "Under 25", "26-35", "36-45" and "over 46" years old in terms of OCB.

For this hypothesis, the aim is to determine whether there are significant mean differences in OCB among different aged participants.

Table 3.6.5.1 Test of Homogeneity of Variances for Age and OCB

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,812	3	195	,146

Table 3.6.5.2 Descriptives table for Age and OCB

OCB								
					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Under 25	76	3,9544	,64020	,07344	3,8081	4,1007	2,20	5,20
26-35	77	3,6597	,82480	,09400	3,4725	3,8469	1,80	5,27
36-45	41	3,8407	,69328	,10827	3,6218	4,0595	2,47	5,00
over 46	5	3,3333	,83799	,37476	2,2928	4,3738	2,13	4,40
Total	199	3,8013	,74182	,05259	3,6976	3,9050	1,80	5,27

Table 3.6.5.3 ANOVA results for Age and OCB

OCB					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4,483	3	1,494	2,789	,042
Within Groups	104,477	195	,536		
Total	108,960	198			

From the results in the Test of Homogeneity Variances, Levene's test F statistics is 1,812 and p value is 0.146. So the p value is higher than 0.05 for this null hypothesis can't be rejected and as a result "equal variances assumed" dimension is accepted. This means ANOVA test can be applied. Since p value on the ANOVA test is $0.042 < 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. From this it can be stated that, there is significant difference between groups of ages of participants in terms of OCB.

From the Descriptives table the mean score of last group (over 46) is **3.3333** and it is less than other groups' mean scores. Scheffe and Tukey test in Post Hoc Tests shows which groups differ from others and it is indicated by star. The different groups are identified according to their p values.

Table 3.6.5.4 Scheffe and Tukey's Multiple Comparisons Test for Age and OCB

Dependent Variable: OCB

			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
	(I) Age	(J) Age				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Under 25	26-35	,29465	,11836	,065	-,0121	,6013
		36-45	,11374	,14184	,853	-,2538	,4813
		over 46	,62105	,33794	,259	-,2547	1,4968
	26-35	Under 25	-,29465	,11836	,065	-,6013	,0121
		36-45	-,18091	,14151	,578	-,5476	,1858
		over 46	,32641	,33781	,769	-,5490	1,2018
	36-45	Under 25	-,11374	,14184	,853	-,4813	,2538
		26-35	,18091	,14151	,578	-,1858	,5476
		over 46	,50732	,34673	,462	-,3912	1,4058
	over 46	Under 25	-,62105	,33794	,259	-1,4968	,2547
		26-35	-,32641	,33781	,769	-1,2018	,5490
		36-45	-,50732	,34673	,462	-1,4058	,3912
Scheffe	Under 25	26-35	,29465	,11836	,106	-,0391	,6284
		36-45	,11374	,14184	,886	-,2863	,5137
		over 46	,62105	,33794	,340	-,3320	1,5741
	26-35	Under 25	-,29465	,11836	,106	-,6284	,0391
		36-45	-,18091	,14151	,652	-,5800	,2182
		over 46	,32641	,33781	,817	-,6262	1,2790
	36-45	Under 25	-,11374	,14184	,886	-,5137	,2863
		26-35	,18091	,14151	,652	-,2182	,5800
		over 46	,50732	,34673	,545	-,4705	1,4851
	over 46	Under 25	-,62105	,33794	,340	-1,5741	,3320
		26-35	-,32641	,33781	,817	-1,2790	,6262
		36-45	-,50732	,34673	,545	-1,4851	,4705

Significance values of groups are higher than 0,05, this means there is no actual difference between age groups, moreover, from descriptive table it can be concluded that last group has 5 participants, so it is not taken into consideration and no conclusions can be taken from less quantity of participants.

Ho: There is no difference between participants who have “less than 1 year”, “1-5”, “6-15” and “more than 16” years of total work experience in terms of OCB.

Ha: There is difference between participants who have “less than 1 year”, “1-5”, “6-15” and “more than 16” years of total work experience in terms of OCB.

For this hypothesis, the aim is to determine whether there are significant mean differences in OCB among different total work experience periods.

Table 3.6.5.5 Test of Homogeneity of Variances for Total Work Experience and OCB

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
<u>1,980</u>	3	195	<u>,118</u>

Table 3.6.5.6 Descriptives table for Total Work Experience and OCB

OCB								
					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Less than 1 year	74	<u>4,0459</u>	,62577	,07274	3,9010	4,1909	2,20	5,27
1-5	77	3,5619	,81581	,09297	3,3767	3,7471	1,80	5,20
6-15	34	3,8275	,65856	,11294	3,5977	4,0572	2,27	4,93
more than 16 years	<u>14</u>	3,7619	,71215	,19033	3,3507	4,1731	2,13	5,00
Total	199	3,8013	,74182	,05259	3,6976	3,9050	1,80	5,27

Table 3.6.5.7 ANOVA results for Total Work Experience and OCB

OCB					
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8,887	3	2,962	5,772	<u>,001</u>
Within Groups	100,073	195	,513		
Total	108,960	198			

From the results in the Test of Homogeneity Variances, Levene's test F statistics is 1,980 and p value is 0.118. So the p value is higher than 0.05 for this null hypothesis can't be rejected and as a result "equal variances assumed" dimension is accepted. This means ANOVA test can be applied. Since p value on the ANOVA test is $0.001 < 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. From this it can be stated that, there is significant difference between groups of total work experience periods of participants in terms of OCB.

From the Descriptives table the mean score of first group (less than 1 year) is **4.0459** and it is more than other groups' mean scores. Scheffe and Tukey test in Post Hoc Tests shows which groups differ from others and it is indicated by star. The different groups are identified according to their p values.

There is another point to be considered: the last group (more than 16 years) has 14 participants, so it is not taken into consideration due to the notions of groups with less than 30 participants are not reliable for conclusion.

Table 3.6.5.8 Scheffe and Tukey's Multiple Comparisons Test for Total Work Experience and OCB

Dependent Variable: OCB

	(I) How many years total work experience do you have?	(J) How many years total work experience do you have?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Less than 1 year	1-5	,48404*	,11662	,000	,1818	,7862
		6-15	,21849	,14842	,456	-,1661	,6031
		more than 16 years	,28404	,20879	,526	-,2570	,8251
	1-5	Less than 1 year	-,48404*	,11662	,000	-,7862	-,1818
		6-15	-,26555	,14751	,276	-,6478	,1167
		more than 16 years	-,20000	,20814	,772	-,7394	,3394
	6-15	Less than 1 year	-,21849	,14842	,456	-,6031	,1661
		1-5	,26555	,14751	,276	-,1167	,6478
		more than 16 years	,06555	,22749	,992	-,5239	,6550
	more than 16 years	Less than 1 year	-,28404	,20879	,526	-,8251	,2570
		1-5	,20000	,20814	,772	-,3394	,7394
		6-15	-,06555	,22749	,992	-,6550	,5239
Scheffe	Less than 1 year	1-5	,48404*	,11662	,001	,1552	,8129
		6-15	,21849	,14842	,540	-,2001	,6371
		more than 16 years	,28404	,20879	,605	-,3047	,8728
	1-5	Less than 1 year	-,48404*	,11662	,001	-,8129	-,1552
		6-15	-,26555	,14751	,359	-,6815	,1504
		more than 16 years	-,20000	,20814	,820	-,7870	,3870
	6-15	Less than 1 year	-,21849	,14842	,540	-,6371	,2001

	1-5	,26555	,14751	,359	-,1504	,6815
	more than 16 years	,06555	,22749	,994	-,5760	,7071
more than 16 years	Less than 1 year	-,28404	,20879	,605	-,8728	,3047
	1-5	,20000	,20814	,820	-,3870	,7870
	6-15	-,06555	,22749	,994	-,7071	,5760

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Multiple comparison table of Tukey and Scheffe shows by star that 1st group of demographic variable (less than 1 year) is different from second group (1-5 years). In comparison with second group P value of 1st group is less than 0.05 (,000). It supports ANOVA analysis's results: there is significant difference between 1st and 2nd groups of total work experience periods of participants in terms of OCB.

Ho: There is no difference between participants have worked for this company “less than 1 year”, “1-5”, “6-15” and “more than 16” years in terms of OCB.

Ha: There is difference between participants have worked for this company “less than 1 year”, “1-5”, “6-15” and “more than 16” years in terms of OCB.

For this hypothesis, the aim is to determine whether there are significant mean differences in OCB among different worked years in company.

Table 3.6.5.9 Test of Homogeneity of Variances for Worked Years in the Organization and OCB

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2,307	3	194	,078

Table 3.6.5.10 Descriptives table for Worked Years in the Organization and OCB

OCB								
					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Less than 1 year	92	3,9833	,62254	,06490	3,8544	4,1123	2,20	5,27
1-5	71	3,6977	,79983	,09492	3,5083	3,8870	1,87	5,20
6-15	33	3,5859	,80031	,13932	3,3021	3,8696	1,80	5,00
more than 16 years	2	2,9333	1,13137	,80000	-7,2316	13,0983	2,13	3,73
Total	198	3,8040	,74272	,05278	3,6999	3,9081	1,80	5,27

Table 3.6.5.11 ANOVA results for Worked Years in the Organization and OCB

OCB					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6,848	3	2,283	4,349	,005
Within Groups	101,824	194	,525		
Total	108,672	197			

At the table of Test of Homogeneity Variances next result are taken: Levene's test F statistics is 2,307 and p value is 0.078. So the p value is higher than 0.05 for this null hypothesis can't be rejected and as a result "equal variances assumed" dimension is accepted. This means ANOVA test can be applied. Since p value on the ANOVA test is $0.005 < 0.05$, H_0 hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. From this it can be stated that, there is significant difference between groups of worked years in organization of participants in terms of OCB.

From the Descriptives table the mean score of last group (more than 16 years) is **2.9333** and it is less than other groups' mean scores. There is another point that must be taken into consideration: there are only two participants in this group so this group is not valuable to test. According to descriptive table the first group of worked years in organization (less than 1 year) has higher means score than others'. Scheffe and Tukey test in Post Hoc Tests shows which groups differ from others and it is indicated by star. The different groups are identified according to their p values.

Table 3.6.5.12 Scheffe and Tukey's Multiple Comparisons Test for Worked Years in the Organization and OCB

Dependent Variable: OCB

	(I) How long have you been working for this company?	(J) How long have you been working for this company?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Less than 1 year	1-5	,28568	,11444	,064	-,0109	,5823
		6-15	<u>,39747*</u>	,14700	<u>,037</u>	,0165	,7784
		more than 16 years	1,05000	,51782	,181	-,2919	2,3919
	1-5	Less than 1 year	-,28568	,11444	,064	-,5823	,0109
		6-15	,11179	,15264	,884	-,2838	,5073
		more than 16 years	,76432	,51945	,457	-,5818	2,1104

Scheffe	6-15	Less than 1 year	1-5	more than 16 years	-1,05000	,51782	,181	-2,3919	,2919
		Less than 1 year	1-5	more than 16 years	-1,05000	,51782	,181	-2,3919	,2919
		Less than 1 year	1-5	more than 16 years	-1,05000	,51782	,181	-2,3919	,2919
	1-5	Less than 1 year	6-15	more than 16 years	1,05000	,51782	,253	-,4104	2,5104
		Less than 1 year	6-15	more than 16 years	1,05000	,51782	,253	-,4104	2,5104
		Less than 1 year	6-15	more than 16 years	1,05000	,51782	,253	-,4104	2,5104
	6-15	Less than 1 year	1-5	more than 16 years	1,05000	,51782	,253	-,4104	2,5104
		Less than 1 year	1-5	more than 16 years	1,05000	,51782	,253	-,4104	2,5104
		Less than 1 year	1-5	more than 16 years	1,05000	,51782	,253	-,4104	2,5104
	more than 16 years	Less than 1 year	1-5	more than 16 years	1,05000	,51782	,253	-,4104	2,5104
		Less than 1 year	1-5	more than 16 years	1,05000	,51782	,253	-,4104	2,5104
		Less than 1 year	1-5	more than 16 years	1,05000	,51782	,253	-,4104	2,5104

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Multiple comparison table of Tukey test shows by star that 1st group of demographic variable (less than 1 year) is different from 3rd group, but Scheffe's test indicates no difference between groups of worked years in company. This kind of difference between groups can be related to the amount of participants in observation: according to Descriptives table 1st group (less than 1 year) has 92 participants in observation group and 3rd group (6-15) has just 33 participants. Because of stated conditions there is no significant difference.

Ho: There is no difference between participants who are “employees”, “middle level manager” and “top level manager” in terms of OCB.

Ha: There is difference between participants who are “employees”, “middle level manager” and “top level manager” in terms of OCB.

For this hypothesis, the aim is to determine whether there are significant mean differences in OCB among different positions.

Table 3.6.5.13 Test of Homogeneity of Variances for Position in the Organization and OCB

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
6,828	2	185	,001

Table 3.6.5.14 Descriptives table for Position in the Organization and OCB

OCB								
					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Employee	138	3,9604	,61628	,05246	3,8566	4,0641	2,20	5,27
middle level manager	25	3,7813	,74449	,14890	3,4740	4,0886	2,27	5,00
top level manager	25	3,2533	,91003	,18201	2,8777	3,6290	1,87	4,53
Total	188	3,8426	,71612	,05223	3,7395	3,9456	1,87	5,27

Table 3.6.5.15 ANOVA results for Position in the Organization and OCB

OCB					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10,689	2	5,345	11,604	,000
Within Groups	85,210	185	,461		
Total	95,900	187			

At the table of Test of Homogeneity Variances next result are taken: Levene's test F statistics is 6,828 and p value is 0.001. So the p value is less than 0.05 for this null hypothesis is rejected and as a result "equal variances not assumed" dimension is accepted. This means ANOVA test cannot be applied. The reason of this result is in two groups quantity of participants are less than 30, so just one group is left to be analyzed, but in ANOVA test there must be more than two groups.

4. CONCLUSION

4.1 DISCUSSION

This part of study will discuss if findings of the research done is in line with previous studies. There are main studies to compare with: Arasli and Tumer (2008), Duze (2011), Dion (2001), Lambert, Hogan, & Griffin (2008), Motowildo et al. (Paillé, 2011), Bolino and Turnley (Paillé, 2011). These studies made investigation in relationship between nepotism - job stress, and job stress – OCB, there is no study about nepotism – OCB and nepotism – job stress – OCB relationships. Due to present paper future studies can rely on results received here. Results in relationship between nepotism, job stress and OCB taken from the survey analyzed and discussed are relevant for scientific contribution to future studies in the organizational behavior management.

Nepotism in context of Kyrgyz Republic business management has many unusual details: cultural and historical aspects have huge impact on management and employees behavior toward colleagues and supervisors in nepotistic condition. Nepotism is very usual to Kyrgyz management style, thus all employees are used to this conditions of work. Stress is very common for family run companies due to nepotism born in such nepotistic managerial team.

It is assumed that nepotism creates job stress, but according to findings, there is job stress in workplace but it is not cause of nepotism. Nepotism has no significant effect on job stress. Therefore employees in the family run companies do not feel discriminated by the supervisor who had recruited relative to the same workplace. The cause of job stress is assumingly different from nepotistic behavior of supervisors.

In the study of Arasli and Tumer on nepotism's effect on job stress in the banking industry the relationship between nepotism and job stress was investigated. The scale of job stress generally had a high and positive association with intention to quit, nepotism, favoritism and cronyism (Arasli & Tumer, 2008, p. 1246). The dependent variable in the first model is the scale for job stress. Results reveal that *nepotism, favoritism and cronyism all have positive and statistically significant effects on job*

stress. Furthermore, the highest impact on job stress is that of nepotism. In the same field of research this study shows that nepotism does not affect job stress, due to weak relationship between them; there is not statistically significant relationship between variables.

According to these two findings it can be said that this research paper does not support the findings of Arasli and Tumer. The same results as Arasli & Tumer founded had also been investigated by Dion in 2001, after a decade this filed was researched by Duze.

According to Dion's research paper about the nature of discriminations, nepotism is indeed stressor; it should produce psychological consequences known to result from stress, such as negative effect, reported stress, and psychological or psychiatric symptoms (Dion, 2001, p. 4).

Duze (2011, p. 4) in his work found that nepotism is job stressor, but next to this relationship form of stress in workplace there are many other relationship forms grounded on kinship and acquaintances like: 'god-fatherism', favoritism, nepotism, ethnicity, tribalism.

In compare to these studies current study's results are not matched with them. Here can be said that if all kinship discrimination types (favoritism, nepotism and cronyism) were taken together to get exact picture, then maybe they could show the similarity to other studies. But aim of this study is to research if nepotism creates job stress and if it does effect on OCB.

The effect of nepotism on OCB was not found in other studies, due to no researches about given variables. But current paper can give broad reliable results related to the relationship between nepotism and OCB.

Featured from the research analysis results are:

- Nepotism does not affect OCB, it has weak relationship; there is no statistically significant relationship between variables. But OCB has 5 dimensions, and the relativity to them was tested.

- Nepotism has no relationship with 3 of OCB dimensions: courtesy, civic virtue and conscientiousness. All of them have weak relationship with nepotism
- There is significant relationship between altruism and sportsmanship dimension of OCB. Perceived nepotism has higher effect on sportsmanship than on altruism.

Shortly, nepotism has no effect on OCB, which was predicted in the beginning of the research. Nepotism is a situational concept and to have a reaction between it and behavior (OCB) there must be an emotional factor (job stress). For this purpose job stress was added. Job stress negatively affects correctional staff, resulting in higher incidences of heart attacks, illnesses, divorce, substance abuse, suicide, and shortened life expectancy (Lambert, Hogan, & Griffin, 2008, p. 59). Therefore, before the research it was said that logically job stress must have a negative effect on OCB.

The relationship between job stress and OCB was investigated by several authors and the results were bipolar, i.e. totally opposite results were received from the analysis of this field. For example, Motowild et al. and Bolino & Turnley (Paillé, 2011, p. 3) had found negative and positive effects of job stress on OCB, respectively.

Arasli and Tumer explained that job stress in employee context has an effect on organization; that is its atmosphere at work; that is behavior of employees; that is managerial aspects, etc. Arguably, employees who are stressed are less likely to take the time to engage in OCB.

There is an exact study on job stress and OCB's relationship and how they react with each other. Lambert et al. (2008, p. 56) researched effect of job stress on OCB-I, and states that the results indicate that organizational citizenship behavior has relationship with job stress.

Lambert, Hogan, & Griffin (2008, p. 62):

“Job stress had a significant negative association with organizational citizenship, from the results of research study it was gained that: job stress exerted a

statistically significant negative effect on organizational citizenship; as job stress increased, organizational citizenship decreased.”

Job stress has a negative nature, it causes many problems for employees at workplace, and these problems can be emotional, behavioral, attitudinal, performing, health. It has many negative consequences for employee. Employees in stress make mistake in work he is doing, can behave aggressive or not ethical, become sick and closes connection to outer world. The employee may very well place blame on the organization for feelings of stress. Job stressors are very common and those are: role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, dangerousness of the job, lack of trust, task overload, etc. If the organization causes stress for the employee, it is doubtful that this individual will put effort to engage in OCB.

Pascal Paille in his study relies on researches of Motowidlo, Packard, and Manning and Bolino and Turnley about the examination the relationship between job stress and OCB and provided different findings. These findings are bi polar, one is negative and the other is positive.

Motowidlo, Packard, and Manning (Paillé, 2011, p. 3) in their study studied frequency and intensity of stressful events; and found that subjective stress has more effect on interpersonal effectiveness. Interpersonal effectiveness aggregates different dimensions such as concentration, perseverance, composure, morale, teamwork cooperation, sensitivity to patients, adaptability and caring for uncooperative patients, it is difficult to distinguish how exactly OCB and stress are related.

Bolino and Turnley (Paillé, 2011, p. 3) studied the effects of individual initiatives on job-related stress. They show that a high level of individual initiative and ensuing efforts can lead to stress in the workplace.

Thus, while *Motowidlo et al. report a negative relationship, Bolino and Turnley report a positive relationship between stressful work and OCB.* (Paillé, 2011, p. 3). Both of them found that job stress has effect on OCB in any case. This research paper is in line with these studies, and shows significant relationship between variables. Furthermore job stress has effect on all dimensions of OCB. It was predicted that job

stress has an impact on behavior; due to this criteria job stress was included into the research to show nepotism's affect on OCB.

According to the results of One Way ANOVA analyses, it is found that there are significant differences between two groups of total work experience periods of participants in terms of OCB. Employees who have work experience less than a year is different from 2nd group (1-5) by its high mean difference. Their helping behavior is much higher than that of second group. For the worked years in company, employees who have worked less than year of experience had shown higher result and was significantly different from the group of employee who have worked for company 1-5 years. Shoro company is on very good position in Kyrgyzstan (related to salary and good conditions of work), that's very good motivation for the first year employees and they try hard to be permanent member of this company. Thus, their OCB is very high respectively to the employees who have worked for this company for 1-5 years, their helping behavior decreases due to inhabited to this company.

For Shoro company it is found that nepotism affect just 2 dimensions of OCB, does not affect job stress, even if there is stress at workplace it is not related to nepotism, but job stress has an effect on OCB.

4.2 LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

There are several limitations of the study. The first limitation of the study is sample which contains data of 207 employees who are working in Shoro. It is difficult to make generalization with this amount of respondents. To overcome this limitation, examining the effects of nepotism on OCB with a larger sample should be suggested.

Second limitation is about the geographical boundaries of the sample. Survey is conducted in Kyrgyzstan. Sample of the study is consisted of the Kyrgyz people who are working in Shoro. Findings of the study are only related with food and beverage companies Shoro. For this the results of this study can not involve Kyrgyzstan as a

whole. Also it is impossible for this study to be comprehensive to other countries and cultures.

Another limitation of the study can be choosing of Kyrgyz food and beverage sector. And again there is a problem with the generalization. It is difficult to generalize findings of food sector to other sectors of the country. It would be enlightening if the sample is enlarged by including other sectors of Kyrgyzstan.

Psychological condition of employees could be another limitation of the study. During the data collection it is observed that, respondents beared to share their real thoughts about organization and working conditions. It can be explained as employees are worrying say something wrong and at the result lose their job.

Quantitative and qualitative method is used in the data collection. But mostly quantitative (questionnaire) method was used to collect the primary data. Using questionnaires in the data collection is favorable method for the master thesis. But this also can be the limitation of the study. By this method it is difficult to collect truthful data and obtain reliable results. Also low education of employees could affect the reliability of study findings. Respondents may fill in these questionnaires without understanding the meaning of the questions. For more comprehensive researches and gaining reliable results using of qualitative method, i.e. interview method, is suggested.

This research paper can be suggested as an implication for future research and use in management of family run business. There are theoretical and practical issues for supervisors and managers in family run business, scholars, leaders, CEO's and etc. Benefits of this paper in management are: if this paper's recommendations are implied job performance and satisfaction will increase, stress will be weakened; if attention is given to reduce the stress level, increase OCB and fight with nepotism, then the company wholly will rise in social organizational context.

According to results of analysis of data from survey, perceived nepotism affects 2 dimensions of OCB, nepotism does not affect OCB; nepotism does not affect job stress and it dimensions; job stress has significant relationship with OCB and its all dimensions. In comparison with the primarily set hypotheses, it can be said that

nepotism partly affects OCB, and even if in workplace stress appears it is not related to nepotism, job stress has impact on OCB.

Although nepotism and OCB are important subjects to study, there is lack of researches in this field and especially in context Kyrgyz Republic. Hence, future research may consider the development of more reliable measures for examining such constructs with aim to reach a greater sample size, from as many organizations as possible, with a wide range of individual characteristics in order to achieve a better distribution of responses, with taking into account cultural aspects. To signify the results nepotism can be mentioned in addition with favoritism and cronyism. Thus, reliability of the result will increase.

4.3 CONCLUSION

Most of people in Kyrgyzstan employ through ties and acquaintances the situation that causes weaker efficiency in development of economy within the market and country whole. Kyrgyz nation has an oriental traditional culture that has intensive influence on the managing style. Since family structure is patriarchy father has a big impact on his children. And oldest man in family generally has to look after other siblings, though the ground for nepotism is prepared.

May be the greatest dilemma brought by favoritism is that, under many different other names, so few people realise it as a problem. Relationships, connections, networking, acquaintances, friends, family-almost everyone has drawn on these sources of support in job hunting in the private sphere.

Preference of relatives and friends while employing and managing personnel can be undertaken as corruption, lack of good governance and transparency weakens faith and moral values in company. This condition brings many concerns about the employees behavior in workplace their attitudes toward colleagues and tasks they are given. All these statements push to the thoughts of presence of stress at work. The most

frightening type of stress: unconscious stress, that always been kept inside of employees.

This paper was conducted in order to analyze data obtained from an empirical research study which investigated the effect of perceived nepotism on organizational citizenship behavior through job stress in context of Kyrgyz family owned group of food and beverage companies Shoro.

This study was conducted in order to attract management scholars' attention to the business management in Kyrgyzstan. Nepotistic management ruins all the system no innovation is entered due to this situation. Family run businesses do not consider their employee's condition of work stress related to nepotism. They have no doubt about the bad impact from job stress on OCB. Unethical behavior of supervisors is not punished for its nepotistic behavior to employee. Generally all relationships are hided (very few employed people are stupid enough to show open connections to friends, and family), this practice undercuts the transparency that should be part of hiring and contracting processes.

The literature review part gave the list of dimensions according to several authors:

1. Perceived nepotism has single dimension – nepotism
2. Job stress according to factor and reliability test was modified into 2 groups and named as, clarity and job stress levels.
3. OCB's dimensions were taken from Organ's study, and were supported by Factor and reliability analysis results; they do 5 features- courtesy, civic virtue, altruism, conscientiousness and sportsmanship.

The idea of the study before survey and analysis provide next hypotheses: perceived nepotism affect job stress and OCB separately, and job stress affects OCB. After Factor and Reliability analysis was conducted unreliable data variables were excluded and next variables with dimensions were noted: perceived nepotism affects OCB (Ha), perceived nepotism affects dimensions of OCB (Ha1-Ha5), perceived

nepotism affects job stress (Hb), perceived nepotism affects dimensions of job stress (Hb1-Hb2), job stress affects OCB (Hc), job stress affects all 5 dimensions of OCB (Hc1-hc5). Shortly it can be said:

- ✓ Nepotism does not affect OCB, it has weak relationship; there is no statistically significant relationship between variables. But OCB has 5 dimensions, and the relativity to them was tested.
- ✓ Nepotism has no relationship with 3 of OCB dimensions: courtesy, civic virtue and conscientiousness. All of them have weak relationship with nepotism
- ✓ There is significant relationship between altruism and sportsmanship dimension of OCB. Perceived nepotism has higher effect on sportsmanship than on altruism.
- ✓ Nepotism does not affect job stress and its dimensions, it has weak relationship; there is no statistically significant relationship between variables.
- ✓ There is significant relationship between job stress and OCB and all dimensions of OCB.

Thus, during the survey analysis it is found that Ha, Ha1, Ha2, Ha5, Hb, Hb1, Hb2 are rejected, and Ha 3, Ha4, Hc, Hc1-Hc5 are accepted. Results from above shows that nepotism has no effect on job stress. Thus, nepotism is so usual in business that it become unseen feature of management. But if careful view is done into heart of social life of company, it can be said that somewhere unconsciously it has an impact on behavior of employees. No company agree with this statement, they say that whole country has same situation, and from the beginning of business occur it had never been in family owned companies that a guy from outside manages the company.

According to the results of Independent Sample T-test and One Way ANOVA analyses, it is found that there are significant differences between two groups of total

work experience periods of participants in terms of OCB. Employees who have work experience less than a year is different from 2nd group (1-5) by its high mean difference.

From these results can be stated that employees who have no or less than 1 year of work experience and employees who have worked for a long period for this company are more loyal to company, feel that company support them, are always helpful, helping behavior is very high, have no stress according to company work, tasks and role sharing and are glad to work in this company.

Almost no management studies were conducted in Kyrgyz Republic, there is no such kind of researches even in neighbor countries, where the culture and the problem of managing family run businesses are same. Nepotism is important subjects to study; there is lack of researches in this field. Thus, future research may consider the development of more reliable measures for examining such constructs with aim to reach a greater sample size, from as many organizations as possible, with a wide range of individual characteristics in order to achieve a better distribution of responses, with taking into account cultural aspects.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Survey in Russian

Уважаемый респондент,

Анкета подготовлена с целью проведения исследовательского проекта в рамках написания магистерской выпускной работы в университете Мармара, Турция. Ваше участие в данном исследовании не окажет никакого влияния на ваше положение в компании. Мы заинтересованы в получении *вашего личного* мнения. Не существует правильных или неправильных ответов. Будьте искренни и честны в своих ответах. Пожалуйста, не указывайте свое имя в анкете, чтобы сохранить анонимность. Собранные данные будут использоваться только для исследовательских целей. Информация о вашем участии в анкетировании и Ваши ответы будут носить строго конфиденциальный характер.

Благодарю за Ваше участие и содействие в исследовании!

Доцент: Доктор Мюждеден Йенер,

Магистрант: Джюльетта Махаматжан кызы

1. Пол:

- а) Мужской б) Женский

2. Возраст:

- а)младше 25 б)26-35 в) 36-45 г) старше 46

3. Сколько лет составляет Ваш общий стаж работы?

- а)меньше 1года б)1-5 в)6-15 г)больше 16 лет

4. Как давно Вы работаете в этой компании?

- а)меньше 1года б)1-5 в)6-15 г)больше 16 лет

5. Какова Ваша должность в этой компании?

- а)сотрудник б)руководитель среднего звена в) руководитель высшего звена

6. Связаны ли Вы с кем-либо из руководителей:

- а)Родственник б)Друг в)Никто

7. Работает ли кто-либо из знакомых руководителя а этой компании?

- а)Родственник б)Друг в)Никто

Пожалуйста отметьте наиболее подходящую степень согласия или несогласия с нижеприведенными вопросами, где

1- полностью не согласен, 2- не согласен, 3- скорее не согласен, чем согласен, 4- скорее согласен, чем не согласен, 5- согласен, и 6- полностью согласен

1	Сотрудники компании всегда чувствуют, что они нуждаются в родственнике в высшем руководстве компании	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Руководители боятся подчиненных, которые связаны с руководителем высшего звена.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Работники, получившие продвижение по службе или вознаграждение только из-за родственных связей отрицательно влияют на другие лица, работающих в этой компании.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Я всегда осторожен в разговоре с родственниками руководителя компании.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Сотрудники которые являются родственниками руководства компании сомневаются в том, что они получили продвижение по службе или вознаграждение на основе собственных заслуг или за счет личных связей	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Если родственник руководства компании устраивается на работу здесь, он / она не может оправдать ожидания других сотрудников.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Руководители более заинтересованы в сохранении родных на хороших позициях, чем в успехах сотрудников или продуктивности компании.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Разногласия между родственниками становятся деловыми проблемами в компаниях.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Руководству компании, которое дает разрешение принимать на работу родственников руководителя, нелегко удастся заинтересовать и удержать квалифицированных сотрудников, которые не имеют с ним родственных связей.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Руководству компании трудно уволить или понизить по службе родственников если они оказываются некомпетентными.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Я помогаю коллегам, которые отсутствовали	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Я помогаю коллегам, у которых сложное задание	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Я помогаю новым сотрудникам адаптироваться в компании, даже если они об этом не просят.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Я охотно помогаю коллегам, имеющим проблемы, связанные с работой	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Я всегда готов протянуть руку помощи тем, кто вокруг меня	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Я готов работать сверхурочно	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Я не беру дополнительные перерывы	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Я следую нормам и правилам компании, даже когда никто не видит	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Я один из наиболее добросовестных сотрудников.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Я стараюсь честно отработать свою заработную плату.	1	2	3	4	5	6

21	Я затрачиваю много времени на жалобы по мелочам (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Я больше концентрирую внимание на том, что мне не удалось сделать, чем на положительных результатах. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Обычно я делаю "из мухи слона" (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Я нахожу ошибки в работе компании (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	Мне всегда необходимо напоминать, что «под лежащий камень вода не течет» (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Я пытаюсь предотвратить проблемы с другими работниками	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	Я осознаю, как мое поведение влияет на работу других людей	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	Я не нарушаю права других	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Я стараюсь не создавать проблемы для сотрудников	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	Я осознаю мое влияние моих действий на сотрудников	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Я присутствую на заседаниях, которые не являются обязательными, но имеют важное значение для компании	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	Я выполняю свои не прямые обязанности, которые помогут имиджу компании	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	Я отслеживаю изменения в компании	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	Я читаю объявления компании и всегда в курсе ее событий.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	Сотрудники не знают что сделать чтобы получить вознаграждение за хорошую работу	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Сотрудникам компании не всегда удастся четко понять, что необходимо сделать, чтобы получить продвижение по службе.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	Из-за отсутствия четкого описания работы, я должен выполнять все указания моего начальника.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	Я ощущаю неопределенность в рабочей среде	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	Сотрудники знают свою работу и осознают, что от них ожидает руководство.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	Сотрудники хорошо осведомлены о целях и задачах компании.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	Я часто нахожусь в условиях стресса.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	Я очень устаю в конце рабочего дня.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	Ежедневная работа сопровождается сильным напряжением и стрессом.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX 2: Survey in English

Dear participant,

The questionnaire is prepared in order to complete the research project followed in Marmara University. Your participation in this study will not affect your evaluation in this organization in any way. There is no right or wrong answers. Be sincere and honest in your answers. Do not put your name on the questionnaire to keep your answers anonymous and data collected will only be used for research purposes. Your participation in this study and your answers to this questionnaire will be kept in the strictest confidence.

Thank you for your assistance.

Asst. Prof. Dr. Mujdelen Yener

Master student Djuletta Mahamatjan kyzy

1. Gender:

a) Male b) Female

2. Age:

a) Under 25 b) 26-35 c) 36-45 d) over 46

3. How many years total work experience do you have?

a) Less than 1 year b) 1-5 c) 6-15 d) more than 16 years

4. How long have you been working for this company?

a) Less than 1 year b) 1-5 c) 6-15 d) more than 16 years

5. What is your position in this company?

a) Employee b) middle level manager c) top level manager

6. Are you related to any top level managers?

a) Relative b) Friend c) None

7. Does any relative or friend of executive work in this company?

a) Relative b) Friend c) None

	For below questions please indicate which of the following seem to describe your feelings best.	strongly disagree	moderately disagree	slightly disagree	slightly agree	moderately agree	strongly agree
1	Employees of this company always feel that they need someone they know (a relative or a friend) in a high-level position.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Supervisors are afraid of subordinates who are related to high-level executives.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Employees who are promoted or rewarded only because of connections (friends or family ties) are a negative influence on others working at this company.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am always careful when speaking to relatives, friends or acquaintances of company executives.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Relatives, friends and acquaintances of company executives are frustrated by the fact that they never really know if they are promoted or rewarded based on merit or personal reasons.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	If a relative, friend or acquaintance of an executive gets a job here, he/she can never meet the expectations of the other employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Executives are more interested in keeping relatives, friends and acquaintances in good positions than they are in those employees' performance or the organization's profitability.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Family or acquaintances' disagreements become business problems in organizations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Company executives and corporate executives who permit employment of executives' relatives and acquaintances have a hard time attracting and retaining quality people who are not relatives or acquaintances.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	High level executives of this company have a hard time demoting or firing relatives, friends and acquaintances if they prove inadequate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I help others who have been absent	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I help others who have heavy work loads	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I help orient new people even though it is not required	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I willingly helps others who have work related problems	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	My attendance at work is above the norm	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I do not take extra breaks	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching	1	2	3	4	5	6

19	I am one of the most conscientious employees	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I tend to make "mountains out of molehills" (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I always find fault with what the organization is doing (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I am the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I do not abuse the rights of others	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	I try to avoid creating problems for coworkers	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I consider the impact of my actions on coworkers	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I keep abreast of changes in the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	It is difficult to tell others at the company what it is necessary to do to increase their reward	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	It is not easy for employees of the company to understand what it takes to get a promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	Because there is no clear job description, I have to do whatever my supervisor tells me to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	I can see uncertainty in the work environment	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	Employees know their jobs and expectations of them	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	The goals and aims of the company are explained well to the employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	I often feel under stress.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	I feel very tired at the end of the work day.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	The stress and tension at work are very high.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX 3: Summary Table of Demographics

Variable		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	93	44,9
	Female	114	55,1
Age	Under 25	79	38,2
	26-35	81	39,1
	36-45	41	19,8
	Over 46	6	2,9
Total work experience	Less than 1 year	78	37,7
	1-5	78	37,7
	6-15	36	17,4
	More than 16 years	15	7,2
Worked Years in the Organization	Less than 1 year	97	46,9
	1-5	74	35,7
	6-15	33	15,9
	more than 16 years	2	1,0
Position in the Organization	Employee	145	70,0
	middle level manager	25	12,1
	top level manager	26	12,6
Relativity to Top Level Managers	Relative	40	19,3
	Friend	64	30,9
	None	101	48,8
Perception of Relatedness to Top Level Managers	relative	45	21,7
	friend	60	29,0
	none	102	49,3

APPENDIX 4: Summary Table of Regression Analyses

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	R square	Beta	T	Sig.
<i>Perceived nepotism</i>	OCB	,005	,068	949	344
	<i>Courtesy</i>	,000	,015	,213	,832
	<i>Civic Virtue</i>	,000	,003	,041	,967
	<i>Altruism</i>	,031	,175	2,524	,012
	<i>Sportsmanship</i>	,032	,179	2,564	,011
	<i>Conscientiousness</i>	,005	-,069	-,980	,328
	Job stress	,004	,062	,863	,389
<i>Job stress</i>	OCB	,045	,212	3,016	,003
	<i>Courtesy</i>	,026	,162	2,302	,022
	<i>Civic Virtue</i>	,021	,146	2,081	,039
	<i>Altruism</i>	,001	-,031	-,433	,666
	<i>Sportsmanship</i>	,025	,158	2,240	,026
	<i>Conscientiousness</i>	,014	,120	1,704	,090

APPENDIX 5: Summary Table of Independent Sample T-Tests

Variable	Demog	N	Mean	Std. Deviation		T	Sig.
<i>Perceived nepotism</i>	Male	91	3,6154	,90393	equal variances not assumed	-1,482	,140
	Female	112	3,8281	1,14147			
<i>OCB</i>	Male	91	3,8300	,66698	equal variances not assumed	,508	,612
	Female	108	3,7772	,80177			
<i>Courtesy</i>	Male	92	4,0797	1,15059	equal variances assumed	,107	,915
	Female	111	4,0616	1,25367			
<i>Civic Virtue</i>	Male	93	3,3584	1,20209	equal variances assumed	-,287	,774
	Female	113	3,4100	1,34740			
<i>Altruism</i>	Male	92	3,6793	1,18038	equal variances assumed	-,114	,909
	Female	113	3,6991	1,27919			
<i>Sportsmanship</i>	Male	93	3,3656	1,25139	equal variances assumed	,980	,328
	Female	111	3,2027	1,12083			
<i>Conscientiousness</i>	Male	93	4,4516	1,26204	equal variances assumed	1,581	,115
	Female	114	4,1535	1,41598			
<i>Job Stress</i>	Male	90	3,6489	,92424	equal variances assumed	-1,072	,285
	Female	111	3,7802	,81037			

APPENDIX 6: Summary Table of ANOVA Tests

Demographic Variable	Demographic Group	N	Mean	F	Sig.
Age (Dependent variable – OCB)	Under 25	76	3,9544	2,789	,042
	26-35	77	3,6597		
	36-45	41	3,8407		
	over 46	5	3,3333		
Total work experience (Dependent variable- OCB)	Less than 1 year	74	4,0459	5,772	,001
	1-5	77	3,5619		
	6-15	34	3,8275		
	more than 16 years	14	3,7619		
Worked years in the organization (Dependent variable – OCB)	Less than 1 year	92	3,9833	4,349	,005
	1-5	71	3,6977		
	6-15	33	3,5859		
	more than 16 years	2	2,9333		

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