R.T.

SELÇUK UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

PROGRAM OF MANAGEMENT ORGANIZATION

THE EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE ON ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

(ÖRGÜTSEL ADALET ALGISININ ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK DAVRANIŞI ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ)

Mahamadi El Nour DERRA

MASTER THESIS

Supervisor

Prof.Dr. Hüsnü Serdar ÖĞE

KONYA – 2018

T.C.
SELÇUK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

Bilimsel Etik Sayfası

Öğrencinin		
	Adı Soyadı	Mahamadi El Nour DERRA
	Numarası	144227011016
	Ana Bilim / Bilim Dalı	İşletme / Yönetim ve Organizasyon
	Programı	Tezli Yüksek Lisans ■ Doktora ☐
	Tezin Adı	The Effect of Organizational Justice on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Örgütsel Adalet Algısının Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı Üzerindeki Etkisi)

Bu tezin proje safhasından sonuçlanmasına kadarki bütün süreçlerde bilimsel etiğe ve akademik kurallara özenle riayet edildiğini, tez içindeki bütün bilgilerin etik davranış ve akademik kurallar çerçevesinde elde edilerek sunulduğunu, ayrıca tez yazım kurallarına uygun olarak hazırlanan bu çalışmada başkalarının eserlerinden yararlanılması durumunda bilimsel kurallara uygun olarak atıf yapıldığını bildiririm.

Öğrencinin imzası
(İmza)

Alâaddin Keykubat Kampüsü Selçuklu 42079
KONYA Telefon : (0 332) 241 05 21-22 Faks : (0 332) 241 05 24
e-posta : sosbilens@selcuk.edu.tr Elektronik Ağ : www.sosyalbil.selcuk.edu.tr

T. C.
SELÇUK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

Yüksek Lisans Tezi Kabul Formu

Öğrencinin		
	Adı Soyadı	Mahamadi El Nour DERRA
	Numarası	144227011016
	Ana Bilim / Bilim Dalı	İşletme / Yönetim ve Organizasyon
	Programı	Tezli Yüksek Lisans ☒ Doktora ☐
	Tez Danışmanı	Prof. Dr. Hüsnü Serdar ÖĞE
	Tezin Adı	The Effect of Organizational Justice on Organizational Citizenship Behavior. (Örgütsel Adalet Algısının Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı Üzerindeki Etkisi.)

Yukarıda adı geçen öğrenci tarafından hazırlanan "Örgütsel Adalet Algısının Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı Üzerindeki Etkisi" başlıklı bu çalışma 19/01/2018 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda oybirliği/oyçokluğu ile başarılı bulunarak, jürimiz tarafından yüksek lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Ünvanı, Adı Soyadı	Danışman ve Üyeler	İmza
Prof. Dr. Hüsnü Serdar ÖĞE	Danışman	
Prof. Dr. Aykut BEDÜK	Üye	
Prof. Dr. Ahmet DİKEN	Üye	

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I sincerely thank the Almighty God for taking me through my academic journey successfully by giving me the strength, courage and patience throughout my entire study period.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Hüsnü Serdar ÖĞE. He has been supportive and generous to me. Without his encouragement and valuable support, this thesis would not have been possible. I would like also to express my sincere appreciation to Research Assistant Gazi KURNAZ for his help, valued comments, and for all what he has done for me during the study period.

I want to thank the examination committee, Prof. Dr. Aykut BEDÜK and Prof. Dr. Ahmet DİKEN for dedicating their time and contributing to my thesis presentation.

I want to express deep appreciation to the academic staff and administrative employees of the University of Selcuk for the help and encouragement.

I am also indebted to all the respondents who took their precious time and busy schedules to offer variety of data and information that enabled this study a success.

My best regards to all my family members and realtives that have stood with me throughout my life.

Finally, I want to thank Yurtdışı Türkler ve Akraba Topluluklar Başkanlığı (YTB) for the scholarship they provided throughout my graduate education.

Dedicated to my beloved late mother...

T.C.
SELÇUK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

Öğrencinin	Adı Soyadı	Mahamadi El Nour DERRA
	Numarası	144227011016
	Ana Bilim / Bilim Dalı	İşletme / Yönetim ve Organizasyon
	Programı	Tezli Yüksek Lisans ■ Doktora ☐
	Tezin Adı	Örgütsel Adalet Algısının Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı Üzerindeki Etkisi

ÖZET

Bu çalışmada, örgütsel adalet algısının örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerindeki etkisi uygulamalı bir çalışma ile ele alınmıştır. Araştırmanın amacı, örgütsel adalet algısının örgütsel vatandaşlık üzerindeki etkisini ampirik bir araştırma deseninde belirlemektir. Bu kapsamda, Konya ilinde faaliyet gösteren gıda sektörü çalışanlarına yönelik araştırma yapılmıştır.

Örgütsel adaletin boyutlarının (dağıtımsal adalet, prosedürel adalet ve etkileşimsel adalet) örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarıyla pozitif ilişkili olup olmadığını incelemeye çalışılmıştır. Buna ek olarak, gida sektörü çalışanları arasında örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarıyla ilişkili olarak örgütsel adaletin bazı boyutlarının diğerlerinden daha önemli olup olmadığını doğrulamada yardımcı olmuştur. Aynı zamanda, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışının demografik özellikler açısından önemli bir farklılık gösterip göstermediğinin belirlenmesi (cinsiyet, medeni hal, yaş, eğitim düzeyi ve deneyim) amaçlamıştır.

Araştırmanın evrenini oluşturan verilerin toplanması, Ağustos-Ekim 2017'de, anket uygulaması yoluyla, Türkiye-Konya ilinde faaliyet gösteren otuz sekiz gıda sanayiinden 526 çalışanın bir örneği ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Toplanan veriler, SPSS programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Geliştirilen araştırma hipotezlerini test etmek için korelasyon, regresyon, T-testi ve ANOVA (varyans) yapılmıştır. Tanımlayıcı istatistikler de kullanılmıştır.

Korelasyon analizi, farklı değişkenler arasında var olan ilişkiyi belirlemeyi mümkün kılmıştır. Analizden sonra, örgütsel adaletin alt boyutları ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı ve pozitif yönlü bir ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Benzer şekilde, Çalışanların örgütsel adalet algısı ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı ve pozitif yönlü bir ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Örgütsel adalet ve boyutların, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerinde etkilerini belirlemek için regresyon analizi kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar, örgütsel adalet ve boyutlarını (dağıtımsal adalet, prosedürel adalet ve etkileşimsel adalet), örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışını olumlu etkilediğini ortaya koymuştur.

Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı, demografik özelliklere göre önemli bir farklılık gösterip göstermediğini belirlemek için T-testi ve ANOVA analizi yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışının cinsiyet, medeni hal, yaş ve tecrübeye göre önemli bir farklılık göstermediğini ortaya koymuştur. Ancak, eğitim düzeyine göre önemli bir farklılık sergilemektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Organizasyon, Örgütsel Adalet, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı, Örgütsel Davranış, Gida Sektörü

T.C.
SELÇUK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

Öğrencinin		
	Adı Soyadı	Mahamadi El Nour DERRA
	Numarası	144227011016
	Ana Bilim / Bilim Dalı	İşletme / Yönetim ve Organizasyon
	Programı	Tezli Yüksek Lisans ■ Doktora □
	Tezin Adı	The effect of Organizational Justice' Perception on Organizational Citizenship Behavior

SUMMARY

This study focused on organizational citizenship behavior, a relatively recent concept in research into organizational behavior. This behavior was defined as "discretionary behaviors that are not directly and explicitly recognized by the official reward system, but whose accumulation contributes to the efficient and effective functioning of the organization". The literature suggested the existence of a relationship between the perception of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior.

In this sense, this research aimed at verifying the existence of a relationship between these two variables among the employees of the food and beverage sector of the city of Konya in Turkey. It sought to examine whether the dimensions of organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) are positively associated with organizational citizenship behaviors. In addition, it helped to verify, among food, and beverage sector employees, whether some dimensions of organizational justice are more important than others in relation to organizational citizenship behaviors. It also aimed at verifying whether the behavior of organizational citizenship presented a significant difference in terms of demographic characteristics (gender, marital status, age, level of education, and experience).

The collection of data was carried out in August-October 2017, through the administration of questionnaires, with a sample of 526 employees from thirty-eight food industries in the city of Konya-Turkey. The collected data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program. Correlation, regression, T-test, and ANOVA (variance) were also performed to test the developed research hypotheses. Descriptive statistics have also been used.

An analysis of the correlation made it possible to determine the relationship that exists between the different variables. Following the analysis, a significant, and positive relationship was found between organizational justice' dimensions and organizational citizenship behavior. Similarly, a positive and significant relationship has been found between the perception of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. Regression analysis was used to determine the impacts of organizational justice and these dimensions on organizational citizenship behavior. The results indicated that organizational justice and these dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice, and procedural justice) positively impacted on organizational citizenship behavior.

T-test and ANOVA analysis were performed to determine whether organizational citizenship behavior exhibits a significant difference according to the demographic characteristics. The results revealed that organizational citizenship behavior does not exhibit a significant difference according to gender, marital status, age, and experience. However, it exhibits a significant difference according to the level of education.

Keys Words: Organization, Organizational Justice, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Organizational Behavior, Food, and Beverage Sector

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

ABBREVIATIONS

OCB: Organizational Citizenship Behavior

OCBI: Organizational Citizenship Behavior-Individual

OCBO: Organizational Citizenship Behavior-Organizational

GRD: Group Relative Deprivation

IRD: Individual Relative Deprivation

SET: Social Exchange Theory

ERB: Extra Role Behavior

OS: Organizational Spontaneity

POB: Prosocial Organizational Behavior

R: Revenu

C: Contribution

LMX: Leader Member Exchange

RDT: Relative Deprivation Theory

HRM: Human Ressource Management

&: And

INTRODUCTION

An organization can not exist without the members that make it up. This statement is the basis of all the reference manuals in organizational management. It expresses the importance of individuals and working groups within an organization and the need for managers to be creative and create strategies that can ensure the quality of services offered.

However, industrial organizations face numerous challenges. Firstly, the current context forces them to juggle the increasingly tight budgets, limiting their room for maneuver. On the other hand, industrial organizations have to cope with the increasing pressure "exercised for greater efficiency and better-quality production". They are attributable to the growing demands "for productivity in a context of globalization of trade" coupled with rapid technological changes (Moisset, Plante, & Toussaint, 2003: 1). In such a context, industrial organizations must devote all their energy and creativity to offering relevant and innovative products. However, in a time of budgetary restraint, industrial organizations must be able to rely on the willingness of employees to perform acts that are not required by their tasks or the organization and that contribute directly or indirectly to the functional effectiveness of the organization. Helping colleagues who have been absent or who have difficulty performing a task are examples of citizenship behaviors. In general, these acts exceed the requirements of the task as described by the employment contract between the employees and the organization, which in itself constitutes a voluntary act by the employees who take part in it. Such acts may be associated with organizational citizenship behaviors that Organ defines as "discretionary behaviors that are not directly and explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, but whose accumulation contributes to the efficient and effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988: 4).

It is generally observed that to express feelings of injustice with respect to their work or certain aspects of it, employees reduce or withdraw their participation in activities related to organizational citizenship behaviors on the grounds that these activities are not included in their task. It is reasonable to believe that these injustices can also encourage them to reduce the help behaviors they may have towards their colleagues or their organization. Organizational justice is one of the attitudinal variables that receives the most attention from managers and researchers. In fact, the

consequences of injustice at work entail costly costs for organizations. These consequences include staff turnover, absenteeism, low productivity, physical, and mental health issues. As a result, "one of the managers' responsibilities is to identify this attitude and to understand the causes and possible consequences at work" (Schermerhorn, Templer, Cattaneo, Hunt, & Osborn, 1992: 127).

Several studies in a variety of areas including health and public institutions have examined the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational justice (Ali, Manzoor, Rashid, & Ahmad, 2012; Fatimah, Amiraa, & Halim, 2011; İnce & Gül, 2011), suggesting that this relationship would also apply to the food and beverage sector. As a result, this exploratory research examines the relationship between food and beverage industry employees' perception of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors.

This thesis is divided into three chapters. The first chapter exposes the concept of organizational justice. The second chapter presents the concept of organizational citizenship behavior and the theoretical relationship between organizational and organizational citizenship. The third chapter describes the methodology developed to answer research questions, report research findings, present the results discussion, and report on key findings and recommendations from the research.

CHAPTER ONE

ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

In order to understand more clearly the concept of organizational justice, it is beneficial to first understand the concepts of organization and justice. An Organization is defined as a systematic structure that has specific standards that are made up of two or more individuals which are carried out in coordination with other individuals without disrupting their own work, in order to achieve the goals and targets for which individuals have difficulties to achieve alone (Bittner, 1965: 176-177).

The concept of organizational justice needs to be defined on the basis of "justice" in general. When the literature is examined, the concept of justice is being studied more by philosophical researchers such as Aristotle, Platon, Socrates, Nozick, and Rawls. In this respect, the concept of "justice" values and beliefs based on a system can be defined as being applied to the individuals in that system without negative discrimination (Kane, 1996: 378-379).

When the needs of the society are examined, it is seen that the necessity of life and working together in order to sustain the economic and social assets of the individuals and the need of distributing the gains according to equality has emerged as a result. Within this context, the notion of justice has always played an essential role in guiding social order and community development. This is because the distribution of rewards, penalties, and resources to every social system (family, school, organization, etc.) in the society, and any injustice in all these distributions will lead to disorder in the community (Yıldırım, 2002: 17).

1.1. The Concepts of Justice and Organizational Justice

In this subsection, the researcher discussed the concept of justice and the concept of Organizational Justice.

1.1.1. The Concept of Justice

The concept of justice, truth and legitimacy are used as rights recognition. A right is a prerequisite for justice. Equality and freedom cannot be mentioned if they do not have a right, so there is an important link between justice and rights because as a

result of the violation of rights, individuals seek out justice. In other words, justice is a concept that means that individuals must behave in accordance with their place in the social order of each other. "Just" is the root of justice and it's described as the making of the system or the arrangements necessary for an order to function properly. The etymology of the word justice is coming from the Latin word " Justitia" (Şanlımeşhur, 2015: 3-4).

Justice emerged as the first Greek idea. In the period when the philosophy of society had not yet developed, people would have had no idea what justice was if there was no "injustice". Justice has been described as a kindness of goodness without any distinction between the concepts of law and morality. Justice in Greek civilizations has been tried to be expressed in terms of "Themis", "Dikē" and "Nomos". What is natural is the process, while the meaning of the procedure, "Dikē" is the moral dimension of the concept of justice. "Nomos", meanwhile, began to be used for written laws later on, while the prevailing meaning was tradition and rule (Orhan, 2012: 12-14).

It was Aristotle who interpreted the notion of justice for the first time in a significant way and subsequently Platon. Aristotle tried to define justice by coming out of injustice and unjust people. "In addition to treating justice as the whole of virtue, he stated that there are a few types of justice as a part of virtue". These justices are distributive and corrective. Corrective justice means that the parties are treated equally and legally. Platon treats justice as a virtue and has been interpreted as a means of ensuring social order (Chroust & Osborn, 1941: 141-142).

From past to present, justice has been studied by many contemporary researchers and philosophers within an ethical and moral framework. Every one of Ulpian justice has declared as endless and constant effort to give a deduction on its own part. Grotius regarded it as loyalty. However, the German philosopher Kant has drawn attention to three principles of justice. These principles are defined as follows: honorable life, do not harm anyone, give to everyone what he deserves (Cummiskey, 2008: 222-223). Rawls developed the notion of social justice and argued that justice social institutions should be treated as a virtue and justice must be justified. Rawls speaks of two principles of justice. These are freedom equality and equal opportunity (Sandel, 1998: 143-145). According to Hume, justice is a virtue and its source is beneficial (Spector, 2014: 50). In general, unlike the abstract concept of justice, the

"social realism" factor is predominant. In the literature, social justice is described as equal rights and equal distribution. Later, the notion of social justice was adapted to organizations and improved the concept of organizational justice by expressing the fair distribution of the achievements and the awards within the organization (Jost & Kay, 2010: 1123-1125).

Elements of justice are gathered under three main headings. These include; "Equality", "Reciprocity" and "Rationality" are expressed.

1.1.1.1. Equality

This concept seems to be closely related to the concept of justice, but it shows differences in content. Everyone will be treated fairly or with equal pay. Given that the task, education, position, responsibilities assigned differ from one employee to another, remuneration must be different. However, it is argued that the different wages and practices given for reasons which have the same characteristics and do not do the same work will not be a fair behavior (Lister, 2011: 2-5).

As a result of this information, it can be said that equality is a necessary value to achieve adherence (Cihangiroğlu & Yılmaz, 2010: 197). Erdogan (1994) expresses the concept of equality under two headings as "Absolute" and "Relative". "Absolute" equality means giving everyone equal rights and shares without discrimination. "Relative" or "Relative" equality is the behavior that we have already mentioned that consist to take into account the differences that cause differences among people (Cihangiroğlu & Yılmaz, 2010: 197). Relative equality is closely related to Aristotle's corrective justice approach. Keeping people in different treatment for just cause is not just a sign of injustice but a justice (Capaldi, 2002: 5-7).

1.1.1.2. Reciprocity

These are all kinds of relationships; It is based on an economic, social and personal exchange relationship. Regardless of the level of this relationship, both the given and the received must coincide, and if not, the opposite is the case. In business relations, when we investigate this issue, the employer will prevent the employee from abusing the employee paying the amount equivalent to his / her labor, and will provide justice. In other words, there may be different perceptions of justice regarding whether

or not different people are entitled to any right that they are entitled to. It is expressed that the necessity of moving within the framework of specific rules and principles to eliminate the disagreements and negativities in this perception of relative and absolute justice is expressed (Becker, 2005: 18-19).

1.1.1.3. Rationality

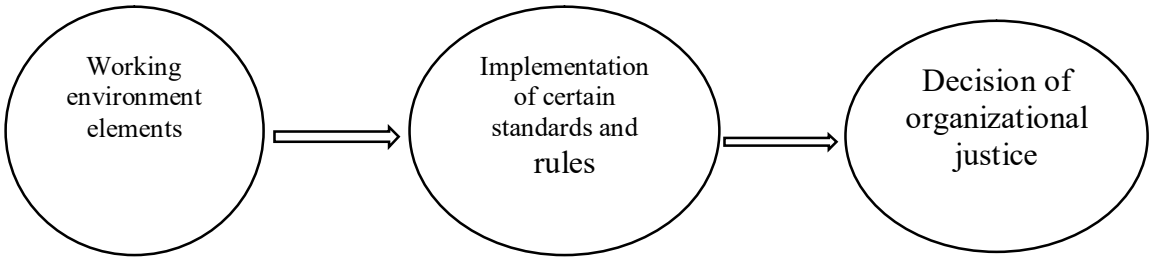
Rationality refers to decision-making and behavior based on rational and specific information rather than personal evaluations. From the point of view of justice, the concept of rationality means that the behavior or practice to be performed is determined in advance within the framework of certain rules and is not arbitrary. In the case of mutual distribution, exchange or barter status, it is the objective and objectively determining the criteria to be applied to the shares of the parties and to receive as much as they deserve (Cihangiroğlu & Yılmaz, 2010: 198-199).

1.1.2. The Concept of Organizational Justice

Employees take their knowledge and experiences they have when they enter an organization as capital, and in time they start to use this capital in the interests of their associations and try to invest this capital and labor for their own benefit and produce fair (wage, promotion, recognition, etc.). Later on, these employees compare their own gains with the gains of other employees, making a reference to them, and they use a number of justice measures in their comparison (Bağcı, 2013: 165-166).

This comparison is perceived by the individual whether he or she is treated fairly within the organization. Adams (1965) theory of equity and Folger (1986) & Crosby (1976) 's relative theories of deprivation were the first points of reference to organizational justice. According to Greenberg, organizational justice is closely related to the equality and fairness of employees in the organization. Organizational justice is the way employees are perceived about how they are distributed within an organization (wage, promotion, reward, punishment, etc.), how decisions are made, and how their decisions are made to their employees (İçerli, 2010: 69-70).

Figure-1. 1. A General Organizational Justice Model



Source: (Cropanzano and Al. 2001:4)

Definitions of various literature about organizational justice are as follows; Greenberg (1996) described organizational justice as a way in which employees perceive some activities and practices of the organization (Saunders & Thornhill, 2003: 3-4). For İşcan and Sayın, organizational justice is explained as a term used to determine the effect of justice at the workplace (İşcan & Sayın, 2010: 195). According to Polyhart and Ryan, it is a concept of how workers perceive and respond to justice in work-related situations (Ployhart & Ryan, 1997: 310). Also, Cropanzano describes organizational justice as a personal assessment of managers within ethical and moral frameworks (Cropanzana, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007: 35). In reference to the definitions made in the literature, organizational justice is frequently confronted in various processes in the business environment. The concept of organizational justice has been widely used to define the role of justice in workplaces. Researchers who have perceived justice at an important level of association with organizational work and employees' behaviors have led to further investigation of this issue (Greenberg, 1990: 399-400). Currently, the application of organizational justice in business life can be achieved by providing a healthy social structure within the organization and minimizing the problems (Konovsky, 2000: 493). One of the most important reasons for this is the interaction of social justice with organizational justice and the effect of the concept of justice on employees attitudes and behaviors. According to researchers, there are personal outcomes that increase organizational commitment, performance, personal satisfaction, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior and confidence in organizations where the concept of justice exists. As a result of these outputs, positive organizational outputs are observed in high performance, positive business environment, strong organizational culture. Indeed, in organizations, lack of justice leads to personal outcomes such as sabotage, employee theft, and assault. It is expressed that such negative behaviors and attitudes are caused by negative organizational output

such as a decrease in the amount of production, aggressive behavior in the business environment and weak organizational culture (Beugr, 2002: 1094-1095).

For example, Walk (2008), supports this information through his research (Yürür, 2008: 308). Organizational justice is a perception, and people develop organizational attitudes in their organizational life to deal with their perception of justice. These attitudes have an important influence in determining behavior. Hence both employees and employers or managers must fulfill their responsibilities towards each other. As long as the duties are clearly stated and the voluntary acceptance is perceived in the form of common interests within the organization, the possibility of being mentioned as justice is expressed (İşcan & Sayın, 2010: 197-198). The importance of organizational justice concerning employees has been gathered for two reasons. First, justice gives employees the opportunity to maximize their gains. Thus, employees cannot care less about short-term earnings to improve their long-term gains. This view is also referred as "Personal Interest Model" or "Instrumental Model". The second important reason is that justice is important in every situation and is of value to people. Because the employee who works with respect and dignity in the society thinks that he is a more respectable person, a constant part of his group, he works with more and higher performance and raises his personal status in a kind of environment. This view is referred to as "Group Models" or "Personal Model" (Nadisic, 2006: 2-4).

1.2. Theories of Organizational Justice

Greenberg (1987) classified organizational justice theories in two independent dimensions, reactive-proactive dimension, and process-content dimension.

The Reactive theory focuses on attempts to escape or avoid situations where people perceive it as unjust. Such theories examine the reaction to injustice. Proactive theories focus on behaviors designed to promote justice and examine behaviors that seek to create fair situations. The process approach for justice focuses on how various gains are identified. Such orientations, which focus on the nomenclature of procedures, are used to make and implement organizational decisions. Content approaches relate to justice in the distribution of the resulting gains (Greenberg, 1987: 9-10).

Table-1. 1. Organizational Justice Theories

Reactive – Proactive Dimension	Content - Process Dimension	
	Content	Process
Reactive	Reactive Content Example: Equality Theory (Adams, 1965)	Reactive Process Example: Process Justice Theory (Thibaut and Walker, 1975)
Proactive	Proactive Content Example: Justice Jurisdiction Model (Leventhal, 1976a, 1980)	Proactive Process Example: Distribution Preference Theory (Leventhal, Karuza and Fry, 1980)

Source: (Greenberg, 1987: 9-10)

1.2.1. Reactive-Content Theories

Reactive-Content theories focus on how individuals respond to unfair behavior. The most popular justice conceptualizations in organizations are in this category. These include Homans's (1961) theory of distributional justice, Adams (1965) equality theory, and Crosby (1976)' s relative deprivation theory. These theories share an important commonality. Accordingly, people respond to unfair relations by showing some negative reactions. Reactive-content theories focus on how people will respond to unfair distribution of rewards and resources (Greenberg, 1987: 11) .

Homans (1961) suggests that justice is not injustice in distribution, but justice is achieved by the realization of disunity in the distribution. He stated that dispersion can be determined by calculation and comparison of profit and investment (cost) (Cook, Cheshire, Rice, & Nakagawa, 2013: 55).

Adam's theory of equality (1965), which inspired organizations to work on justice, point out that highly paid employees will feel guilty and low-paid people will feel angry. These adverse events can lead to behavioral or attitudinal changes. According to the theory of equality, low-wage workers are less productive and less satisfied than fair-payers. Higher payers are more productive and less satisfied than fairer (Fischer, 2004: 152).

According to the theory of equality, people first determine whether they are being treated fairly by looking at their own input (eg effort, time, experience, etc.), the rate of return (eg salary, promotion, opportunities, etc.), and comparing this with the input-to-gain ratio of others (Dworkin, 1981: 187).

Greenberg and Ornstein have shown in 1983 that work titles are seen as a temporary prize as a result of their work. If the title increases job responsibilities too, it will cause employees to feel fairly treated. A title is not considered as a prize if it is given inappropriately, that is to say, if a successful performance result is not achieved. In this case, it leads to a decrease in the individual's sense of low wage and performance (Greenberg, 1987: 10).

Another theory of reactive content, which is closely related to the traditional equality theory is the theory of relative deprivation. According to the relative deprivation approach, certain award distributions encourage people to make certain social comparisons, which leads to feelings of deprivation and resentment (Greenberg, 1987: 10).

Relative deprivation was first introduced by Stouffer et al. It was used in 1949 by. Stouffer et al's work that speaks of a disproportionate finding that black soldiers in the south are more satisfied with military life than black soldiers in the north whose socio-economic conditions are more favorable. This result was based on the tendency of the southern soldiers to feel more privileged than their civilian counterparts in the south, while the northern soldiers felt themselves to be relatively less privileged than their civilian counterparts in the north (Greenberg, 1987: 10).

In 1982 study by Crosby, it was found that women who work in highly prestigious jobs felt uncomfortable because they compared themselves to men who rather than women had relatively less advantage than those who did not. Such research is an example of the theory of relative deprivation because it examines how people will react to perceived unfair reward distribution (Agassi, 1982: 717).

There are important similarities between the theory of equality and the theory of relative deprivation. In both theories, it involves comparing the contributions of individuals and their gains with others in order to determine distribution justice. If this comparison reveals an inequality in the allocation of the awards, the individual feels a sense of deprivation (Chan, 2000: 72).

1.2.2. Proactive-Content Theories

Contrary to reactive-content theories which focus on how workers will respond to the distribution of fair or unfair gains, proactive-content theories focus on how employees will achieve fair distribution gains. The main institutional expressions in this category were used by Leventhal (Greenberg, 1987), who conducted a series of laboratory work in the late 1960s and early 1970s.

In his 1976 work, Leventhal argued that employers sometimes endeavored to create fair reward distributions where the awards were proportionating to the contributions made which would be most beneficial for all parties in the long run. Many studies have shown that distributors often share resources equally among buyers. In some studies, it is stated that individuals who distribute the prize infringe the equality rule and that this distribution is made according to the needs of equal share or buyer. Leventhal, who considers that violations of these rules may be fair under certain conditions, put forward the justice model in 1980 and stated that individuals apply various distribution rules against situations they meet to make fair distribution decisions (Greenberg, 1987: 10).

Another theory in this group is Lerner's justice drive theory. Justice drive theory suggests that distribution decisions will be shaped according to the relationship between the parties (Greenberg, 1987: 10).

In 1982, Lerner identified four elements of distribution (Chan, 2000: 73) and these were:

- Competition which asserts that distribution should be based on performance,
- Equal share which requires distribution must be equal,
- Equal-based sharing which requires distribution should be based on relative contributions,
- Marxian justice which advocates that distribution should be based on needs.

1.2.3. Reactive-Process Theories

John Thibaut and Laurens Walker were influenced by research on legal proceedings and conducted a series of research to compare the responses to dispute-resolution processes. There are three parties involved in the process justice theory that the researchers developed in 1978: two contending parties and the third party involved. The process of resolving disputes has two stages: the stage in which the evidence is presented, and the stage in which the evidence is evaluated to resolve the dispute. The ability to control the evidence, choice, and development used to resolve the disagreement is the process control, and the ability to determine the outcome of the conflict is the decision control (Greenberg, 1987: 11).

The processes used depend on the degree of control that the parties have. Processes according to this control given to the third person are defined as follows (Greenberg, 1987: 12):

- Provide control over both acquisitions and processes
- Autocratic processes.
- Control over processes, providing control over decisions only
- Processes established by a referee decision (tool) that does not provide.
- Control over decisions, providing control over transactions only
- Mediatory processes that do not provide.
- Negotiations that control neither transactions nor processes.
- Achievements and processes of the disputing parties and third parties
- Control over which processes are arguable.

1.2.4. Proactive-Process Theories

The notable theory in this category is the distribution theory of Leventhal, Karuza, and Fry 'in 1980. This theory which emerged from Leventhal's justice model of justice has been put forward as a general model of distribution behavior. However, it is

accepted as a proactive-process theory in terms of its application to decisions about distribution processes. Contrary to reactive-process theories which disregard dispute resolution processes, these theories focus on distribution processes and emphasize what procedures the individual should use to ensure justice (Greenberg, 1987: 12-13).

Leventhal, Karuza, and Fry (1980) pointed out eight factors related to distribution processes that would provide access to adulthood (Chan, 2000: 74):

- Employees should be given the right to choose who will decide.
- Consistent rules must be followed.
- It must be based on accurate information.
- The structure of the decision-making power must be determined.
- Must be protective against prejudice.
- The right to challenge decisions must be given.
- Opportunities must be created for changes in processes.
- It should be based on current ethical standards.

1.3. Dimensions of Organizational Justice

Organizational justice concerns employees' perception of how fairly or unfairly they are being treated within an organization. This research has helped to define the key concepts of justice in the organization and this can be presented in the following three dimensions: distributive justice which refers to the perception of fair distribution of resources on the basis of the comparison of contribution / reward ratios, procedural justice this highlights the importance of the procedures leading to the distribution of resources among employees and the possibility of issuing its opinion and finally interactional justice this focuses on the social context of these decisions, dignity and respect with which people are treated (Mücahit Çelik & Sarıtürk, 2012).

It is difficult to conceive any form of social organization without reference to the notion of justice. Although justice does not have a unique meaning, it is frequently used in an organizational context. People have a real interest in issues of justice or

injustice in organizations. The fact of being treated fairly by their supervision, for example, and this on many dimensions, constitutes a preoccupation for the individuals. Managers exercise a certain amount of vigilance in steering equitability (Usmani & Jamal, 2013: 354-355). Everyone is concerned when expectations in this area are violated. Concern about organizational justice is reflected in different facets of employees' working lives. Workers will pay particular attention to the distribution of resources such as payroll, other remunerations, promotions, and the results of conflict resolution. It is the approach by the axis "distributive justice" which will account for these aspects (Al-Zu'bi, 2010: 103). Individuals will also have expectations of justice with respect to allocation, decision-making methods, and procedures. We refer here to procedural justice. Finally, individuals are also affected by the way they are treated in interactions, especially by the key actors in their activity. We will speak of interactional justice. Distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice are summarized by Greenberg as organizational justice to refer to individuals' perceptions of justice in organizations (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005: 05).

Organizational justice as an area that examines perceptions of justice in business life is actually examined as a subcategory of the issue of justice which is important in every part of life in general. Three forms of justice draw attention in the process of fair evaluation of organizations. These are justice of distribution, processing, and interaction. In general, distributive justice refers to the consideration of justice during distribution of organizational resources such as payment, the level of justice perception in process justice decision processes, and the fairness of relations between persons of interaction justice authority owners (Moghimi, Kazemi, & Samiie, 2013: 121-123).

When the organizational justice literature is examined, distributive justice is seen in the first stage, the procedural justice in the second stage and the interactional in the third stage, the informational justice and the interpersonal justice are considered in a holistic approach (Colquitt, Greenberg, et al., 2005: 6). Distributive justice has been open to discussion with the work of Adams (1965). According to Adams, the individuals do the judgments of justice by taking into account the balance between input and output. Equilibrium is a very vague concept, so the question of which criteria will be met on the balance comes out. Which of the following factors are most important for

the employees' past performance, their desires, needs, hierarchy, and status? Another issue facing researchers in relation to distributive justice is which rules will be respected during distribution. Although emphasis has been placed on the need to implement fair distribution of justice in the foreseeable way, the importance of appropriate rules has been made through legal processes, not within the context of organizations. Stouffer, Suchman, De Vinney, Star and Williams (1949) refer to the dispensational justice literature that Colquitt, Zapata-Phelan, and Roberson (2005) call the first stage of organizational justice work. In the theory of relative deprivation, Homans (1961) and Blau (1964) contributed to the discussion of the relationship of change (Colquitt, Zapata-Phelan, & Roberson, 2005: 12).

Researchers in the field of psychology and law have found that they believe that individuals should not only be rewarded equally but at the same time must be fair. This situation contributed to the fairness of the transactions carried out in the organizations, i.e. the development of the transaction justice text. Thibaut and Walker (1975), Leventhal (1980) pointed out the necessity of ensuring that operations are implemented in an accurate, impartial, continuous manner, correctable quality, and participation in organizational decisions. In the management literature, the concept of procedural justice was first developed as a result of the work of Greenberg and Folger (1983). Lind and Tyler (1988) draw attention to the practices of institutional justice in organizations that they deal with transaction justice (Judge & Colquitt, 2004: 396).

Törnblom and Vermunt (1998) propose a systematic approach that combines distributive justice and procedural justice. According to the approach, the sense of justice consists of the total value of positive and negative outputs (Jasso, 2007: 10-12). This point of view suggests that the procedural and distributive justice should be evaluated together and within the process, with a holistic gestural approach. In organizations, the outputs of individuals can be positive outputs such as rewards, good relations, as well as negative qualities such as punishment and loneliness. At this point, distributive justice is seen as a concept involving criminal justice as it consists of the distribution of awards and, if necessary the punishment process (Rook, 1984: 1098-1099).

There are some commonalities between distributive justice and procedural justice. Hume's approach to justice is and ought to be valid for both approaches.

Besides, both approaches to justice can affect employees' reactions and emotions towards the job and manager. For example, job satisfaction, managerial perceptions, cohesion/conflict, trust in governance, and distributive and procedural justice on intention to leave work are seen to be effective together. So much so that leaders fulfill all three forms of justice at the time of change are seen as hygiene factors to ensure the participation of employees in the exchange program (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987: 179-180).

When the organization is evaluated as a whole, it is seen that the procedural justice is the foreground. On the other hand, distributive justice is considered as a more effecient factor for individual outputs such as wage satisfaction (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992a: 627). Greenberg (1987) argues that if the wages are satisfactory, the perception of justice is positive regardless of the procedures applied to the organization. For businesses and organizations that cannot transfer sufficient resources to their employees in today's intensely competitive environment, the research focuses on the importance of justice in terms of improving job satisfaction and motivation to create a fair system. As the distributive justice in public institutions is not generally based on an effecient performance system, the fairness of the applied procedures is vital for the motivation of the employees (Greenberg, 1987: 16-17).

When it came to the 1990s, research on justice began to shift from legal procedures to organizational procedures because organizations are the source of many situations in which procedures are used. It has also led to the emergence of a new approach to shift to business schools for academics trained in social psychology (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005: 7). However, despite the fact that the processes applied to an organization are the same, it leads to the perception of interactional justice (Zapata-Phelan, Colquitt, Scott, & Livingston, 2009: 5). The interactional justice provided by Bies and Moag (1986) includes two types of behavior. These behaviors are personal sensitivities and explanations. Although Bies and Moag (1986) considered interactional justice as a separate factor, interactional justice in organizational justice literature has continued to be regarded as a part of procedural justice (R. Folger & Konovsky, 1989: 118). Recent studies, however, consider interactional justice as a separate dimension from procedural justice. Such studies are the subject of research on the differences that justice of interaction has on organizational behaviors such as job

satisfaction and trust in overwork. These models assume that distributive justice affects the organizational perception of certain events, while procedural and interactional justice together shape organizational perceptions of the system as a whole (Ambrose, Hess, & Ganesan, 2007: 23). Ambrose, Hess, and Ganesan (2007) attribute this to the fact that initial studies in justice ignore the justice of interaction, while later studies also examine the interactional justice. At the same time, organizational justice, which is analyzed in three dimensions as distributive, procedural and interactional justice, is considered as another reason to ignore the dimension of informational justice (Cropanzano & Stein, 2009: 198).

The relationship between individuals is not only limited to sensitivity, courtesy, and respect but also leads to the creation of two dimensions in the interactional justice in which the information given by the superior is given in a correct, consistent and timely manner. These dimensions are interpersonal and informational dimensions. Colquitt (2001) argues that organizational justice is a fourfold factor in terms of distributive, procedural, interactional, and informational justice, which is superior to dual and triple models in describing employee behavior and organizational outcomes. For this reason, the four-factor model appears to be a complexity-based approach, which was previously the result of different findings in meta-analyses (Colquitt, 2001: 386-387).

The study of Colquitt, Greenberg and Zapata Phelon (2005) also observed the time and point of view during the summer screening. In addition, Greenberg (1987) provides theories about the dimensions of organizational justice moving from the conceptualization of organizational justice to social and interpersonal justice theories that can be used to understand behaviors in organizations (Sethi, Iqbal, & Rauf, 2013: 103-105).

1.3.1. Distributive Justice

Distributive justice links remuneration with a contribution. Adams (1965) first examines the notion of equity, inspired by Homans' (1961) distributive justice theory on social exchanges. For Homans, the individual has a sense of justice when what he receives (personal profit) is balanced with what he has contributed (investment). Adams' theory of equity is generally seen as the first theory of distributive justice in an

organization (Fortin, 2008: 3). He explains that the equity between a contribution and a retribution is perceived in comparison with a referent. Whether it is another person to whom the individual can compare the ratio of inputs to remuneration, a comparable previous situation, or even an imaginary referent that will serve as a standard for the individual to judge the fairness of his reward. Thus, distributive justice is always comparative and relative. If the individual feels underpaid with the efforts he has made, he will feel a sense of inequity. This will create a psychological tension which will generate a sense of anger, will cause the person, according to Adams (1965), to adapt his behavior (to provide less effort) to re-establish a fair proportion with his retribution, or to adapt cognitively by changing referent. The individual will compare the ratio of contributions / rewards to that of someone else or another situation. In the case of over-reward, inequity is present this time for the benefit of the individual and also creates an imbalance. The latter will then tend to feel embarrassed and improve the quality of his contributions (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001: 5-9).

Deutsch (1975) considers later that the Adams model (1965) is mainly true in economic contexts where the main problem is productivity. However, these principles are less true in other contexts where the group's objectives are not based on more or less material and remunerative exchanges. Deutsch (1975) develops two additional notions of distributive justice: equality and need. The principle of equality consists in giving each person the same remuneration, without any direct relation to the individual contributions. Distributive justice based on need consists in allocating resources according to what is necessary for each. The rule of equality is more appropriate when its aimed at preserving harmony and social relations in the group whereas the rule of need prevails when the objective is to ensure the well-being of a group or several individuals (Deutsch, 1975: 137-139).

The fact that the organization of work systematically differentiates individuals between them can only initiate of itself, some preoccupations about equity. It is therefore not surprising that the earliest attention to justice issues in the organization concerned the distribution of returns. Traditionally, it is customary to summarize the advocates of distributive justice as based on a comparison of the ratios, outcomes inputs to the ratios of others in the same situation acting as a reference point. We can estimate this approach as underpinned by two major notions: comparison and exchange. Thus,

the theories of equity, relative deprivation, and social exchange theory (SET) seem to be the basis of the construction of the distributive justice's approach in the organization (Colquitt, Greenberg, et al., 2005: 12).

1.3.1.1. Theory of Equity

Several decades ago, the theory of equity was used to establish the principle of justice. This approach was developed by J. Stacy Smith in the 1960s and has evolved since then. Every individual at work observes his environment to assess whether his situation in the organization is fair or not. To do this, the individual estimates the relationship between the contributions he has provided to the organization and the remunerations (tangible or intangible) he has received (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987: 222).

The fundamental principle of Adams (1965) "Theory of Equality" is that employees should expect to receive responses in the same way that they contribute to their organizations. In line with this expectation, employees are calculating their contribution rates by determining the fairness at what level of achievements they have achieved and by demonstrating their contributions to their municipal contributions (education, intelligence, experience) and their gains (Jovanovic & Bozilovic, 2017: 100).

According to equity theory, the employee determines whether he has been treated fairly and equitably by comparing the value obtained through the ratio between his remunerations and contributions (R / C) with those of others (R1 / C1). This comparison will allow him to evaluate his sense of justice (or injustice) concerning his situation in the organization. Three scenarios are possible (Cropanzana et al., 2007: 37-38):

R / C = R1 / C1: Equity situation. The employee considers that the treatment reserved for him is comparatively equitable to that which is reserved for the others. The remuneration he receives is considered to be just in proportion to the contributions he makes. They then become a source of mobilization for this employee.

R / C <R1 / C1: Situation of inequity (under equity). The individual finds that his ratio is lower than that of others. The remuneration he receives is less than the contribution he makes to the organization in comparison with other employees.

R / C> R1 / C1: situation of inequity (over-equity). The remuneration he receives is more than the contribution he makes to the organization in comparison with other employees.

The most intuitive alternative to the rule of equity is that of equality, which is also the norm of parity. This standard describes allocation decisions by which resources are distributed equally to all parties, regardless of contribution differences (Goncalo & Kim, 2010: 03). Here distributive justice is achieved when each member of a given social group receives the same share of the resources allocated (Greenberg, 2002: 121-122). The rule of equality is supposed to promote social harmony since it positively influences the sense of belonging and therefore the identification of each member to the group. The standard of need, representing the third allocation rule, is the least studied. It stipulates that a fair allocation of resources would ensure the satisfaction of the basic needs of each (Skitka, 2012: 328-330).

According to Adams, the reactions that employees will give as a result of encountering unfair situations in the workplace are:

- To reduce the quality level and efficiency of their work,
- demanding a wage increase,
- change the perception or comparison of the person's contribution rate,
- To try to change the contributions or gains of other employees and
- Separation from the workplace (Çakır, 2006: 38-39).

1.3.1.2. Relative Deprivation Theory

The term relative deprivation was introduced by Stouffer, Suchman, DeVinney, Star, and Williams in their classic study: The American soldier. They use this expression to account for their surprising results which indicate that those who were objectively in the best conditions could also be those who subjectively felt that they

were treated less favorably than the comparison group they choose (H. J. Smith & Pettigrew, 2014: 756).

Thus, in this approach, the feeling of deprivation is seen as relative, not absolute: "deprivation is relative not absolute". Individuals feel that they are unfairly treated or inadequately compensated when they compare to a reference standard. The relativity of the feeling of deprivation may, therefore, lead to the fact that those who are objectively in a situation of deprivation are not those who are most likely to have subjective experience. The feeling of deprivation is not connected linearly to the objective situation of the individual. However, comparison with another "better placed" is the necessary but not sufficient determinant of the origin of the feeling of relative deprivation (Kılıç, Bostan, & Grabowski, 2015: 162).

The origin of their feelings of relative deprivation, or more precisely their dissatisfaction with their social conditions of existence and feelings of injustice, are not only related to their reactions to their objective situation. They depend on the subjective comparisons that individuals establish with others and the characteristics of the latter. Several conditions of emergence of the feeling of relative deprivation can be given. They are linked to the feeling that an individual (or group) has been deprived of "X" (object or status) when he does not have it; the fact that he believes that other persons (or groups) have it (whether this is the case or not); the status or object that he desires and that he thinks he is able to obtain (D'Ambrosio & Frick, 2004: 02).

A fourth determinant is added by Runciman: the individual considers that it is possible to obtain X. Within the relative deprivation, he distinguishes the relative "egoistic" (individual) deprivation and the relative Fraternal "deprivation (from the point of view of the group). An individual may feel that he is personally deprived of ... (Individual Relative Deprivation: IRD) or that he belongs to a social group that is deprived of (Group Relative Deprivation: GRD) (Rose, 2006: 06-07).

To develop his model, Crosby takes up these four determinants but adds the idea that feasibility and personal responsibility are counterbalancing. The feeling of relative deprivation will only occur if it is possible to obtain X, but it is also necessary that the individual does not feel responsible for his impossibility of obtaining X so that the feeling of relative deprivation is present. Only if there is no sense of personal

responsibility in the failure to obtain X can there be resentment, a feeling of injustice: “If Person blames himself for his plight, then automatically he cannot feel his situation is unjust.”(Crosby, 1976: 91).

1.3.1.3. Social Exchange Theory

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) is one of the most influential paradigms for understanding behavior in working organizations. Many studies have shown that when workers feel unfairly treated, they are more likely to develop behaviors that contradict with those of the organization or its members. One of the theoretical explanations most often advanced is that employees perceive their relationship with their organization as a social exchange. The fear of exploitation and non-reciprocity is a real question posed by the theory of social exchange (Thau, Aquino, & Wittek, 2007: 250).

Social psychologists such as Blau (1964), Emerson (1962), Homans (1958) and Thibaut & Kelley (1959) have contributed significantly to the development of the Social Exchange Theory. In this context, Homans (1958) introduced the first theory which saw social behavior as a relationship of exchange similar to economic changes. Blau (1964) on the other hand, was the first researcher to use the term "Social Exchange Theory" to describe social relations among persons as a process of exchange. Thibaut and Kelley, however, have contributed significantly to the theory with their work (Gürbüz, 2006: 52).

Homans constructs, from the theory of relative deprivation, his conceptualization of distributive justice. This theory asserts that a person in an exchange relationship with another expects that the returns of each will be proportional to his costs. In the second place, he argues that participants in an exchange expect a profit proportionate to their investments and that equity exists whenever the situation meets this expectation. In contrast, there will be a perception of inequity when profits are below investment which can produce anger, or if not, when benefits are above investment it can generate some guilt (Schafer & Klonglan, 1974: 199-200). Indeed, an exchange involves a bi-directional transaction, something is given and something is returned. The notion of interdependence is therefore well understood by this approach. To qualify this notion, we can note three possible individual postures for example independence (the results are obtained on the basis of individual efforts), dependence

(the results depend entirely on the efforts of the other party) and interdependence (results are based on a combination of efforts of both parties). Thus, total independence and dependence do not imply social exchange. It is indeed interdependence that implies mutual and complementary agreements that are considered as defining social exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005: 875-877).

Like Homans, Blau does not limit trade to their economic dimension. It distinguishes two types of exchanges. The economic exchanges which are intrinsically contractual and stipulate in advance the exact amount of what will be exchanged. On the other hand, social exchanges which involve "favors" which create diffuse future obligations, not specified precisely, the nature of the return not being negotiable and left to the discretion of the one who does so. For Blau, only social exchanges tend to engender feelings of personal obligations, gratitude, and trust; Purely economic exchanges does not (Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006: 839).

The theory of social exchange goes beyond that of relative deprivation by putting the notion of exchange at the forefront. It is indeed the notion of interdependence that implies a social exchange. The notions of reciprocity and return constitute an essential norm of the exchange relationship. Participants in this exchange expect a return proportional to their investment. This scenario will be defined as fair. The Social Exchange Theory thus poses one of the major questions of the work. Indeed, the fear of exploitation and non-reciprocity are part of the questions that each arises in a social exchange relationship such as work (Wikhamn & Hall, 2012: 57).

From the labor perspective, Organ makes the necessary distinction between social exchange and economic trade relations. The theory of social exchange is more than a set of profit transaction rules. However, "In the job context, the exchange between employee and organization is obviously some mixture of both economic and social exchange". The personal commitment in the organization seems to reflect mainly a sense of the social exchange relationship with the organization that is not subject to contractual obligations. However, if the individual's confidence proves to be unjustified by the perceived injustice in the relationship, his tendency will be to transform his relationship in terms of more rigidly defined purely economic exchange with services rendered on the basis of contractual counterparts (Organ & Konovsky, 1989: 162).

This approach remains a major vehicle for understanding the feelings of justice and injustice within organizations. Moreover, the transposition of this approach at the organizational level implies that the worker forms a distinct social exchange relationship with his immediate superior, his colleagues, the employing organization, customers and suppliers (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005: 883).

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) is one of the most influential paradigms for understanding behavior in working organizations. Many studies have shown that when workers feel unfairly treated, they are more likely to develop behaviors that contradict with those of the organization or its members. One of the theoretical explanations most often advanced is that employees perceive their relationship with their organization as a social exchange. The fear of exploitation and non-reciprocity is a real question posed by the theory of social exchange (Thau et al., 2007: 250).

Social psychologists such as Blau (1964), Emerson (1962), Homans (1958) and Thibaut & Kelley (1959) have contributed significantly to the development of the Social Exchange Theory. In this context, Homans (1958) introduced the first theory which saw social behavior as a relationship of exchange similar to economic changes. Blau (1964) on the other hand, was the first researcher to use the term "Social Exchange Theory" to describe social relations among persons as a process of exchange. Thibaut and Kelley, however, have contributed significantly to the theory with their work (Gürbüz, 2006: 52).

Homans constructs, from the theory of relative deprivation, his conceptualization of distributive justice. This theory asserts that a person in an exchange relationship with another expects that the returns of each will be proportional to his costs. In the second place, he argues that participants in an exchange expect a profit proportionate to their investments and that equity exists whenever the situation meets this expectation. In contrast, there will be a perception of inequity when profits are below investment which can produce anger, or if not, when profits are above investment it can generate some guilt (Schafer & Klonglan, 1974: 199-200). Indeed, an exchange involves a bi-directional transaction, something is given and something is returned. The notion of interdependence is therefore well understood by this approach. To qualify this notion, we can note three possible individual postures for example independence (the results are obtained on the basis of individual efforts), dependence (the results depend

entirely on the efforts of the other party) and interdependence (results are based on a combination of efforts of both parties). Thus, total independence and dependence do not imply social exchange. It is indeed interdependence that implies mutual and complementary agreements that is considered as defining social exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005: 875-877).

Like Homans, Blau does not limit trade to their economic dimension. It distinguishes two types of exchanges. The economic exchanges which are intrinsically contractual and stipulate in advance the exact amount of what will be exchanged. On the other hand, social exchanges which involve "favors" which create diffuse future obligations, not specified precisely, the nature of the return not being negotiable and left to the discretion of the one who does so. For Blau, only social exchanges tend to engender feelings of personal obligations, gratitude and trust; Purely economic exchanges does not (Shore et al., 2006: 839).

The theory of social exchange goes beyond that of relative deprivation by putting the notion of exchange at the forefront. It is indeed the notion of interdependence that implies a social exchange. The notions of reciprocity and return constitute an essential norm of the exchange relationship. Participants in this exchange expect a return proportional to their investment. This scenario will be defined as fair. The Social Exchange Theory thus poses one of the major questions of the work. Indeed, the fear of exploitation and non-reciprocity are part of the questions that each arises in a social exchange relationship such as work (Wikhamn & Hall, 2012: 57).

From the labor perspective, Organ makes the necessary distinction between social exchange and economic trade relations. The theory of social exchange is more than a set of profit transaction rules. However, "In the job context, the exchange between employee and organization is obviously some mixture of both economic and social exchange". The personal commitment to the organization seems to reflect mainly a sense of the social exchange relationship with the organization that is not subject to contractual obligations. However, if the individual's confidence proves to be unjustified by the perceived injustice in the relationship, his tendency will be to transform his relationship in terms of more rigidly defined purely economic exchange with services rendered on the basis of contractual counterparts (Organ & Konovsky, 1989: 162).

This approach remains a major vehicle for understanding the feelings of justice and injustice within organizations. Moreover, the transposition of this approach at the organizational level implies that the worker forms a distinct social exchange relationship with his immediate superior, his colleagues, the employing organization, customers and suppliers (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005: 883).

1.3.2. Procedural Justice

Blau mentions codes of conduct acceptable in the exchange between partners; Leventhal states that individuals can be influenced not only by retribution but also by the structure of information that has led to it, paying attention to "procedural fairness". Similarly, Deutsch argues that the fairness of procedures used by dispatchers is an essential dimension of justice in relationships. This is clearly explained in the exposition of the dimensions of perception of the injustice which he enunciates. These ideas triggered a wave of research on procedural justice that dominated the 1980s (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2013).

Research on distributive justice has focused mainly on how the distribution of remuneration can affect work and performance. Ultimately, the question of whether the manner in which remunerations are determined influences the reactions to them remains. Distributive justice is not the only basis for evaluations of social exchanges. Individuals also have a concern about procedural justice. In this way, while the distributive justice approach focuses on the fairness of the distribution of resources, the approach to procedural justice will focus on the justice of the procedures put in place to make distribution decisions. This will be an important mediating factor in the prediction of judgments of the results of decisions. The emergence of procedural justice as a field of research is associated with the work of Thibaut and Walker (R. Folger, 1977: 108).

Procedural justice is defined as the justice of the procedures and methods used to make decisions at work. It refers to the formal characteristics of a system (Konovsky, 2000: 492). Thibaut and Walker (1975), considered as the pioneers in the study of procedural justice have long observed how litigants evaluated judge decisions in dispute arbitration which could involve considerable sums of money. In their many observations, they note with surprise that whatever the outcome of the arbitration, favorable or unfavorable, litigants accept the final decision better and they consider it

fairer when the judge gives them the opportunity to express their views on the current procedure. The opportunity to give one's own opinion - its "voice" - on the procedure allows one to exercise control over the decision-making process or even the decision itself (Konovsky, 2000: 1289-1293). The robustness of this effect - called the "voice" effect - will be confirmed by several experiments that vary the degree of control of the participants on the procedure leading to the final decision of retribution (e.g., Steiner, Amoroso and Hafner, 2004). The results show consistently that subjects who have the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process in an experimental task evaluate the procedure more fairly and are more satisfied with their rewards compared to those who do not receive such possibilities of control over procedures. In this perspective, procedural justice matters to individuals insofar as it allows some control over the remuneration. Such a belief in the possibility of influencing the retribution process reduces uncertainty about future events. Conversely, procedural unfairness produces feelings of uncertainty that remove any possibility of control over decisions. The effect of procedural justice is all the more important when subjects are in a situation of uncertainty (Van den Bos, 2001: 931-932). In practice, it is often difficult to accurately determine the level of fairness of a decision. This is particularly the case when the comparison of its contribution/distribution ratio with that of another is impossible, and the points of comparison are vague. These situations of uncertainty are very frequent at work. In competition with another person in a position or an internal promotion, employees do not have all the elements enabling them to evaluate the justice of a final decision. Uncertainty management research confirms that when individuals do not have access to relevant information about the remuneration of others, they use procedural justice information as heuristics to assess the character just or unfair of their distributions. Similarly, induction among participants of a sense of uncertainty relative to the benevolence of the authority's intentions leads them to rely on the (procedural) justice indices available for deciding the fairness or unfairness of decisions made by the superior. In these situations, the available information of justice is used as heuristics to assess the fairness or otherwise of compensation or a decision, without having to take account of the costs and benefits of it (Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990: 953-954). Individuals are also influenced by procedural (un) justice information when the distributions are unfavorable. Distributions are more easily perceived as unfair when they are based on unfair procedures; Conversely, individuals react more positively to allocation decisions, even if they are unfavorable since they are based on fair

procedures (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 2005: 125). On the counterfactual mode of thinking conducive to the awakening of injustice, it is easier to imagine a positive alternative to an unfavorable decision when it is based on an unfair procedure rather than on a just procedure. The close links between procedural justice and distributive justice reflect the instrumental conception of justice, largely dominating early research on justice. In this motivational perspective of justice, the individual is regarded as a person primarily motivated by his own interests in his relationships with others. This means that in a social group, individuals respect the rules of fairness by trying to act fairly and waiting in return for others to act in the same way towards them. This behavior would be guided by the belief that fair conduct favors personal gain, and that one would be able to change if individuals perceive inequity by comparing themselves to others. Employees would thus be motivated by justice insofar as it allows them to maximize their long-term gains. The control model of Thibaut and Walker also implies the idea that individuals are resource-oriented in their interactions with a third person. They seek to influence the decision-making process through participation because the "voice" allows them to influence final events or decisions. Having control over the procedures allows them to gain control over the distributions, and thereby reduce the uncertainty about future rewards. Procedural justice allows the promotion of personal goals while procedural injustice compromises them (R. Folger & Cropanzano, 2001: 179). The "voice" effect, identified within the courts also applies to the company. Employees consider that a participatory procedure is more accurate than a procedure that excludes any possibility of expression in recruitment or budgetary decisions, even when the final decision is unfavorable (Bies & Shapiro, 1988: 677-678). The involvement of employees in the decision-making process provides them with the opportunity to access more information about the organization which allows them to exercise greater control over their work (Brun, 2008). However, evaluations of procedural justice in organizations are not based solely on the level of participation in decisions but on a set of criteria relating to the structure of procedures. Leventhal's approach to procedural justice (1980) marks a turning point in the way in which procedural justice is conceived. Emphasis is placed on the structure of procedures rather than subjective perceptions of procedural control. The procedures are fair insofar as they apply equally to all persons concerned by the decision and are stable over time (consistency criterion) or are impartial and free from personal bias (criterion of impartiality) or are based on accurate and accurate information (accuracy criterion) or

present opportunities for correction based on new information (criterion of adaptability or flexibility) or take into account the interests of all employees affected by the decision (Criterion of representativeness) or follow the ethical and moral standards in the organization (ethical criterion) (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001: 11-14).

When these criteria are met, individuals are more likely to evaluate procedures as well as authority in a positive manner. Thus, criteria for accuracy and impartiality influence procedural justice assessments in recruitment procedures and provide information about the trust and sincerity to be given to the supervisor (De Cremer, 2004). An experiment manipulating the (procedural) consistency test shows that the positive effects of voice participation on judicial assessments are nullified by the application of inconsistent procedures. This criterion of (non) consistency particularly critical in the evaluation procedures of employees, creates feelings of certainty about the quality of the interpersonal relationship with the superior who transmits the procedures (De Cremer & Van Knippenberg, 2003: 3-4). This relational information is important because individuals who wish to belong to social groups are generally uncertain of the benevolence of the superior's intentions towards them. This "fundamental social dilemma" leads them to focus their attention on the indices of procedural justice. The criteria of procedural justice also provide relevant information informing individuals about their degree of valuation and acceptance by the valued group and the superior. Such socio-emotional benefits are also provided by judicial assessments relating strictly to the quality of the relationship with the superior who transmits the procedures, also called interactional justice (Lind, 2001: 222-223).

1.3.2.1. Thibaut and Walker: Equity in Conflict Resolution

Thibaut and Walker focus their research on the differences between the Anglo-Saxon judicial systems (United States, Great Britain) and Continental Europe. In this way, they compare the adversarial system in which a judge controls decisions but not the presentation of the evidence leading to them and the inquisitorial procedure in which the judicial system controls the procedure and the decision at a time. They hypothesize that the reactions of the parties will not only depend on the outcome of their case, but also on their assessment of the process through which such a result is obtained. This concern of the parties is characterized as an interest in procedural justice (Diamond & Zeisel, 1978: 1289-1296).

For Thibaut and Walker, this approach is crucial because one of the main objectives of a judicial procedure is to resolve conflicts in a way which allows for constructive exchanges among individuals. It is important that the procedure is seen as fair by both parties and by observers so that parties can comply with decisions and pursue productive interactions and for the public to consider the judicial process as fair in that it be accepted and institutionalized. In this sense, what is fair depends on what is perceived as fair. Thibaut and Walker experimentally demonstrate that the subjects of their experimentation prefer the contradictory system to the inquisitorial system irrespective of the nature of the verdict (Walker, LaTour, Lind, & Thibaut, 1974: 296).

These results confirm that it is not only the results but also the procedures used to achieve them, that lend fairness to the process as an investigation space. It can be argued that the major difference between the two systems is the level of control the parties have over the judge. In this way, a proper dispute resolution procedure resulting from a dispute is a procedure that places significant control over the decision-making process on the parties themselves and little control on the decision-maker (Chèvrefils, 2013: 12). The basic necessity of procedural justice is an optimal distribution of control. Thus, a procedure which limits the control of a third-party conferring overriding control on the parties is a fair procedure (Hollander-Blumoff & Tyler, 2011: 06). In their subsequent research, Thibaut and Walker distinguish two specific forms of control: decision control, that is to say, the degree to which one of the parties can unilaterally determine the outcome of a dispute, and process control, the level at which one party can control the development, selection, and presentation of evidence used to resolve the dispute. These authors argue that the optimal dispute resolution model situates process control in the hands of the parties, but reserves the decision control to a third party as in the contradictory model. This work demonstrates that satisfaction with results in interactions with legal authorities is not only a function of distributive justice concerns but also of the procedures used to achieve these results (Thibaut & Walker, 1978: 546).

Thibaut and Walker thus lay the foundations for reflection on procedural justice. Studies on procedural justice will extend to fields far removed from the legal process issues studied by Thibaut and Walker. They will seek to explore broad varieties of decision-making and conflict resolution in work organizations. The concept of procedural justice is thus linked to issues of management, leadership, and decision-

making in the organization. Indeed, it may be considered more likely that individuals encounter formal decision-making procedures in their work than in any other area of their lives (Sunshine & Heuer, 2002: 04-05). Thus, the same questions about the fairness of the process arise for the parties to a judicial proceeding as for the workers assessed through their pay and promotions. Studies show that workers are concerned about procedural fairness in their performance appraisals and that they separate these issues from their assessment of the results of the evaluation; they focus on procedural fairness issues in their assessment of promotions and increases. It is therefore essential to conceptualize justice in the organization to take into account the variable procedure since procedures are more frequently cited than results (retributions) as a cause of injustice in organizations (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2013: 276).

The bases laid by Thibaut and Walker are thus taken up by Leventhal; the fact that this dimension of procedural justice may prove relevant in contexts of Decision as it has been shown to be, in the resolution of disputes.

1.3.2.2. Leventhal: Fairness in the Allocation of Procedures

Leventhal considers that one of the limitations of the theory of equity is that it does not take into account questions of procedural justice. It notes that the procedural rules constitute the second category of principles of justice. The perception of procedural justice is defined as the belief that an individual has that the rules of distribution are just and appropriate (Muzumdar, 2012: 03). Specific criteria will be used to assess the fairness of distribution procedures and these include the consistency rule where the procedures must be consistent over time and in relation to the diversity of people, the bias suppression rule that requires that the procedures should not be affected by self-interest or prejudice, the accuracy rule this requires that the procedures must be based on information and opinions containing a minimum of errors, the correctability rule which entails procedures that contain opportunities for modification and reversal of decisions by allowing appeals and complaints, the representativeness rule that involves procedures which reflect the concerns, values and perspectives of the individuals and subgroups involved in the distributions and finally the ethicality rule that requires procedures to respect the moral and the ethical standards (Buckley, Wheeler, & Halbesleben, 2015: 297-300).

1.3.3. Interactional Justice

Interactional justice refers to the importance that employees attribute to the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive from decision makers. Bies and Moag consider it conceptually distinct from procedural justice and identifies four criteria that determine the justice of interpersonal treatment. It includes truthfulness here decision makers must be honest and frank in their communication during the execution of the decision-making process, and thus avoid any form of disappointment, justification which requires decision-makers to provide adequate explanations of the remuneration derived from a decision-making process, respect which requires decision-makers to consider people with respect, dignity, and refrain from being rude or aggressive and lastly decency that requires decision makers not to ask indiscreet questions or making discriminatory remarks (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015: 288).

Until the late 1980s, research on procedural justice focused mainly on the structural characteristics of formal decision-making procedures, neglecting the interpersonal nature of these procedures. Some attention to these factors is nevertheless reflected in the discussion by Leventhal (1980) of the importance of responding courteously to individuals when their requests are refused. According to Bies (2001), models of organizational justice are incomplete. For this author, there are more injustice than cognitive perceptions and judgments: when people talk about justice, they report their experiences of injustice and particularly in terms of ill-treatment received from others. These concerns are called interactional justice (Colquitt, Greenberg, et al., 2005: 10-11).

"First, people can distinguish interactional justice from procedural justice. Second, people possess a view of the self as "sacred", and a violation of that sacred self-arouses the sense of injustice. The personal and intense pain associated with the interactional injustice is experienced as a profound injury to the psyche and identity. It is these human existential dimensions of these wounds that are undervalued and under-appreciated in theories of organizational justice (Bies, 2001: 90).

In initial theorization (Bies, 1987, Bies & Moag, 1986), interactional justice is conceptualized as a third form of justice separate from distributive and procedural justices. More specifically, interactional justice refers to the attention given by

individuals to the quality of the interpersonal treatment given to them in the implementation of organizational procedures (Greenberg, 2002: 104-105).

A study of candidates' views on how recruiters should behave, Bies and Moag (1986) identify four rules governing equity in interpersonal treatment and these were (Greenberg, 2002: 101-102):

- Sincerity: the authorities should be open, honest and forthright in their communication when implementing decision-making procedures and should avoid any kind of deception.

- Justification: the authorities should propose appropriate explanations for the results of a decision-making procedure.

- Respect: the authorities should treat individuals with sincerity and dignity, and refrain from behaving incorrectly towards others.

- Appropriate behavior: authorities should refrain from making improper statements or asking inadequate questions.

It is important to note that these four rules are distinct from the procedural justice criteria identified by Leventhal (1980). In this way, it would be possible to envisage a formal procedure that would take account of speech, which would be consistent, unbiased and precise, but implemented by a manager who treats individuals in a discourteous and dishonest manner thus does not respond to the Criteria of interactional justice (Colquitt, Greenberg, et al., 2005: 4) .

As a result, some research indicates the importance of considering how procedures are implemented beyond the simple way they are structured. These approaches extend the four rules put forward by Bies and Moag (1986) by identifying additional criteria for judging the implementation of procedures. Folger and Bies (1989) identify "seven key managerial responsibilities" (R. Folger & Bies, 1989: 89):

- Sincerity

- Justification

- Respect

- Feedback
- Consideration of the opinions of the collaborators
- Uniformity
- Removal of biases.

Tyler and Bies (1990) identify the same type of criteria for correct managerial action. Greenberg, Bies, and Eskew (1991) consider six considerations to be taken into account by managers seeking to behave in a perceived fairway. Three of these considerations are of a structural nature (taking into account the point of view of the collaborators, apparent neutrality, uniform application of rules) and the other three are interpersonal (appropriate use of feedback, proper explanations and the other with dignity and respect). Nevertheless, it can be assumed that this work aimed to extend and clarify the area of procedural justice rather than to sketch a new form of justice. Is the importance of the mode of implementation of the procedures put forward merely another facet of procedural justice or does it mean that this aspect constitutes a new dimension of justice? The development of research on interactional justice required that this confusion is removed. It has been gradually (Colquitt, Greenberg, et al., 2005: 5-6).

Individuals are particularly sensitive to the processes of communication and decision-making when implementing procedures. They have normative expectations concerning sincerity and respect in communication (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015: 189).

Research on interactional justice has naturally focused on reactions to layoffs. These authors show that a staff remaining in the organization after the wave of dismissal is sensitive to the explanations given for these redundancies. The presence of justifications was positively related to organizational commitment and work efforts among the employees who remained within the organization (Brockner, DeWitt, Grover, & Reed, 1990: 396-397).

Greenberg (1993) develops the concept of interactional justice by arguing that the concept should be divided into two different fields: informational justice and interpersonal justice. The dimension of informational justice encompasses the components of justification and sincerity. This concerns the content of the interactions regarding frankness of communication, relevance and sufficiency of explanations,

quality of transmission of information (important moment, clarity). Interpersonal justice refers to the ideas put forward by Bies and Moag (1986) and concerns issues of politeness, respect, and treatment worthy of individuals. Greenberg (1993) states that these interactional components go beyond the simple social part of procedural justice (Judge & Colquitt, 2004: 395-396). The study of Colquitt (2001) confirms the existence of these two fields of interactional justice. Confirmatory factor analysis of two independent samples illustrates that the best fit is obtained by separating information justice (sincerity and justification) from interpersonal justice (respect and dignity). It can be noted that these two components (interactional and informational) have additive effects on the reactions of workers. The research attempted to resolve the sources of confusion between procedural justice and interactional justice around issues of their independence and the interest of dividing interactional justice into informational and interpersonal components (Colquitt, 2001: 387). Thus, Bies (2001) as Bobocel and Holmvall (2001) consider it necessary to distinguish between interactional justice and procedural justice. These two constructs can be defined in conceptually distinct terms because they are based on different rules. They also argue that these two constructs have different consequences (Bies, 2001: 92).

It is interesting to note that research on interactional justice reveals two main sources of this type of justice: the organization as a whole (the worker may have a sense of injustice in the internal media of the organization for example) or his superior himself (Nadisic, 2008: 5). It has been shown that interactional justice from the direct manager predicts organizational and managerial attitudes and behaviors more than the interactional justice originating from the organization (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002: 926). Informational justice and interpersonal justice based on the direct manager will predict the assessment of figures and systems of authority, trust and organizational citizenship towards managers, organizational commitment, satisfaction at work (Nadisic, 2008: 6). Several studies show that it is especially in negative situations that workers react best to fair interactional treatment. However, it is in such cases (dismissal, non-recruitment, negative performance evaluation, refusal to respond to a request addressed, etc.) that managers seem most likely to behave in an interactionally unfair manner (Van den Bos & Lind, 2002: 6-7).

The approach of interactional justice seems to open up a full field of questioning of the perception of justice/injustice at work, especially from potential causes causing managers to behave in an interactionally unfair manner. This approach also has the advantage of extracting the feelings of justices from purely rational approaches as suggested by the theory of equity and most of the studies on procedural justice. A first step was taken with the emphasis on non-instrumental components of procedural justice (significant value). The approach of interactional justice goes further and emphasizes without necessarily calling it an emotional dimension present in the judgments of justice (Muzumdar, 2012: 5).

Greenberg (1990) stated that interaction justice is complementary to procedural justice. According to him, perceptions of procedural justice are also influenced by factors other than the formal procedures used in the distribution of gains or in the resolution of disputes. Two important factors determine judgments about procedural justice. These are the attitudes of the decision maker to the people affected by the decisions. People perceive their attitudes as indicative of in-office justice (Greenberg, 1990: 411). Bies (1986), in research conducted amongst graduate students, asked them to rank their in-house justice criteria. Findings reveal that interpersonal attitudes such as honesty, courtesy, regular exchange of information, respect for individual rights and listening to each other are more important criteria than formal procedures (Bies, 1986: 100-101). Folger and Cropanzano (1998: 48) stated that interpersonal attitudes should be based on moral and ethical values, and in this way, they stated that attitudes would bring about interpersonal sensitivity. In short, the quality of interpersonal behaviors is an essential factor affecting evaluations of intra-organizational justice (R. G. Folger & Cropanzano, 1998: 48).

1.3.3.1. Interpersonal Justice

Interpersonal justice refers to the degree of respect and sensitivity shown to an individual. Several studies have shown that the perception of a high degree of interpersonal justice is associated with positive reactions even when the retribution is negative. For example, it has been shown that when a manager is listening and responding to criticism from his employees, it improves employee acceptance of anti-smoking policies, and decreases the tendency of laid-off employees to engage in legal action against their former (R. G. Folger & Cropanzano, 1998: 63-66).

1.3.3.2. Informational Justice

Informational justice refers to the quality of the information used to explain the manner in which decisions were made and the precision of the explanations provided about the rewards received. More precisely, when a hierarchical superior communicates information honestly on time and adapted to the needs of individuals, the perception of informational justice is better. Moreover, the accuracy of the information communicated testifies to this type of justice. Many of the positive effects of interpersonal justice have also been observed in response to a high level of informational justice (J. C. Shaw, Wild, & Colquitt, 2003: 449).

1.4. The Importance and Place of Organizational Justice in Management and Organization Theory

The notion of organizational justice has gained considerable importance as the world becomes increasingly shrinking and becoming a global village, the economic and commercial boundaries become more flexible, the future becomes uncertain and competition is intensified, and organizations can survive and become stronger and stronger. The financial crisis in 2007 caused many large and small enterprises in the world to shrink and even close down. In such an environment, the concept of organizational justice which directly affects the attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions of occupants is gaining more importance.

In recent years, the attitudes and behaviors of occupants in business and organizations have become a significant issue. By the intense interest shown in last years on the issue of organizational justice, researchers are striving to explain behaviors that are positively related to important organizational outcomes. Despite the numerous researches on organizational justice, its nature, structure, priorities, results, and implications are still vague and confused. Nevertheless, interest in the subject matter has not diminished but has increased. In these growing populations, organizational justice plays an essential role in the performance of workshops and organizations (Jawad, Raja, Abraiz, & Tabassum, 2012: 39).

As far as organizational justice is concerned, intensive and extensive research has been carried out in domestic and foreign literature. This is because organizational justice has significant individual and organizational consequences such as job

satisfaction, commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, job separation, job transition, labor turnover, absenteeism on performance. Also, it is suggested that organizational justice is closely related to leadership style and decision-making processes in various researches in the literature (Eberlin & Tatum, 2005: 1041).

Occupancies are increasingly taking responsibility and playing a role in making organizational decisions. Although occupations take more responsibility in shaping organizational decisions, they are also questioned whether or not decisions taken concerning conferences in organizations are fair (Colquitt et al., 2001: 425). In this context, the concept of "organizational justice," which expresses the equitable distribution of the gains that arise due to the relations within the organization, has become increasingly important (Jawad et al., 2012: 40).

Justice in the organizations constitutes one of the fundamental values of the organizations. The perception of justice of workshops related to the distribution of organizational resources, prizes, procedures and processes used brings a variety of effects on business attitudes (Mathur, 2013: 124).

Reflecting on the reasons that motivate individuals to value justice in the organizational context, Gillespie and Greenberg (2005) find that justice is often essential for three reasons: it reinforces the feelings of self-esteem in so far as a fair treatment reflects a valorization and recognition of the contributions of each one; it guarantees the control that individuals can have over the remuneration and results of resource allocation decisions as fair procedures can lead to rewards favorable to individuals and it reflects and signals respect for moral and ethical values by individuals and groups in the organization (Fischer, 2012: 100-101).

The integration of these three reasons shows that justice is essential in organizations because it establishes the sense of belonging and the identity of each member. Perceptions of justice are therefore a fundamental condition for the development and maintenance of constructive relationships that ensure confidence and the quality of exchanges between organizational actors. Thus, justice becomes a determinant of productive behavior and performance in firms (Rojot, Roussel, & Vandenberghe, 2009: 21).

For El Akremi and Ben Ameur (2005), the essential role of justice in the organizational field has already been emphasized by Barnard (1938) who considered it to be one of the bases of cooperative action in the organization (El Akremi & Ameur, 2005: 06). The most recent studies have shown that the application of the principles of justice increases the level of employee confidence in their superiors and their organization to attract and retain candidates and valuable clients (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002: 280).

1.5. Relationship between Organizational Justice and Organizational Outcomes

In this subsection, the researcher discussed the relationship between Organizational Justice and Job Satisfaction, Organizational Justice and Organizational Commitment, Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior, and finally Organizational Justice and Performance.

1.5.1. Organizational Justice and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is generally defined as satisfaction or dissatisfaction with work. In this context, as the high sense of justice provides positive attitudes and behaviors to employees, the job satisfaction of employees also increases positively. On the contrary, the low level of justice perception of an individual's organization or its executives leads to a decrease in the performance of the individual, less cooperation with his colleagues, voluntary violations of organizational norms, policies, and rules, it can cause aggressive behavior to be exhibited and played (Hao, Hao, Wang, Rowley, & Zhang, 2016: 118).

However, field studies provide mixed support for this statement and produce inconsistent results. Some studies show that distributive justice affects job satisfaction rather than procedural justice (Leung, Smith, Wang, & Sun, 1996: 959). Others point to a predominance of the effects of procedural justice over other dimensions (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000: 746) and others suggest that the three dimensions of justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) are related to levels of job satisfaction (Aryee et al., 2002: 278-279). This divergence of results is reflected in the conclusions of the three meta-analyses in the field of organizational justice. While Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng (2001: 436) find that procedural justice is a better antecedent of job satisfaction than the other two dimensions, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001: 297)

find that job satisfaction is strongly, but similarly correlated to the three dimensions of organizational justice.

1.5.2. Organizational Justice and Organizational Commitment

In its broadest sense, organizational commitment refers to loyalty or the link of identification and involvement that links the employee to the organization as a whole (Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001: 161). Commitment is one of the classic variables of organizational behavior research and empirical studies have shown that employees who are strongly committed to the organization are more adherent to the goals of the organization, have better attendance at work and perform better than those Who are poorly engaged (Dessler, 1999: 58).

Researchers on the subject of organizational justice have thus become overwhelmingly interested in the effects of equity on the level of organizational commitment of employees. Empirical studies examine the relationship between procedural justice and engagement between 1975 and 2001, or nearly one-third of all studies on the effects of organizational justice. Most often, this research argues that, in accordance with the agent/system model and the bi-factorial model, procedural justice should exert the strongest effect among the dimensions of organizational justice. The empirical validation of this assertion was initially supported by the work of R. Folger and Konovsky (1989: 122-124) and McFarlin and Sweeney (1992b: 630-632) and then consolidated by several studies that report high correlations between procedural justice and organizational commitment (Gopinath & Becker, 2000: 71-72; Masterson et al., 2000: 743).

However, other studies have shown that the distributive and the interactional dimension to a lesser extent can affect organizational commitment significantly and sometimes as strongly as the procedural dimension (E. Chang, 2002: 265-266), and makes it possible to qualify support for our two theoretical models of reference. For example, in a study to demonstrate the effects of group perceptions of justice, Simons and Roberson found that both individual and aggregate unity of work, procedural justice, and justice are correlated in similar proportions to organizational commitment. Similarly, Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen presented similar results concerning the relative effects of the distributive and procedural dimensions on organizational commitment.

Moreover, these authors have shown that trust in the organization plays a partial mediation role in these relationships. These relatively unexpected outcomes may be due to the individualistic cultural context (where pay equity is essential in determining employee reactions to the firm) in which most research has been conducted on organizational justice (Aryee et al., 2002: 276-278; Simons & Roberson, 2003: 13-16).

It is also important to note that other variables measuring the employee's attachment to the organization and the quality of its relationship with it have been studied about organizational justice. Thus, consistent with the predictions of the bi-factorial model and the agent/system model, procedural justice has proved to be a strong determinant of the level of trust placed on the organization (Brockner et al., 1994: 402-404).

1.5.3. Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors has been widely studied and empirical evidence supports the existence of a rather robust positive relationship between the two phenomena (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990: 714; Tepper, Lockhart, & Hoobler, 2001: 792-793). These results are all the stronger as the influence of justice on organizational citizenship behaviors is based on a quasi-obvious logic and therefore easily accepted. Indeed, as Greenberg notes, "individuals will behave altruistically toward the organization in which they work if they think this organization has fairly treated them." (Greenberg & Cropanzano, 1993: 250). Based on Adams's theory of equity, organizational citizenship behaviors can also be seen as an input that employees will use to respond to the justice of the situations they encounter. Thus, the employee will decrease or increase the level of his citizenship behaviors according to the fairness of the treatment he thinks to receive (Tepper et al., 2001: 794). In a logic of social exchange, organizational citizenship behavior, by their voluntary nature and beyond the framework of formal remuneration systems, constitute a resource that can be exchanged by individuals who have benefited from social rewards (Moorman, 1991: 846). The motivation for these behaviors that are not subject to formal remuneration cannot, therefore, be explained by the economic exchange. Organizational citizenship behaviors are part of a social exchange and constitute in this framework the main currency or commodity of exchange that the employees in their relations with the different partners within the organization master (Aryee et al., 2002: 276-278)

Since the work of Williams and Anderson (1991), most research has distinguished between citizenship directed towards individuals (OCBI) and behaviors directed towards the organization (OCBO).

Organizational citizenship behavior towards the organizations represent a behavioral response directed towards the enterprise as a global system and should, therefore, be, depending on the agent / system model, essentially determined by procedural justice. Empirical studies investigating the effects of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behavior towards the organizations do not support this logic unanimously. While Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor found that procedural justice predicts organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization better than interactional justice and that Moorman, Blakely and Niehoff found significant correlations between procedural justice and certain dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior towards the organizations, Niehoff and Moorman identified significant correlations between the three dimensions of justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) and the three dimensions of Organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization (professional conscience, sportsmanship and civic virtue) (Masterson et al., 2000: 744; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998: 354; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993: 546). The results of the meta-analyses also points out the correlations between the three dimensions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior towards the organizations (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001: 296; Colquitt et al., 2001: 434).

As an interpersonal variable by nature, organizational citizenship behavior towards individuals is associated with interactional justice rather than the other two dimensions of justice (Bies, Greenberg, & Cropanzano, 2001: 98; Colquitt et al., 2001: 434). The results of empirical studies and meta-analyses support this logic by showing that the perceived justice of the superior determines the organizational citizenship behavior towards individuals strongly. For example, Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen indicated that among the three dimensions of justice, interactional justice is the best determinant of the organizational citizenship behavior towards individuals and that the trust placed on the superior plays a mediating role in this relationship (Aryee et al., 2002: 276). Similarly, the results of Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor suggest

that interactional justice has a more considerable influence on organizational citizenship behavior towards individuals than procedural justice (Masterson et al., 2000: 744).

1.5.4. Organizational Justice and Performance

Early studies examining the effects of organizational justice on the intra-role performance of employees were conducted in the late 1970s and early 1980s and focused exclusively on the role of procedural justice in the Improving of the productivity of employees and their ability to meet the requirements of their roles (Bobocel & Zdaniuk, 2005: 477). Although some of these early studies have been less than encouraging, several recent studies have established a strong relationship between perceptions Organizational justice, and the performance level of employees (C.-C. Chang & Dubinsky, 2005: 58; J. D. Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2002: 503).

The results of this work are not unanimous as to the relative power of prediction of each of the three dimensions of justice. Some studies suggest that distributive justice has a greater influence on work performance (Weaver & Conlon, 2003: 2232). For example, in a comparative study between Hong Kong and the United States, Lam, Schaubroeck and Aryee found that distributive justice is significantly correlated with intra-role performance for both samples by controlling the effects of procedural justice (Lam, Schaubroeck, & Aryee, 2002: 9-11). Another group of works argues that procedural justice has the most essential effects on performance (Douthitt & Aiello, 2001: 871; Miles & Klein, 1998: 83). For example, in a study of 195 employees in a medical laboratory, Konovsky and Cropanzano compared the effects of perceived procedural justice and outcomes on a set of attitudinal and behavioral variables. Their results showed that only procedural justice is significantly related to the level of performance (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991: 703). Finally, the third group of research showed that the interactional justice of managers determined performance more strongly than the procedural dimension (Libby, 1999: 132-133; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002: 934). For example, the results of Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor indicated that interactional justice significantly influenced intra-role performance ($r = 0.19$), while the relationship between procedural justice and performance is insignificant (Masterson et al., 2000: 743). It is interesting to note that the few studies that simultaneously study the effects of the distributive, procedural and interactional dimensions on intra-role performance confirm the thesis supported by this last group of

researchers by showing that the justice of interpersonal interactions strongly influences the level of performance of employees compared to the other two dimensions (Robbins, Summers, Miller, & Hendrix, 2000: 516). Thus, in a study integrating justice and social exchange, Aryee, Budhwar and Chen found results that clearly suggest that interactional justice affects task performance much more strongly than the procedural and distributive dimensions (r = 0.34, 0.19, and 0.12, respectively) (Aryee et al., 2002: 277).

The results of the meta-analyses do not follow the same lines as the latter work by indicating that the effects of procedural justice on Performance are larger than those of the distributive and interactional dimensions. As is the case with attitudes towards authority figures, the researcher believe that this result may be due to the fact that these meta-analyses rely heavily on studies that either do not take into account Jointly the effects of the three dimensions of justice, or use a broad conceptualization of procedural justice integrating facets that are actually closer to interactional justice. In summary, while there is no longer any doubt that perceptions of organizational justice influence the intra-role performance of employees, the question of which dimension exerts the most significant influences remains, and requires more empirical research taking into account simultaneously the distributive, procedural and interactional dimensions of justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001: 293-296; Colquitt et al., 2001: 434-435).

1.5.5. Organizational Justice and Leadership

Leadership is an area that has undergone a massive investigation in the literature. The links between leadership and organizational justice are almost "natural" (Colquitt and Greenberg, 2003). We find in the literature of justice studies a distinction between "distributive justice of the leader" and interactional justice of the leader "according to the type of justice that a hierarchical superior will prefer in the group he directs (van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & van Knippenberg, 2007: 06-09).

In the organizational justice system, the leaders in the organization must be fair, and the leaders who try to achieve justice are also ethical leaders because they are doing what they should. Concerning organizational justice, it is necessary to equitably distribute the tasks and rights that must be done in the organization in the management process. Ethical behavior is based on the premise that the interaction between the parties

in certain situations requires fair standards (Tatum, Eberlin, Kottraba, & Bradberry, 2003: 1009).

The heuristic theory of justice is often used as a basis for studies of leadership and justice. Indeed, individuals create heuristics, representations based on their experience of their leader and the way he has to evaluate or they are created against other leaders they have had and other evaluations they have been subjected to which they implicitly compare (Taylor, Tracy, Renard, Harrison, & Carroll, 1995: 495). The so-called Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) approach to leadership has been studied more specifically through justice. This theory brings the leadership closer to the quality of the relationships between the leader and his subordinates in order to ensure their confidence and the performance of their performance. Leadership is a reciprocal relationship of mutual respect and obligation between the leader and the subordinate (Gerstner & Day, 1997: 838). Research on organizational justice has enriched the LMX approach by specifying that only in the case of a sense of justice towards the leader that quality relationships could be achieved between the members of the organization (Colquitt et al., 2013: 202).When the leader is perceived as fair, the subordinates deduce that this leader is involved for their benefit, resulting in quality exchanges (Erdogan, Liden, & Kraimer, 2006: 396). For Scandura (1999), justice is a necessity for building a positive relationship between the leader and his subordinates, and a prerequisite for a quality LMX approach (Scandura, 1999: 29).

CHAPTER TWO

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

2.1. The Concept of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In researches that have identified important extra-role behaviors for organizational effectiveness, there have been significant increases in both professional and academic management literature over recent years. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), which was first examined by Barnard in the 1920s, is expressed as "non-role behaviors" other than regular role behaviors. It is known that the concept of organizational citizenship behavior was first introduced in 1983 by Dennis Organ and colleagues in the literature of management. Many studies have been carried out by organizers and colleagues on behalf of management on organizational citizenship and behavior (Alkahtani, 2015: 211).

Organ defines organizational citizenship behaviors as individual and voluntary behaviors manifested by an employee to help his or her colleagues or organization. Unlike performance at work, organizational citizenship behaviors are behaviors that go beyond what is required by the task or organization (M. Schnake, 1991: 736). In reference to this type of behavior, he adds that the behavior of a single individual cannot influence the organization, but that it is rather the accumulation of all the small acts perpetrated by individuals that will contribute development and maintenance of a social and psychological context that promotes performance in the task and will thus allow a more efficient functioning of the organization (Zhang, 2011: 03).

In addition, Greenberg and Baron (2008) definition of organizational citizenship behavior came up with three elements necessary to define a behavior as an organizational citizenship behavior (Greenberg & Baron, 2008: 372-373):

- Moving the exhibited behavior beyond formal requirements and job descriptions;
- Conducting the behavior in a totally conscious manner without any constraints on the basis of voluntarism;
- The behavior does not need to be included in the reward system defined by the organization.

The main characteristic of organizational citizenship behaviors is their discretionary aspect, that is to say, they are not considered as an integral part of the employee's responsibilities as required by the role, nor specified in the description of the task specified by the contract of employment linking the individual to the organization, but rather a will on the part of an individual, a personal choice he makes. Therefore, if the employee fails to do so, it is generally not considered punishable. Referring to the fact that a soldier will generally demonstrate unwavering helping behavior towards his teammates by considering the needs of his division before his own needs, Organ qualifies the behavior of organizational citizenship as a "syndrome Good soldier syndrome " (Soon, Ng, Goh, & Turnipseed, 2005: 266).

2.2. Concepts Similar to Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The following as some of the concepts similar to Organizational Citizenship Behavior:

2.2.1. Extra Role Behavior (ERB)

Emphasized in 1995 by John E. Van Dine and his colleagues, extra-role behavior includes the majority of discretionary behaviors that support the organization and go beyond the prescribed and expected duties of an employee. This type of behavior has been defined as "discretionary behavior issued in the interest of the organization or intended to be issued in the best interest of the organization and that is beyond the expectations of their roles ". This behavior is left to the initiative of the staff. It is a behavior that goes beyond the formal role assigned to the staff. According to the authors, these behaviors are subdivided into four categories: Affiliation/promotion, Challenge/promotion, Challenge/prohibition and Affiliation/prohibition (Abubakar, Fischer, & Arasa, 2013: 2227).

Thus, according to John E. Van Dine and his colleagues, affiliation behaviors are a mean of maintaining relationships with others through providing emotional support to a colleague. Challenge behaviors are rather problem-oriented (change or innovation) and can hurt labor relations, for example, confront an idea raised by a collaborator. Whereas, promotion behavior is oriented towards proactivity that is suggesting an improvement in relation to the organization of work in comparison with prohibition behavior aimed at protection and prevention (Neale, 2008: 10-13).

Table-2. 1. Extra Role Behavior

Positive behaviors	Features/components	Categories or behaviors
Extra Role Behavior: Discretionary behavior that goes beyond existing expectations and whose purpose or intent is to benefit the organization (Van Dyne et al., 1995)	**Must represent five Characteristics (Van Dine et al,1995):** Voluntary Intentional Positive Selfless Extra Role behavior	**The set of discretionary behaviors is subdivided into four categories:** Affiliation / promotion (non-controversial cooperation for example) Challenge / promotion (to propose a constructive solution to a deviant situation for example) Challenge / prohibition (denouncing unethical action for example) Affiliation / prohibition (prevent an action from happening to better help for example).

Source:Boundenghan (2014: 42)

2.2.2. Organizational Spontaneity

Organizational Spontaneity is defined as extra-role behaviors, produced voluntarily by employees and contributing to organizational effectiveness. These behaviors were studied by George and Brief, (1992). Indeed, the spontaneous word refers to free will or will. It was used by Katz, (1964) to describe one of three types of behavioral models that he considers to be essential to the proper functioning of an organization. Organizational spontaneity is similar in the literature to the concepts of organizational citizenship and prosocial organizational behavior (Bedarkar & Pandita, 2014: 107).

According to Katz and Kahn (1966), there are three types of individual contributions that are essential to the functioning of the organization: presence at work, performance against established quantity and quality standards, and the manifestation of innovative and spontaneous behaviors (Bedarkar & Pandita, 2014: 108). In order to grasp the essence of this last contribution, George and Brief (1992) reintroduced a few decades later the notion of organizational spontaneity. These researchers define organizational spontaneity as extra-role behaviors voluntarily produced by employees that contribute to organizational effectiveness. These behaviors should not be prescribed by the employee's job description and are not expected by other members of the organization. According to George and Brief, there are five forms of organizational spontaneity are listed: helping colleagues, protecting the organization, Constructive

suggestions, investing in one's own development and promoting organization (George & Brief, 1992: 311).

As with citizenship performance, organizational spontaneity is voluntary in nature and aims at improving organizational functioning. However, two aspects distinguish these notions. On the one hand, citizenship performance disregards the intra- or extra-role character of behavior while as organizational spontaneity refers only to behaviors qualified as extra-role; On the other hand, the various forms of organizational spontaneity refer only to behaviors oriented towards action, contrary to the performance of citizenship which does not exclude more "passive" behaviors (for example avoid unnecessary complaints) (Tabatabei, Takapoo, & Leilaeyoun, 2015: 156). Despite some overlap between these concepts, George and Brief (1992) conclude that citizenship performance takes into account behaviors that are incompatible with the notion of organizational spontaneity. For example, adherence to organizational rules may be seen as a complement to citizenship performance, but not to organizational spontaneity, since this behavior is inherent in the employee's job description, more of being passive rather than proactive. On the other hand, these authors admit that organizational spontaneity may constitute a subset of behaviors included in the notion of citizenship performance (Bennett, Lance, & Woehr, 2014: 142-145).

Table-2. 2. Organizational Spontaneity

Positive behaviors	Features / components	Categories or behaviors
Organizational Spontaneity Behavior: Extra-role and voluntary behaviors that contribute to organizational effectiveness. George and Brief (1992	**The action must be:** Extra Role behavior Not recognized by the organization's formal reward system	**There are five Categories:** Cooperation (assistance to colleagues) Protection of the organization Suggestions (they must be constructive for the organization) Self-training (skills development) Climate beneficial (pose favorable attitudes to good climate).

Source:Boundenghan (2014: 46)

2.2.3. Contextual Performance

In general, task performance has been defined as the total expected value of organizing discrete behavioral episodes that an individual exercise over a given period of time (Motowidlo, 2003: 39). It represents a set of discrete behaviors that would influence the achievement of the organization's objectives and that the individual would

deploy in different periods. As we can see through this definition, the performance of an individual is not a stable phenomenon, it can change over time depending on the actions. It should be noted that in the literature, two dimensions of performance have been defined. They describe the two dimensions of individual performance at work that allow supervisors to measure the performance of their subordinates, namely Contextual performance, and task performance. We will only briefly discuss this last category of performance (Johnson, 2001: 984-985).

The concept of contextual performance in the sense of Borman and Motowidlo corresponds to a set of behaviors aimed at organizational effectiveness by their effects on the psychological, social and organizational context of work. These activities contribute to culture and the organizational climate (representing the context in which these activities are carried out) and are classified in five dimensions : volunteer to perform additional duties, assist and co-operate with colleagues, persist with enthusiasm, support or defend the organization and, finally, follow the rules and procedures of the organization (Demerouti, Xanthopoulou, Tsaousis, & Bakker, 2014: 60).

In addition, as a follow-up to the work on contextual performance, a simpler conceptualization was proposed. It includes two dimensions: interpersonal facilitation that involves helping others, cooperating with them and dedication to work that entails persisting in the effort at work (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996: 525-526). In the same vein, Borman and Motowidlo (2000) proposed an integrating model of three-dimensional contextual performance: interpersonal citizenship performance, organizational citizenship performance, and job or task citizenship performance. Interpersonal citizenship performance is a behavior aimed at helping other members of the organization and facilitating the development of behaviors that promote effectiveness. In addition, organizational citizenship performance which involves loyalty to its organization and compliance with the organization's rules and procedures while job or task citizenship performance refers to having a conscientious mind towards task or job (Youssef, Martin, & Omrani, 2012: 04-05).

We present schematically the set of behaviors of the contextual performance below:

Table-2. 3. Contextual Performance

Positive behaviors	Features / components	Categories or behaviors
Contextual Performance Behavior: Interpersonal and voluntary behaviors that support the social and motivational context within which work is performed. Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996)	**These behaviors are:** Extra Role behavior and aim to support the structure of work defined by the organization	**The behaviors of Borman and Motowidlo (1993)** Volunteer for activities that go beyond the roles prescribed by the organization Persistence and enthusiasm in order to accomplish its tasks Assist and cooperate with others Respect the prescribed rules and procedures of the organization Openly defend the objectives of the organization. **The classification of Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996)** Interpersonal facilitation Dedication to work

Source:Boundenghan (2014: 45)

2.2.4. Prosocial Organizational Behavior

Brief and Motowidlo (1986) describe prosocial organizational behavior as a behavior produced by a member of an organization that is directed to an individual, group, or organization with which that member interacts while fulfilling their organizational roles which is manifested with the intention of promoting the well-being of an individual, a group or an organization. Although prosocial organizational behavior aims at been beneficial to others and to the organization, they specify that this type of behavior may be functional (for example, volunteer to accomplish an additional task) or dysfunction. This is a major distinction from the performance of citizenship which is defined precisely by its contribution to organizational efficiency (Hazzi & Maldaon, 2012: 107). In addition, Van Dyne, Cummings and McLean Parks (1995) recommend that the construct of prosocial organizational behavior be dropped, given the extent of the behaviors that can be covered by this definition and the contradictory and dichotomous nature of the definition of prosocial organizational behavior built. Moreover, a recent study shows that citizenship behaviors represent a distinct construct of counterproductive behavior, making the dysfunctional functional continuum inherent in prosocial organizational behavior inappropriate (Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczo, 2006: 447).

Table-2. 4. Prosocial Organizational Behavior

Positive behaviors	Features / components	Categories or behaviors
Prosocial Organizational Behavior: behavior produced by a member of an organization that is directed to an individual, group, or organization with which that member interacts while fulfilling their organizational roles which is manifested with the intention of promoting the well-being of an individual, a group or an organization	**The action must be:** Extra Role behavior Beneficial to others and to the organization	**These behaviors may be:** functional (for example, volunteer to accomplish an additional task) dysfunction

Source:Boundenghan (2014: 48)

2.2.5. Mobilization

By focusing on a managerial approach, Tremblay and Wils (2005) propose the concept of mobilization in order to account for the positive contributions of individuals in an organizational environment. These authors define mobilization as a critical mass of employees who carry out actions whether or not they are part of their contract of employment, paid or unpaid beneficial to the well-being of others, their organization and the accomplishment of a collective work. (Boundenghan, 2014: 52). Mobilization behaviors can be grouped into three categories: compliance with the employment contract (this includes performance in prescribed roles, work ethics), individual motivation behaviors (entails dedication to work, development of skills) and collective motivation behaviors (this helps sportsmanship and loyalty). Although the authors acknowledge that the concept of mobilization is inspired by citizenship performance and prosocial behavior, they find that mobilization necessarily implies the contribution of a critical mass of employees. This is a major distinction from citizenship performance which can be considered at both the individual and the collective level (Tremblay & Wils, 2005: 38).

Table-2. 5. Mobilization

Positive behaviors	Features / components	Categories or behaviors
Mobilization: Critical mass of employees who carry out actions whether or not they are part of their contract of employment, paid or unpaid beneficial to the well-being of others, their organization and the accomplishment of a collective work. Tremblay and Wils (2005)	**The action must be:** Extra Role behavior Part of contract or not Recognized or not by the organization's formal reward system	**They can be grouped into three Categories:** compliance with the employment contract (this includes performance in prescribed roles, work ethics). Individual motivation behaviors (entails dedication to work, development of skills) Collective motivation behaviors (this helps sportsmanship and loyalty)

Source: (Tremblay & Wils, 2005: 43)

2.3. The Basis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Very many researchers have made their contribution towards the basis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, and these include the contribution of Barnard, the contribution of Katz and Kahn, the contribution of Roethlisberger and Dickson, and the contribution of Gouldner and Blau.

According to Barnard (1938) contribution to the basis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, he was interested in what he calls cooperative behavior. According to Organ, Barnard's writings have greatly influenced the work of many theorists to this day and this long before the popularization of the doctrines of modern human relations management. Barnard was interested in organizing cooperative efforts. In this sense, it recognizes that certain elements and conditions are essential for an organization to exist. According to this author, for an organization to survive it must have people capable of communicating with each other with the ability to take action in order to accomplish a common goal (Norton, 2013: 47). From this point of view, it is clear that it is not individuals but rather the services, actions or influences of individuals that must be considered as dimensions of the organization. Moreover, an essential condition of the organization according to this author is the willingness of each of these individuals to offer efforts to the cooperative system (Qureshi, 2015: 22). The desire of the worker to cooperate as conceived by Barnard may be associated with words or phrases generally used to express loyalty, solidarity, esprit de corps and the individual's connection to self- Organization. The latter are qualities or conditions that are generally associated with the organization to refer to something different from the organizational effectiveness, skills or valuing of personal contributions. However, they are vaguely

recognized as essential to the organization (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2005: 45). Organ attributes to Barnard a part of the authorship of his theory on the concept of the behavior of organizational citizenship. According to him, some ideas of Barnard whose concept of willingness to cooperate joins the determinants of the behaviors of organizational citizenship. Thus, Barnard's writings suggest that Organ considers that no one can understand the process of an organization simply by referring to the worker's ability to perform or perform certain specific tasks and functions in exchange for certain results (Organ, 1990: 44). It is in this view that the concept of organization is not linked to a formal designation of the organization, for example as McDonald® or IBM®, but the concept refers rather to the action of organizing. Thus, Barnard argues that people are called to be in contact and to interact frequently with each other. As a result, the relationships they maintain are not always part of the formal organization and are not all governed by it. Indeed, they may occur in an unexpected way or by consequence of organized activity or even may arise from a personal desire. However, regardless of their origins, these relationships may affect the experiences, attitudes, and emotions of the individuals involved. Although at first sight, it may affect only a limited number of individuals, it can spread rapidly to a higher number through a chain of endless interactions. Thus, informal organizations represent the key element of his theory since according to Barnard, they legitimize and stabilize the emerging system of formal authority (Henry, 2004: 37-38).

Another basis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior is the contribution of Katz and Kahn (1966). More than twenty-five years after Barnard, Katz and Kahn (1966) propose a behavioral analysis of organizations based on the open system model. According to them, effective organizations must create three types of behavior among their members. For the survival of the organization, individuals must be encouraged to enter and remain in the organization, perform the specific roles required by their superiors and engage in spontaneous and innovative activities that go beyond what is prescribed in their role (Farooqui, 2012: 295).This third type of behavior includes co-operative activities with co-workers, protective actions of the system, original ideas for improving the system, continuing training leading to future contributions, and actions that foster a favorable climate for the system Organization in the external environment. This is the behavior that inspired Smith et al. (1983), and Bateman and Organ (1983) for the development of the concept of organizational citizenship behaviors. Each

organization relies on a large number of acts of cooperation, help, suggestions, gestures of goodwill and altruism on a daily basis. However, no contract binding individuals to organizations cannot include all desirable and necessary contributions likely to contribute to the organization (Bateman & Organ, 1983: 588; C. Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983: 653).

In addition to Barnard, Katz, and Kahn, Roethlisberger and Dickson (1964) also made their contribution towards the basis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The two researchers stated that employee performance is far more important than physical factors, and social factors. They highlighted three factors that constitute the basis for organizational citizenship behavior: Cooperation, non-formal structures, and emotions affecting these two factors (Mazlum Çelik, 2007: 48). Roethlisberger and Dickson, while evaluating the publication of Hawthorne research "Management and Worker" (1964), argued that non-formal organizations can affect the entire organizational structure by appearing at all levels of the organization. Thus, by developing personal relationships within the organization, individuals form non-formal groups in which each individual holds a position or status. These associations at the non-formal level result in higher-level co-operation, which facilitates the functioning of the formal organization efficiency (Serkan, 2015: 35).

Finally, Gouldner and Blau made their contribution towards the basis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior through their definition of standard of reciprocity. According to Gouldner (1960)' definition of standard of reciprocity, it stipulates two conditions must be satisfied for it to exist that is individuals should help those who have previously assisted them and individuals should not harm those who have already helped. According to Gouldner, the basis of social interaction and group structure is based on the need for individuals to "give back" the benefits they have received from others in order to continue to obtain these benefits (Ravichandran, Gilmore, & Strohbehn, 2007: 63).

In 1964, Blau developed the theory of social exchange as an extension of the norm of reciprocity. According to this theory, the voluntary actions of individuals are motivated by what they receive from others. Blau identified the characteristics of social exchange, the first being the presence of unspecified obligations. In other words, although there may be an expectation of receiving something in return for a certain

action, the details of this "return" are not defined beforehand. Thus, the nature of future obligations cannot be "negotiated" and remains at the discretion of the person who has the "obligation" to act. The second characteristic of the theory of social exchange is that it is the only one that invokes feelings of obligation, gratitude, and trust (Ravichandran et al., 2007: 62-63).

The theory of exchange can be explained from the perspective of economic exchange and social exchange. The economic exchange is where the employer provides a purely economic reward in exchange for the employee's work and managers who use this approach do not seek to build long-term relationships with their staff. On the other hand, those who advocate social exchange seek to build long-term relationships with their employees and are interested in their well-being as well as in the development of their careers; In exchange, they will go beyond what is expected of them at work (Cho & Johanson, 2008a: 311-312).

From the perspective of social exchange, when the employee is treated with respect, he is more likely to adopt organizational citizenship behaviors (Ma & Qu, 2011: 02-03). According to Mei in 2009, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors can be seen as the result of the social exchange process in which employees perceive that their organization respects them and cares about them; They identify with it and adopt behaviors of citizenship (Yang, 2012: 1222). In 1990, Organ noted that employees were more likely to post Organizational Citizenship Behaviors when they were in the social exchange context with their organization. In short, the theory of social exchange as an extension of the norm of reciprocity represents a solid theoretical framework as the basis for the study of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors and Organizational Commitment (Ravichandran et al., 2007: 62-63).

2.4. The dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior include the five dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior according to Organ (1988), and other dimensions according to different researchers, for example, Graham (1989) dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Williams and Anderson (1991) dimensions, and Podsakoff et Al. (2000) dimensions.

2.4.1. Organ' Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behaviors represent discretionary "individual" behaviors that are not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal system of rewards. Nevertheless, the accumulation of these behaviors favors the good functioning of the organization "(Organ, 1988). According to Organ, the five dimensions include altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue. These dimensions can be further explained as follows (Öztürk, 2010: 21):

2.4.1.1. Altruism

When the literature is examined, it is seen that this dimension of organizational citizenship is defined as sacrifice, benevolence, thinking of others. The concept of altruism introduced in the 19th century by Auguste Comte for the first time is defined as "the tendency or desire of someone to live for others" (Campbell, 2006: 358-359). The concept of altruism which unlike earlier was defined by Comte as independent from religious suppositions and attracted interest from Karl Marx, and Marx has given this concept to a considerable extent in his works. Marx regarded altruism as a process that extends from the individual's abilities to his needs although he did not work on this subject (Rubin, 2000: 08).

Organ and Near (1983) defined it as a voluntary behavior in which an employee assists an individual with a particular problem while performing his or her duties under unusual circumstances. Altruism also refers to the help given by a member to other members of the organization in their work (Al-Zu'bi, 2011: 223).

Some organizations members assist the members of other organizations in organizational problems or activities. All the behaviors exhibited by volunteers within the scope of volunteering are included in the scope of an occupation to guide organizational friends in matters related to occupational safety, and occupational health, to assist in situations where conflict occurs or in cases where conflict cannot be solved, and to help young or inexperienced labor. It should be noted that this behavior is based on the willingness of the occupation, as it may be argued by the superiors that this behavior is to be desired or that the occupation is shown between the duties. Also, Perlow and Weeks (2002) stated that the imprisonment of the workforce which is the result of the imprisonment is a negative result in terms of the membership of the

organization when it cannot do its work while helping its colleagues (Frey, Savage, & Torgler, 2010: 5-7). This dimension also includes assistance to an organization member who cannot or will not achieve the desired success. A new occupation in the other gymnastics makes the group easy to adapt and increases its performance in parallel with other members, facilitating intra-group coordination and positively affecting overall performance (Iqbal, 2013: 31-32).

2.4.1.2. Courtesy

Courtesy dimension refers to the positive communication of individuals in interaction within the organization resulting from the division of labor. This is an example of this concept of taking opinions and suggestions of other employees before the decisions to be made, informing the important issues within the organization, respecting the rights and privileges of other employees, and reminding and consulting behaviors in general issues (Huei, Mansor, & Tat, 2014: 431).

This is the act of asking the opinions of others before carrying out actions. It is also the fact of systematically anticipating the emergence of difficulties likely to cause problems while working on a specific task. Courtesy includes behaviors that focus on problem prevention and taking into account the steps needed to reduce the effects of future problems (Wang, Hinrichs, Prieto, & Howell, 2013: 116). In other words, courtesy means that a member encourages other workers when they are demoralized and feel discouraged during their professional development. Early research efforts found that employees who exhibit courtesy would reduce inter-group conflicts and thus reduce time spent on conflict management activities (Lo & Ramayah, 2009: 49-50).

It is in this behavior profile that members of the organization are careful not to negatively affect other occupations because of the work they do, to inform others, to remind others, to transfer information, and to establish a strong communication. According to Özdevecioğlu (2003), the courtesy dimension refers to the positive communication among the individuals in the division of labor in the organization. This aspect of occupational safety and occupational health is the proposal of a solution to the possibility of a possible problem or the demonstration of preventive behaviors in which both the inter-departmental and the member-informed activities are carried out at each step of the related processes (Özdevecioğlu, 2003: 121).

The dimension of courtesy is also defined as behaviors such as warning, counseling and reminding individuals who need to communicate and interact with each other due to their duties and decisions they make within the organization (Organ, 1988: 47). This dimension of organizational citizenship behavior includes the behavior of co-workers with their colleagues who are influenced by their work and decisions. The common feature of behaviors in this dimension is that they are exhibited to warn members of the organization before any problem or problems arise. Behaviors such as receiving prior views and ideas from employees who may be affected by a decision to be made, providing information to other employees about important issues within the organization, respecting the rights and privileges of their colleagues, and providing reminders and advice in general matters can be expressed as courtesy behaviors (Mehboob & Bhutto, 2012: 1448).

According to Organ, the dimensions of altruism and courtesy are dimensions that are very close to each other, the time of helping action, because they are defined on the basis of "benevolence". It is a question of helping people to find a solution to that problem once they have a problem with each other. On the level of courtesy, there are behaviors that need to take concrete steps in advance in order to prevent the problem from occurring or reduce the effects of the problem (Radzi, Anuar, & Sumarjan, 2014: 72).

2.4.1.3. Conscientiousness

Organ defines the concept of conscientiousness as exhibiting some role behaviors of the employees in the organization above their expectations (Organ, 1990: 46). In this context, it is shown that to continue to work, to work regularly and punctually at the workplace, to use without abusing break times and to comply with the rules attitudes required by the task. For example, while regular attendance is an obligation of the charter party, there are often duties based on volunteerism. Unless it is commonplace, it is usually the behavior tolerated by the managers that they do not come to work despite the fact that the employee is not a very important disturbance, and that he is absent from the job due to unexpected weather conditions or private life. Similarly, although the employee does not get overtime pay, it is an example of the degree of conscientiousness to stay in the workplace to finish the job, not to prolong the tea breaks at the workplace, to attend the meeting for the benefit of the organization, and to

use the water and electricity resources without running away (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui, 1993: 7).

Conscientiousness refers to a set of conducts in accordance with those established by the organization (be on time for its work for example). Conscientiousness is used to indicate that a particular individual is organized, responsible and assiduous. Organ, (1988) defined it as a dedication to work that exceeds formal requirements such as working long hours or being voluntary to perform one in addition to one's duties. Moreover, studies have also revealed that Conscientiousness can be linked to organizational policy among employees (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000: 524).

This dimension means that the employees fulfill some organizational citizenship behaviors in the organization in a way that exceeds the expectations of them within the organization. This means that the members of the organization should be willing to behave beyond the minimum (formal) role behaviors expected from them (Trinh: 07-08). It is possible to give an example to the employees of the organization to participate in the meetings in time and on a regular basis in order to avoid the excessive use of tea, coffee, and meals. As another example, if the work that has to be done is not yet finished even though the employee's working hours are over, it can be shown that he continues to work to end his job by sacrificing his private life or even with his family (Organ, 1990: 43-45).

Occupation is also responsible for carrying out voluntary behaviors at the expense of duty. The conflicts that concern work safety and occupational health play a role in the prevention and are the dimension of behaviors such as removing or minimizing the threat in the event of danger or under extraordinary conditions. Making constructive criticisms or suggestions for occupational safety and occupational health at meetings or at other times is another action within this context. At this dimension, the organization encourages voluntary, creative and innovative efforts to increase the performance of the organization, taking extra responsibility for the other members of the organization (Kumar, Bakhshi, & Rani, 2009: 74). Increasing conscientiousness behavior facilitates the transfer of authority of organizational managers. On the other hand, the Organ drew attention to the negative side of this dimension by indicating that conscientious members of the organization are very demanding towards themselves and

other members of the organization and that they are in a critical attitude if the requests are not fulfilled (Roberts, Chernyshenko, Stark, & Goldberg, 2005: 103-104).

In some studies, in the literature, it seems that both the altruism and the conscientiousness dimensions are considered as a single dimension with the philosophy of philanthropy on the basis of both. But the two dimensions mentioned differ in the area that focuses on philanthropic behavior. While self-help behaviors focus on the individual, on the level of conscientiousness they focus on the organization as a whole (Robertson, 2015: 1-2).

2.4.1.4. Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship or "good player" is a positive attitude. It is the act of not complaining about trivial things. Organ, (1988) defined sportsmanship as heat behavior tolerating irritations that are an almost inevitable part of organizational expectation (Ozsahin & Sudak, 2015: 444). Podsakoff and MacKenzie, (1997) found that good sportsmanship would increase worker morale and reduce employee turnover (Heydari & Gholtash, 2014: 153).

The sportsmanship dimension also referred to as sportsmanship or volunteerism in the literature, is defined as behaviors that prevent employees from exhibiting adverse behaviors that cause tension within the organization and should not complain about trivial issues. Behaviors such as respecting their colleagues, growing problems unnecessarily, putting constructive attitude in case of any problems, defending the image of the organization outside the organization can be given as an example under this dimension (Polat, 2009: 1593).

It is a function of this dimension to exhibit an understanding attitude rather than a complaining attitude in the face of problems that arise in the workplace. This dimension helps group members perform well. As far as work security and occupational health are concerned, a sportsman is active in the process of achieving effective solution rather than complaining and protecting the positive attitude of the employee, not negatively affecting the motivations of his superiors and other occupations. As we often express in this dimension, think that the existing non-complaint action may be misinterpreted. Podsakoff et al.(2000) pointed out that it is impractical to make complaints and that it is necessary to leave personal thoughts to one side of the

organization in bad times, emphasizing more sacrifice and opening up a solution for positive behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000: 517).

In addition, sportsmanship behaviors are also referred to as avoidance behavior, which means that employees do not perform words and actions that may lead to any discussion within the work environment (M. E. Schnake & Dumler, 2003: 284).

Sportsmanship can also be defined as a commitment to the organization as a whole against the organization or leader. Parallel to this, employees can continue to work without undue motivation even when they are under overloaded work or when things are not going well, and positive attitude exhibits can be considered in this context (Alkahtani, 2015: 212).

Sportsmanship, as well as within the organization, requires a well-intentioned defense of the organization's reputation in every environment outside the organization. In the light of the work done, it is seen that there is a positive relationship between gentlemen and organizational performance. Accordingly, employees who continue to work with a positive motivation in all conditions can adapt immediately to organizational changes in the organization, thereby increasing their organizational performance (Ehtiyar, Aktas Alan, & Oemueris, 2010: 51).

Sportsmanship is expressed as behaviors in the form of neglecting any negativity that may create tension between the employees in the organization or raising minor complaints or complaining. In this respect, these behaviors can be given as examples of sportsmanship who spend their time complaining about problems related to their jobs, growing problems unnecessarily, and avoiding disrespectful business associates. Gentlemanly movements are the work of the organizers in solving all kinds of problems that are not of vital importance which can occur and reflecting this situation to the top (Pourgaz, Naruei, & Jenaabadi, 2015: 801).

Typical sportsmanship behaviors are to be tolerant of all kinds of distress, discomfort and, force that may be caused by the work not complaining about being disturbed by others and maintaining a positive attitude even when things are not working. It also includes behaviors such as not being angry with others, making self-sacrifices for a good teamwork and respecting the thoughts of others when other people do not feel like themselves. Sportsmanship in this context means to conceal all the

negativities that may lead to tension and conflict among the individuals within the organization (Swaminathan & Jawahar, 2013: 553).

2.4.1.5. Civic Virtue

Civic virtue is defined as the participation of subordinates in political life and support for the administrative function of the organization (Lo & Ramayah, 2009: 49). As a result, it refers to a kind of responsibility to participate in the life of society (for example attendance at meetings). This dimension of organizational citizenship behavior stems from Graham's findings that employees should be responsible for being good citizens in the organization. These behaviors constitute recognition of employees as part of the organization and acceptance of responsibilities (Podsakoff et al., 2000: 525).

Civic virtue dimension refers to the commitment of employees to their organizations or to the press. Behaviors in this context include not engaging in organizational and occupational participation in political life, occupationally and socially taking into account organizational interests (Sezgin, 2005: 323).

It is the voluntary active participation of the business as a family, the individual sense of responsibility in every case involving the organization and the responsibility for the meeting and negotiations to resolve the problem. According to George and Brief (1992), the occupation would exhibit the civic virtue dimension if it meets the cost of personal development without considering it. The direct involvement of occupational safety and occupational health is also at work at this dimension in activities such as participation in activities and occupational safety and health committees based on the principle of responsibility consciousness. It is important to ensure that the members of the organization are provided with appropriate time and appropriate conditions to conduct the necessary analysis and provide necessary participation in such civic virtue activities listed above (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005: 153).

Graham and Van Dyne (2006) have examined civic virtue behaviors under two headings: "information provider" and "impacting". In this direction, information-providing civic virtue behavior involves participating in meetings and ceremonies in the organization, reading announcements and newsletters and following other sources of information that may benefit the organization. Another influential title of civic virtue behavior consists of behaviors aimed at ensuring communication that employees need to

be able to adapt to change and/or development within the organization (Graham & Van Dyne, 2006: 92).

The main purpose of this dimension is to support the development of the organization. For the occupants, it is important to take the initiative in the direction of this behavior, and it is essential to participate in discussions about the organization to find answers to the questions and to suggest solutions to the problems (Pourgaz et al., 2015: 801). As an example of this dimension; Participating regularly in meetings held within the organization, supporting the decisions taken following the organization's goals, keeping up with the developments in the organization, making an active role in motivating other employees to adapt to this situation in rotations within the organization, and so forth. Likewise, employees share their positive thoughts for the organization with both the employees in the organization and outside the organization, and they follow the civic virtue behaviors carefully to follow the informants on the announcement and announcement panels hanging in various places. Lastly, participation in various courses to improve themselves in order to contribute to the society in the form of providing economic contribution to them is also accepted as civic virtue behavior (Hazratian, Khadivi, Abbasi, & Ghojazadeh, 2015: 82)

2.4.2. Others Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

As stated earlier, many researchers have researched about the various dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and among them include the following.

Graham (1986) dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior in which he examines the concept of citizenship behavior from a more political angle. He developed a three-dimensional theoretical model: compliance that includes respect for existing structures, loyalty that includes functions such as serving the interests of her community and endorsing her values, and finally, participation that reflects the implicit the obligation for members of an organization to demonstrate behaviors that can be significant and positive for the organization (Swaen & Maignan, 2003: 05). In another study, Graham (1989) suggests the emergence of four dimensions. It will, however, rename specific dimensions discussed previously (Graham, 1986). Thus, compliance becomes dedication and loyalty, for its part, takes the name of support. As for

participation, it is now subdivided into two distinct dimensions called self-help and personal initiative. The dimensions of mutual support and dedication proposed by Graham would correspond to the dimensions of altruism and conscientiousness discussed in Organ's study (Sharma & Jain, 2014: 58).

Williams and Anderson (1991) also added to the dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior using their categorization of organizational citizenship behavior according to who benefits from and who the behavior is directed towards. Williams and Anderson (1991) were the first to propose a categorization of organizational citizenship behavior according to the beneficiary, depending on whether the behavior is directed towards the individual (OCB-I) or towards the organization (OCB-O). This typology was then taken up by several researchers, mainly by Organ and his colleagues. In their research, they distinguish two types of organizational citizenship behavior (Barnes, Ghumman, & Scott, 2013: 02):Organizational Citizenship behavior towards Individuals (OCB-I), in which members contribute to the organization by indirectly and actively helping colleagues through positive interpersonal interactions (for example helping a new employee, a colleague who is absent or who has heavy workload) (Abd-Alla, 2016: 12). Organizational Citizenship behavior towards the Organization (OCB-O), in which members actively undertake tasks and duties that benefit the organization as a whole and behave according to informal rules designed to maintain order within the organization. Thus, the authors believe that each group of behaviors is included in one of the two main categories and each has a different background. For example, behaviors such as altruism, help, courtesy, co-operative behavior and interpersonal facilitation are provided to benefit other employees, while consciousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue are directed towards the organization (Maanen, 2014: 07).

Similar to Organ (1988), In 2000, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach added to the existing dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. They grouped the Organization Citizenship Behaviors into seven dimensions that is to say altruism, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational Compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development (Ravens, 2013: 63). The first dimension, altruism, is to volunteer to help a colleague about a problem and to act in a way that prevents problems at work. The second dimension of sportsmanship includes not complaining when you are disturbed by others, maintaining a positive attitude when you are

frustrated, having the will to sacrifice your personal interests for the good of the group, and not being offended personally when others do not accept our ideas (Unal, 2013: 125). Under Organizational loyalty dimension includes actions to promote the organization to external people, to defend it against threats and to remain dedicated to it even in extreme situations (Karnama & Reza, 2015: 4797). The organizational compliance dimension refers to behaviors that demonstrate rigid adherence to the organization's rules and policies, even in the absence of oversight (Alahakone & Shingi, 2014: 04). These behaviors reflect acceptance and internalization of company rules. Under civic virtue dimension, it is seen as a commitment to the organization at a macro level which manifests itself as a willingness to be active in the governance of the organization's interests first and environmental monitoring of potential threats or opportunities. As for personal development dimension, it represents the adoption of voluntary actions to improve one's knowledge, skills, and abilities. Finally, self-development dimension is the self-help behaviors that are considered as organizational citizenship behaviors only when they involve behaviors that go beyond the minimum required and beyond the expected level of performance to a degree appear voluntary. Creativity and innovation are seen as personal initiatives (Dagot & Voisin, 2007: 64-65).

2.5. Importance of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Initially, interest in the organizational citizenship behavior came from an argument of the School of Human Relations which postulates that happy employees produce more. Thus, the causality between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior sought to demonstrate by Bateman and Organ would have given greater importance to employee satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983: 591). The effects of job satisfaction are, however only demonstrated at present on the decline in turnover and absenteeism. But as much satisfaction with work reveals a priori passive attitude, or even as a "consumer" of the conditions offered by the organization, the organizational citizenship behavior implies a voluntary commitment (in both senses of the term) in favor of missions and challenges the organization must. This is why the Organizational Citizenship Behavior is a local research topic, particularly in the area of Human Resources Management (HRM), which must, to promote such organizational, motivate staff to behave as citizens. Several studies demonstrate a positive correlation between

organizational citizenship behavior and client satisfaction, quality and quantity of work performance and working groups; And a negative correlation with any type of waste at the organizational level. More precisely, the literature shows four recurring effects that the organizational citizenship behavior should have on the performance and success of an organization (Walz & Niehoff, 1996: 309). First, the organizational citizenship behavior has a positive impact on employee performance, which can be explained by the self-help behaviors it generates making it easier to solve the problems encountered, thus avoiding an employee wasting too much time to find a solution individually. Not to mention that these collaborations informally enable employees to share their best practices. The result is a reduction in the necessary interventions by the superior, who can thus concentrate more on his management tasks. This increase in managerial capacity, which is the second impact of the organizational citizenship behavior, is accentuated by the fact that citizenship behavior encourages suggestions from employees, which can sometimes improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization (Hiqma, Armanu, Djumilah, & Noermijati, 2016: 213-215).

Thirdly, organizational citizenship behavior allows for better resource mobilization from the managerial point of view, as we have just seen, but also because the positive feedback from employees makes it possible, on the one hand, to keep the most qualified employees, and on the other hand, to attract competent people within the organization. A recent study conducted among middle managers working in the private sector in France confirms that the higher the organizational citizenship behavior of employees, the lesser they intend to leave the company (Paillé, 2006b: 142).

Lastly, Organizational Citizenship Behavior increases the capacity to adapt to change. This is through civic virtue that encourages employees to participate more in the life of the organization, allows them to understand better the issues facing the organization which empowers them and gives meaning to the changes they will implement at work. Additionally, the spirit of sport adds by providing employees with a civic behavior to develop new skills to embark on new challenges (Blanken, 2012: 13).

2.6. Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

For more than twenty years, much research has attempted to explain the factors behind the organizational citizenship behavior, but there is no unanimous response

given the multitude of variables Line of account. Nevertheless, we will look at the explanatory variables of the organizational citizenship behavior that seem particularly relevant to us in the framework of a "human resources" approach. These variables include personality, perceived fairness, and leadership. These are further explained as follows (Emery & Launaz, 2007: 20):

2.6.1. Job Satisfaction

In 1995, Organ and Lingl sought to find alternative solutions that could explain the positive correlation between job satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior which has already been demonstrated by many other independent researchers. Nevertheless, this correlation does not demonstrate the causal pattern “job satisfaction, therefore, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, therefore, better performance" which does not seem to correspond to the reality (Elanain, 2007: 33). They, therefore, need to find a common source of influence for job satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior which they do by issuing a hypothesis based on individual variables. For this, they highlight the specific dimensions of the person that might relate satisfaction at work to Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Mohammad, Habib, & Alias, 2011: 149-150). However, the results are inconclusive so that neither age nor marital status, nationality, and gender can explain one of the two concepts even though they impact on other notions considered as attitudes such as altruism which can influence positively or negatively the behavior of the type Organizational Citizenship Behavior. As Organ summarizes in another article, approaches that seek to explain the Organizational Citizenship Behavior by individual variables are disappointing. However, they reveal a link between Organizational Citizenship Behaviors and workplace attitudes that may well stem from a more general model of Organizational Justice (Organ & Lingl, 1995: 346).

2.6.2. Organizational Commitment

Most empirical studies support evidence of a link between organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational commitment. On the one hand, several studies (Organ and Ryan, 1995, Organ, 1997; Schappe, 1998; Podsakoff et al., 2000) identify both organizational commitment and job satisfaction as good predictors of organizational citizenship behaviors. However, while some studies confirm the presence

of a relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors, other studies have obtained contradictory results (Schappe, 1998: 283). Some authors (William and Anderson, 1991; Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998) note that, due to the instability of the results of the studies, organizational commitment cannot be clearly seen as a predictor of organizational citizenship behavior reiterate the importance of continuing research on the relationship between these two variables (Williams, Pitre, & Zainuba, 2002: 40-41).

Although O'Reilley & Chatman, and Meyer & Allen, have studied the impact of organizational commitment on organizational citizenship in 1986, Paillé explains that " Is really that from the early 1990s onwards the study of the links between commitment and citizenship towards the organization will be the subject of a more systematic effort " (Paillé, 2009: 189). Fortunately, "the empirical relationships between organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational commitment are particularly well documented" (Paillé, 2006a: 37).

Of the three forms of Organizational Commitment discussed above (affective, normative and continuance), it appears that affective form has the greatest impact on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. The results of Roux and Dussault's correlation analyzes have shown that "affective commitment is a better predictor of organizational citizenship behaviors than normative and continuance commitment". Their results are similar to those of Allen & Rush in 1998, MacKenzie et al. in 1998, Organ in 1997 and Organ & Ryan in 1995 (Roux & Dussault, 2007: 162).

According to Paillé (2008), affective commitment to the organization is a major determinant of the Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Paillé, 2008: 106). Indeed, according to Bentein, Stinghamber and Vandenberghe (2002), most research has reported that individuals who are emotionally committed to the organization tend to exhibit more often citizenship behaviors (Stinglhamber, Bentein, & Vandenberghe, 2002: 132-134). For Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky in 2001, the fact that an individual adheres to the values and goals of his organization demonstrates that he has an emotional commitment predisposing him to adopt organizational citizenship behaviors "in the form of efforts done beyond the tasks prescribed in his work "(Paillé, 2009: 190).

In fact, according to Noor (2009), Organizational Citizenship Behaviors cannot exist without the organizational commitment of the employees because otherwise an employee who is not commited, can he invest additional efforts to benefit the organization? The results of her research show that employee citizenship behaviors exist only when there is a high level of organizational commitment (Noor, 2009: 1).

Paillé (2006) notes that the majority of empirical data concern the relationship between affective commitment and Organ's restricted taxonomy. In most cases, empirical relationships are positive and significant (Bishop, Scott & Burroughs 2000, Chen & Francesco 2003, Schappe 1998), some studies show an absence of relationship (Shore et al., 2000 Williamson & Andersen, 1991) (Paillé, 2006a: 37). To date, the few researchers who have used Organ's expanded taxonomy (1988) to examine empirical relationships with affective engagement have had mixed results (eg Rioux & Penner, 2001, Tansky, 1993, Yoon & Suh, 2003). Tansky (1993), and more recently MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne (1998), show no significant link between emotional commitment and altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, civic virtues and sportsmanship. In the study of Rioux and Penner (2001), only the dimensions of altruism, civic virtue and sportsmanship correlate with affective commitment (Rioux & Penner, 2001: 1312-1313). These data are partially confirmed in more recent study by Yoon and Suh (2003), who show that only dimensions of sportsmanship and civic virtue correlate with affective commitment. If it seems reasonable to postulate positive relationship, it is on the contrary illusory to expect significant relationships for all the facets of Organ's extended taxonomy (1988) (Yoon & Suh, 2003: 606-607).

For Bonaparte (2008), another link between the Organizational Commitment and the Organizational Citizenship Behaviors concerns the impact of organizational commitment on the behavior of citizenship in working groups. He cites Scholl, in 1981, who says that " the Organizational Commitment of employees as a group leads them to pursue their course of action, even if their expectations of the organization are not met". Their behaviors thus become Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (Bonaparte Jr, 2008: 6-7).

From the perspective of social exchange, Tsui and his colleagues in 1997 demonstrated that "employees of organizations using the economic exchange approach have a lower level of emotional engagement and demonstrate less of organizational

citizenship behaviors that employees of an organization adopting the perspective of social exchange ". For example, employees working for organizations adopting the social exchange perspective will display more emotional organizational commitment and perform better than those who only expect economic reward in exchange for their work (Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997: 1097). Similarly, Cho and Johanson (2008), in the light of earlier research by Eisenberger et al. And Kidder, point out that employees who perceive that their organization's commitment to them exceeds their expectations are more likely to show a strong commitment to it. In other words, the psychological attachment of employees is influenced by their perceptions of the level of commitment of their organization to them. When the organization cares about the employee's physical and psychological well-being, it encourages the employee's desire to remain within the organization and to invest more effort in its success (Cho & Johanson, 2008b: 320-321).

Again, according to the perspective of social exchange, Lavelle et al. (2009) explain that when employees have high-quality social relations which can materialize through their organizational commitment, they are more likely to adopt citizenship behaviors because they will tend to feel a "relational obligation" to adopt behaviors that have positive consequences for their "relationship partners". Adhering to the multi-target approach, these authors explain that these "social exchange partners" may be co-workers, the organization itself or other individuals (Lavelle et al., 2009: 9).

2.6.3. Perceived Fairness

Two types of Organizational Justice can be perceived by employees. The first is distributive justice that is linked to the organization's remuneration system which is exemplified by the benefits such as bonuses in the form of performance remuneration distributed to staff. The second is procedural justice that is concerns with decision-making procedures. Thus, if we take the example of performance pay, it is still necessary that the procedures that determine the amount that each employee receives are perceived as legitimate by the employee (Emery & Launaz, 2007: 21).

According to several studies, these two forms of Organizational Justice influence the results of organizations. However, Moorman provides a distinction which shows that only the perception of employees of fair treatment by their superiors can

influence the organizational citizenship behavior. In this way, the author comes to the conclusion that the interpersonal relationship between employee and employer is more important than procedures within the organization. However, these results are to be taken with caution as they come from a study that involved only two companies in the chemical industry (Moorman, 1991: 852). A recent research revisited the question by testing these two forms of Organizational Justice on a sample of 114 employees working for 20 different managers from various industries. The results show a positive correlation between these Organizational Justices and the Organizational Citizenship Behavior. If there is a perception of distributive justice, employees tend to be more formal expectations and display their citizenship behavior (Williams et al., 2002: 33). Similarly, employees who think their organization has procedural justice will tend to perceive their work as more than just performance, this attachment could explain the positive correlation with the Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Nevertheless, these results confirm the Moorman hypothesis that only the perception of equity in the sense of Adams Smith on the part of his superior is a statistically significant causality of the Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Williams et al., 2002: 40-41).

2.6.4. Leadership

Leadership occupies an important place among the variables explaining the behavior of the staff. A manager's behavior is perceived by employees as fair or unfair and therefore influences job satisfaction thereby promoting citizenhip behavior. In addition, it is clear that leadership can influence other variables such as work atmosphere, employee autonomy, group cohesion, and so on. Which in turn will affect the organizational citizenship behavior within the affected services. We can distinguish leadership behavior in four types according to the literature (House, 1971: 327).

Firstly, instrumental leadership, this requires the manager to clarify the expectations and conditions of achievement on the part of his employees. It should be noted that Organ (Organ et al., 2006) even states that the Organizational Citizenship Behavior can be promoted by integrating it into the expectations clearly expressed by the superior in relation to his employees and vice versa. However, this raises questions about the definition of Organizational Citizenship Behavior that is to say: Can these formal requirements still be considered as citizenship behavior within an organization? (Babar, Sohaib Ahmed, Hafiz Mushtaq, & Ajmal, 2014: 38).

Second is supportive leadership which implies that the manager cares about the well-being of his subordinates. This type of leadership is appreciated by employees who perceive their supervisors as helpers, given their interest in them and the reduction of uncertainty related to the world of work they generate through their management and behavior. Several evidences lead Organ et al. (Organ et al., 2006) to hypothesize that instrumental and supportive leadership are positively correlated with altruism, courtesy, professional conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue, in other words the Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Ariani, 2014: 84).

The third type of leadership is based on a system of rewards and punishment leadership. In this leadership, the manager tries to influence the performance of employees in different ways. Nevertheless, this type of management is based on the confidence of the employees in the correctness of the choices taken by their superior. Fair treatment of employees encourages them to contribute more to the organization, perhaps in the form of citizen behavior. On the other hand, a sense of injustice would tend to reduce commitment (Khan, Ghouri, & Awang, 2013: 147).

The latter, transformational leadership seeks to provide personalized support, intellectual stimulation and a search for goals common to the group. This is a set of behaviors on the part of the manager who must express a clear vision of the future and show how his team can contribute. Such a vision of the future can by hypothesis accentuate the Organizational Citizenship Behavior by giving meaning to the work carried out on the basis of an understanding of the overall goal sought (Lian & Tui, 2012: 64).

2.7. Consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Initially, most studies focused on the potential causes of organizational citizenship behaviors. However, in recent years there has been a marked focus on the consequences of organizational citizenship. More specifically, several studies have examined the effects of organizational citizenship behavior on performance assessments, turnover of staff, and the performance and success of the organization.

2.7.1. Performance

Studies have demonstrated a relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational performance assessment (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Podsakoff and Mackenzie, 1994). Thus, an individual who demonstrates such behavior will be positively assessed by his superior. Some studies (Mackenzie et al., 1993, Podsakoff et al., 1993) show that managers take into account both performance and extra-professional performance which goes beyond the prescribed role of the task. Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1994) suggest that this assessment would be partly biased and take little account of the actual performance of the employee. According to Podsakoff et al. (2000), most dimensions with the exception of welfare show significant relationships with performance evaluations (Podsakoff et al., 2000: 543-544).

2.7.2. Turnover

Mackenzie, Podsakoff, and Aheame (1998) demonstrate that the presence of organizational citizenship behaviors can influence turnover. Therefore, they note that individuals who demonstrate behaviors such as sportsmanship and good citizenship are more likely to develop ties that bring them closer to their manager, making them less likely to voluntarily leave the organization. Similarly, employees who voluntarily assist their co-workers appear to have a more harmonious and friendly relationship with them, which encourages them to remain in the organization (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998: 92-93). To this end, George and Bettenhauser (1990) argue that organizational citizenship behaviors can increase the attractiveness and cohesion of the working group and thus contribute to the subsequent decline in turnover (George & Bettenhausen, 1990: 705).

2.7.3. Organizational Effectiveness

The main element underlying the theory of organizational citizenship behavior is that "the accumulation of all these behaviors contributes to the effectiveness of the organization". Podsakoff et al. (2000) recall that the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational effectiveness has long remained a mere conceptually plausible hypothesis (Podsakoff et al., 2000: 543-544). However, these same authors identify studies that support this hypothesis (George, 1991; Organ, 1990; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). Thus, several of these

studies indicate that the presence of organizational citizenship behaviors can increase the productivity of co-workers and managers. This can be explained by the fact that when one employee helps another by giving him tricks of the trade, it helps in some way to make it more productive and autonomous and to acquire better practices. Similarly, when an employee demonstrates civic responsibility, for example, by communicating ideas about how to improve the organization, it helps to increase managers' performance from a different point of view. Other examples highlight that the presence of organizational citizenship behaviors also allows managers to free resources for more creative purposes. In fact, when employees demonstrate more sportsmanship and avoid unnecessary complaints, and when employees help each other, relationships are more harmonious, allowing managers to concentrate resources for more strategic and proactive purposes (Podsakoff et al., 2000: 533-545).

2.8. Relationship between Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Chegini (2009) did a study on an Iran public organization to examine the relationship between Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. They collected the data from 300 employees of Rasht governmental organizations. The results showed a positive relationship the Organizational Justice dimensions and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Chegini, 2009: 175-176). This is in relation to the research of Goudarzvandchegini, Gilaninia, and Abdesonboli (2011) that was conducted to examine the relationship between Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in public hospitals of Rasht. They distributed 341 questionnaires to some employees of public hospitals in Rasht. The hypothesis of the study stated that there is a meaningful relationship between the dimensions of Organizational Justice and organization citizenship behavior. The findings also showed that there is a relationship among dimensions of Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the Rasht public hospitals (Goudarzvandchegini et al., 2011: 45-46). Also Ata, Al Shra'ah, and Rumman (2013) findings revealed there was a significant statistical effect of the Organizational Justice (equity of distributions, fairness of procedures and fairness of transactions) on the Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Ata et al., 2013: 220).

Awang and Ahmad (2015) studied the effect of Organizational Justice on Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Malaysian higher education on 363 respondents

in Malaysian polytechnics. The researchers hypothesized that there is no significant relationship between the dimensions of Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The results showed that there is a significant relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and two dimensions of Organizational Justice (distributive justice and interactional justice) (Awang & Ahmad, 2015: 677).

However, according to some researchers, some dimensions were found to be stronger than others. This is illustrated in the research of Ali, Manzoor, Rashid, and Ahmad who carried out a study on Pakistan Telecommunication Limited (PTCL) to examine the relationship between Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The study findings indicated that there is a significant positive relationship between Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and interactional justice was found to be stronger as compared to the relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and procedural justice, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior and distributive justice. The results also showed that employees' perception of distributive justice is endorsed when supervisors communicate with their subordinates about the way decisions were reached, and provide a justification when desirable outcomes are not met (Ali et al.: 14-15). This is in argument with Demirkiran, Taskaya, and Dinc (2016a) carried out a research on hospital to determine the relationship between Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior on 151 employees of a public hospital in Turkey. The results showed that the employees perceptions of Organizational Justice are at a high level, while their perception of Organizational Citizenship Behavior is at a moderate level (Demirkiran et al., 2016a: 551-552).

This was in contradiction with the research of Songür, Basım, and Şeşen (2008) that studied the antecedent role of justice perception in organization citizenship behavior on a group of 116 public sector manager candidates who were studying in the public sector. The results showed that Organizational Justice perceptions had positive and significant effects on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors toward the organization (sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness) but had no impact on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors toward individuals (Courtesy and Altruism) (Songür et al., 2008: 102).

By examining the mediating role of perceived organizational support, the research of Noruzy, Shatery, Rezazadeh, and Hatami-Shirkouhi (2011) aimed at studying causal relationships between Organizational Justice, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. They collected the data from 177 educational experts who are working in education departments in Tehran city. The results showed that Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Organizational Support are directly influenced by Organizational Justice. Organizational Citizenship Behavior is directly and significantly influenced by perceived Organizational Support. Also, Organizational Justice indirectly influenced Organizational Citizenship Behavior through perceived Organizational Support (Noruzy et al., 2011: 844-845).

In a research of Fatimah et al. (2011) conducted on 169 secondary school teachers of eight schools in Selangor, Malaysia to examine firstly the relationship between Organizational Justice, Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Job Satisfaction. Secondly to identify the effects of the dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Organizational Justice on Job Satisfaction. Finally, to look the moderating effect of Organizational Citizenship Behavior on the relationship between Organizational Justice and Job Satisfaction. The results showed that there were significant relationships between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Justice, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. And also, Organizational Justice was found to have a positive significant relationship with Job Satisfaction where Organizational Citizenship Behavior acts as a moderator between the two variables (Fatimah et al., 2011: 117-119).

The research of İnce and Gül (2011) which studied the effect of employees' perceptions of Organizational Justice on Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Turkish public institutions on 83 workers in Karaman, showed that there were certain relationships between Organizational Justice perception and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Employees behave positively to contribute to the organizational development and take care of their jobs when they get positive justice perception, sportsmanship and helpfulness are the least affected citizenship behaviors by positive justice perceptions, the most deterministic justice type on citizenship behaviors is the distributive justice (İnce & Gül, 2011: 143).

The research that was carried out to examine the relationship between Job Security, Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Organizational Justice in the Jordanian Banks by Mahfuz Judeh (2012) on 382 employees from the largest six Jordanian banks showed that all path coefficients from distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice to Job Security, and from Job Security to Organizational Citizenship Behavior were significant and in the expected positive direction. The study provided evidence linking the three dimensions of Organizational Justice to Job Security and to Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Mahfuz Judeh, 2012: 596) .

Mey, Werner, and Theron (2014) examined the influence of perceptions of Organizational Trust and fairness on employee's citizenship. They collected data from 278 employees employed at various organizations in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. The research emphasized the importance of Trust and Organizational Justice in predicting positive outcomes such as Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The findings also showed a strong significant relationship between Organizational Justice and Employees Trust (Mey et al., 2014: 102-103).

In Ghafourian (2014) study on the effect of Organizational Justice on Organizational Citizenship Behavior and organizational commitment on people from 255 regular employees of Islamic Azad University. The study findings showed that procedural justice had the most impact on organizational commitment followed by interactive justice and distributive justice. Moreover, obedience has the most influential impact followed by loyalty, partnership, innovation and behavior. Finally, the research showed that organizational citizenship is influenced mostly by loyalty and partnership (Ghafourian, 2014: 21).

Tahseen and Akhtar (2016) conducted a study to explore the mediating role of faculty trust in the relationship between Organizational Justice and teachers' Citizenship Behavior in university teacher-education faculties in the Punjab province of Pakistan. The study was undertaken with 344 public-sector employees and 36 private-sector employees in Pakistan. The results showed that the effect of Organizational Justice on Organizational Citizenship Behavior was significantly mediated through faculty trust. The finding also implies that positive perception of Organizational Justice not only strengthens faculty trust, but this fortified trust also stimulates teachers' citizenship

behavior. It also signifies the value of justice in an educational organization (Tahseen & Akhtar, 2016: 104).

CHAPTER THREE

APPLICATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE' PERCEPTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR ON EMPLOYEES IN FOOD AND BEVERAGE SECTOR IN KONYA, TURKEY

In this section entitled "Practice between the Organizational Justice and the Organizational Citizenship Behavior", the methodology of the research and evaluation of the findings obtained from the study will be explored.

3.1. Subject of the Study

The subject of the research was the effect of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behavior in the province of Konya within the scope of the food and beverage sector.

3.2. Objectives of the Study

The objective of this research is to examine on the one hand the relationship between organizational justice and its different dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and organizational citizenship behavior in the food sector of the city of Konya in Turkey. On the other hand, the research aims to determine whether organizational citizenship behaviors show a significant difference according to demographic characteristics. The purpose of this study is also to determine the level of impact of organizational justice and its dimensions on organizational citizenship behavior.

3.3. Importance of the Study

The findings obtained through the study provide questions and answers on the effect of organizational justice' perception on organizational citizenship behavior. These findings and recommendations would be useful to stakeholders operating in public and private sector. The study will add to the pool of existing literature in the field of Manangement and Administration thus helping on bridging the gap between theoretical and practical literature on the effects of organizational justice perception on organizational citizenship behavior within organizations. The study will also enable the

researcher to better understand the research topic, test the hypotheses, analyze the findings and draw conclusions that can be used in his Professional career and also to fulfill the requirement for the award of Master Degree in Business Administration (MBA) at Selçuk University.

3.4. Limitations of the Study

As any Study, the researcher encountered some limitations while carrying out the study and among them include:

Resistance from respondents, there was some resistance by respondents to offer information which made data collection a challenge as they considered organizational justice as a very sensitive matter in their organizations. However, the researcher minimized this by ensuring that the explaining the purpose of study and what the data is intended for to the respondents before interviews commenced and questionnaires administered to them.

Financial constraint, funds were not readily available to the researcher to meet all the research costs involving transportation while carrying out the Study, printing and photocopying research materials. This slowed down the study though it did not affect the findings of the study.

Time constraint, the time that was given for the Study was limited because a lot of time was needed to comprehensively conduct the study which involved collecting and analyzing data, summarizing, analyzing findings and drawing constructive conclusions. This posed the biggest challenge to the researcher. However, this study was given the first priority.

Limited sources of secondary data relating to Study supplemented with language barrier as most of the scholastic materials like the school textbooks in the university library are written in Turkish language so the researcher had to rely more on Electronic Publications like Journals, Articles and Textbooks written in other languages.

3.5. Research Method

The research methodology that was used by the researcher in the study covered: Questionnaire Design, Sampling Design and Data Analysis.

3.5.1. Questionnaire Design

Since the variables under study are difficult to observe for an external observer, the author chose to use questionnaires in which participants assess their own perception of organizational justice and report their organizational citizenship behaviors, despite the limitations that this may create. With respect to organizational justice, a self-reported measure seems necessary since no one better than the individual can describe his or her own perception of organizational justice. However, in the case of organizational citizenship behaviors, some authors (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1993; Podsakoff et al., 2000) suggested that evaluations of organizational citizenship behaviors be made by other sources for example, immediate supervisor or co-workers (Henry, 2004: 66). However, if a peer assessment is chosen, it is also suggested that this evaluation be done by more than one co-worker. For this purpose, the use of several sources makes it possible to reduce the bias that are a result of self-reported evaluations and evaluations by the immediate supervisor. However, the authors noted that self-report assessment remains the most frequently used evaluation source. Notably, the use of multiple sources creates challenges for many researchers, such as the additional costs of sending and returning additional questionnaires and the difficulty of establishing a sample of participants. Due to the difficulties presented above and the time limits imposed for data collection, only self-reported measures were used for this study.

The questionnaire used in the research had three parts, in the first part of the questionnaire, participants were asked to identify demographic characteristics such as sex, marital status, age, education level and work experience obtained within the company.

In the second part, the perception of organizational justice was measured using a Turkish version of the Organizational Justice Scale of Niehoff and Moorman (1993: 541). The study of Niehoff and Moorman examined the justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. They collected the data from 213 employees and general managers of a national movie theater management company that operated 11 theaters in a large southwestern city. Results of structural equations modeling used to test direct and indirect relationships among the variables indicated that the monitoring method of observation negatively influenced citizenship but also had a positive influence through its effect on perceptions

of fairness. This Organizational Justice Scale is composed of 20 items evaluating, on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree 5 = strongly agree), the three dimensions of organizational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice and interactionnal justice. This scale also provides an overall measure of the perception of organizational justice. In fact, the total score was obtained by adding the scores to the 20 items of the Organizational Justice Scale. For this purpose, the possible score varied between 20 and 100. The distributive justice had five items with a score that varied between 5 and 25. Regarding the procedural justice, it had six items with a score that varied between 6 and 30. Interactional justice, on the other hand, had nine items. Thus, the possible score varied between 9 and 45. The questionnaire of the perception of organizational justice revealed good psychometric qualities. For the present study, it presented a Cronbach coefficient of 0.952 for the whole questionnaire. The questionnaire for the perception of organizational justice is presented in Appendix A.

In the third part, organizational citizenship behaviors were measured using the Turkish version of OCB Scale by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990: 121). The study of Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter examined the impact of transformational leader behaviors on organizational citizenship behaviors, and the potential mediating role played by subordinates' trust and satisfaction in that process. They collected the data from 988 exempt employees and supervisors of a large petrochemical company. The results indicate that the effects of the transformational leader behaviors on citizenship behaviors are indirect, rather than direct, in that they are mediated by followers' trust in their leaders. This OCB scale was composed of 24 items evaluating, on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree 5 = strongly agree), the five dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviors included: altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue. This scale also provided a comprehensive measure of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB-General). In fact, the total score was obtained by adding the scores to the 24 items of the OCB scale. For this purpose, the possible score varied between 24 and 120. The higher the score, the more likelihood the participant likely to help his organization and co-workers. The altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship dimensions each had five items. The possible scores for these dimensions varied between 5 and 25. The civic virtue dimension had four items. Thus, the possible score varied between 4 and 20. The questionnaire of behaviors of organizational citizenship revealed good psychometric

qualities. For the present study, it presented a Cronbach coefficient of 0.919 for the whole questionnaire. The questionnaire for organizational citizenship behaviors is presented in Appendix A.

3.5.2. Sampling Design

The research population consists of a total of 10000 employees working in 650 food and beverage industries in the city of Konya-Turkey. Since it is costly and takes a long time to reach the whole population, it was carried out in a sample that represents the study and the population. A random sampling method was applied for this study. Random sampling method is a preferred method because it allows rapid access to the database. During the data collection process (August-October 2017), a total of 600 sets of questionnaires were distributed to the employees of thirty-eight (38) industries and 543 questionnaires were collected. However, among these 543 questionnaires, 17 cases had high missing values or were considered not reliable by the author. As a result, only 526 respondents were set as the sample size in this study. This sample represents 5.26% of the total population of the sector. The survey was conducted in the workplaces where respondents could return the questionnaires immediately to the researcher.The voluntary nature of the participation was explained verbally as well as being indicated in the survey questionnaire. Employees were invited to complete an anonymous survey questionnaire that took approximately 20 minutes of their time to complete.

3.5.3. Analysis of the Data

The collected data were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program. Correlation, regression, T-test and ANOVA (variance) analyzes were also performed to test the developed research hypotheses. Descriptive statistics have also been used.

3.6. Validity and Reliability of the Study

Validity is the measure of a scale or a test that is to be measured, and it can be classified as content validity, structural validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity (Westen & Rosenthal, 2003: 608).

In this study, content validity was used to verify the validity of the questionnaire. Content validity is the assessment and evaluation of the scales of an

expert person. Here, the expert supervises whether or not the arranged scale-out statements covers the purpose (Yaghmale, 2009: 25).

The concept of reliability is important as it helps the researcher to determine the consistency of the questions in a test or questionnaire with each other and how the scale used reflects the problem of interest. In this study, the most widely used Cronbach Alpha (α) method was chosen for Likert scale questions to measure reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011: 53).

The Cronbach Alpha (α) coefficients which are the results of the reliability analysis of the scales used in the questionnaire are shown in the table below.

Table-3. 1. Results of the Reliability Analysis of The Used Scales

	Number of items	**Cronbach Alpha (α)**
Organizational Justice	**20**	**.952**
Distributive Justice	5	.895
Procedural Justice	6	.883
Interactional Justice	9	.931
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	**24**	**.919**
Altruism	5	.768
Courtesy	5	.838
Conscientiousness	5	.850
Sportsmanship	5	.916
Civic Virtue	4	.778

Reliability coefficients of the scales used in the research are shown in Table-3.1. Since the minimum level of reliability in social science research is considered to be 70%, it can be said that the level of reliability provided in research is high.

3.7. Hypothesis of the Study

The independent variable research is organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice), while the dependent variable is organizational citizenship behavior (Altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue).

The hypotheses of the research are as follows:

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between the employees' perception of distributive justice and organizational citizenship behavior.

H2: There is a significant positive relationship between the employees'' perception of procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior.

H3: There is a significant positive relationship between the employees'' perception of interactional justice and organizational citizenship behavior.

H4: There is a significant positive relationship between the employees'' perception of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior.

H5: Organizational citizenship behavior exhibits significant difference according to gender.

H6: Organizational citizenship behavior exhibits significant difference according to marital status.

H7: Organizational citizenship behavior exhibits significant difference according to age.

H8: Organizational citizenship behavior exhibits significant difference according to education level.

H9: Organizational citizenship behavior exhibits significant difference according to experience.

3.8. Research Findings

As a result of the research; demographic characteristics of participants, percentage distributions related to organizational justice and sub-dimensions, arithmetic mean values, percentage distributions and arithmetic mean values related to organizational citizenship behavior and sub-dimensions, correlation and regression analysis results, T test and ANOVA analysis results are explained below.

3.8.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

The study sought to analyse the gender composition of the respondents from various companies operating in the food and beverage sector in the province of Konya. Both male and female respondents were adequately represented as indicated in Table-3.2.

Table-3. 2. Distributions of Participants by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	434	82.5	82.5
Female	92	17.5	100.0
Total	526	100.0	

The findings from the analysis established that majority of the respondents were male with 82.5% (434 respondents) whereas 17.5% (92 respondents) of the respondent were female. This indicates that both genders were well represented in the study and thus the finding of the study did not suffer from gender bias.

The study also thought to establish the marital status distribution of the respondents and the table below shows the results from the study.

Table-3. 3. Distributions of Participants by Marital Status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Married	257	48.9	48.9
Single	269	51.1	100.0
Total	526	100.0	

The Table-3.3 revealed that 51.1% (269 respondents) of the participants are single and 48.9% (257 respondents) are married.

The study also thought to establish the age distribution of the respondents and the table below shows the results from the study.

Table-3. 4. Distributions of Participants by Age.

Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 18 years	8	1.5	1.5
18-27	161	30.6	32.1
28-35	232	44.1	76.2
36-49	96	18.3	94.5
50-65	23	4.4	98.9
More than 65 years	6	1.1	100.0
Total	526	100.0	

Findings from the study revealed that majority of the respondents were in the age bracket of 28-35 years with 44.1% (232 respondents), this was followed by respondents of 18-27 years with 30.6% (161 respondents), those in the 36-49 years were 18.3% (96 respondents), those in the 50-65 years were 4.4 % (23 respondants), those less than 18 years were 1.5 % (8 respondents) and finally those 65 years and above were 1.1% (6 respondents). Therefore, implies that majority of the respondents were at their maturity stage and therefore able to handle their roles responsibly.

The distribution level of education of respondents according to the analysis was shown as in Table-3.5.

Table-3. 5. Distributions of Participants by Education Level

Education Level	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Primary School	68	12.9	12.9
Secondary School	128	24.3	37.3
High School	123	23.4	60.6
Vocational High School	52	9.9	70.5
Associate Degree	73	13.9	84.4
Bachelor Degree	65	12.4	96.8
Master Degree	17	3.2	100.0
PhD	0	0.0	100.0
Total	526	100.0	

From the study findings, the majority of the respondents (24.3%; 128 respondents) indicated that they have finished Secondary School, this was followed with 23.4% (123 respondents) of the respondents who have finished High School. The findings also revealed that 73 respondents (13.9%) possess Associate Degree diploma, 68 respondents (12.9%) have finished Primary School, 65 respondents (12.4%) possess Bachelor Degree Diploma, 52 (9.9%) respondents possess Vocational High School diploma, 17 respondents (3.2%) possess Master Degree diploma and no respondent has a Ph. D degree.

The study also requested the respondents to indicate number of years worked in the differents companies. The results are shown in the table below.

Table-3. 6. Distributions of Participants by Experience

Work Experience	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than 1 year	122	23.2	23.2
1-3	120	22.8	46.0
4-6	128	24.3	70.3
7-9	48	9.1	79.5
10-15	93	17.7	97.1
16-20	13	2.5	99.6
More than 20 years	2	.4	100.0
Total	526	100.0	

The Table-3.6 revealed that 23.2% of the respondents have worked for less than a year, 22.8 % for 1-3 years, 24.3% for 4-6 years, 9.1 % for 7-9 years, 17.7% for 10-15 years, 2.5 % for 16-20 years and 0.4 % for those who worked for more than 20 years. Therefore, the majority of the respondents worked with the district for at least four years.

3.8.2. Percentage Distributions and Means of Organizational Justice and Sub-Dimensions

Percent distribution, standard deviation and arithmetic averages related to organizational justice and sub-dimensions such as distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice are indicated in the following tables.

Table-3. 7. Standard Deviation and Arithmetic Mean Values of Organizational Justice and Sub-Dimensions

Organizational Justice	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Distributive Justice	3.6734	.97074
Procedural justice	3.6746	.95341
Interactional justice	3.9394	.85411
Organizational Justice	3.7934	.81536

According to the findings in Table-3.7; Interactional justice was rank as the first with a mean of 3.9394 and a standard deviation of .85411, this was followed by Procedural justice with a mean of 3.6746 and a standard deviation of .95341, Distributive Justice was last with a mean of 3.6734 and a standard deviation of .97074. The mean of Organizational Justice was 3.7934 and the standard deviation .81536.

The Percentage distributions, the standart deviation and the arithmetic mean values of the distributive justice's items are indicated in the table below.

Table-3. 8. Percentage Distributions, Standard Deviation and Arithmetic Mean Values for Distributive Justice

"**Distributive Justice**" items	I Stongly disagree	I disagree	I am undecided	I agree	I Strongly agree	Mean	Standard deviation
	%	%	%	%	%		
1. My work schedule is fair.	5.9	7.8	18.3	41.8	26.2	3.75	1.107
2. I think that my level of pay is fair.	7.4	9.7	18.1	39.7	25.1	3.65	1.170
3. I consider my workload to be quite fair.	7.2	10.5	17.3	39.9	25.1	3.65	1.172
4. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	7.4	9.9	18.1	40.9	23.8	3.64	1.163
5. I feel that my job responsabilities are fair.	7.0	10.3	16.5	40.3	25.9	3.68	1.169

From the Table-3.8 above, the study findings sought to obtain the respondents' opinions on whether the work schedule was fair. The findings showed that 5.9%

Stongly disagreed, 7.8% Disagreed, 18.3% Undecided, 41.8% Agreed and 26.2% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.75 however there was deviation of 1.107 that work schedule was fair. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (41.8%) agreed that their work schedule was fair.

As to whether respondents think that their level of pay was fair, the findings indicated that 7.4% Stongly disagreed, 9.7% Disagreed, 18.1% Undecided, 39.7% Agreed and 25.1% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.65 however there was deviation of 1.170 that respondents think that their level of pay was fair. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (41.8%) agreed that their level of pay was fair.

Opinions of respondents were sought on whether they consider their workload to be quite fair. The findings revealed that 7.2% Stongly disagreed, 10.5% Disagreed, 17.3% Undecided, 39.9% Agreed and 25.1% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.65 however there was deviation of 1.172 that respondents consider their workload to be quite fair. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (39.9%) agreed that their workload was quite fair.

On the perception on whether overall, the rewards they received were quite fair, the findings revealed that 7.4% Stongly disagreed, 9.9% Disagreed, 18.1% Undecided, 40.9% Agreed and 23.8% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.64 however there was deviation of 1.163 that respondents consider that overall, the rewards they received were quite fair. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (40.9%) agreed that overall, the rewards they received were quite fair.

Regarding whether the respondents feel that their job responsabilities were fair, the findings revealed that 7.0% Stongly disagreed, 10.3% Disagreed, 16.5% Undecided, 40.3% Agreed and 25.9% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.68 however there was deviation of 1.169 that respondents consider that their job responsabilities were fair. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (40.3%) agreed that their job responsabilities were fair.

The Percentage distributions, the standart deviation and the arithmetic mean values of the procedural justice’s items are indicated in the table below.

Table-3. 9. Percentage Distributions, Standard Deviation and Arithmetic Mean Values for Procedural Justice

"**Procedural Justice**" items	I Stongly disagree	I disagree	I am undecided	I agree	I Strongly agree	Mean	Standard deviation
	%	%	%	%	%		
1. Job decisions are made by the supervisor in an unbiased manner.	6.3	8.9	21.1	33.1	30.6	3.73	1.170
2. My superviser makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	7.2	12.9	18.8	32.9	28.1	3.62	1.222
3. To make job decisions, my supervisor collects accurate and complete information.	7.2	10.1	20.5	31.9	30.2	3.68	1.208
4. My supervisor clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	6.3	9.1	21.1	32.9	30.6	3.72	1.172
5. All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.	7.2	10.1	20.5	31.7	30.4	3.68	1.210
6. Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the supervisor.	7.2	12.9	19.0	32.5	28.3	3.62	1.224

From the Table-3.9 above, the study findings indicated that 6.3% Stongly disagreed, 8.9% Disagreed, 21.1% Undecided, 33.1% Agreed and 30.6% Strongly agreed that job decisions were made by the supervisor in an unbiased manner. The table indicated a mean of 3.73 however there was deviation of 1.170 that respondents consider that job decisions were made by the supervisor in an unbiased manner. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (33.1%) agreed that job decisions were made by the supervisor in an unbiased manner.

Regarding the extent to which their superviser made sure that all employee concerns were heard before job decisions were made, the findings showed that 7.2% Stongly disagreed, 12.9% Disagreed, 18.8% Undecided, 32.9% Agreed and 28.1% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.62 however there was deviation of 1.222 that their superviser made sure that all employee concerns were heard before job decisions were made. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (32.9%) agreed that

their superviser made sure that all employee concerns were heard before job decisions were made.

The study assessed the respondents' views on whether to make job decisions, their supervisor collected accurate and complete information. The findings indicated that 7.2% Stongly disagreed, 10.1% Disagreed, 20.5% Undecided, 31.9% Agreed and 30.2% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.68 however there was deviation of 1.208 that to make job decisions, their supervisor collected accurate and complete information. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (31.9%) agreed that to make job decisions, their supervisor collected accurate and complete information.

The study sought to establish whether their supervisor clarified decisions and provided additional information when requested by employees. The findings indicated that 6.3% Stongly disagreed, 9.1% Disagreed, 21.1% Undecided, 32.9% Agreed and 30.6% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.72 however there was deviation of 1.172 that their supervisor clarified decisions and provided additional information when requested by employees. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (32.9%) agreed that their supervisor clarified decisions and provided additional information when requested by employees.

Respondents were asked whether all job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees. The findings showed that 7,2% Stongly disagreed, 10.1% Disagreed, 20.5% Undecided, 31.7% Agreed and 30.4% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.68 however there was deviation of 1.210 that all job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (31.7%) agreed that all job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.

On the perception on whether employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their supervisor, the findings revealed that 7.2% Stongly disagreed, 12.9% Disagreed, 19.0% Undecided, 32.5% Agreed and 28.3% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.62 however there was deviation of 1.224 that employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their supervisor. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (32.5%) agreed that employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their supervisor.

The Percentage distributions, the standart deviation and the arithmetic mean values of the interactional justice's items are indicated in the table below.

Table-3. 10. Percentage Distributions, Standard Deviation and Arithmetic Mean Values for Interactional Justice

"**Interactional Justice**" items	I Stongly disagree	I disagree	I am undecided	I agree	I Strongly agree	Mean	Standard deviation
	%	%	%	%	%		
1. When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor treats me with kindness and consideration.	3.4	7.0	20.9	31.7	36.9	3.92	1.078
2. When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor treats me with respect and dignity.	3.4	7.0	20.2	32.5	36.9	3.92	1.075
3. When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor is sensitive to my personal needs.	4.0	5.9	20.7	34.8	34.6	3.90	1.068
4. When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor deals with me in a truthful manner.	3.0	6.3	17.9	34.2	38.6	3.99	1.045
5. When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor shows concern for my rights as an employee.	3.8	7.2	20.5	34.0	34.4	3.88	1.081
6. Concerning decisions made about my job, the supervisor discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	3.2	6.3	19.4	35.2	35.9	3.94	1.046
7. The supervisor offers adequate justification for decisions made.	3.4	5.3	19.0	34.0	38.2	3.98	1.046
8. When making decisions about my job, the supervisor offers explanations that make sense to me.	3.2	8.0	19.6	32.3	36.9	3.92	1.082
9. My supervisor explains very clearly any decision made about my job.	3.2	6.3	17.7	32.9	39.9	4.00	1.058

Findings from the Table-3.10 above on when decisions were made about their job, whether the supervisor treated them with kindness and consideration. The study indicated that 3.4% Strongly disagreed, 7.0% Disagreed, 20.9% Undecided, 31.7% Agreed and 36.9% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.92, however, there was deviation of 1.078 that when decisions were made about their job, the supervisor treated them with kindness and consideration. Therefore, the majority of the

respondents (36.9%) strongly agreed that when decisions were made about their job, the supervisor treated them with kindness and consideration.

On ascertaining when decisions were made about their job, whether their supervisor treated them with respect and dignity, the findings indicated that 3.4% Stongly disagreed, 7.0% Disagreed, 20.2% Undecided, 32.5% Agreed and 36.9% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.92, however, there was deviation of 1.075 that when decisions were made about their job, their supervisor treated them with respect and dignity. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (36.9%) strongly agreed when decisions were made about their job, their supervisor treated them with respect and dignity.

Establishing when decisions were made about their job, whether the supervisor was sensitive to respondent's personal needs, the findings revealed that 4.0% Stongly disagreed, 5.9% Disagreed, 20.7% Undecided, 34.8% Agreed and 34.6% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.90, however, there was deviation of 1.068 that when decisions were made about their job, the supervisor was sensitive to respondent's personal needs. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (34.8%) agreed that when decisions were made about their job, the supervisor was sensitive to respondent's personal needs.

Determining when decisions were made about their job, whether the supervisor dealt with them in a truthful manner, the findings showed that 3.0% Stongly disagreed, 6.3% Disagreed, 17.9% Undecided, 34.2% Agreed and 38.6% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.99, however, there was deviation of 1.045 that respondents consider that when decisions were made about their job, the supervisor dealt with them in a truthful manner. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (38.6%) agreed that when decisions were made about their job, the supervisor dealt with them in a truthful manner.

Evaluating respondents' opinion when decisions were made about their job, whether the supervisor showed concern for respondent's rights as an employee, the study findings revealed that 3.8% Stongly disagreed, 7.2% Disagreed, 20.5% Undecided, 34.0% Agreed and 34.4% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.88, however, there was deviation of 1.081 that when decisions were made about their

job, the supervisor showed concern for respondent's rights as an employee. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (34.4%) strongly agreed that when decisions were made about their job, the supervisor showed concern for respondent's rights as an employee.

Regarding respondents' opinion concerning decisions made about their job, whether the supervisor discussed the implications of the decisions with them, the study revealed that 3.2% Stongly disagreed, 3.3% Disagreed, 19.4% Undecided, 35.2% Agreed and 35.9% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.94, however, there was deviation of 1.046 that concerning decisions made about their job, the supervisor discussed the implications of the decisions with them. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (35.9%) strongly agreed that concerning decisions made about their job, the supervisor discussed the implications of the decisions with them.

About whether the supervisor provided adequate justification for decisions made, the findings showed that 3.4% Stongly disagreed, 5.3% Disagreed, 19.0% Undecided, 34.0% Agreed and 38.2% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.98, however, there was deviation of 1.046 that the supervisor offered adequate justification for decisions made. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (38.2%) strongly agreed that the supervisor offered adequate justification for decisions made.

Analyzing when making decisions about their job, whether the supervisor offered explanations that made sense to them, the findings from the respondents revealed that 3.2% Stongly disagreed, 8.0% Disagreed, 19.6% Undecided, 32.3% Agreed and 36.9% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 3.92, however, there was deviation of 1.082 that when making decisions about their job, the supervisor offered explanations that made sense to them. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (36.9%) strongly agreed that when making decisions about their job, the supervisor offered explanations that made sense to them.

Assessing whether their supervisor explained very clearly any decision made about their job, the findings from the respondents indicated that 3.2% Stongly disagreed, 6.3% Disagreed, 17.7% Undecided, 32.9% Agreed and 39.9% Strongly agreed. The table indicated a mean of 4.0, however, there was deviation of 1.058 that their supervisor explained very clearly any decision made about their job. Therefore, the

majority of the respondents (39.9%) strongly agreed that their supervisor explained very clearly any decision made about their job.

3.8.3. Percentage Distributions and Means of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Sub-Dimensions

Percent distribution, standard deviation and arithmetic averages related to organizational citizenship behavior and sub-dimensions such as altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue are indicated in the following tables.

Table-3. 11. Standard Deviation and Arithmetic Mean Values of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Sub-Dimensions

Organizational Citizenship Behavior	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Altruism	3.7688	.80707
Courtesy	2.6833	1.22008
Conscientiousness	3.6156	.90669
Sportsmanship	3.8228	.88290
Civic Virtue	3.7457	.89966
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	3.5181	.70828

According to the findings in Table-3.11; Sportsmanship was rank as the first with a mean of 3.8228 and a standard deviation of .88290, this was followed by the Altruism with a mean of 3.7688 and a standard deviation of .80707, Civic Virtue came third with a mean of 3.7457 and a standard deviation of .89966, Conscientiousness came was fourth with a mean of 3.6156 and a standard deviation of .90669 and Courtesy was last and fifth a mean of 2.6833 and a standard deviation of 1.22008. The mean of Organizational Citizenship Behavior was 3.5181 and the standard deviation.70828.

The Percentage distributions, the standart deviation and the arithmetic mean values of the altruism behavior’s items are indicated in the table below.

Table-3. 12. Percentage Distributions, Standard Deviation and Arithmetic Mean Values for Altruism Behavior

"**Altruism**" items	I Stongly disagree	I disagree	I am undecided	I agree	I Strongly agree	Mean	Standard deviation
	%	%	%	%	%		
1. I help others who have heavy workloads.	5.7	8.2	18.6	41.4	26.0	3.74	1.105
2. I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.	7.0	8.7	19.8	35.2	29.3	3.71	1.180
3. I help others who have been absent.	3.6	8.2	19.8	34.6	33.8	3.87	1.083
4. I willingly help others who have work related problems.	3.4	6.8	17.9	35.9	35.9	3.94	1.058
5. I help to orient new people even though it is not required.	6.8	10.5	25.5	31.7	25.5	3.59	1.172

Findings from the Table-3.12 above on whether the respondents helped others who had heavy workloads, the findings from the respondents revealed that 5.7% stongly disagree, 8.2% disagree, 18.6% are undecided, 41.4% agree and 26.0% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.74, however, there was deviation of 1.105 that helped others who had heavy workloads. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (41.4%) agreed that they helped others who have heavy workloads.

Evaluating whether they were always ready to lend a helping hand to those around them, the findings from the respondents revealed that 7.0% stongly disagree, 8.7% disagree, 19.8% are undecided, 35.2% agree and 29.3% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.71, however, there was deviation of 1.180 that they were always ready to lend a helping hand to those around them. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (35.2%) agreed that they were ready to lend a helping hand to those around them.

Respondents were asked whether they helped others who had been absent and the findings from the respondents revealed that 3.6% stongly disagree, 8.2% disagree, 19.8% are undecided, 34.6% agree and 33.8% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.87, however, there was deviation of 1.083 that they helped others who had been absent. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (34.6%) agreed that they helped others who had been absent.

Responding to the question whether they were willingly help others who had work related problems, the responses from the respondents revealed that 3.4% stongly disagree, 6.8% disagree, 17.9% are undecided, 35.9% agree and 35.9% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.94, however, there was deviation of 1.058 that they were willingly help others who had work related problems. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (35.9%) agreed that they were willingly help others who had work related problems.

As to whether they helped to orient new people even though it is not required, the findings indicated that 6.8% stongly disagree, 10.5% disagree, 25.5% ar undecided, 31.7% agree and 25.5% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.59, however, there was deviation of 1.172 that they helped to orient new people even though it is not required. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (31.7%) agreed that they helped to orient new people even though it is not required.

The Percentage distributions, the standart deviation and the arithmetic mean values of the courtesy behavior's items are indicated in the table below.

Table-3. 13. Percentage Distributions, Standard Deviation and Arithmetic Mean Values for Courtesy Behavior

"**Courtesy**" items	I Stongly disagree	I disagree	I am undecided	I agree	I Strongly agree	Mean	Standard deviation
	%	%	%	%	%		
1. I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers.	7.4	10.1	16.5	39.9	26.0	3.67	1.179
2. I consider the impact of my actions on coworker	7.2	10.1	20.5	31.9	30.2	3.68	1.208
3. I do not abuse the rights of others.	4.0	6.3	20.5	34.8	34.4	3.89	1.073
4. I take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers.	4.0	6.8	18.6	34.4	36.1	3.92	1.085
5. I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs.	4.6	6.5	17.5	32.1	39.4	3.95	1.113

From the Table-3.13 above, the study findings sought to obtain the respondents' opinions on whether they tried to avoid creating problems for co-workers. The findings showed that 7.4% stongly disagree, 10.1% disagree, 16.5% are undecided, 39.9% agree and 26.0% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.67, however,

there was deviation of 1.179 that they tried to avoid creating problems for co-workers. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (39.9%) agreed that they tried to avoid creating problems for co-workers.

As to whether respondents considered their impact of my actions on coworker, the findings indicated that 7.2% stongly disagree, 10.1% disagree, 20.5% are undecided, 31.9% agree and 30.2% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.68, however, there was deviation of 1.208 that they considered their impact of my actions on coworker. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (31.9%) agreed that they considered their impact of theirs actions on coworkers.

Opinions of respondents were sought on whether they did not abuse the rights of others. The findings revealed that 4.0% strongly disagree, 6.3% disagree, 20.5% are undecided, 34.8% agree and 34.4% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.89, however, there was deviation of 1.073 that they did not abuse the rights of others. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (34.8%) agreed that they did not abuse the rights of others.

On the perception on whether they took steps to try to prevent problems with other workers, the findings revealed that 4.0% stongly disagree, 6.8% disagree, 18.6% are undecided, 34.4% agree and 36.1% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.92, however, there was deviation of 1.085 that they took steps to try to prevent problems with other workers. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (36.1%) strongly agreed that they took steps to try to prevent problems with other workers.

Regarding whether the respondents were mindful of how their behavior affected other people's jobs, the findings revealed that 4.6% strongly disagree, 6.5% disagree, 17.5% are undecided, 32.1% agree and 39.4% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.95, however, there was deviation of 1.113 that they were mindful of how their behavior affected other people's jobs. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (39.4%) strongly agreed that they were mindful of how their behavior affected other people's jobs.

The Percentage distributions, the standart deviation and the arithmetic mean values of the conscientiousness behavior's items are indicated in the table below.

Table-3. 14. Percentage Distributions, Standard Deviation and Arithmetic Mean Values for Conscientiousness Behavior

"**Conscientiousness**" items	I Stongly disagree	I disagree	I am undecided	I agree	I Strongly agree	Mean	Standard deviation
	%	%	%	%	%		
1. I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	7.0	10.5	16.9	40.1	25.5	3.67	1.169
2. My attendance at work is above the norm.	4.9	6.8	17.3	37.6	33.3	3.87	1.100
3. I do not take extra breaks.	9.9	13.7	25.1	29.7	21.7	3.40	1.242
4. I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.	5.9	7.8	26.8	36.1	23.4	3.63	1.101
5. I am one of the most conscientious employees.	6.7	9.7	29.8	33.7	20.2	3.51	1.117

From the Table-3.14 above, the study findings indicated that 7.0% strongly disagree, 10.5% disagree, 16.9% are undecided, 40.1% agree and 25.5% strongly agree believed in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay. The table indicated a mean of 3.67, however, there was deviation of 1.169 that they believed in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (40.1 %) agreed that they believed in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.

Regarding the extent to which their attendance at work is above the norm, the findings showed that 4.9% strongly disagree, 6.8% disagree, 17.3% are undecided, 37.6% agree and 33.3% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.87, however, there was deviation of 1.100 that their attendance at work is above the norm. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (37.6%) agreed that their attendance at work is above the norm.

The study assessed the respondents' views on whether they do not take extra breaks. The findings indicated that 9.9% strongly disagree, 13.7% disagree, 25.1% are undecided, 29.7% agree and 21.7% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.40, however, there was deviation of 1.242 that respondents consider that they do not take extra breaks. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (29.7%) agreed that they did not take extra breaks.

The study sought to establish whether they obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching. The findings indicated that 5.9% strongly disagree, 7.8% disagree, 26.8% are undecided, 36.1% agree and 23.4% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.63, however, there was deviation of 1.101 that they obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (36.1%) agreed that they obeyed to the company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.

Respondents were asked whether they were one of the most conscientious employees. The findings showed that 6.7% strongly disagree, 9.7% disagree, 29.8% are undecided, 33.7% agree and 20.2% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.51, however, there was deviation of 1.117 that respondents consider that they were one of the most conscientious employees. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (33.7%) agreed that they were ones of the most conscientious employees.

The Percentage distributions, the standart deviation and the arithmetic mean values of the sportsmanship behavior's items are indicated in the table below.

Table-3. 15. Percentage Distributions, Standard Deviation and Arithmetic Mean Values for Sportsmanship Behavior

"**Sportsmanship**" items	I Stongly disagree	I disagree	I am undecided	I agree	I Strongly agree	Mean	Standard deviation
	%	%	%	%	%		
1. I am the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing.	27.0	22.6	15.0	21.1	14.3	2.73	1.421
2. I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	26.8	24.1	14.6	20.5	13.9	2.71	1.411
3. I tend to make "mountains out of molehills".	28.5	24.7	13.3	20.2	13.3	2.65	1.415
4. I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.	25.9	23.0	16.7	20.2	14.3	2.74	1.404
5. I always find fault with what the organization is doing.	29.1	26.0	14.1	18.3	12.5	2.59	1.395

Findings from the table above on if the respondents were the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing indicated that, 27.0% strongly disagree, 22.6% disagree, 15.0% are undecided, 21.1% agree and 14.3% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 2.73, however, there was deviation of 1.421 that respondents

consider that they were the classic “squeaky wheel” that always needs greasing. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (27.0%) strongly disagreed that they were never the classic “squeaky wheel” that always needs greasing.

On ascertaining whether they consumed a lot of time complaining about trivial matters, the findings indicated that 26.8% strongly disagree, 24.1% disagree, 14.6% are undecided, 20.5% agree and 13.9% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 2.71, however, there was deviation of 1.411 that respondents consider that they consumed a lot of time complaining about trivial matters. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (26.8%) strongly disagreed that they consumed a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.

Establishing whether they tend to make “mountains out of molehills”, the findings revealed that 28.5% strongly disagree, 24.7% disagree, 13.3% are undecided, 20.2% agree and 13.3% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 2.65, however, there was deviation of 1.415 that they tend to make “mountains out of molehills”. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (28.5%) strongly disagreed that they tended to make “mountains out of molehills”.

Determining whether they always focus on what’s wrong, rather than the positive side, the findings showed that 25.9% strongly disagree, 23.0% disagree, 16.7% are undecided, 20.2% agree and 14.3% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 2.74, however, there was deviation of 1.404 that they always focus on what’s wrong, rather than the positive side. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (25.9%) strongly disagreed that they always focus on what’s wrong, rather than the positive side.

Evaluating respondents’ opinion on whether they always find fault with what the organization is doing, the study findings revealed that 29.1% strongly disagree, 26.0% disagree, 14.1% are undecided, 18.3% agree and 12.5% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 2.59, however, there was deviation of 1.395 that respondents consider that they always find fault with what the organization is doing. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (41.8%) strongly disagreed that they always found fault with what the organization is doing.

The Percentage distributions, the standart deviation and the arithmetic mean values of the civic virtue behavior’s items are indicated in the table below.

Table-3. 16. Percentage Distributions, Standart Deviation and Arithmetic Mean Values for Civic Virtue Behavior

"**Civic Virtue**" items	I Stongly disagree	I disagree	I am undecided	I agree	I Strongly agree	Mean	Standard deviation
	%	%	%	%	%		
1. I keep abreast of changes in the organization.	6.1	9.3	21.1	32.7	30.8	3.73	1.170
2. I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.	6.1	9.3	21.5	32.7	30.4	3.72	1.168
3. I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image.	7.2	12.5	19.0	32.9	28.3	3.63	1.220
4. I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.	3.4	7.4	20.9	31.4	36.9	3.91	1.085

Analyses from the Table-3.16 on whether respondents were able to keep abreast of changes in the organization indicated that 6.1% strongly disagree, 9.3% agree, 21.1% are undecided, 32.7% agree and 30.8% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.73, however, there was deviation of 1.170 that they were able to keep abreast of changes in the organization. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (32.7%) agreed that they kept abreast of changes in the organization.

Regarding respondents' opinion on whether they attended meetings that were not mandatory, but were considered important, the study revealed that 6.1% strongly disagree, 9.3% disagree, 21.5% are undecided, 32.7% agree and 30.4% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.72, however, there was deviation of 1.168 that they attended meetings that were not mandatory, but were considered important. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (32.7%) agreed that they attended meetings that were not mandatory, but were considered important.

About whether they attended functions that were not required, but helped the company image, the findings showed that 7.2% strongly disagree, 12.5% disagree, 19.0% are undecided, 32.9% agree and 28.3% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.63, however, there was deviation of 1.220 that they attended functions that were not required, but helped the company image. Therefore, the majority of the

respondents (32.9%) agreed that they attended functions that were not required, but helped the company image.

Analyzing whether they read and kept up with organization announcements, memos, and so on, the findings from the respondents revealed that 3.4% strongly disagree, 7.4% disagree, 20.9% are undecided, 31.4% agree and 36.9% strongly agree. The table indicated a mean of 3.91, however, there was deviation of 1.085 that respondents consider that they read and kept up with organization announcements, memos, and so on. Therefore, the majority of the respondents (36.9%) strongly agreed that they read and kept up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.

3.8.4. Correlation Analysis Results

According to Pearson correlation analysis result; it was determined that there was a positive and significant relationship between distributive justice dimension which is a sub-dimension of organizational justice and total organizational citizenship behavior (r = 0,783) at the level of 0,01 significance. Acting from this result, H1 was accepted. In addition, when the table is examined in terms of sub-dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior, it showed a positive directional and meaningful relationship between distributive justice and altruism (r = 0,707), courtesy (r = 0,323), sportsmanship (r = 0,698), conscientiousness (r = 0,688) and civic virtue (r = 0,637). Likewise, procedural justice was found to be positively and meaningfully related at the level of significance of 0.01 to the sub-dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior (altruism (r = 0,748), courtesy (r = 0,263), sportsmanship (r = 0,825), conscientiousness (0, 504) and civic virtue (r = 0,930)) and the total organizational citizenship behavior (0,818). In this context, H2 was supported. In addition, interactional justice was found to be positively and meaningfully related at the significance level of 0,01 to the sub-dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviors (altruism (r = 0,727), courtesy (r = 0,238), sportsmanship (r = 0,873), conscientiousness (0, 446) and civic virtue (r = 0,814)) and total organizational citizenship r = 0,776). According to these results, H3 was accepted. Moreover, it is understood from the research findings that there is a positive and meaningful relationship between total organizational justice and total organizational citizenship behavior (r = 0.886). In this context, H4 was supported.

Table-3. 17. Correlation Analyses Between the Variables

	Mean	**Std. Dev.**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.ORGANİZATİONAL JUSTİCE	3.7934	.81536	**(.952)**									
2.Distributive Justice	3.6734	.97074	.813**	**(.895)**								
3.Procedural Justice	3.6746	.95341	.923**	.681**	**(.883)**							
4.Interactional justice	3.9394	.85411	.921**	.586**	.785**	**(.931)**						
5.ORGANİZATİONAL CİTİZENSHİP BEHAVİOR	3.5181	.70828	.886**	.783**	.818**	.776**	**(.919)**					
6.Altruism	3.7688	.80707	.816**	.707**	.748**	.727**	.843**	**(.768)**				
7.Courtesy	2.6833	1.22008	.300**	.323**	.263**	.238**	.593**	.243**	**(.838)**			
8.Conscientiousness	3.6156	.90669	.592**	.688**	.504**	.446**	.729**	.625**	.211**	**(.850)**		
9.Sportsmanship	3.8228	.88290	.909**	.698**	.825**	.873**	.849**	.752**	.263**	.532**	**(.916)**	
10.Civic Virtue	3.7457	.89966	.899**	.637**	.930**	.814**	.814**	.739**	.243**	.472**	.823**	**(.778)**

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

As a result of this findings, it can be expressed that the inceasing of organizational justice and sub-dimensions will result into an increase in organizational citizenship behavior and sub-dimensions.

3.8.5. Regression Analysis Results

In this section simple and multiple regression analysis will be performed to determine the level of the influence between the variables .

3.8.5.1. Simple Regression Analysis Results

The results of simple regression analysis conducted to determine the level of the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behavior are summarized in the Table-3.18 below:

Table-3. 18. Regression Analysis Results of Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Terms of Organizational Justice

Independent Variables	**β**	**Standard Error**	**t values**	**Sig.**
Constant	.600	.068		
Organizational Justice	.769	.018	43.634	.000
F			1903.888	
Adjusted R^2			.784	
R^2			.784	
Std. Error of the Estimate			.32936	
Significance			.000	

Dependant Variable: **Organizational Citizenship Behavior**
* p<0,01

Simple regression analysis was applied to determine the effect of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behavior. It was found that organizational justice affects positively organizational citizenship behavior (β = 0,769). When the researcher examined the results of the regression analysis according to Table-3.18, it can be stated that the model as a whole is meaningful (Adjusted R^2 = 0.784, p <0.01). In this context, it can be stated that 78.4% of the change in organizational citizenship behavior is explained by organizational justice.

3.8.5.2. Multiple Regression Analysis Results

The results of multiple regression analysis conducted to determine the level of the influence of organizational justice sub-dimensions on organizational citizenship behavior are summarized in the Table-3.19 below:

Table-3. 19. Regression Analysis Results of Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Terms of Organizational Justice Dimensions

Independent Variables	β	Standard Error	t values		Sig.
Constant	.630	.069			
Distributive Justice	.287*	.020	14.538*		.000
Procedural Justice	.236*	.026	8.997*		.000
Interactional Justice	.245*	.027	9.225*		.000
F				684.560	
Adjusted R^2				.796	
R^2				.797	
Std. Error of the Estimate				.31977	
Significance				.000	

Dependant Variable: **Organizational Citizenship Behavior**
* p<0,01

Multiple regression analysis was applied to determine the effect of organizational justice sub-dimensions on organizational citizenship behavior. When sub-dimensions of organizational justice listed as distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice were considered as independent variables; it was found that dimensions of distributive justice (β = 0,287), procedural justice (β = 0,236) and interactional justice (β = 0,245) positively affect organizational citizenship behavior. When the researcher examined the results of the regression analysis according to Table-3.15, it can be stated that the model as a whole is meaningful (Adjusted R^2 = 0.796, p <0.01). In this context, it can be stated that 79.6% of the change in organizational citizenship behavior is explained by independent variables. It was determined that distributive justice (β = 0.287) among these independent variables had the highest level of effect on the change in organizational citizenship behavior. Similarly, interactional justice (β = 0.245) and procedural justice (β = 0.236) dimensions are also determinants in terms of organizational citizenship behavior.

The results of multiple regression analysis conducted to determine the level of influence of organizational justice sub-dimensions on altruism behavior are summarized in the Table-3.20 below:

Table-3. 20. Regression Analysis Results of Altruism Behavior in Terms of Organizational Justice Dimensions.

Independent Variables	β	Standard Error	t values		Sig.
Constant	.718	.099			
Distributive Justice	.281	.029	9.792		.000
Procedural Justice	.229	.038	6.001		.000
Interactional Justice	.299	.039	7.766		.000
F				355.137	
Adjusted R^2				.669	
R^2				.671	
Std. Error of the Estimate				.46414	
Significance				.000	

Dependant Variable: **Altruism**
* p<0,01

Multiple regression analysis was applied to determine the effect of organizational justice sub-dimensions on altruism behavior. When sub-dimensions of organizational justice listed as distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice were considered as independent variables; it was found that dimensions of distributive justice (β = 0,281), procedural justice (β = 0,229) and interactional justice (β = 0,299) positively affect altruism behavior. When the researcher examined the results of the regression analysis according to Table-3.15, it can be stated that the model as a whole is meaningful (Adjusted R^2 = 0.669, p <0.01). In this context, it can be stated that 66.9% of the change in altruism behavior is explained by independent variables. It was determined that the interactional justice (β = 0.422) among these independent variables had the highest level of effect on the change in altruism behavior. Similarly, distributive justice (β = 0.281) and procedural justice (β = 0.229) dimensions are also determinants in terms of altruism behavior.

The results of the multiple regression analysis conducted to determine the level of influence of organizational justice sub-dimensions on courtesy behavior are summarized in the Table-3.21 below:

Table-3. 21. Regression Analysis Results of Courtesy Behavior in Terms of Organizational Justice Dimensions

Independent Variables	β	Standard Error	t values		Sig.
Constant	.026	.077			
Distributive Justice	.181	.022	8.110		.000
Procedural Justice	.233	.030	7.861		.000
Interactional Justice	.578	.030	19.335		.000
F				875.992	
Adjusted R^2				.833	
R^2				.834	
Std. Error of the Estimate				.36044	
Significance				.000	

Dependant Variable: **Courtesy**
* p<0,01

Multiple regression analysis was applied to determine the effect of organizational justice sub-dimensions on courtesy behavior. When sub-dimensions of organizational justice listed as distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice were considered as independent variables; it was found that dimensions of distributive justice (β = 0,181), procedural justice (β = 0,233) and interactional justice (β = 0,578) positively affect courtesy behavior. When the researcher examined the results of the regression analysis according to Table-3.15, it can be stated that the model as a whole is meaningful (Adjusted R^2 = 0.833, p <0.01). In this context, it can be stated that 83.3% of the change in courtesy behavior is explained by independent variables. It was determined that the interactional justice (β = 0.578) among these independent variables had the highest level of effect on the change in courtesy behavior. Similarly, procedural justice (β = 0.233) and distributive justice (β = 0.181) dimensions are also determinants in terms of courtesy behavior.

The results of the multiple regression analysis conducted to determine the level of influence of organizational justice sub-dimensions on conscientiousness behavior are summarized in the Table-3.22 below:

Table-3. 22. Regression Analysis Results of Conscientiousness Behavior in Terms of Organizational Justice Dimensions

Independent Variables	β	Standard Error	t values		Sig.
Constant	1.119	.141			
Distributive Justice	.597	.041	14.685		.000
Procedural Justice	.032	.054	.598		.550
Interactional Justice	.047	.055	.862		.389
F				158.409	
Adjusted R^2				.474	
R^2				.477	
Std. Error of the Estimate				.65787	
Significance				.000	

Dependant Variable: **Conscientiousness**
* p<0,01

Multiple regression analysis was applied to determine the effect of organizational justice sub-dimensions on conscientiousness behavior. When sub-dimensions of organizational justice listed as distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice were considered as independent variables; it was found that dimensions of distributive justice (β = 0,597), procedural justice (β = 0,032) and interactional justice (β = 0,047) positively affect conscientiousness behavior. When the researcher examined the results of the regression analysis according to Table-3.15, it can be stated that the model as a whole is meaningful (Adjusted R^2 = 0.474, p <0.01). In this context, it can be stated that 47.4% of the change in conscientiousness behavior is explained by independent variables. It was determined that the distributive justice (β = 0.597) among these independent variables had the highest level of effect on the change in organizational citizenship behavior. On the other hand, interactional justice (β = 0.047) and procedural justice (β = 0.032) dimensions have no significant effect on conscientiousness behavior.

The results of the multiple regression analysis conducted to determine the level of influence of organizational justice sub-dimensions on sportsmanship behavior are summarized in the Table-3.23 below:

Table-3. 23. Regression Analysis Results of Sportsmanship Behavior in Terms of Organizational Justice Dimensions

Independent Variables	β	Standard Error	t values	Sig.
Constant	.986	.248		
Distributive Justice	.330	.071	4.628	.000
Procedural Justice	.063	.095	.663	.508
Interactional Justice	.064	.096	.668	.504
F			21.151	
Adjusted R^2			.103	
R^2			.108	
Std. Error of the Estimate			1.15537	
Significance			.000	

Dependant Variable: **Sportsmanship**
* p<0,01

Multiple regression analysis was applied to determine the effect of organizational justice sub-dimensions on sportsmanship behavior. When sub-dimensions of organizational justice listed as distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice were considered as independent variables; it was found that dimensions of distributive justice (β = 0,330), procedural justice (β = 0,063) and interactional justice (β = 0,064) positively affect sportsmanship behavior. When the researcher examined the results of the regression analysis according to Table-3.15, it can be stated that the model as a whole is meaningful (Adjusted R^2 = 0.103, p <0.01). In this context, it can be stated that 10.3% of the change in sportsmanship behavior is explained by independent variables. It was determined that the distributive justice (β = 0.330) among these independent variables had the highest level of effect on the change in sportsmanship behavior. On the other hand, interactional justice (β = 0.064) and procedural justice (β = 0.063) dimensions have no significant effect on sportsmanship behavior.

The results of the multiple regression analysis conducted to determine the level of influence of organizational justice sub-dimensions on civic virtue behavior are summarized in the Table-3.24 below:

Table-3. 24. Multiple Regression Analysis Results of Civic Virtue Behavior in Terms of Organizational Justice Dimensions

Independent Variables	β	Standard Error	t values		Sig.
Constant	.220	.066			
Distributive Justice	-.012	.019	-.654		.513
Procedural Justice	.722	.025	28.465		.000
Interactional Justice	.233	.026	9.093		.000
F				1311.574	
Adjusted R^2				.882	
R^2				.883	
Std. Error of the Estimate				.30878	
Significance				.000	

Dependant Variable: **Civic Virtue**

* p<0,01

Multiple regression analysis was applied to determine the effect of organizational justice sub-dimensions on civic virtue behavior. When sub-dimensions of organizational justice listed as distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice were considered as independent variables; it was found that dimensions of procedural justice (β = 0,722) and interactional justice (β = 0,233) positively affect civic virtue behavior. When the researcher examined the results of the regression analysis according to Table-3.15, it can be stated that the model as a whole is meaningful (Adjusted R^2 = 0.882, p <0.01). In this context, it can be stated that 88.2% of the change in civic virtue behavior is explained by independent variables. It was determined that the procedural Justice (β = 0.722) among these independent variables had the highest level of effect on the change in organizational citizenship behavior. Similarly, interactional Justice (β = 0.233) dimension is also determinants in terms of civic virtue behavior. On the other hand, it has been found that the distributive justice has no significant effect on civic virtue behavior.

3.8.6. Results of the Analysis of Diversity according to Demographic Characteristics

It is necessary to give information about the statistical methods used in the analysis on whether the level of organizational citizenship behavior of the participants showed a meaningful difference according to the demographic characteristics.

The T test analysis is used to investigate whether there is a difference between the two sample groups in terms of averages. There are three types of T-tests, one-

sample t-test, independent samples t-test, and paired samples t-test to examine differences between the two matched groups (Kaplan, 2010: 151). The T test is only suitable for examining differences between two group averages. However, in practice it may be necessary to compare the average of more than one group. In such cases, the appropriate test that can be used is the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test.

3.8.6.1. T-Test Analysis Results

The T test was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference between the organizational citizenship behaviors in terms of the gender and marital status of the respondants.

Table-3.25 shows the results of the T test conducted to determine the difference between the organizational citizenship behavior according to gender.

Table-3. 25. T Test Results According to Gender Variation in Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Demographic characteristic	Dependant Variable	Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t	df	Sig.
						F	Sig.			
Gender	Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Male	3.50	0.72067	Equal	1.151	0.284	-1.100	524	0.272
		Female	3.59	0.64519	Not Equal			-1.182	143.39	

As seen in Table 3.25; there was no statistically significant difference between the organizational citizenship behaviors (p = 0,610> 0,05) according to the gender of the respondents who answered the questionnaire. H5 was rejected in this context.

Table-3.26 shows the results of the T test conducted to determine the difference between the organizational citizenship behavior according to marital status.

Table-3. 26. T Test Results According to Marital Status Variation in Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

Demographic characteristic	Dependant Variable	Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t	df	Sig.
						F	Sig.			
Marital Status	Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Married	3.54	0.73753	Equal	2.673	0.103	0.719	524	0.473
		Single	3.50	0.67983	Not Equal			0.717	515.70	

As seen in Table 3.26, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference between the organizational citizenship behaviors according to the marital status of the employees who answered the questionnaire (p = 0.087> 0.05). Moving from this finding, H6 was rejected.

3.8.6.2. ANOVA Analysis Results

"ANOVA" analysis was applied to determine whether there is a significant difference between organizational citizenship behaviors according to age, level of education and experience in companies.

The results of the ANOVA analysis that was conducted in order to determine the differences between the organizational citizenship behaviors in term of age of the employees participating in the survey are given in the Table-3.27 below:

Table-3. 27. ANOVA Test between Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Terms of Age Range

	Variance Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	**Between Groups**	5	1.220	0.244	0.484	0.788
	Within Groups	520	262.154	0.504		
	Total	525	263.374			

When Table-3.27 is examined (P>0.05), It can be stated that organizational citizenship behavior does not differ significantly according to Age. H7 has been rejected in this context.

ANOVA analysis results are presented in Table-3.28 in order to determine the differences between organizational citizenship behaviors in terms of educational status of the workers who are subject to the research.

Table-3. 28. ANOVA Test between Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Terms of Education Level Range

	Variance Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	**Between Groups**	6	24.089	4.015	8.708	.000
	Within Groups	519	239.285	.461		
	Total	525	263.374			

When Table-3.28 is examined (P<0.05), It can be stated that organizational citizenship behavior differ significantly according to education level. H8 is supported in this context.

ANOVA analysis results are presented in Table-3.29 in order to determine the differences between organizational citizenship behaviors in terms of the experience of the employees who are subject to the research.

Table-3. 29. ANOVA Test between Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Terms of Experience Range

	Variance Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	**Between Groups**	6	5.461	.910	1.831	.091
	Within Groups	519	257.913	.497		
	Total	525	263.374			

When Table-3.29 is examined (P>0.05), It can be stated that organizational citizenship behavior does not differ significantly according to experience. H9 has been rejected in this context.

The results of the 10 hypothesis developed are summarized in table-3.30.

Table-3. 30. Results of the Analysis Related to the Hypothesis

HYPOTHESIS	RESULT
H1: There is a significant positive relationship between the employees' perception of distributive justice and organizational citizenship behavior.	ACCEPTED
H2: There is a significant positive relationship between the employees'' perception of procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior.	ACCEPTED
H3: There is a significant positive relationship between the employees'' perception of interactional justice and organizational citizenship behavior.	ACCEPTED
H4: There is a significant positive relationship between the employees'' perception of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior.	ACCEPTED
H5: Organizational citizenship behavior exhibits significant difference according to gender.	REJECTED
H6: Organizational citizenship behavior exhibits significant difference according to marital status.	REJECTED
H7: Organizational citizenship behavior exhibits significant difference according to age.	REJECTED
H8: Organizational citizenship behavior exhibits significant difference according to education level.	ACCEPTED
H9: Organizational citizenship behavior exhibits significant difference according to experience.	REJECTED

3.9. Discussion of the Results

This chapter presents the discussion of the results in relation to the various questions of the study. The questions that guided this research are as follows: (1) In the food and beverage sector, is there a significant relationship between the perception of organizational justice and its dimensions and organizational citizenship behavior of employees? (2) In the food sector, do organizational citizenship behavior exhibit a significant difference according to demographic characteristics? More specifically, the author to examine whether the dimensions of the perception of organizational justice, namely distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice were related to organizational citizenship behaviors among employees working in the food and beverage sector in the city of Konya in Turkey. On the other hand, to examine whether organizational citizenship behaviors show a significant difference according to demographic characteristics such as gender, marital status, age, level of education and work experience.

In this research, the relationship between the perception of organizational justice and the organizational citizenship behavior of employees working in the food sector and beverage of Konya City in Turkey was analyzed by using the questionnaire method. According to the results of the analysis, among the dimensions of organizational justice, the interactional justice has the highest mean with a value of 3.9394, it is immediately followed by procedural justice with a mean of 3.6746 and finally the justice distributive with a mean of 3.6734. The overall mean of organizational justice was set at 3.7934. Regarding the dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior, sportsmanship behavior possesses the highest mean with a value of 3.8228, this was followed by altruism behavior with a mean of 3.7688, civic virtue behavior with a mean of 3.7457, conscientiousness behavior with a mean of 3.6156 and finally courtesy behavior with a mean of 2.6833. The overall mean of organizational citizenship behavior was 3.5181.

Whether the results obtained for this study answer to the first research question, the answer was affirmative. The results showed an existence of a positive and significant relationship between the perception of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors. The coefficient of correlation obtained for this relationship was $r=0.886$ ($p <.001$). These results are comparable to those obtained by

several studies including those Sökmen, Şahal, and Söylemez (2015), Demirkiran, Taskaya, and Dinc (2016b) et de Chegini (2009) whose results were between 0.431 and 0.851. In this context, an improvement in employees' perception of organizational justice results in an increase in their organizational citizenship behavior.

As a result of the simple regression analysis performed to determine the effect of organizational justice' perception on organizational citizenship behavior, it was revealed that organizational justice ($\beta = 0.769$) positively influenced organizational citizenship behavior. These results support those of Ali et al. (2012), of Banerjee and Banerjee (2013), and those of Farahbod, Azadehdel, Rezaei-Dizgah, and Nejhadi-Jirdehi (2012).

Correlation analysis was also used to help determine the relationship between the dimensions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. It was found out that there was a positive and significant relationship between the sub-dimensions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. The study revealed that, procedural justice indicated the highest degree of correlation ($r = 0.818$, $p < .001$), followed by distributive justice ($r = 0.783$, $p < .001$) and finally interactional justice ($r = 0.776$, $p < .001$). These results support those of Chegini (2009), de Mahfuz Judeh (2012) and those of Ali et al. (2012).

As a result of the multiple regression analysis performed to determine the effect of organizational justice sub-dimensions on the behavior of organizational citizenship; It has been determined that distributive justice ($\beta = 0.287$), procedural justice ($\beta = 0.236$) and interactional justice ($\beta = 0.245$) have a positive influence on the behavior of organizational citizenship. These results support those of the study of Yüksel (2015).

The T-test and ANOVA analysis were used to determine whether Organizational citizenship behaviors exhibited significant difference according to demographic characteristics; it was revealed that organizational citizenship behavior does not exhibit a significant difference according to gender, marital status, age, and experience. However, organizational citizenship behavior exhibited a significant difference according to educational level.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Industrial organizations face to enormous challenges. They have to juggle tighter budgets as well as continuously adapting to external environment components such as technological changes and the opening of global markets. In order to keep up, industrial organizations must be able to count on the willingness of employees to perform tasks that are not required by them or the organization or actions that may be associated with organizational citizenship behaviors. It appears that employees' perceptions of injustice can be expressed by reducing or withdrawing their participation in activities associated with organizational citizenship behaviors, claiming that they are not part of their task. Literature supports the link between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors for various types of organizations. It was deemed important to check whether these results applied equally to employees working in the food and beverage sector.

This research was primarily based on Organ (1988)' Theory of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and various theories of organizational justice. The theoretical framework, as well as the literature, review showed significant links between the perception of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior.

The purpose of this study was, therefore, to verify, among employees in the food industry, the existence of a relationship between the perception of organizational justice and its sub-dimensions and organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, also to determine if the behavior of organizational citizenship behavior exhibit a significant difference according to demographic characteristics.

The sample consists of 526 employees from food industries in the city of Konya in Turkey. The measuring instrument consists of three parts: a Turkish version of OCB Scale of Podsakoff et al. (1990) and a Turkish version of the organizational Justice Scale of Weiss et al. (1967) and a personal information sheet.

The results showed that the three dimensions of organizational justice have a positive relationship with organizational citizenship behavior. These dimensions were the distributive justice ($r = 0.783$, $p < .001$), procedural justice ($r = 0.818$, $p < .001$) and interactional justice ($r = 0.776$, $p < .001$). Correlation analysis also revealed a positive and significant relationship between perception of organizational justices and

organizational citizenship behavior of ($r = 0.776$, $p < .001$). The results of the T-test and ANOVA analyzes revealed that organizational citizenship behavior does not exhibit there a significant difference according to gender, marital status, age and experience. However, it exhibits a significant according to the level of education.

At the end of this research, several future research tracks emerge to reinforce the knowledge of relations in our two sub-models.

We hope that future research will further investigate the direct relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior at work in other sectors of activity than those analyzed in this research in order to validate and generalize our theoretical contribution.

Ultimately, knowing the positive consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors on organizations, managers should pay attention to the work environment by improving organizational justice processes to improve employee engagement in citizenship behaviors. Developing more justice and fostering engagement will foster the emergence of different forms of organizational citizenship behaviors at work. We also know that organizational citizenship behaviors are fundamental to prevent certain workplace degradations. Organizational citizenship behaviors of employees are real protective factors against harassment at work. Fostering climate change and policies that focus too much on earnings, performance and promoting more equitable management should lead to increased feelings of justice. Indeed, our research allows us to underline the interest of the quality of the social exchanges within an organization. It is important that the communication between the different actors of the life of an organization is established so that everyone can express himself correctly, without detour and with consideration and respect for the other. Such a quality of communication would tend to lessen the tensions due to the different forms of injustice of organizational life and to improve relations with others and the general efficiency of the company. In particular, developing strong organizational justice could reduce daily stress and aggression and foster the emergence of organizational citizenship behaviors. Because as we have seen through our research, engaging in interpersonal justice behaviors would "recharge" the resources of the actors, who in turn will help fuel their organizational citizenship behaviors.

REFERENCES

Abd-Alla, O. M. Z. (2016). The Relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Employee Engagement in Cement Industry in Egypt. CAIRO UNIVERSITY.

Abubakar, A., Fischer, R., & Arasa, J. (2013). The effects of organizational practices and social norms on self-reported extra-role work behaviour and mental health. African Journal of Business Management, 7(23), 2226.

Ackfeldt, A.-L., & Coote, L. V. (2005). A study of organizational citizenship behaviors in a retail setting. Journal of business research, 58(2), 151-159.

Agassi, J. B. (1982). Comparing the work attitudes of women and men: IICA.

Al-Zu'bi, H. A. (2010). A study of relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction. International Journal of Business and Management, 5(12), 102-109.

Al-Zu'bi, H. A. (2011). Organizational citizenship behavior and impacts on knowledge sharing: An empirical study. International business research, 4(3), 221.

Alahakone, M. R., & Shingi, P. (2014). Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Motives and Strategic Potential.

Alexander, S., & Ruderman, M. (1987). The role of procedural and distributive justice in organizational behavior. Social Justice Research, 1(2), 177-198.

Ali, S. Z., Manzoor, H., Rashid, M., & Ahmad, W. Impact of Organizational Justice on Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Case Study of PTCL, Pakistan.

Ali, S. Z., Manzoor, H., Rashid, M., & Ahmad, W. (2012). Impact of Organizational Justice on Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Case Study of PTCL, Pakistan.

Alkahtani, A. (2015). Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and rewards. International business research, 8(4), 210.

Ambrose, M., Hess, R. L., & Ganesan, S. (2007). The relationship between justice and attitudes: An examination of justice effects on event and system-related attitudes. Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 103(1), 21-36.

Ariani, D. W. (2014). Relationship leadership, employee engagement, and organizational citizenship behavior. International Journal of Business and Social Research, 4(8), 74-90.

Aryee, S., Budhwar, P. S., & Chen, Z. X. (2002). Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organizational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. Journal of organizational Behavior, 23(3), 267-285.

Ata, K. M. A.-H. D., Al Shra'ah, E., & Rumman, M. A. A. (2013). The Impact of the Organizational Justice on the Development of the Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Jordanian Press Organizations.

Awang, R., & Ahmad, W. M. R. W. (2015). The impact of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behavior in Malaysian higher education. Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 6(5), 674.

Babar, N., Sohaib Ahmed, S., Hafiz Mushtaq, A., & Ajmal, W. (2014). Hybrid leadership and Employees Capacity building International Journal of Scientific & Engineering Research, 5(12), 9.

Bağcı, Z. (2013). Çalışanların örgütsel adalet algılarının örgütsel bağlılıkları üzerindeki etkisi: tekstil sektöründe bir inceleme. Uluslararası Yönetim İktisat ve İşletme Dergisi, 9(19), 163-184.

Banerjee, R., & Banerjee, S. (2013). A study of perceived organizational justice, trust and organisational citizenship behaviour. IOSR Journal of Business and Management, 12(4), 36-43.

Barnes, C. M., Ghumman, S., & Scott, B. A. (2013). Sleep and organizational citizenship behavior: The mediating role of job satisfaction. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 18(1), 16.

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship". Academy of management Journal, 26(4), 587-595.

Becker, L. C. (2005). Reciprocity, justice, and disability. Ethics, 116(1), 9-39.

Bedarkar, M., & Pandita, D. (2014). A study on the drivers of employee engagement impacting employee performance. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 133, 106-115.

Bennett, W., Lance, C. E., & Woehr, D. J. (2014). Performance measurement: Current perspectives and future challenges: Psychology Press.

Beugr, C. D. (2002). Understanding organizational justice and its impact on managing employees: An African perspective. International Journal of Human Resource Management, 13(7), 1091-1104.

Bies, R. J. (1986). Interactional justice The Oxford Handbook of Justice in the Workplace.

Bies, R. J. (2001). Interactional (in) justice: The sacred and the profane. Advances in organizational justice, 89118.

Bies, R. J., Greenberg, J., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). Interactional (in) justice: The sacred and the profane. Advances in organizational justice, 89118.

Bies, R. J., & Shapiro, D. L. (1988). Voice and justification: Their influence on procedural fairness judgments. Academy of management Journal, 31(3), 676-685.

Bittner, E. (1965). The concept of organization. Social research, 239-255.

Blanken, B. (2012). The Good Liberal Citizen : Why Citizens can be both Free and Virtuous.

Bobocel, D. R., & Zdaniuk, A. (2005). How can explanations be used to foster organizational justice. Handbook of organizational justice, 1, 469-498.

Bonaparte Jr, W. (2008). The impact of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational commitment on organizational performance: Nova Southeastern University.

Boundenghan, M. C. (2014). Comment encourager les comportements prosociaux ou citoyens au travail: le rôle des inducteurs organisationnels et individuels. Université Charles de Gaulle-Lille III.

Bozeman, D. P., & Perrewé, P. L. (2001). The effect of item content overlap on Organizational Commitment Questionnaire–turnover cognitions relationships. Journal of applied psychology, 86(1), 161.

Brockner, J., DeWitt, R. L., Grover, S., & Reed, T. (1990). When it is especially important to explain why: Factors affecting the relationship between managers' explanations of a layoff and survivors' reactions to the layoff. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 26(5), 389-407.

Brockner, J., Konovsky, M., Cooper-Schneider, R., Folger, R., Martin, C., & Bies, R. J. (1994). Interactive effects of procedural justice and outcome negativity on victims and survivors of job loss. Academy of management Journal, 37(2), 397-409.

Brockner, J., & Wiesenfeld, B. (2005). How, when, and why does outcome favorability interact with procedural fairness?

Buckley, M. R., Wheeler, A. R., & Halbesleben, J. R. B. (2015). Research in personnel and human resources management. Volume 33 Volume 33.

Byrne, Z. S., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). The history of organizational justice: The founders speak. Justice in the workplace: From theory to practice, 2(1), 3-26.
Çakır, Ö. (2006). Ücret adaletinin iş davranışları üzerindeki etkileri: KAMU-İŞ.
Campbell, R. L. (2006). Altruism inAuguste Comte and Ayn Rand. The Journal of Ayn Rand Studies, 7, 13.
Capaldi, N. (2002). The Meaning of Equality. Liberty and Equality, 1-33.
Çelik, M. (2007). Örgüt Kültürü ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı-bir uygulama. Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi. Atatürk Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
Çelik, M., & Sarıtürk, M. (2012). Organizational Justice And Motivation Relationship: The Case Of Adiyaman University.
Chan, M. (2000). Organizational justice theories and landmark cases. The International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 8(1), 68-88.
Chang, C.-C., & Dubinsky, A. J. (2005). Organizational justice in the sales force: A literature review with propositions. Journal of Business-to-Business Marketing, 12(1), 35-71.
Chang, E. (2002). Distributive justice and organizational commitment revisited: Moderation by layoff in the case of Korean employees. Human Resource Management, 41(2), 261-270.
Chegini, M. G. (2009). The relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. American Journal of Economics and Business Administration, 1(2), 173.
Chèvrefils, M.-H. (2013). Étude longitudinale du lien entre la justice organisationnelle et le niveau d'engagement organisationnel chez les travailleurs du secteur des technologies de l'information et des communications.
Cho, S., & Johanson, M. M. (2008a). Organizational citizenship behavior and employee performance: A moderating effect of work status in restaurant employees. Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research.
Cho, S., & Johanson, M. M. (2008b). Organizational citizenship behavior and employee performance: A moderating effect of work status in restaurant employees. Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 32(3), 307-326.
Chroust, A.-H., & Osborn, D. L. (1941). Aristotle's conception of justice. Notre Dame Law., 17, 129.
Cihangiroğlu, N., & Yılmaz, A. (2010). Çalışanların örgütsel adalet algılarının örgüt için önemi. SÜ İİBF Sosyal ve Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi, 19, 196-212.
Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 86(2), 278-321.
Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: a construct validation of a measure. Journal of applied psychology, 86(3), 386.
Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: a meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research: American Psychological Association.
Colquitt, J. A., Greenberg, J., & Zapata-Phelan, C. P. (2005). What is organizational justice? A historical overview. Handbook of organizational justice, 1, 3-58.
Colquitt, J. A., & Rodell, J. B. (2015). Measuring justice and fairness. Oxford handbook of justice in the workplace, 187-202.
Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Rodell, J. B., Long, D. M., Zapata, C. P., Conlon, D. E., & Wesson, M. J. (2013). Justice at the millennium, a decade later: A meta-analytic test of social exchange and affect-based perspectives: American Psychological Association.

Colquitt, J. A., Zapata-Phelan, C. P., & Roberson, Q. M. (2005). Justice in teams: A review of fairness effects in collective contexts Research in personnel and human resources management (pp. 53-94): Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Cook, K. S., Cheshire, C., Rice, E. R., & Nakagawa, S. (2013). Social exchange theory Handbook of social psychology (pp. 61-88): Springer.

Cropanzana, R., Bowen, D. E., & Gilliland, S. W. (2007). The management of organizational justice. The Academy of Management Perspectives, 34-48.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. Journal of management, 31(6), 874-900.

Cropanzano, R., & Stein, J. H. (2009). Organizational justice and behavioral ethics: Promises and prospects. Business Ethics Quarterly, 19(2), 193-233.

Crosby, F. (1976). A model of egoistical relative deprivation. Psychological review, 83(2), 85.

Cummiskey, D. (2008). Justice and Revolution in Kant's Political Philosophy. Rethinking Kant, 1, 217-240.

D'Ambrosio, C., & Frick, J. R. (2004). Subjective well-being and relative deprivation: An empirical link.

Dagot, L., & Voisin, D. (2007). Comportements de citoyenneté organisationnelle et travail temporaire. Psychologie du travail et des organisations, 13(1), 63-74.

De Cremer, D., & Van Knippenberg, D. (2003). Cooperation with leaders in social dilemmas: On the effects of procedural fairness and outcome favorability in structural cooperation. Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 91(1), 1-11.

Demerouti, E., Xanthopoulou, D., Tsaousis, I., & Bakker, A. B. (2014). Disentangling task and contextual performance. Journal of Personnel Psychology.

Demirkiran, M., Taskaya, S., & Dinc, M. (2016a). A Study on the Relationship between Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Hospitals.

Demirkiran, M., Taskaya, S., & Dinc, M. (2016b). A Study on the Relationship between Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Hospitals. International Journal of Business Management & Economic Research, 7(2).

Dessler, G. (1999). How to earn your employees' commitment. The Academy of Management Executive (1993-2005), 58-67.

Deutsch, M. (1975). Equity, equality, and need: What determines which value will be used as the basis of distributive justice? Journal of Social issues, 31(3), 137-149.

Diamond, S. S., & Zeisel, H. (1978). Procedural Justice: A Psychological Analysis. By John Thibaut and Laurens Walker. Duke Law Journal, 26(6), 1289-1296.

Douthitt, E. A., & Aiello, J. R. (2001). The role of participation and control in the effects of computer monitoring on fairness perceptions, task satisfaction, and performance. Journal of applied psychology, 86(5), 867.

Dworkin, R. (1981). What is equality? Part 1: Equality of welfare. Philosophy & public affairs, 185-246.

Eberlin, R., & Tatum, B. C. (2005). Organizational justice and decision making: When good intentions are not enough. Management decision, 43(7/8), 1040-1048.

Ehtiyar, V. R., Aktas Alan, A., & Oemueris, E. (2010). The role of organizational citizenship behavior on university student's academic success. Tourism and Hospitality Management, 16(1), 47-61.

El Akremi, A., & Ameur, S. B. (2005). Rôle de la justice organisationnelle dans le processus de rupture du contrat psychologique: LIRHE, Université des sciences sociales de Toulouse.

Elanain, H. A. (2007). Relationship between personality and organizational citizenship behavior: Does personality influence employee citizenship. International Review of Business Research Papers, 3(4), 31-43.

Emery, Y., & Launaz, M. (2007). OCB, une analyse du comportement citoyen dans les organisations publiques suisses. Swiss Graduate School of Public Administration.

Erdogan, B., Liden, R. C., & Kraimer, M. L. (2006). Justice and leader-member exchange: The moderating role of organizational culture. Academy of management Journal, 49(2), 395-406.

Farahbod, F., Azadehdel, M., Rezaei-Dizgah, M., & Nejhadi-Jirdehi, M. (2012). Organizational citizenship behavior: The role of organizational justice and leader–member exchange. Interdisciplinary journal of contemporary research in business, 3(9), 893-903.

Farh, J.-L., Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1990). Accounting for organizational citizenship behavior: Leader fairness and task scope versus satisfaction. Journal of management, 16(4), 705-721.

Farooqui, M. R. (2012). Measuring organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as a consequence of organizational climate (OC). Asian Journal of Business Management, 4(3), 294-302.

Fatimah, O., Amiraa, A., & Halim, F. (2011). The relationships between organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction. Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. & Hum, 19, 115-121.

Fischer, R. (2004). Organizational reward allocation: A comparison of British and German organizations. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 28(2), 151-164.

Fischer, R. (2012). Organizational justice research: present perspectives and challenges. Revista Psicologia Organizações e Trabalho, 12(1), 97-112.

Folger, R. (1977). Distributive and procedural justice: Combined impact of "voice" and improvement on experienced inequity. Journal of personality and social psychology, 35(2), 108-119.

Folger, R., & Bies, R. J. (1989). Managerial responsibilities and procedural justice. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 2(2), 79-90.

Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). Fairness theory: Justice as accountability. Advances in organizational justice, 1, 1-55.

Folger, R., & Konovsky, M. A. (1989). Effects of procedural and distributive justice on reactions to pay raise decisions. Academy of management Journal, 32(1), 115-130.

Folger, R. G., & Cropanzano, R. (1998). Organizational justice and human resource management (Vol. 7): sage publications.

Fortin, M. (2008). Perspectives on organizational justice: concept clarification, social context integration, time and links with morality. International Journal of Management Reviews, 10(2), 93-126.

Frey, B. S., Savage, D. A., & Torgler, B. (2010). Noblesse oblige? Determinants of survival in a life-and-death situation. Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization, 74(1), 1-11.

George, J. M. (1991). State or trait: Effects of positive mood on prosocial behaviors at work. Journal of applied psychology, 76(2), 299.

George, J. M., & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. Journal of applied psychology, 75(6), 698.

George, J. M., & Brief, A. P. (1992). Feeling good-doing good: a conceptual analysis of the mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship. Psychological bulletin, 112(2), 310.

Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-Analytic review of leader–member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues: American Psychological Association.

Ghafourian, J. (2014). A study on the effect of organizational justice on organizational citizenship and organizational commitment. Management Science Letters, 4(1), 21-24.

Goncalo, J. A., & Kim, S. H. (2010). Distributive justice beliefs and group idea generation: Does a belief in equity facilitate productivity? Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 46(5), 836-840.

Gopinath, C., & Becker, T. E. (2000). Communication, procedural justice, and employee attitudes: Relationships under conditions of divestiture. Journal of management, 26(1), 63-83.

Goudarzvandchegini, M., Gilaninia, S., & Abdesonboli, R. (2011). Organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior case study: Rasht public hospitals. International Journal of Business Administration, 2(4), 42.

Graham, J. W., & Van Dyne, L. (2006). Gathering information and exercising influence: Two forms of civic virtue organizational citizenship behavior. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 18(2), 89-109.

Greenberg, J. (1987). A taxonomy of organizational justice theories. Academy of management Review, 12(1), 9-22.

Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. Journal of management, 16(2), 399-432.

Greenberg, J. (2002). Advances in organizational justice: Stanford University Press.

Greenberg, J., & Baron, R. A. (2008). Behavior in organizations.

Greenberg, J., & Colquitt, J. A. (2013). Handbook of organizational justice: Psychology Press.

Greenberg, J., & Cropanzano, R. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Hillsdale, NJ.

Gürbüz, S. (2006). Örgütsel Vatandaslik Davranisi Ile Duygusal Baglilik Arasindaki Iliskilerin Belirlenmesine Yönelik Bir Arastirma. Ekonomik ve Sosyal Arastirmalar Dergisi, 3(1), 48-75.

Hao, Y., Hao, J., Wang, X., Rowley, C., & Zhang, J. (2016). The relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction: evidence from China. Journal of Chinese Human Resource Management, 7(2).

Hazratian, T., Khadivi, A., Abbasi, B., & Ghojazadeh, M. (2015). Association Between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Educational Performance of Faculty Members in Tabriz University of Medical Sciences-2014. Res Dev, 4(1), 81-84.

Hazzi, O. A., & Maldaon, I. S. (2012). Prosocial organizational behaviors: The lifeline of organizations. European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences, 54, 106-114.

Henry, L. (2004). Relation entre le degré de satisfaction au travail et les comportements de citoyenneté organisationnelle chez les enseignants au secondaire. Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières.

Heydari, M., & Gholtash, A. (2014). An Investigation in to the relationship between Procedural and Interactive Justice with Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Asian Journal of Humanities and Social Studies (ISSN: 2321–2799), 2(01).

Hiqma, N. A., Armanu, T., Djumilah, H., & Noermijati, N. (2016). The Effect of Remuneration, Job Satisfaction and OCB on the Employee Performance Science Journal of Business and Management, 11. doi:10.11648/j.sjbm.20160406.16

Hollander-Blumoff, R., & Tyler, T. R. (2011). Procedural justice and the rule of law: fostering legitimacy in alternative dispute resolution. J. Disp. Resol., 1.

House, R. J. (1971). A path goal theory of leader effectiveness. Administrative science quarterly, 321-339.

Huei, T. Y., Mansor, N. N. A., & Tat, H. H. (2014). Role of OCB and demographic factors in the relationship of motivation and employee performance. Intangible Capital, 10(3), 425-447.

Huseman, R. C., Hatfield, J. D., & Miles, E. W. (1987). A new perspective on equity theory: The equity sensitivity construct. Academy of management Review, 12(2), 222-234.

İçerli, L. (2010). Örgütsel adalet: kuramsal bir yaklaşım.

İnce, M., & Gül, H. (2011). The effect of Employees' Perceptions of Organizational Justice on Organizational Citizenship behavior: An application in turkish public institutions. International Journal of Business and Management, 6(6), 134.

Iqbal, F. (2013). Prosocial behavior in different situations among men and women. Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 8(6), 31-40.

İşcan, Ö. F., & Sayın, U. (2010). Örgütsel Adalet, İş Tatmini ve Örgütsel Güven Arasindaki İlişki. Atatürk Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi, 24(4).

Jasso, G. (2007). Theoretical unification in justice and beyond. Social Justice Research, 20(3), 336-371.

Jawad, M., Raja, S., Abraiz, A., & Tabassum, T. (2012). Role of organizational justice in organizational commitment with moderating effect of employee work attitudes. IOSR Journal of Business and Management, 5(4), 39-45.

Johnson, J. W. (2001). The relative importance of task and contextual performance dimensions to supervisor judgments of overall performance. Journal of applied psychology, 86(5), 984.

Jost, J. T., & Kay, A. C. (2010). Social justice: History, theory, and research. Handbook of social psychology.

Jovanovic, G. D., & Bozilovic, S. (2017). The influence of management of human resources on motivation and job satisfaction. Ekonomika, 63(1), 97.

Judeh, M. (2012). Examining the Relationship between Organizational Justice, Job Security, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the Jordanian Banks: A Structural Equation Modeling Perspective. Jordan Journal of Business Administration, 8(3).

Judeh, M. (2012). Examining the Relationship between Organizational Justice, Job Security, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the Jordanian Banks: A Structural Equation Modeling Perspective. Jordan Journal of Business Administration, 8(3), 581-602.

Judge, T. A., & Colquitt, J. A. (2004). Organizational justice and stress: the mediating role of work-family conflict. Journal of applied psychology, 89(3), 395.

Kane, J. (1996). Justice, impartiality, and equality: Why the concept of justice does not presume equality. Political Theory, 24(3), 375-393.

Karnama, A. K., & Reza, F. (2015). Explaining The Relationship Between Organizational Sprituality, Organizational Loyalty And Organizational

Citizenship Behavior The Copper Smelter Workers Khatoonabad Shahrbabak. Indian Journal of Fundamental and Applied Life Sciences.

Khan, N. R., Ghouri, A. M., & Awang, M. (2013). Leadership styles and organizational citizenship behavior in small and medium scale firms.

Kılıç, T., Bostan, S., & Grabowski, W. (2015). A New Approach to The Organizational Justice Concept: The Collective Level of Justice Perceptions. International Journal of Health Sciences, 3(1), 157-175.

Konovsky, M. A. (2000). Understanding procedural justice and its impact on business organizations. Journal of management, 26(3), 489-511.

Konovsky, M. A., & Cropanzano, R. (1991). Perceived fairness of employee drug testing as a predictor of employee attitudes and job performance. Journal of applied psychology, 76(5), 698.

Kumar, K., Bakhshi, A., & Rani, E. (2009). Linking the big five personality domains to organizational citizenship behavior. International journal of Psychological studies, 1(2), 73.

Lam, S. S., Schaubroeck, J., & Aryee, S. (2002). Relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes: a cross□national study. Journal of organizational Behavior, 23(1), 1-18.

Lavelle, J. J., Brockner, J., Konovsky, M. A., Price, K. H., Henley, A. B., Taneja, A., & Vinekar, V. (2009). Commitment, procedural fairness, and organizational citizenship behavior: A multifoci analysis. Journal of organizational Behavior, 30(3), 337-357.

Leung, K., Smith, P. B., Wang, Z., & Sun, H. (1996). Job satisfaction in joint venture hotels in China: An organizational justice analysis. Journal of International Business Studies, 27(5), 947-962.

Lian, L. K., & Tui, L. G. (2012). Leadership styles and organizational citizenship behavior: The mediating effect of subordinates' competence and downward influence tactics. The Journal of Applied Business and Economics, 13(2), 59.

Libby, T. (1999). The influence of voice and explanation on performance in a participative budgeting setting. Accounting, Organizations and Society, 24(2), 125-137.

Lind, E. A. (2001). Thinking critically about justice judgments. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 58(2), 220-226.

Lind, E. A., Kanfer, R., & Earley, P. C. (1990). Voice, control, and procedural justice: Instrumental and noninstrumental concerns in fairness judgments. Journal of personality and social psychology, 59(5), 952.

Lister, A. (2011). Justice as fairness and reciprocity. Analyse & Kritik, 33(1), 93-112.

Lo, M. C., & Ramayah, T. (2009). Dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in a multicultural society: The case of Malaysia. International business research, 2(1), 48.

Ma, E., & Qu, H. (2011). Social exchanges as motivators of hotel employees' organizational citizenship behavior: The proposition and application of a new three-dimensional framework. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 30(3), 680-688.

Maanen, J. (2014). The effect of trustworthiness on the intention to perform OCB's: a study into the effects of the perceived trustworthiness of a direct supervisor on employees' intention to perform Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. University of Twente.

MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Ahearne, M. (1998). Some possible antecedents and consequences of in-role and extra-role salesperson performance. The Journal of Marketing, 87-98.

Masterson, S. S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M., & Taylor, M. S. (2000). Integrating justice and social exchange: The differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. Academy of management Journal, 43(4), 738-748.

Mathur, S. (2013). Organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior among store executives. Human Resource Management Research, 3(4), 124-149.

McFarlin, D. B., & Sweeney, P. D. (1992a). Distributive and procedural justice as predictors of satisfaction with personal and organizational outcomes. Academy of management Journal, 35(3), 626-637.

McFarlin, D. B., & Sweeney, P. D. (1992b). Research notes. Distributive and procedural justice as predictors of satisfaction with personal and organizational outcomes. Academy of management Journal, 35(3), 626-637.

Mehboob, F., & Bhutto, N. A. (2012). Job satisfaction as a predictor of organizational citizenship behavior. A study of faculty members at business institutes. Interdisciplinary journal of contemporary research in business, 3(9), 1447-1455.

Mey, M., Werner, A., & Theron, A. (2014). The influence of perceptions of organizational trust and fairness on employee citizenship.

Miles, J. A., & Klein, H. J. (1998). The fairness of assigning group members to tasks. Group & Organization Management, 23(1), 71-96.

Moghimi, S. M., Kazemi, M., & Samiie, S. (2013). Studying the relationship between organizational justice and employees' quality of work life in public organizations: A case study of Qom province. Iranian Journal of Management Studies, 6(1), 119.

Mohammad, J., Habib, F. Q., & Alias, M. A. (2011). Job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour: An empirical study at higher learning institutions. Asian Academy of Management Journal, 16(2), 149-165.

Moisset, J.-J., Plante, J., & Toussaint, P. (2003). La gestion des ressources humaines pour la réussite scolaire: PUQ.

Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? Journal of applied psychology, 76(6), 845.

Moorman, R. H., Blakely, G. L., & Niehoff, B. P. (1998). Does perceived organizational support mediate the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior? Academy of management Journal, 41(3), 351-357.

Motowidlo, S. J. (2003). Job performance. Handbook of psychology.

Muzumdar, P. (2012). Influence of interactional justice on the turnover behavioral decision in an organization.

Nadisic, T. (2006). The motives of organizational justice: Chambre de commerce et d'industrie de Paris.

Nadisic, T. (2008). Pourquoi les managers ajoutent-ils de l'injustice à l'injustice? Revue française de gestion(3), 221-250.

Neale, M. C. (2008). The effects of co-workers' extra-role behaviour on individual task performance and climate perceptions. Queensland University of Technology.

Niehoff, B. P., & Moorman, R. H. (1993). Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. Academy of management Journal, 36(3), 527-556.

Noor, A. (2009). Examining organizational citizenship behavior as the outcome of organizational commitment: a study of universities teachers of Pakistan. Army public college of management sciences.

Norton, M. S. (2013). Competency-based Leadership: A Guide for High Performance in the Role of the School Principal: R&L Education.

Noruzy, A., Shatery, K., Rezazadeh, A., & Hatami-Shirkouhi, L. (2011). Investigation the relationship between organizational justice, and organizational citizenship behavior: The mediating role of perceived organizational support. Indian Journal of science and Technology, 4(7), 842-847.

Nowakowski, J. M., & Conlon, D. E. (2005). Organizational justice: Looking back, looking forward. International Journal of Conflict Management, 16(1), 4-29.

Organ, D. W. (1988). Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome: Lexington Books/DC Heath and Com.

Organ, D. W. (1990). The motivational basis of organizational citizenship behavior. Research in organizational behavior, 12(1), 43-72.

Organ, D. W., & Konovsky, M. (1989). Cognitive versus affective determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of applied psychology, 74(1), 157.

Organ, D. W., & Lingl, A. (1995). Personality, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior. The journal of social psychology, 135(3), 339-350.

Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2005). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences: Sage Publications.

Orhan, Ö. (2012). Homeros Ve Hesiodos'da Adalet Kavramının Kökenleri Ve Platon'a Yansımaları. Felsefe ve Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi (FLSF)(13).

Özdevecioğlu, M. (2003). Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ile üniversite öğrencilerinin bazı demografik özellikleri ve akademik başarıları arasındaki ilişkilerin belirlenmesine yönelik bir araştırma. Erciyes Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi(20).

Ozsahin, M., & Sudak, M. K. (2015). The mediating role of leadership styles on the organizational citizenship behavior and innovativeness relationship. Journal of Business Economics and Finance, 4(3).

Öztürk, F. (2010). Determinants of organizational citizenship behavior among knowledge workers: the role of job charcteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Citeseer.

Paillé, P. (2006a). Engagement organisationnel et comportements de citoyenneté organisationnelle. Revue de gestion des ressources humaines(60).

Paillé, P. (2006b). Les relations entre l'implication au travail, les comportements de citoyenneté organisationnelle et l'intention de retrait. Revue Européenne de Psychologie Appliquée/European Review of Applied Psychology, 56(2), 139-149.

Paillé, P. (2008). Les comportements de citoyenneté organisationnelle: une étude empirique sur les relations avec l'engagement affectif, la satisfaction au travail et l'implication au travail. Le travail humain, 71(1), 22-42.

Paillé, P. (2009). Engagement et citoyenneté en contexte organisationnel: un examen empirique sur l'apport des cibles multiples d'engagement à la prédiction des comportements de citoyenneté organisationnelle. Le travail humain, 72(2), 185-204.

Ployhart, R. E., & Ryan, A. M. (1997). Toward an explanation of applicant reactions: An examination of organizational justice and attribution frameworks. Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 72(3), 308-335.

Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1994). Organizational citizenship behaviors and sales unit effectiveness. Journal of marketing research, 31(3), 351-363.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Hui, C. (1993). Organizational citizenship behaviors and managerial evaluations of employee performance: A review and suggestions for future research. Research in personnel and human resources management.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. The Leadership Quarterly, 1(2), 107-142.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. Journal of management, 26(3), 513-563.

Polat, S. (2009). Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) display levels of the teachers at secondary schools according to the perceptions of the school administrators. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 1(1), 1591-1596.

Pourgaz, A. W., Naruei, A. G., & Jenaabadi, H. (2015). Examining the Relationship of Organizational Citizenship Behavior with Organizational Commitment and Equity Perception of Secondary School Administrators. Psychology, 6(06), 800.

Qureshi, H. (2015). A Study of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and its Antecedents in an Indian Police Agency. University of Cincinnati.

Radzi, S. M., Anuar, J., & Sumarjan, N. (2014). Theory and Practice in Hospitality and Tourism Research: CRC Press.

Ravens, C. (2013). Internal brand management in an international context (Vol. 47): Springer Science & Business Media.

Ravichandran, S., Gilmore, S. A., & Strohbehn, C. (2007). Organizational citizenship behavior research in hospitality: Current status and future research directions. Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 6(2), 59-78.

Rioux, S. M., & Penner, L. A. (2001). The causes of organizational citizenship behavior: a motivational analysis. Journal of applied psychology, 86(6), 1306.

Robbins, T. L., Summers, T. P., Miller, J. L., & Hendrix, W. H. (2000). Short Research Note: Using the group□value model to explain the role of noninstrumental justice in distinguishing the effects of distributive and procedural justice. Journal of occupational and organizational psychology, 73(4), 511-518.

Roberts, B. W., Chernyshenko, O. S., Stark, S., & Goldberg, L. R. (2005). The structure of conscientiousness: An empirical investigation based on seven major personality questionnaires. Personnel Psychology, 58(1), 103-139.

Robertson, S. (2015). The agreeableness of conscientiousness: The effects of personality facets on the curvilinear citizenship behavior and task performance relationship. Clemson University.

Rojot, J., Roussel, P., & Vandenberghe, C. (2009). Comportement organisationnel: De Boeck.

Rook, K. S. (1984). The negative side of social interaction: impact on psychological well-being. Journal of personality and social psychology, 46(5), 1097.

Rose, D. (2006). Social Comparisons and Social Order: Issues Relating to a Possible Re-study of WG Runciman's Relative Deprivation and Social Justice: Institute for Social & Economic Research.

Roux, S., & Dussault, M. (2007). Engagement organisationnel et citoyenneté organisationnelle d'enseignants. Nouveaux cahiers de la recherche en éducation, 10(2), 151-164.

Rubin, P. H. (2000). Group selection and the limits to altruism. Journal of Bioeconomics, 2(1), 9-23.

Rupp, D. E., & Cropanzano, R. (2002). The mediating effects of social exchange relationships in predicting workplace outcomes from multifoci organizational justice. Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 89(1), 925-946.

Sackett, P. R., Berry, C. M., Wiemann, S. A., & Laczo, R. M. (2006). Citizenship and counterproductive behavior: Clarifying relations between the two domains. Human Performance, 19(4), 441-464.

Sandel, M. J. (1998). Liberalism and the Limits of Justice: Cambridge University Press.

Şanlımeşhur, Ö. (2015). Organizasyonlarda algılanan örgütsel adalet ile çatışma ilişkisi ve bir araştırma. İstanbul Arel Üniversitesi.

Saunders, M. N., & Thornhill, A. (2003). Organisational justice, trust and the management of change: An exploration. personnel Review, 32(3), 360-375.

Scandura, T. A. (1999). Rethinking leader-member exchange: An organizational justice perspective. The Leadership Quarterly, 10(1), 25-40.

Schafer, R., & Klonglan, G. (1974). Application of the rule of distributive Justice in a normative organization. Pacific Sociological Review, 17(2), 199-213.

Schappe, S. P. (1998). The influence of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and fairness perceptions on organizational citizenship behavior. The Journal of Psychology, 132(3), 277-290.

Schnake, M. (1991). Organizational citizenship: A review, proposed model, and research agenda. Human relations, 44(7), 735-759.

Schnake, M. E., & Dumler, M. P. (2003). Levels of measurement and analysis issues in organizational citizenship behaviour research. Journal of occupational and organizational psychology, 76(3), 283-301.

Serkan, Ş. (2015). Örgütsel Adaletin Örgütsel Vatandaşlik Davranişina Etkisi: Bir Araştirma. (Yüksek Lisans), Gazi Üniversitesi

Sethi, M., Iqbal, H., & Rauf, M. O. (2013). Relationship between Perceived Organizational Justice and the Employees Job Satisfaction. Abasyn Journal of Social Sciences, 7(1).

Sezgin, F. (2005). Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları: Kavramsal bir çözümleme ve okul açısından bazı çıkarımlar. Gazi Üniversitesi Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 25(1).

Sharma, V., & Jain, S. (2014). A scale for measuring organizational citizenship behavior in manufacturing sector. Pacific Business Review International, 6(8), 57-62.

Shaw, J. C., Wild, E., & Colquitt, J. A. (2003). To justify or excuse?: A meta-analytic review of the effects of explanations: American Psychological Association.

Shaw, J. D., Gupta, N., & Delery, J. E. (2002). Pay dispersion and workforce performance: Moderating effects of incentives and interdependence. Strategic Management Journal, 23(6), 491-512.

Shore, L. M., Tetrick, L. E., Lynch, P., & Barksdale, K. (2006). Social and economic exchange: Construct development and validation. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36(4), 837-867.

Simons, T., & Roberson, Q. (2003). Why managers should care about fairness: the effects of aggregate justice perceptions on organizational outcomes. Journal of applied psychology, 88(3), 432.

Skitka, L. J. (2012). Cross-disciplinary conversations: A psychological perspective on justice research with non-human animals. Social Justice Research, 25(3), 327-335.

Smith, C., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. Journal of applied psychology, 68(4), 653.

Smith, H. J., & Pettigrew, T. F. (2014). The subjective interpretation of inequality: a model of the relative deprivation experience. Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 8(12), 755-765.

Sökmen, A., Şahal, S., & Söylemez, M. (2015). Örgütsel adaletin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışına etkisi: savunma sektöründe bir araştırma. İşletme Araştırmaları Dergisi, 7(4), 66-91.

Songür, N., Basım, H. N., & Şeşen, H. (2008). The Antecedent Role of Justice Perception on Organizational Citizenship Behavior. TODAİE's Review of Public Administration, 2(4), 87-111.

Soon, A., Ng, K.-Y., Goh, K., & Turnipseed, D. (2005). Motivational traits and self-development OCB: a dimensional and configurational analysis. A Handbook on Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Review of 'Good Soldier'Activity in Organizations, 267-289.

Spector, H. (2014). Hume's Theory of Justice. Rationality, Markets and Morals, 5(84).

Stinglhamber, F., Bentein, K., & Vandenberghe, C. (2002). Extension of the Three-Component Model of Commitment to Five Foci: Development of measures and substantive test. European journal of psychological assessment, 18(2), 123.

Sunshine, J., & Heuer, L. (2002). 22. Deservingness and Perceptions of Procedural Justice in Citizen Encounters with the Police. The justice motive in everyday life, 397.

Swaen, V., & Maignan, I. (2003). Organizational citizenship and corporate citizenship: two constructs, one research theme. Business rites, writs and responsibilities: Readings on ethics and social impact management, 1, 107-134.

Swaminathan, S., & Jawahar, P. D. (2013). Job satisfaction as a predictor of organizational citizenship behavior: An empirical study.

Tabatabei, S. A. N., Takapoo, F., & Leilaeyoun, A. (2015). The Effective of Job Satisfaction on Organizational Citizenship Behavior. International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 5(1), 155.

Tahseen, N., & Akhtar, M. S. (2016). Impact of Organizational Justice on Citizenship Behavior: Mediating Role of Faculty Trust. Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences, 10(1), 104-121.

Tatum, B. C., Eberlin, R., Kottraba, C., & Bradberry, T. (2003). Leadership, decision making, and organizational justice. Management decision, 41(10), 1006-1016.

Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. International journal of medical education, 2, 53.

Taylor, M. S., Tracy, K. B., Renard, M. K., Harrison, J. K., & Carroll, S. J. (1995). Due process in performance appraisal: A quasi-experiment in procedural justice. Administrative science quarterly, 495-523.

Tepper, B. J., Lockhart, D., & Hoobler, J. (2001). Justice, citizenship, and role definition effects. Journal of applied psychology, 86(4), 789.

Thau, S., Aquino, K., & Wittek, R. (2007). An extension of uncertainty management theory to the self: the relationship between justice, social comparison

orientation, and antisocial work behaviors. Journal of applied psychology, 92(1), 250.

Thibaut, J., & Walker, L. (1978). A theory of procedure. California law review, 541-566.

Tremblay, M., & Wils, T. (2005). La mobilisation des ressources humaines: une stratégie de rassemblement des énergies de chacun pour le bien de tous. Gestion, 30(2), 37-49.

Trinh, M. Rethinking Conscientiousness: Construction of Team Conscientiousness as Team Shared Values, Norms, and Identity.

Tsui, A. S., Pearce, J. L., Porter, L. W., & Tripoli, A. M. (1997). Alternative approaches to the employee-organization relationship: Does investment in employees pay off? Academy of management Journal, 40(5), 1089-1121.

Unal, F. Ü. (2013). Relationship between the dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior and the facets of job satisfaction (an empirical study in a group of companies in Turkey). Paper presented at the WEI international academic conference proceedings, Antalya, Turkey.

Usmani, S., & Jamal, S. (2013). Impact of distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, temporal justice, spatial justice on job satisfaction of banking employees. Review of integrative business and economics research, 2(1), 351.

Van den Bos, K. (2001). Uncertainty management: the influence of uncertainty salience on reactions to perceived procedural fairness. Journal of personality and social psychology, 80(6), 931.

Van den Bos, K., & Lind, E. A. (2002). Uncertainty management by means of fairness judgments. Advances in experimental social psychology, 34, 1-60.

van Knippenberg, D., De Cremer, D., & van Knippenberg, B. (2007). Leadership and fairness: The state of the art. European journal of work and organizational psychology, 16(2), 113-140.

Van Scotter, J. R., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1996). Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication as separate facets of contextual performance. Journal of applied psychology, 81(5), 525.

Walker, L., LaTour, S., Lind, E. A., & Thibaut, J. (1974). Reactions of Participants and Observers to Modes of Adjudication1. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 4(4), 295-310.

Walz, S. M., & Niehoff, B. P. (1996). Organizational Citizenship Behaviors and their effetct on Organizational Effectiveness in limited-menu restaurants Paper presented at the Academy of Management Proceedings.

Wang, L., Hinrichs, K. T., Prieto, L., & Howell, J. P. (2013). Five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior: Comparing antecedents and levels of engagement in China and the US. Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 30(1), 115-147.

Weaver, G. R., & Conlon, D. E. (2003). Explaining facades of choice: Timing, justice effects, and behavioral outcomes. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 33(11), 2217-2243.

Westen, D., & Rosenthal, R. (2003). Quantifying construct validity: two simple measures. Journal of personality and social psychology, 84(3), 608.

Wikhamn, W., & Hall, A. T. (2012). Social exchange in a Swedish work environment. International Journal of Business and Social Science, 3(23).

Williams, S., Pitre, R., & Zainuba, M. (2002). Justice and organizational citizenship behavior intentions: Fair rewards versus fair treatment. The journal of social psychology, 142(1), 33-44.

Yaghmale, F. (2009). Content validity and its estimation. Journal of Medical Education, 3(1).

Yang, Y.-C. (2012). High-involvement human resource practices, affective commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors. The Service Industries Journal, 32(8), 1209-1227.

Yıldırım, F. (2002). Çalışma yaşamında örgüte bağlılık ve örgütsel adalet ilişkisi. Yayımlanmamış Doktora Tezi. Ankara Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara.

Yoon, M. H., & Suh, J. (2003). Organizational citizenship behaviors and service quality as external effectiveness of contact employees. Journal of business research, 56(8), 597-611.

Youssef, A. B., Martin, L., & Omrani, N. (2012). Does ICT use improve contextual performance? Recent evidence from the European Union. Paper presented at the 61ème Colloque de l'Association Française de Science Économique (AFSE).

Yüksel, M. (2015). Örgütsel adalet ve örgütsel vatandaşlik davranişlari arasindaki ilişkiler üzerine bir uygulama

Yürür, S. (2008). Örgütsel adalet ile iş tatmini ve çalışanların bireysel özellikleri arasındaki ilişkilerin analizine yönelik bir araştırma. Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi, 13(2).

Zapata-Phelan, C. P., Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., & Livingston, B. (2009). Procedural justice, interactional justice, and task performance: The mediating role of intrinsic motivation. Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 108(1), 93-105.

Zhang, D. (2011). Organizational Citizenship Behavior. White Paper, 3.

APPENDICES

A. THE QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH VERSION)

Dear Participant,

This questionnaire was prepared to collect data on the application section of the graduate thesis entitled "THE EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE' PERCEPION ON ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR" in Selçuk University Institute of Social Sciences Administration. The research is carried out for a scientific purpose and this purpose will be achieved through the answers you will give carefully. We thank you in advance for the contributions you will make to our research and we wish you success in your work.

Mahamadi El Nour Derra
Selçuk University
delnomah@gmail.com

Prof. Dr. Hüsnü Serdar ÖĞE
Selçuk University

Selçuk University, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Konya

Answer the demographic questions below.	
Gender ?	❒ Male ❒ Female
Marital Status?	❒ Married ❒ Single
Age?	❒ Less than 18 years ❒ 18-27 ❒ 28-35 ❒ 36-49 ❒ 50-65 ❒ More 65 years
Education Level?	❒ Primary School ❒ Secondary School ❒ High School ❒ Vocational High School ❒ Associate Degree ❒ Bachelor Degree ❒ Master Degree ❒ PhD
Work Experience?	❒ Less than 1 year ❒ 1-3 ❒ 4-6 ❒ 7-9 ❒ 10-15 ❒ 16-20 ❒ More than 20 years

EXPLANATION: Please respond to the following questions by marking the best fitting number

1= I Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= I am Undecided 4= I agree 5= I Strongly Agree

Organizational Justice' Scale					
1. My work schedule is fair.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. I think that my level of pay is fair.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. I consider my workload to be quite fair.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. I feel that my job responsabilities are fair.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. Job decisions are made by the supervisor in an unbiased manner.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. My superviser makes sure that all employee concerns are heard	①	②	③	④	⑤

	before job decisions are made.					
8.	To make job decisions, my supervisor collects accurate and complete information.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9.	My supervisor clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10.	All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11.	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made the supervisor.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12.	When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor treats me with kindness and consideration.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13.	When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor treats me with respect and dignity.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14.	When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor is sensitive to my personal needs.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15.	When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor deals with me in a truthful manner.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16.	When decisions are made about my job, the supervisor shows concern for my rights as an employee.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17.	Concerning decisions made about my job, the supervisor discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18.	The supervisor offers adequate justification for decisions made.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19.	When making decisions about my job, the supervisor offers explanations that make sense to me.	①	②	③	④	⑤
20.	My supervisor explains very clearly any decision made about my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤

1= I Strongly Disagree **2= Disagree** **3= I am Undecided** **4= I agree** **5= I Strongly Agree**

Organizational Citizenship Behavior' Scale

1.	I help others who have heavy workloads.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2.	I am the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3.	I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4.	I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5.	I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6.	I keep abreast of changes in the organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7.	I tend to make "mountains out of molehills".	①	②	③	④	⑤
8.	I consider the impact of my actions on coworker	①	②	③	④	⑤
9.	I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10.	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11.	I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12.	I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.	①	②	③	④	⑤

13. I help others who have been absent.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14. I do not abuse the rights of others.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15. I willingly help others who have work related problems.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16. I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17. I take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18. My attendance at work is above the norm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19. I always find fault with what the organization is doing.	①	②	③	④	⑤
20. I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs.	①	②	③	④	⑤
21. I do not take extra breaks.	①	②	③	④	⑤
22. I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.	①	②	③	④	⑤
23. I help orient new people even though it is not required.	①	②	③	④	⑤
24. I am one of the most conscientious employees.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Thank you for your time.

B. THE QUESTIONNAIRE (TURKISH VERSION)

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket, Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İşletme anabilim dalında "ÖRGÜTSEL ADALET ALGISININ ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK DAVRANIŞI ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ" başlıklı yüksek lisans tezinin uygulama kısmına veri toplamak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Araştırma bilimsel bir amaçla yapılmakta olup, araştırmanın amacına ulaşması özenle vereceğiniz cevaplarla sağlanacaktır. Araştırmaya yapacağınız katkılardan dolayı şimdiden teşekkür eder, çalışmalarınızda başarılar dileriz.

Mahamadi El Nour Derra
Selçuk Üniversitesi
delnomah@gmail.com

Prof. Dr. Hüsnü Serdar ÖĞE
Selçuk.Üniversitesi

Selçuk Üniversitesi, İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi, Kampüs, Konya

Aşağıdaki demografik özellikli soruları cevaplayınız.	
Cinsiyetiniz ?	❒Erkek ❒ Kadın
Medeni Durumunuz?	❒ Evli ❒ Bekar
Yaşınız?	❒ 18 yaş altı ❒ 18-27 ❒ 28-35 ❒ 36-49 ❒ 50-65 ❒ 65 yaş üstü
Eğitim Durumunuz?	❒ İlkokul ❒ Ortaokul ❒ Lise ❒ Meslek Lisesi ❒ Önlisans ❒ Lisans ❒ Yüksek Lisans ❒ Doktora
İşletmenizde kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız?	❒ 1 yıldan az ❒ 1-3 ❒ 4-6 ❒ 7-9 ❒ 10-15 ❒ 16-20 ❒ 20 yıl üzeri

AÇIKLAMA: Aşağıda verilen ifadeleri kendinizi düşünerek size en uygun gelen seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

1= Kesinlikle katılmıyorum 2= Katılmıyorum 3= Ne katılıyorum ne de katılmıyorm
4= Katılıyorum 5= Kesinlikle katılıyorum

Örgütsel Adalet Ölçeği						
1.	Çalışma programım adildir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2.	Ücretimin seviyesi adil olduğunu düşünüyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3.	Çalışma yükümün pek adil oldupunu düşünüyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4.	Genelde, iş yerimden elde ettiğim kazımların pek adil olduğunu düşünüyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5.	İş sorumluluklarımın adil olduğunu hissediyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6.	İş kararları yöneticiler tarafından tarafsız bir şekilde	①	②	③	④	⑤

	alınmaktadır.					
7.	Yönetici, iş kararları almadan önce tüm çalışanların görüşlerini alındığından emin olur.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8.	Yönetici, iş kararları almak için kesin ve tam bilgi toplar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9.	Yönetici, alınan kararları açıklar ve çalışanlar tarafından istendiğinde ek bilgi verir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10.	Alınan tüm iş kararları, bunlardan etkilenen çalışanlara ayrım gözetmeksizin uygulanır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11.	Çalışanlar, alınan kararlara karşı çıkmakta ya da üst makamlarca yeniden görüşülmesini istemekte serbestler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12.	İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırsa, yöneticim bana nazikçe davranır ve ilgili davranır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13.	İşimle ilgili kararlaralınırsa, yöneticim bana saygılı davranır ve önem verir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14.	İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırsa, yöneticim kişsel ihtiyaçlarıma duyarlı davranır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15.	İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırsa, yönetici benimle dürüst davranır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16.	İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırsa, yöneticim bir çalışan olarak haklaraıma önem gösterir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17.	İşimle ilgili alınan kararlar doğrultusunda, yöneticim bu kararların doğuracağı sonuçları benimle tartışır.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18.	Yönetici alınan kararlara uygun gerkçeleri gösterir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19.	İşimle ilgili kararlar alınırken, yönetici bana mantıklı gelen açıklamalar sunar.	①	②	③	④	⑤
20.	Yöneticim, işinle ilgili alınan kararları bana net olarak açıklar.	①	②	③	④	⑤

1= Kesinlikle katılmıyorum 2= Katılmıyorum 3= Ne katılıyorum ne de katılmıyorm
4= Katılıyorum 5= Kesinlikle katılıyorum

Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı Ölçeği

1.	Ağır iş yükü olanlara yardım ederim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2.	Ağlamayan bebeğe meme verilmez" tabirindeki bebek gibi davranırım (R).	①	②	③	④	⑤
3.	Aldığım paranın hakkını vermem gerektiğine inanıyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4.	Önemsiz konular hakkında şikayet ederek çok zaman harcıyorum (R).	①	②	③	④	⑤
5.	İş arkadaşlarıma sorun çıkartmaktan kaçınırım	①	②	③	④	⑤

6. Firma içindeki gelişmeleri takip ederim ve haberdar olurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. Pireyi dağ yapma eğilimdeyimdir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. Hareketlerimin iş arkadaşım üzerindeki etkisini göze önünde bulundururum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. Zorunlu olmayan ama önemli sayılan toplantılara katılırım	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. Her zaman, benim etrafımdakilere bir yardım el uzatmakta hazırım	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. Gerekli olmayan ama şirketin imajına yararlı olacak etkinlikelere giderim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. Firmanın duyuruları,mesajları ve diğer yazılı bildirimleri okurum ve takip ederim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13. İşe gelemeyen arkadaşlara yardım ederim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14. Başkaların hakları ihlal etmem	①	②	③	④	⑤
15. İş ile ilgili sorun olan arkadaşlara isteyerek yardım ederim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16. Ben her zaman olumlu tarafından daha çok yanlışa odaklanırım (R).	①	②	③	④	⑤
17. Diğer iş arkadaşlarla sorun çıkmaması adına önlemler alırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18. İşe devamlılığım ortalamanın üstündedir.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19. Firmanın yaptığı ile her zaman bir kusur bulurum (R).	①	②	③	④	⑤
20. Davranışlarımın diğer kişilerin işleri üzerindeki ektisini göz önünde bulundururum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
21. Fazladan molaları vermem	①	②	③	④	⑤
22. Kimse görmese de firmanın kuralları ve düzenlemelerine uyarım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
23. Zorunlu olmasa da işe yeni başlyanlara yardım ederim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
24. En vicdanlı çalışanlardanım.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATIONS

Name and Surname : Mahamadi El Nour DERRA

Nationality : BURKINA FASO

Birth Date : 14.12.1988

Birth Place : Ouagadougou (BURKINA FASO)

Telephone : (+226) 72 58 55 42 / (+90) 537 605 72 03

E-mail : delnomah@gmail.com

EDUCATION

Degree		Diploma	Year
High school	:	Baccalaureate	2006-2007
Bachelor	:	Bachelor degree in Economics and Management Sciences (specialisation in Economic and Business Management	2009-2010
Master Degree	:	Master of Arts in Economics and Management Sciences (specialisation in Economic and Business Management	2010-2011

WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Institution	Task
04/2012 - 11/2014	ACECA International	Junior Auditor

LANGUAGE SKILLS

Moore: Fluent

French: Fluent

English: Advanced

Turkish: Advanced

CERTIFICATES

09/2014 - 06/2015: Turkish Proficiency Test level C1 (level advanced), Karatay University (turkey)

11/2013 - 12/2013: Conflict management, HEC Montreal (Canada)

06/2013-07/2013: English Proficiency Test (level F), SIM Burkina Faso

01/2013-04/2013: English Proficiency Test (level 5B), SIM Burkina Faso

09/2012-12/2012: English Proficiency Test (level 5A), SIM Burkina Faso

COMPUTER SKILLS

MS Project, MS Visio, MS Office, Sage Accounting, SPSS, Endnote.

PUBLICATIONS

.Çağliyan, V., Attar, M., & Derra, M. (2017). The Relationship Between Organizational Justice Perception And Organizational Commitment: A Study On Doğuş Otomotiv Authorized Dealers In Konya.
Suleyman Demirel University, the Journal of Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, 22, 599-612.

ACHIEVEMENTS

08/2014, Accepted to Turkey Government Scholarship program for graduate students (Ibni Haldun Social Siences Scholarship)