

**The Influence of justice perceptions on organisational
citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction**

by

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree

MASTER OF COMMERCE

in the subject

Business Management

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

Supervisor: Prof. Mariette Coetzee

October 2023

DECLARATION

I, Gudani C. Mudau, hereby declare that this dissertation "The influence of justice perceptions on organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction" and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

I confirm that:

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- I have acknowledged all main sources of assistance.
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I want to express my gratitude to the following individuals, without whom I would not have been able to finish this project:

- I am eternally grateful to my supervisor, Professor Mariette Coetzee, whose knowledge and insight into the subject matter steered me through this project.
- A special thanks to Dr Marthi Pohl, who assisted with statistical analysis and availing herself whenever I needed guidance.
- I extend my heartfelt appreciation to the Group Executive Director: Human Resources of the financial services company for granting permission to use their organisation as a case study, and to the staff members who participated.
- I am grateful to Mr Lindo Magagula for his insightful contributions and editorial skills.
- I would like to express my gratitude to my family and friends for their unwavering support.
- It is with a heavy heart that I acknowledge my late parents, who instilled in me a lifelong passion for learning. I am forever grateful to my father, who encouraged me to pursue this qualification. Although he is no longer with us, I am certain that he would have been immensely proud to witness the completion of my studies.

Finally, I would like to praise and thank God, the Almighty, for bestowing countless blessings, knowledge and allowing me to finally complete the dissertation.

ABSTRACT

The Influence of justice perceptions on organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction

by

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DEGREE: MCOM

SUBJECT: BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

SUPERVISOR: PROF MARIETTE COETZEE

DATE SUBMITTED: 28 SEPTEMBER 2023

This study investigates the influence of organisational justice—comprising procedural, distributive, and interactional justice—on job satisfaction and employee behaviour. We examine how employees perceive fairness in procedural processes, the distribution of rewards, and interpersonal interactions, and how these perceptions shape their job satisfaction and behaviour at work.

Procedural justice concerns the fairness of procedures used in decision-making processes, distributive justice relates to the fairness of outcomes or rewards, and interactional justice focuses on the fairness of interpersonal treatment. We explore how each aspect of organisational justice affects employees' perceptions and behaviours in the workplace.

Job satisfaction is a crucial outcome of organisational justice. We analyse factors contributing to job satisfaction, including opportunities for growth, recognition, fair compensation, and conducive working conditions, and their relationship with organisational justice perceptions.

Supervisors play a significant role in fostering organisational justice through their interactions with employees. We investigate how fair treatment by supervisors' influences employee commitment and loyalty, crucial for organisational success. Ethical considerations guide our research practices, ensuring participant confidentiality and informed consent.

Using a quantitative approach, we survey 600 employees, employing a sampling method that represents diverse demographics. Data collected include biographical information and perceptions of organisational justice, job satisfaction, and behaviour.

Surveys are administered online, adhering to ethical guidelines, with reliability and validity assessed using Cronbach's alpha coefficients. Our findings highlight the positive relationship between organisational justice perceptions, job satisfaction, and employee behaviour, underscoring the importance of fairness in the workplace.

The limitations of this study are presented together with recommendations for future research. Based on the findings of this study, we recommend organisations prioritize fairness and transparency in their policies to enhance employee engagement and satisfaction. By fostering a fair and just work environment, organisations can improve performance and employee well-being.

KEYWORDS: Distributive justice; Employee loyalty; Interaction with others; Job satisfaction; Organisational citizenship behaviour; Organisational justice; Personal mindset; Personal orientation; Personal value system; Procedural justice; Work context

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE INFLUENCE OF JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS ON ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND JOB SATISFACTION

The fair treatment of employees is of critical importance to the success of an organisation. Numerous studies have investigated the effect of fair treatment on employees' citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, commitment and workplace civility (Akram, Lei, Haider & Hussain, 2018). How employees are treated also affects their psychological and emotional well-being, as well as their willingness to contribute to the goals of the organisation (Akram, Lei, Haider & Hussain, 2018).

Perceptions about injustices can vary across groups depending on their demographic composition (Bauwens, Audenaert, Huisman & Decramer, 2019). When, for example, organisational policies seem to affect one subgroup more than others, they will often create an informal pact to address the perceived injustice (Bauwens, Audenaert, Huisman & Decramer, 2019). Subgroups are often formed based on employees who share the same views due to their group membership based on characteristics such as ethnicity, gender, age and occupation. (Donglong, Taejun, Julie & Sanghun, 2019). Any injustice experienced on a personal level or at work such as pay inequalities may result in serious psychological distress and have an impact on employees' behaviour and job satisfaction (Donglong, Taejun, Julie & Sanghun, 2019).

This study aims to explore how organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction are influenced by employees' perceptions about the fairness of actions and decisions taken by the organisation. To accomplish the research objectives, a quantitative research approach will be followed. This chapter outlines the background and motivation to the research topic, research problem, general and specific study objectives, research design, research method and overview of the planned study.

1.2. BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

Throughout the years, organisational justice and citizenship behaviour have received much interest and various research projects have been undertaken to gain more

knowledge and insight into the matter (Dunaetz, 2020). Previous research projects undertaken on organisational justice have focused mainly on pay as a variable that influences citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction (Dunaetz, 2020).

1.2.1 Organisational justice

Organisational justice can be considered a fundamental prerequisite for the effective functioning of organisations (Chen, 2018). Bearing in mind the goal of keeping workers fulfilled, committed and faithful to the organisation, the organisation needs to ensure that employees are treated fairly (Dong & Phuong, 2018). Chen (2018) states that when workers feel that they are treated fairly by the organisation, they are slanted to display more inspirational dispositions and practices such as work satisfaction. As indicated by Chen (2018), an organisation that is reasonable and just in its strategies, approaches, collaborations, and development structures, will succeed in creating a hardworking, loyal and committed workforce. According to Dong and Phuong (2018), the fair treatment of employees by supervisors is critical in enhancing job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Organisational justice refers to the extent to which employees are treated justly and whether the results obtained and the procedures followed are fair (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018). Previous organisational justice literature distinguished between the three types of justice as procedural, distributive and interactional justice (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Further studies proposed that interactional justice has two subcategories, namely informational justice and interpersonal justice, which should be considered separately (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020).

1.2.1.1 Procedural justice

According to Jameel, Ahmad and Mousa (2020), procedural justice refers to the extent fair procedures and processes are in place and adhered to, and how individuals see their leaders as being fair, sincere and logical or rational in what they do. According to Salam (2020), procedural justice is the fairness issues in relation to the methods, mechanisms, and processes utilized for the determination of outcomes. Kareem, Jameel and Ahmad (2020) concur with these definitions and state that procedural justice is concerned with the fairness of the procedures followed leading to a particular outcome.

In 1975, Thibaut and Walker researched employees' reactions to the dispute resolution process which led to the development of their theory of procedural justice. They found that employees judge the fairness of procedures according to two types of control: the amount of control they have over the procedures used to make a decision (referred to as *process control*) and the amount of control they have over influencing the decision (referred to as *decision control*). People want procedures that make them feel like they participated in developing a decision that will affect them. Being able to voice their opinions allows them to influence others' decisions (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Further research revealed that procedures that provided employees with opportunities to influence a decision were perceived as fairer than procedures that denied process control (Bobocel, 2021).

Related to the study on control over processes and decisions, Lind and Tyler (1988), developed the self-interest and the group-value models of procedural justice. The self-interest model suggests that people seek decision control because they are concerned with maximising their outcomes. However, when individuals must cooperate with others in groups to achieve outcomes, the group-value model comes into play, and the focus shifts from decision control to process control (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). Procedures are then regarded as more important in attaining fair or favourable outcomes. The group-value model explains the value-expressive effects of process control. Group identity and group procedures are two elements that govern the functioning of groups (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Employees consider procedures that allow them to express their opinions (voice) to be fair, for they can participate in group processes as valuable group members. Even if "voice" does not produce a favourable outcome, it enhances perceived procedural justice because its value-expressive function confirms the values of group participation and group membership status (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

1.2.1.2 Distributive justice

Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of decisions concerning appointments, promotions and pay (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). Distributive justice is assessed by comparing and evaluating the result to a standard or guideline and/or the result by a referent, for example, a colleague or past experience (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Historically, Adams' (1965) equity theory has been the focus of organisational

scientists interested in issues of justice. This theory claims that people compare the ratios of their own perceived work outcomes (rewards) to their own perceived work inputs (contributions) with the corresponding ratios of a co-worker. If the ratios are unequal, the person whose ratio is higher is theorised to be inequitably overpaid, whereas the person whose ratio is lower is theorised to be inequitably underpaid. The equity theory predicted that comparatively low rewards would produce dissatisfaction. This discontent would then motivate individuals to take action that reduces the discrepancy between their ratio and that of their co-workers. According to Adams (1965), an over-reward situation will result in a person experiencing guilt, shame or remorse. These emotions are also negative and should, therefore, motivate the individual to reduce the imbalance (Cropanzano, 1993). Various studies have been conducted to determine how employees behave when they perceive injustice (Cropanzano, 1993). Justice violations in the workplace may give rise to employees' lawsuits which, if successful, could bring about various remedies (Deluga, 1994). Injustices, however, can also generate negative consequences that are less direct. Various studies have examined the influence of fair treatment of employees on organisational variables such as job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983), trust in and loyalty to the leader (Deluga, 1994), organisational citizenship behaviour (Morrison, 1994) and employee theft (Greenberg, 1990).

According to Leventhal (1976), individuals use three major justice rules to determine outcomes of justice: the contributions rule (*equity rule*), the *needs rule*, and the *equality rule*. The purpose of outcomes or decisions based on the equity rule is to achieve productivity and a high level of performance (Leventhal, 1976). The equality rule is used when the goal is to preserve social harmony, while the needs rule is applied when the objective is to foster personal welfare.

Organisational scientists began to raise questions about justice in various organisational settings, something which was inadequately addressed by prevailing theories of justice (Morrison, 1994). Specifically, questions on how pay plans were administered and what grievance resolution practices were followed in organisations prompted concerns about fairness that were process-oriented. The focus thus shifted to *how* decisions were made as opposed to *what* those decisions were. Whenever scarcity of resources such as limited financial resources is experienced, it might not be possible to avoid a negative outcome and hence distributive injustice perceptions may occur (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020).

Procedural justice outweighs distributive justice, in that workers may be willing to acknowledge an undesirable result if they believe the procedures used were conducted according to organisational justice principles (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). For example, smokers may strongly accept a smoking ban at their workplace when they feel they have been given thorough information about the policy changes, in a socially sensitive manner. The same principle might be applicable given the situation where an employee was not promoted (unfavourable outcome) but because all procedures were carried out fairly and transparently, the employee may accept the rejection.

1.2.1.3 Interactional justice

Bies and Moag (1986), as quoted by Chen (2018), state that interactional justice denotes individuals' concerns about the quality of the interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organisational procedures and thus it refers to the social exchange between participants. Akram et al. (2018) consider a decision-making process to consist of both the formal structural component and the informal interactions between the decision-makers and the recipients. As such, interactional justice involves the perception of fairness in the treatment that one receives (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Interactional justice has two subcategories namely informational justice and interpersonal justice, which need to be considered separately.

1.2.1.3.1 Informational justice

Informational justice refers to a process of making honest and understandable explanations that provide the information needed to assess structural aspects of the decision-making process (Chen, 2018). Informational justice includes clarifications or information that details how procedures were enacted, why they were followed and used, or why outcomes were unveiled in a specific manner.

1.2.1.3.2 Interpersonal justice

Interpersonal justice refers to the degree to which managers treat employees with respect, politeness and sincerity in determining results or procedures followed (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Interpersonal justice includes four dimensions namely: *truthfulness, respect, propriety* and *justification* (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). The first

three attributes deal with the nature of communication while it is occurring. The last one (justification) has to do with removing any discontent following an unfair procedure.

- Truthfulness. It refers to how honest a manager/ supervisor interacts with his subordinates and to what extent the manager can be trusted (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). When employees' trust in their supervisors is strengthened, they feel encouraged to reciprocate with higher levels of organisational citizenship (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). Trust in the supervisor ties closely to all components of justice, which positively influence organisational citizenship behaviours that benefit individuals and the organisation (Bobocel, 2021).
- Respect. Workers ought to be treated with respect, with no plan of action to cause negative behaviour (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). Individual workers are more open to doing extra-role activities when their superiors show them respect (Bobocel, 2021).
- Propriety. Statements and questions should never be improper or include biased aspects, for instance, racism or sexism (Bobocel, 2021).
- Justification. At the point when a perceived unfairness has occurred, giving an apology or explanation can alleviate or remove the feeling of anger created (Chen, 2018). Interactional justice can be increased when the supervisor clearly explains procedures, provides information and addresses workers' concerns about fairness (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020).

1.2.2 Organisational citizenship behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is referred to as extra-role behaviours of an employee that extends even beyond the normal duties prescribed by an employer (Chen, 2018). Extra-role behaviour refers to behaviour that is intended to benefit the organisation, which is discretionary and goes beyond existing role expectations (Dong & Phuong, 2018). Although OCB is important for organisational performance, these extra-role behaviours are seldom rewarded formally by the employers (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). Sujono, Tunas and Sudiarditha (2020) define OCB as the activities that support the psychological and social environment in which task performance takes place. These authors support the notion that OCB is seen as extra-role behaviour which might not be recognised by the formal reward system. Massoudi, Jameel and Ahmad (2020) define OCB as behaviours that go beyond task performance and technical proficiency, instead

of supporting the organisational, psychological and social context that serves as an important catalyst for work performance.

One of the most empirically researched OCB constructs distinguishes between two dimensions that categorise OCB into behaviours that support the company as a whole (OCBO) and behaviours that support other individuals in the OCBI workplace (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Williams and Anderson (1991) identified two dimensions: first, Organisation Citizenship Behaviour – Individual Behaviour (OCBI) directly benefits particular individuals and indirectly contributes to the organisation; and second, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Organisation (OCBO) are behaviours that benefit the organisation in general, or organisational benefits such as the performance of responsibilities that are not mandatory but contribute to organisational performance and image. Although OCBI relates to altruism, OCBO relates to the dimension of conscientiousness.

Criticism has been levelled against the separation of OCB into components for two reasons. First, the components are strongly correlated and therefore overlapping (Williams & Anderson, 1991; LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002). Second, the components correlate with the same predictors (i.e., work attitudes, productivity, organisational engagement, perceived fairness, positive leadership and conscientiousness) (Dong & Phuong, 2018).

Various studies identified five dimensions of OCB, e.g., civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship and altruism (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). According to Massoudi, Jameel and Ahmad (2020), OCB influences general organisational viability and supervisors routinely consider OCB when surveying worker productivity and making decisions about promotions and salary increments. Accordingly, workers that participate in OCB show more elevated amounts of employment inspiration than employees that do not (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Moreover, it is recommended that this greater display of OCB may prompt higher productivity, leading to profitability (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). According to Sujono, Tunas and Sudiarditha (2020), OCB is classified into five dimensions: *civic virtue*, *conscientiousness*, *courtesy*, *sportsmanship* and *altruism*. These classifications of OCB will be briefly discussed below.

Civic virtue indicates employees' enthusiasm for participating in a firm's macro or corporate life e.g., to participate in its management (attend meetings, sharing one's opinion about what strategy the organisation may follow, engage in policy debates, etc.), to remain abreast of its environment for analysing threats and opportunities, and to guard for firm's best interest, for instance, locking doors (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). When employees exhibit these behaviours i.e., attend and actively participate in corporate meetings, it results in a speedy exchange and dissemination of information. Additionally, the employees, by making suggestions about how to respond to changing market requirements, enhance organisational responsiveness (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Both the dissemination of information within an organisation and responsiveness to the market is critical for organisational performance (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019).

Conscientiousness is used to indicate that a particular worker is accountable, organised and hardworking. Sujono, Tunas and Sudiarditha (2020) define it as an individual's dedication to his/her job which goes beyond formal expectations such as volunteering to perform duties beyond a worker's own duties and working long hours. Conscientiousness indicates that employees with this personality trait invest more time and energy than normally expected in their work activities (i.e., engage in more work or service effort). This is because service effort is positively related to customer evaluation (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019).

Courtesy is behaviour that focuses on conflict prevention and taking the necessary steps to lessen the effects of the conflict in the future (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). An example of courtesy is an employee that encourages others when they feel discouraged and are demoralised about their development in their workplace.

Sportsmanship is a behaviour of tolerating the irritations that are an unavoidable part of nearly every type of organisational setting (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Massoudi et al. (2020) assert that good sportsmanship would enhance the morale of the employees which results in reduced worker turnover. This form of citizenship behaviour is reported to have various desired organisational outcomes like improvement in quantity and quality of production (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Further, by exhibiting sportsmanship employees do not complain unnecessarily (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019) which results

in a positive climate of tolerance among employees and consequently influences the customer-employee interaction positively (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

Massoudi et al. (2020) define altruism as voluntary behaviours where an employee offers assistance to another worker experiencing problems completing his/her work due to unusual circumstances. Altruism, therefore, refers to a worker helping other workers of the organisation with their tasks. Sujono, Tunas and Sudiarditha (2020) assert that altruism was significantly correlated to performance evaluations and influences positive affectivity.

1.2.3 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction (JS) can be formally defined as the degree to which individuals feel positive or negative about their jobs. When employees' expectations are met, they will have feelings of accomplishment which have a direct influence on their job satisfaction (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu, 2020). It includes the employees' mental and physical health, social well-being and sense of happiness, which are all associated with the term job satisfaction (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu, 2020).

Job satisfaction can also be portrayed as a feeling of pleasure that stems from employees' impressions of their jobs. According to Dong et al. (2018), job satisfaction refers to employees' expressions of well-being associated with performing their jobs. Due to fierce competition in the labour market and an increase in the number of organisations that compete globally, the well-being of organisations has become an object of extensive research and theoretical interest (Dong & Phuong, 2018). An organisation's well-being refers to how it functions, and the quality of work-life balance experienced by its employees (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu, 2020).

Mueller and Kim (2008), as quoted by Mohammad, Rand and Ra'Ed (2019), assert that there are two types of job satisfaction based on the level of employees' feelings about their work. The first, and most studied, is global job satisfaction, which refers to employees' overall feelings towards their jobs (e.g., "Overall, I love my job.") (Mueller & Kim, 2008). In this respect, JS indicates the emotional condition of employees and is sometimes used as a predictor for promotion programmes in the workplace so as to implement effective strategies (Mueller & Kim, 2008; Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019).

The second is job facet satisfaction, which refers to feelings about particular aspects of employment such as pay, benefits, employment hierarchy (reporting structure), development opportunities, the working environment, and the nature of relationships with one's colleagues (e.g., "Overall, I love my career, but my schedule is difficult to manage") (Mueller & Kim, 2008; Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). JS is seen in a dynamic process as a predictor and outcome variable for other employment-related performance-oriented factors, such as work engagement (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). According to Kerber and Campbell (1987), as quoted by Wang and Seifert (2017), job facet satisfaction measurements help recognise particular aspects of work that need change. When employees do not like their jobs, they either leave the organisation, taking with them the expertise and experience they may have acquired in the organisation or remain and allow conditions to worsen, neglect their duties, reduce effort and become chronically or voluntarily absent (Wang & Seifert, 2017). The results may help organisations improve overall employee satisfaction or recognise organisational issues such as high turnover (Kerber & Campbell, 1987; Wang & Seifert, 2017).

In general, job satisfaction encapsulates employees' feelings about their jobs (Massoudi, Jameel, & Ahmad, 2020). Research has shown that job satisfaction is a multidimensional phenomenon, influenced by various external and internal factors, like the employee's principles, values, expectations, nature of the job, opportunities provided, personality etc. (Afsar & Umrani, 2019). Job satisfaction also includes physical working conditions, the work itself, personal achievement, responsibility, recognition, advancement, job security, supervision, salary, institution policy and administration, benefits and interpersonal relations (Afsar & Umrani, 2019).

De Geus, Ingrams, Tummers and Pandey (2020) developed a model of job satisfaction that explains the causal relationship between employees' behaviour and job features. The theory developed by de Geus et al (2020) was based on the job characteristic theory first introduced by Hackman and Oldham (1976). The job characteristics theory describes the relationship between job characteristics and individual responses to work (de Geus et al., 2020). The theory specifies the task conditions in which individuals are predicted to be successful in completing their work. This type of relationship is influenced by three psychological conditions: 1) the meaningfulness of work experienced by the employee, 2) the employee's feeling of responsibility for the work outcomes and 3) the employee's

knowledge of the results of work. Workers are more prone to respond positively to their jobs if they have the feeling that their job is of value, that they are in charge of their work performance and are aware of their job performance (de Geus et al., 2020).

The first psychological condition is influenced by three fundamental job features: *skill variety* (different skills are required for different activities), *task identity* (completion of special assignment) and *task significance* (the impact of an assignment on other people). The second psychological condition is influenced by *job autonomy* (freedom and independence during the execution of the assignment), while the third psychological condition is influenced by *performance feedback* (provision of accurate information about the performance and effectiveness in a specific assignment). The overall value of these conditions describes the overall complexity of the job, which is referred to as the motivating potential (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). The motivating potential refers to the extent that intrinsic motivation is affected by the combination of the five features listed above (de Geus et al., 2020).

In recent years, researchers' attention focused on a cognitive methodology of job satisfaction, considering not only the workers' needs but the cognitive processes that influence their perspectives and attitudes (Karem, Mahmood, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Jameel, Ahmad and Mousa (2020) reviewed the most popular job satisfaction instruments and identified the following aspects of job satisfaction: communication, appreciation, fringe benefits, co-workers, nature of the work itself, job conditions, payment, the nature of the organisation itself, organisation's procedures and policies, supervision, promotion opportunities, job security, personal growth and recognition. Davidescu et al. (2020) assert that the most common work satisfaction factors are cohesion among colleagues, support from superiors, job involvement and opportunities for autonomous action. Contrary to the findings of Jameel, Ahmad and Mousa (2020), Yaakobi and Weisberg (2020) state that working conditions are reported to be less important than the work itself. However, Salam (2020) corroborates Jameel, Ahmad and Mousa's finding (2020), stating that salaries, mentoring and promotion opportunities formed an important part of job satisfaction.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

Organisations function as systems consisting of employees from different backgrounds and orientations (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). The effective functioning of systems is dependent on the interactions amongst employees and between employees and their employers without which the accomplishment of goals would be impossible (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). In the course of these interactions, people are bound to be offended, expectations thwarted and promises unfulfilled, and in such situations, perceptions of organisational injustice become inevitable (Wang & Seifert, 2017).

When someone experiences a specific event in the workplace, they form a justice perception, whether fair or unfair, about the event (Wang & Seifert, 2017). What happens if employees perceive injustice at work? In other words, when employees perceive that the outcomes, processes, information or interpersonal treatment are unfair at work. Perceived injustice is followed by moral outrage, and both victims and observers feel anger and resentment as a natural reaction to experiencing unfairness (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020), which may lead to the display of aggressive behaviour such as back chatting to superiors, verbal abuse (e.g., swearing and name-calling) and even acts of physical violence towards others (Wang & Seifert, 2017).

Organisational justice perceptions can have an overbearing influence on the overall performance of organisations. Whenever employees feel that they are being treated unfairly, they may engage in retaliatory behaviours that include time-wasting, absenteeism, damaging equipment, gossiping, sabotage, insubordination, taking extended breaks, spreading rumours and theft (Chen, 2018). These kinds of behaviours have huge monetary and emotional costs to the organisation and its employees (Chen, 2018). As a result of these costs, organisational researchers have committed a significant effort to understanding employee behaviours that violate organisational norms and those that have the potential to affect the well-being of the organisation as a whole (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). Several researchers stated that organisational justice perceptions can have different outcomes including organisational misbehaviour, antisocial behaviour, and workplace sabotage and aggression (Chen, 2018; Wang & Seifert, 2017; Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). These behaviours are similar because they violate

significant organisational standards and not only threaten the success of an organisation but the well-being of employees as well.

Individuals who view organisational justice negatively tend to be driven by negative emotions resulting in dissatisfaction (Wang & Seifert, 2017). Not only will dissatisfied employees perform poorly, but they will not make extra effort in getting the job done. Yaakobi and Weisberg (2020) argue that organisational justice has the potential to reposition organisations and increase benefits for employees. If employees perceive that they are being treated fairly by their organisation, they are more likely to reciprocate by having positive attitudes about their work, its outcomes and their organisation (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020).

Employers spend a fair amount of time and money on hiring new employees, going through the recruitment process, and training new employees (de Geus et al., 2020). It is of the utmost importance that employers take care of their employees from an investment point of view (de Geus et al., 2020). Employee satisfaction results in higher levels of productivity (Xia & Lin, 2021) and increases the morale of the employees; therefore, workers willingly work harder to help the organisation meet its goals. Dissatisfaction with work has many negative side effects for the organisation, while satisfaction results in a much better retention rate (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). The effects of dissatisfaction that result in an employee's withdrawal from a job and organisation can range from mild to severe. Tardiness, late coming and extended lunch breaks depict an employee's lack of interest or commitment (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). This worsen to the extent that an employee may abscond altogether. Other signs of job withdrawal include engaging in non-work-related talk, attending to personal matters while at work, playing games, spending time on social networks, and diminishing job performance (Chen, 2018). These withdrawal behaviours are evidence of dissatisfaction and may result in an employee leaving the workplace (Chen, 2018). Therefore, the withdrawal will lead either to the employee voluntarily leaving (employee turnover) the organisation or being terminated for poor performance. Yaakobi and Weisberg (2020) define employee turnover as the entrance of new employees into an organisation and the departure of current employees from the organisation. They further argue that the intention of an employee to either leave or stay is essentially a result of emotional attitudes toward their commitment, job

satisfaction and obligation as well as the perceptions that there are better external employment options available with better working conditions and pay.

It can be argued that monetary rewards can play a very important role in influencing job satisfaction. According to Dong and Phuong (2018), pay level is another important motivator for most employees. In addition, they assert that one's salary not only has an economic value, it also affects an employee's assessment of his/her self-worth, status and relationships. Chen (2018) states that non-market-related salaries may cause dissatisfaction. Employees may be bothered by the fact that their qualifications and experience are inconsistent with their salaries. De Geus et al (2020) state that staff members will compare their performance and earnings with other employees. Employees experience inequity when they know they make less than their counterparts who may be less qualified than them (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). Moreover, employees interpret the organisation's unresponsiveness to requests for payroll changes as a sign that they are not important (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020).

Dissatisfaction with pay levels may result in employees engaging in industrial action to show that they are unsatisfied with their pay (Leversidge, 2014). The Royal College of Midwives (RCM), a UK-based trade union representing midwives, called for its members to engage in a protected strike to show their dissatisfaction with their pay. They stated that when employees feel demoralised because of pay, they cannot deliver quality care to their patients (Leversidge, 2014). Furthermore, they asserted that investing in staff is an investment in better services.

According to the Annual Industrial Action Report of the Department of Labour in South Africa (2012), Gauteng as the smallest province in the country continues to account for the largest number of work strikes. The province encountered 42 strikes in 2012, an increase from 33 in 2011 – this indicated an increase of 27.3%. In 2012, for instance, truck drivers engaged in a strike that caused a total loss of R271 million in wages and salaries. The presence of labour unrest is directly related to employee dissatisfaction (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020).

Despite the extensive research on this topic, there remains a gap in understanding the specific mechanisms through which perceptions of justice translate into employee

behaviours and overall satisfaction. This study aims to address this gap by examining the intricate relationships between justice perceptions, employee behaviour, and job satisfaction, thus contributing to a deeper understanding of how organisations can foster a fair and supportive work environment.

1.3.1 Research questions regarding the literature review

The following issues were addressed in the literature review:

1. How is organisational justice conceptualised?
2. How is OCB conceptualised?
3. How is job satisfaction conceptualised?

1.3.2 Research questions with regard to the empirical study

1. How does organisational justice influence OCB?
2. How does organisational justice influence job satisfaction?
3. What is the relationship between OCB and job satisfaction?
4. Are there statistical differences in fairness perceptions, OCB and job satisfaction among employees of different ethnicity, gender, marital status, job level and educational level?
5. How should organisations treat their employees to promote OCB?
6. How should organisations treat their employees to promote job satisfaction?
7. What further research could evolve from this study?

1.4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.4.1 General objectives

The general objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between perceptions of organisational justice (OJ), organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and job satisfaction (JS).

1.4.2 Specific research objectives

The specific objectives of this study in terms of the review of literature were to:

1. Conceptualise organisational justice as discussed in the literature review.
2. Conceptualise OCB.
3. Conceptualise job satisfaction.

In terms of the empirical study, the specific objectives were to:

1. Investigate the influence organisational justice has on OCB.
2. Investigate the influence organisational justice has on job satisfaction.
3. Investigate the relationship between OCB and job satisfaction.
4. Investigate whether the sample of respondents differs significantly regarding their justice perceptions, OCB and job satisfaction regarding different ethnicity, genders, marital status, job level and educational level?
5. Formulate recommendations on how organisations should treat their employees to promote OCB.
6. Formulate recommendations on how organisations should treat their employees to promote job satisfaction.
7. Indicate what further research will evolve from the findings of this study.

1.5. IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

This study delves into the intricate dynamics of organisational behaviour, exploring the relationship between organisational justice, organisational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction. By examining the role of organisational justice in shaping employee attitudes and actions, this research contributes to theoretical frameworks, scientific understanding, and practical implications for organisational management. Through rigorous analysis and empirical investigation, this study sheds light on the pivotal role of fairness in organisational practices, offering insights that can inform decision-making and foster positive workplace environments.

This study contributes significantly to the theoretical landscape by adding to existing research on the topic of organisational justice. By emphasizing the crucial role that organisational justice plays in shaping employee behaviour, it enriches ongoing discussions within the field of organisational behaviour. Moreover, this research builds upon prior studies by delving deeper into the underlying mechanisms through which perceptions of fairness impact attitudes and actions in the workplace. By uncovering these mechanisms, the study enhances our theoretical understanding of organisational behaviour dynamics, providing valuable insights for future research endeavours.

In terms of scientific contribution, this study strengthens the foundation of knowledge in organisational behaviour. Through meticulous research design and robust statistical analysis, it furnishes empirical evidence that supports the established relationship between organisational justice and employee behaviour. By employing rigorous methodologies and ensuring the reliability and validity of its findings, this research bolsters the credibility of existing scientific literature in the field. Furthermore, by providing clear empirical validation for theoretical propositions, the study advances our understanding of organisational behaviour dynamics and stimulates further scientific study in this important area.

The practical implications of this study are significant for organisational leaders and managers seeking to improve workplace environments. By highlighting the substantial impact of organisational justice on employee attitudes and behaviours, this research offers actionable insights for enhancing workplace practices. Managers can utilise this information to develop and implement policies and procedures that prioritize fairness and transparency, thereby fostering a more engaged and satisfied workforce. Ultimately, by aligning organisational practices with principles of justice and equity, organisations can enhance employee well-being and productivity, leading to greater organisational effectiveness and success.

1.6. RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Wrench, Maddox and Richmond (2012), the research design describes the plan undertaken in collecting information from the research participants. Yin (2014) defines research design as a framework in which the research is conducted to best answer the research questions and achieve the objective of the study. This study made use of quantitative research.

The purpose of quantitative research is explanatory in that the research describes or explains a phenomenon (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010; Salkind, 2012). The quantitative information provided by the survey may be reviewed using statistical analysis (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Salkind, 2012). Standardised information that may be used to define or describe variables or to study the relationship between variables is an essential element of this research design. On the other hand, correlational research studies the degree to

which discrepancies in one variable relate to discrepancies in one or more other variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Salkind, 2012). Both the nature of this study and the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlational and inferential research indicated the use of quantitative survey design (Salkind, 2012).

Surveys are administered to a sample of a population and the information obtained can be generalised to the whole population provided that the sample is representative of the population. A quantitative survey design with a focus on descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical analyses was used to achieve the empirical research objectives. The survey method was used for descriptive reporting and a questionnaire was used to identify individual differences and perceptions. Through the questionnaire, respondents provided information on their behaviour, attitudes and perceptions.

In this research, the reasons for using a questionnaire to collect the primary data were:

- It is a relatively cheap method.
- It can easily facilitate data collection from a large population.
- It is relatively easy to distribute and collect questionnaires when respondents are from a single organisation, as was the case in this study.
- The majority of respondents had an office type of job in which they could complete the questionnaire during office hours.

A self-developed questionnaire was distributed to employees employed at service rendering organisations.

1.6.1 Research variables

Creswell (2013) defines variables as phenomena that vary depending on the conditions affecting them. There are two kinds of variables namely: dependent and independent. The independent variable is not dependent on anything else and is manipulated to determine its effects on the dependent variable (Stangor, 2014). The independent variable of this study was organisational justice and the dependent variables were OCB and job satisfaction.

1.6.2 Type of research

This research was descriptive and explanatory in nature. A quantitative survey design with a focus on descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical analyses was used to achieve the empirical research objectives. The research objectives were achieved by collecting and analysing data obtained from respondents to establish the relationship between various variables and explain the nature of relationships between those variables. Descriptive research uses surveys to gather information and interpret certain aspects of subjects in a quantitative manner (Wrench, Maddox & Richmond, 2012).

1.6.3 Methods to ensure reliability and validity

In this section, the measures put in place to ensure the validity and reliability of the research process are discussed.

1.6.3.1 Validity

Validity is the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to compute and assess as it is designed to work (Wrench, Maddox & Richmond, 2012). It is uncommon, if not impossible, that an instrument can be 100% valid, so degrees are generally used to measure validity (Stangor, 2014). The validation process involves gathering and analysing data to test the accuracy of an instrument. The validity of the content was established by ensuring that the measurement instrument used represented the dimensions of the domain being studied. A six-point Likert scale was used for each of the questions, scored as: (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) slightly disagree, (4) Slightly Agree, (5) agree and (6) Strongly Agree.

External validity can be defined as the extent to which findings and conclusions of a research study can be generalised beyond its context and confines (Creswell, 2013). For studies that are descriptive in nature such as this study, external validity is a necessity (Stangor, 2014). In this study, external validity was achieved by ensuring that the sample is representative of the population. Targeting the total population of professional office-bound employees helped increase the generalisability of the results to the target population. As previously stated, this study was descriptive and explanatory in nature and disproportionate; therefore, a stratified sampling method was used. Participants were provided with standard instructions.

The validity of instruments used to gather data was ensured as follows:

- Scientific research questionnaires that are acceptable in terms of content validity, face validity and construct validity were used to measure the construct of this research study (Salkind, 2012; Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006)
- To ensure the internal consistency reliability and construct of the recently created OJ and OCB scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficients and exploratory factor analysis were used (Salkind, 2012; Terre Blanche, et al, 2006)
- Efforts were made to guarantee that the data gathered was accurate and that the data was faultlessly coded and suitably analysed to guarantee content validity. The processing of data was conducted by a knowledgeable statistician using computer software used for data analysis (Salkind, 2012; Terre Blanche, et al, 2006).
- The researcher ensured that the findings of this study were based on the data analysed to guarantee content validity. Standardised methods were used to report and interpret the results (Salkind, 2012; Terre Blanche, et al, 2006).

The researcher ensured that the conclusions drawn, and recommendations and implications made were accurate and based on the findings of the study.

1.6.3.2 Reliability

The internal consistency reliability test is of particular importance because it measures the degree to which all the items in a measurement/test measure the same attribute. Internal consistency thus implies a high degree of generalisability across the items within the test. Cronbach's alpha is the most common estimate of the internal consistency of items on a scale (Dubrin, 2012). It can be expressed with the following formula:

$$\alpha = N / (N-1) [1 - \sum \sigma^2(\gamma_i) / \sigma^{2x} x]$$

In the above formula N equals a number of items; $\sum \sigma^2 (\gamma_i)$ equals the sum of item variance and σ^{2x} equals the variance of the total composite.

Further analysis was utilised to assess the construct validity and measurement reliability of the organisational justice, OCB and job satisfaction instrument which was a newly constructed questionnaire for this study.

1.6.4 Unit of analysis

This refers to the application of logic and reason to refine collected data (Raeside, Adams & Khan, 2014). There are two key questions in determining the unit of analysis. Firstly,

there must be a determination made about the lowest level of independent units. Statistical analysis is important to determine the level to which units are independent. Secondly, a determination must be made about the degree of variation in the causal variable. If most of its variation is between the non-independent units, then aggregation or averaging should be used (Raeside, Adams & Khan, 2014). The terms of individual measurement and the unit of analysis were the individuals employed by an organisation in the private sector. The analysis of data was represented by a group of individuals within a private organisation in South Africa. Moreover, the researcher focused on OJ, OCB and job satisfaction with purpose of determining whether a correlation existed between these variables.

1.6.5 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues are the concerns and dilemmas that arise over the proper way to execute research, more specifically without creating harmful conditions for the subjects of inquiry, humans, in the research process (Schurink, 2005). The UNISA ethical guidelines and standards formed the basis on which this research was carried out. The research was conducted within the scope of the ethical requirements and procedures of the institution and the research ethics procedures of the institution were followed at all times. These considerations formed part of each step of the research process to ensure that they guided the researcher and the study. A letter of consent was obtained from the HR director of the organisation under study to provide organisational permission for this study. The scope and purpose of the study were explained to the respondents through a cover letter accompanying the questionnaires. In this letter, participants were assured of strict anonymity and confidentiality and that the study was voluntary in nature. The principles of ethics in research, as indicated in the institutional Research Ethics Policy of Unisa (2013) copied verbatim are as follows:

- All research participants have the right to privacy to the extent permitted by law (e.g., child abuse cases should be reported to the appropriate authorities in terms of the law).
- Privacy includes autonomy over personal information, anonymity and confidentiality, especially if the research deals with stigmatising, sensitive or potentially damaging issues or information. When deciding on what information should be regarded as private and confidential, the perspective of the participant(s) on the matter should be respected.

- All personal information and records provided by participants should remain confidential. When conducting interviews, it should be made clear that confidentiality and anonymity will be safeguarded. Whenever it is methodologically feasible, participants should be allowed to respond anonymously or under a pseudonym to protect their privacy.
- All personal information obtained directly or indirectly on or about the participants (e.g. names obtained by researchers from the hospital and school records), as well as information obtained in the course of research which may reveal the identity of participants, will remain confidential and anonymous. This guarantee will be given when researchers ask consent to use data that is not already available within the public domain (e.g. classified data on prisoners held by the Department of Correctional Services).
- In the case of covert observation (e.g. of a public scene) steps should be taken to ensure that the information will not be used or published in a form in which the individuals could be identified.
- Researchers should maintain privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality of information in collecting, creating, storing, accessing, transferring and disposing of personal records and data under their control, whether these are written, automated or recorded in any other medium, including computer equipment, graphs, drawings, photographs, films or other devices in which visual images are embodied.
- Researchers should make appropriate arrangements for the preservation and confidentiality of research records for one year after the submission of the report or the results.
- Risk minimisation should be applied to research records. The possibility of a breach of confidentiality and anonymity should be anticipated, addressed and explained to the participants as an attendant risk.
- Codes or other identifiers should be used to break obvious connections between data and individuals/organisations/institutions where possible. Where there is a mixture of information obtained from the public domain and information obtained with the participants' informed consent, no traceable link should be left between the two sets of information.
- Confidentiality and anonymity of participants and their localities should be maintained when reporting to clients/sponsors/funders. Participants should not be identified or made identifiable in the report unless there are clear reasons for doing

so. If the researcher or institution intends to identify participants or communities in the report, their informed consent allowing such disclosure should be obtained, preferably in writing.

- Research findings published in the public domain (e.g. theses and articles) that relate to specific participants (e.g. organisations or communities) should protect their privacy. Identifiers that could be traced back to the participants in the study should be removed. However, the public interest may outweigh the right to privacy and may require that participants be named in reports (e.g. when child labour is used by a firm).
- Participants' consent should be sought where data identifying them are to be shared with individuals or organisations, not in the research team. They should be provided with information about such individuals or organisations (their names, addresses etc).
- The obligation to maintain privacy, anonymity and confidentiality extends to the entire research team, other researchers at UNISA, UNISA administrative employees, and all those (from or outside UNISA) not directly associated with the research that may possibly have access to the information.

1.7. RESEARCH METHOD

The study was conducted in two parts. The first part consisted of a literature review and the second involved an empirical study.

Phase 1: Literature review

- Step 1: Conceptualise organisational justice and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective
- Step 2: Conceptualise OCB and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective.
- Step 3: Conceptualise job satisfaction and the factors that influence job satisfaction.

Phase 2: Empirical study

The empirical study took place among a population consisting of individuals employed at Assupol, a financial services organisation in South Africa. The population consisted of 600 employees, and a sample of employees from different ethnicity, gender, staff

category, age and educational level groups were drawn. The sample size of this study was 300, however, 600 questionnaires were sent out to ensure that the targeted 300 could be generated. As is stated under methods, to ensure adherence to ethical research, participation in the study was voluntary. It was, therefore, a possibility that some participants selected for the study preferred not to participate. The 600 selected participants were office-bound and had access to e-mail. 600 questionnaires were sent via e-mail to the target population.

This study made use of a disproportionate, stratified sampling method. Stratified sampling involves separating the population into subgroups called “strata”, and then randomly drawing a sample from each stratum (subgroup). A sample drawn at random is unbiased in the sense that the sample has equal probabilities of being selected (Yin, 2014). In this study, the subgroups were determined according to ethnicity, gender, staff category, age and educational level. A list of employees, categorised according to the different groups, was obtained from the organisation.

According to Yin (2014) data includes facts collected from participants or observations or published information which is categorised as primary or secondary data. Primary data was collected by employing a structured self-developed questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed electronically by using the Lime survey. The questionnaire covered the following topics:

- Biographical data
- Organisational justice perceptions
- Organisational citizenship behaviour
- Job satisfaction

The participants’ responses to each of the questionnaire items were captured into an electronic spreadsheet format. All data was analysed through statistical analysis, using a statistical package (SPSS Inc, 2008). The statistical procedure was conducted in the following stages:

- Stage 1: Exploratory factor analysis of organisational justice, OCB and job satisfaction.
- Stage 2: Descriptive statistics which include Cronbach’s alpha coefficients, testing the unidimensionality of the OJ, OCB and job satisfaction, infit and outfit item

statistics (RASCH model analysis) was utilised. Means and standard deviations were utilised to analyse the data to assess the internal consistency reliability of the measuring instruments.

- Stage 3: Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was calculated to indicate the direction and strength of the relationship between the constructs.
- Stage 4: Multivariate statistics (canonical correlation analysis and multiple regressions) and inferential statistics were utilised to explore the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (OCB and job satisfaction) that is explained by the independent variable (organisational justice). T-tests and ANOVA were used to explore significant differences in the mean scores of the various socio-demographic groups in terms of OJ, OCB and job satisfaction. The statistical significance level of $p \leq 0.05$ was used which provides 95% confidence in the results being accepted as the standard when applied to other research contexts (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).
- Step 5: The results were presented in tables, diagrams and/ or graphs, and the discussion of the findings was presented in a systematic framework ensuring that the interpretation of the findings was clearly and articulately conveyed. The results of the empirical research were integrated into the findings of the literature review.
- Step 6: The final step relates to conclusions based on the results and their integration with the theory. The limitations of the research were discussed, and recommendations were made in terms of the influence of organisational justice on OCB and job satisfaction.

1.8. CHAPTER LAYOUT

The layout of this dissertation is as follows:

- **Chapter 1 – Introduction and motivation for the study.** This chapter focuses on the background of the research, the problem statement, the aim and objectives of the research, a brief outline of the research design and the research methodology.
- **Chapter 2 – Organisational justice (OJ).** This chapter conceptualises organisational justice and outlines the impact justice perceptions could have on organisational behaviour. The various dimensions of organisational justice such as procedural, distributive and interactional justice are discussed. The discussion

also details the role of perceptions about organisational justice in organisational settings.

- **Chapter 3 – Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).** OCB is conceptualised by addressing its dimensions such as civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship and altruism.
- **Chapter 4 – Job satisfaction (JS).** This chapter discusses job satisfaction and factors that are closely associated with it such as, but not limited to, perceived organisational support, trust, working conditions, the nature of the work, personal achievements, responsibility, recognition, advancement, job security, supervision, salary, institutional policy, benefits, interpersonal relations, communication, appreciation, co-workers, payment, organisational culture, procedures, promotion opportunities, personal growth, cohesion among colleagues, and support from superiors.
- **Chapter 5 – Research methodology.** This chapter details the design of the research and discusses the methodology was utilised in this study. An overview of the sample and population are presented as well as the instruments of measurements and justifications for their use. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the description of the data collection and analysis.
- **Chapter 6 – Results and interpretation of results.** This chapter deals with the findings emanating from the data collected. An interpretation of the results is provided to integrate the findings of the empirical study and the literature review.
- **Chapter 7 – Conclusions, limitations and recommendations.** This is the final chapter of the study. In this chapter conclusions are provided; limitations are explored and recommendations are made for the field of organisational justice that may be used for future research.

1.9. SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the background and motivation for this study. The research problem and questions, empirical study, objectives of the study, research method and design were discussed. This chapter has also highlighted the three dimensions of organisational justice (procedural justice, distributive justice and informational justice). A brief reflection on why organisational justice has such an important impact on an

organisation was provided. The review also highlighted OCB and its dimensions (civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship and altruism) as this is relevant to this study. This review also included studies conducted by other researchers which pertained to job satisfaction.

It was also important to understand what aspects of an employee's job led to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. For these reasons the factors affecting job satisfaction were briefly discussed. Management should not be ignorant of these factors as they may have negative ramifications for the organisation. Such consequences of job satisfaction had to be included so that management can address potential problems that may arise.

CHAPTER 2: ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

Organisational justice is the primary concept that is examined for its effects on organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction in this study. This chapter will thus discuss organisational justice to show how important justice perceptions are to employees as these perceptions could significantly impact on their willingness to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour and subsequently contribute to their job satisfaction.

2.1 THE CONCEPT OF ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

Greenberg was the first researcher to introduce the term organisational justice in 1987 and defined it as the ethical and fair treatment of employees within organisations (Greenberg, 1987). According to Muchinsky (2003), the perception of justice is the common view of fairness contained in the workplace.

According to Fernandes and Awamleh (2006), organisational justice concerns itself with the fair treatment of individuals within organisations. It can be viewed as a restricted type of social justice that is characterised as the fair and proper administration of laws that adjust to the natural law that all people, irrespective of religion, ethnicity, gender, ethnic origin, possessions, etc., ought to be treated equally and without bias (Dong & Phuong, 2018). In an organisational context, there are always competing goals and objectives. To determine fairness, employees consider three factors namely the actual decision, the procedures used in making such decisions and the way that employees are treated (Dong & Phuong, 2018).

Organisational justice pertains to employees' perceptions of fairness in the organisation (Dong & Phuong, 2018). Donglong, Taejun, Julie and Sanghun (2019) assert that the overall performance of an employee can be affected by organisational justice. For instance, if a worker perceives fairness within an organisation, they will have positive attitudes toward the organisation (Donglong, Taejun, Julie & Sanghun, 2019).

Organisational justice, being an expressively observed subject over three decades in organisational behaviour writings, emphasises employees' perceptions of fairness in

organisational settings (Dong & Phuong, 2018). According to Farid, Iqbal, Jawahar, Ma and Khan (2019), it is concerned with how workers decide whether they have been treated fairly in their workplace and how fairness impacts other work-related factors such as career progression, increases in remuneration, recognition, development opportunities afforded and quality workplace relations.

Earlier definitions of organisational justice research identified a two-way structure: firstly, employee responses to the fairness of outcomes which is termed as *distributive justice* and secondly, the means or the procedures engaged in obtaining those outcomes called *procedural justice* (Greenberg, 1993).

However, developments in organisational justice research have highlighted the third dimension of justice – interactional justice. Interactional justice refers to the quality of interpersonal treatment employees receive during the enactment of organisational procedures. Each of the three dimensions of organisational justice has its features (Farid et al., 2019). Figure 2.1 provides a graphical representation of the various components of organisational justice.

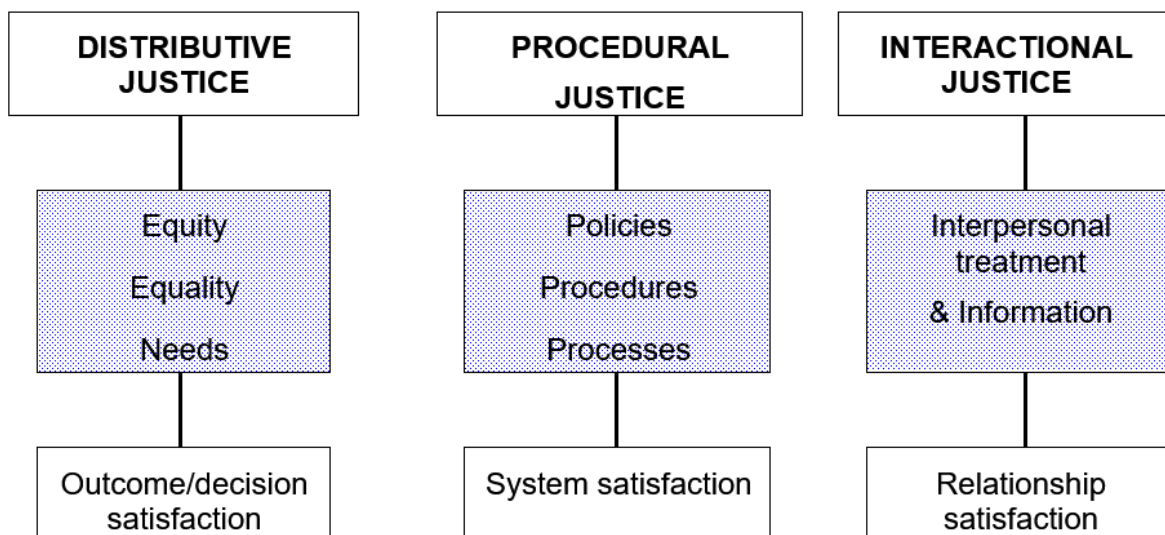


Figure 2.1: Structure of organisational justice (Adapted from Coetzee, 2004)

The diverse forms of organisational justice that influence organisations will be discussed in the sections that follow.

2.2 DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE (DJ)

According to Dong and Phuong (2018), distributive justice refers mostly to the perception of fairness concerning remuneration issues. Donglong et al. (2019) argue that the distributive aspect of justice is an individual's perceived fairness of resource allocation, founded upon the individual's input in comparison to the expected outcomes. The foundation of this description aligns with Adams' (1965) theory of equity. In his theory of equity, Adams concluded that an individual develops a sense of organisational equity or inequity through a comparison of ratio inputs assessing contributions and rewards to other employees within an organisation (Adams, 1965). Organisations that develop the perception of workplace equity are successful in influencing job contentment and satisfaction among employees. Individuals who perceive their proportion of inputs to be lower than the rewards received will feel dissatisfied and become agitated (Donglong et al., 2019). According to Bobocel (2021), studies previously conducted on distributive justice were mainly based on employees in professional occupations.

2.2.1 Equity theory

The major structural components of equity theory include inputs and outcomes. Inputs are described as what persons perceive as their contributions as an exchange for which they expect a just return (Adams, 1965; Dong & Phuong, 2018). Outcomes are defined as the rewards individuals get from the exchange and can include such factors as pay and fundamental satisfaction (Farid et al., 2019). Adams (1965) contended that social behaviour is influenced by convictions that the distribution of rewards within a group ought to be impartial, that is, results ought to be relative to the contributions of individual group members. In other words, the equity theory states that individuals are content when the proportions of their contributions to outcomes (i.e., rewards) are equivalent to the proportions of inputs to outcomes in comparison to others (Adams, 1965). Apparent inequality through this analysis feels unpalatable and propels individuals to lessen those offensive emotions (Dunaetz, 2020). The presence of inequality will provoke people to achieve equality or reduce inequity, and the strength of the motivation to do so will vary directly with the magnitude of the inequity experienced (Bobocel, 2021). As such, Adams (1965) suggested that when distribution outcomes don't meet this model, individuals would see disproportionate distress and endeavour to behaviourally or subjectively re-establish equity. Adams (1965) suggested six different modes of reducing inequity based

on the theory of cognitive conflict: (1) altering inputs; (2) altering outcomes; (3) cognitively distorting inputs or outcomes; (4) leaving the field; (5) acting on the object of comparison by altering or cognitively distorting the other's inputs or outcomes; or (6) changing the object of comparison. Bobocel (2021) also attempted to predict when individuals will perceive themselves to be unfairly treated and how they will react to that perception. The key to this hypothesis comprises four interlocking recommendations: (1) inequality prompts psychological anxiety equivalent to the size of the inequality; (2) groups develop connotations of equity and endorse group members on the premise of those definitions; (3) individuals will attempt to augment their outcomes; and (4) such distress will prompt attempts to remove it by re-establishing equity (Bobocel, 2021). People can attain the conviction that distributive fairness exists by twisting perceptions, rather than changing the situation (Bobocel, 2021).

In summary, Adams' equity theory (1965) focused on reactions to unfair outcomes. If the outcome is acknowledged to be inappropriate concerning some standard, then the individual is probably going to encounter distributive injustice (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). According to Jameel et al. (2020), the equity theory employs a uni-dimensional concept of distributive justice. The theory assumes that individuals judge the fairness of their own or others' rewards solely in terms of the merit principle (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

2.2.2 Referent cognitions theory

Folger and Martin (1986) attempted to challenge Adam's equity theory by proposing a referent cognitions theory with the principle of incorporating dynamics of procedural and distributive justice. The referent cognitions theory elaborates on the equity theory's problematic attempts in justifying reward allocation results because the latter has ignored reactions related to the decisions leading to the results made (Folger & Martin, 1986).

The referent cognitions framework recognised two kinds of responses against unfairness perceptions – hatred and frustrations reactions (Folger & Martin, 1986). Hatred is believed to be the result of convictions about procedures that could be used to get outcomes while frustrations are more related to the distributive justice of the spectrum, emphasising the relative results themselves. As the name "referent" suggests, dissatisfaction emerges when the receivers compare the real situation to a more favourable alternative (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). In line with the theory, Karem et al. (2020) assert that

the perception of injustice prevails as a result of two judgments. Initially, the distributive justice aspect of the theory is reflected in individuals judging whether they would have received the desired outcome under different circumstances (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). In the second step, the individuals make determinations on whether they ought to have received the results being referred to. Therefore, the difference between “ought to” and “would have” turn into the underlying component in distributive and procedural justice linkage (Karem, Mahmood, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019).

As previously stated, the basis for the referent cognitions theory has provided a potential illustration to the interactive effects between procedural and distributive justice in organisational settings. Additionally, the hypothesis suggests that when results are seen as unjustifiable, distributive justice is low and procedures used by the management are viewed as uncalled for; aggressiveness and anger are two conceivable repercussions on the part of the employees (Karem, Mahmood, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). By contrast, when the procedures are viewed as just, the inclination towards aggressiveness is restricted disregarding that the outcomes may be poor, thus reflecting distributive injustice (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). In such situations, employees who depicted prevalent procedural justice in the organisation would not opt for a change in procedures that would entail better outcomes (Bobocel, 2021).

The methodical justice class is additionally represented by Leventhal (1980), who proposed that a fair process is affected by other factors beyond process and decision control. He proposed six procedural justice rules that define the criteria that allocative procedures should frequently fulfil to be perceived as fair (Leventhal, 1980). These criteria are the consistency rule, the bias-suppression rule, the accuracy rule, the correctability rule, the representativeness rule and the ethicality rule.

The consistency rule dictates that allotment procedures ought to be consistent across people and over time (Leventhal, 1980). When applied across persons, the consistency rule dictates that similar procedures should be applied to all recipients of rewards, and special advantages should not be given to any (Leventhal, 1980). When applied over time, the consistency rule commands that procedures ought to be kept stable, at least over the short term (Salam, 2020). The bias-suppression rule dictates that personal self-interest and blind allegiance to narrow preconceptions should be prevented at all points in the

allocative process (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). The accuracy rule dictates that the allocative process must be founded on accurate information as much as opinion. Information and opinion must be collected and processed with a minimum of error. The correctability rule dictates that opportunities must exist to empower the allocative process to be altered (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). According to the representativeness rule, all phases of the allocative process must represent the basic concerns, values, and outlooks of all recipients affected by the allocative process. The rule requires that leaders ought to incorporate representatives of critical subgroups into the total population (Salam, 2020). In terms of the ethicality rule, allocative procedures must be compatible with the fundamental moral and ethical values, or standards accepted by that individual (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

People apply each of these procedural rules specifically under various circumstances, contingent on particular conditions (Karem, Mahmood, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). In other words, each of these rules will be weighed differently in varying situations pertaining to procedural fairness (Greenberg & Baron, 2010). That is, if a specific procedural rule has a more prominent effect on judgments of fairness, that rule is said to have a more noteworthy weight (Greenberg & Baron, 2008). Hence, the relative weight of procedural guidelines might vary from one state to the next and from one procedural element to the another (Salam, 2020).

2.2.3 Justice judgement model

Thus far, distributive justice has been discussed from the perspective of the individual who receives the outcome. On the other hand, another body of research has arisen that focuses on the distribution of outcomes among two or more recipients. Leventhal (1976) considered distributive justice from the perspective of the individual making the allocation. Furthermore, Leventhal (1976) provided an analysis of equity theory and created a justice judgment model to clarify perceptions of justice. According to the equity theory, an individual perceives fairness when rewards are in proportion to contributions. In this way, a person's view of fairness is impacted by a contributions rule that points out that individuals with improved work ought to receive higher outcomes (Dunaetz, 2020). In other words, the equity theory recognises the relevance of only one justice rule, the contributions rule.

Dunaetz (2020) indicates the importance of different allotment standards that determine criteria by which the distribution of outcomes is characterised as justice. A justice rule is a belief that results must be circulated in harmony with definite criteria (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Leventhal's (1976) justice judgment model embraces a more proactive strategy than the equity theory. Individuals judge their "worthiness" by utilising a few distinctive justice rules. There are mainly three distributive justice rules: the contribution rule, the equality rule, and the needs rule (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). The justice judgment model places a four-phase sequence where an individual assesses the justice of outcomes (Dunaetz, 2020). The individual:

- decides which justice rules is to be used and how much weight to give them – weighting;
- estimates the quantity and types of outcomes the receiver deserves founded on all justice rules – preliminary estimation;
- combines the results earned on the foundation of each rule into a final estimate – rule combination; and
- assesses the fairness of the receiver's real results by comparing the real to the merited outcome – outcome evaluation (Dunaetz, 2020).

As indicated by the justice judgment model, individuals assess distributive processes employed by decision-makers in the given the circumstance by proactively utilising different justice standards, such as needs, equality and equity (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). While an equity rule dictates that everybody ought to get similar outcomes irrespective of contributions or needs, a needs rule dictates that people with higher needs ought to get higher outcomes (Mikula, Petrik & Tanzer, 1990). In other words, the fundamental theory of justice judgement is that an individual relates distribution rules selectively by following various rules at different times. In this manner, the individual's fundamental criteria for assessing fairness may change in different circumstances (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). For example, equitable reward allocations would maximise an individual's positive work behaviours such as work performance over the long term, whereas equality of rewards may nurture a high level of satisfaction, harmony and solidarity among group members (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019).

According to Greenberg and Baron (2008), Leventhal shifted the emphasis of research on justice toward distribution and the role of the distributor, and raised fundamental issues about the distributor's role in matters of distributive justice. Although distributive justice

has presented potential understanding into organisational procedures resulting from both proactive and reactive methodologies, it has omitted to answer questions raised in different organisational conditions where concerns about rationality are more process-oriented (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). In other words, this legacy of theory and research gives a slight insight into possible effects brought about by how these rewards are established. As a result, questions remain about the way organisational rewards influence reactions to them (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). That is, how decisions are made as opposed to what those decisions are have been the primary concern in organisational justice research (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Thus, researchers have concentrated their attention on procedural justice issues.

2.2.4 A taxonomy on justice classes

When people make fairness evaluations, they appear to be sensitive to two distinct focal determinants: structural determinants and social determinants (Greenberg, 2011). The distinction between structural and social determinants is based on the immediate focus on just action (Greenberg, 2011). On account of structural determinants, justice is observed by concentrating on the example of resource allocations and procedures perceived as fair under such organisational concerns as performance appraisals, employee pay and managerial dispute resolution (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

By comparison, the social determinants of justice focus on the treatment of people (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Consequently, structural determinants promise fairness by consolidating a decision-making context whereas social determinants ensure fairness by concentrating on the interpersonal conduct one receives. The act of treating others transparently is socially fair, while the act of following a predominant rule of justice is fundamentally fair (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019).

Greenberg (1993) proposed a taxonomy that seeks to clarify the role of social factors in conceptualisations of justice. In other words, the recommended taxonomy is one that is intended to highlight the distinction between the structural and social determinants of justice by noting the place of these determinants in either procedural or distributive justice (Greenberg, 1993). Taxonomy of justice involves classes created by combining categories of justice with focal determinants of justice. Table 2.1 presents the taxonomy of justice classes and demonstrates the names given to the subsequent classes.

Table 2.1: Taxonomy of justice classes

Focal Determinant	Distributive Justice	Procedural Justice
Structural	Configural Justice	Systematic Justice
Social	Interpersonal Justice	Informational Justice

Source: Adapted from Greenberg (1993)

Configural justice denotes the kind of distributive justice that is achieved through structural means (Greenberg, 1993). Distributions of reward allocations may be structured either by forces to conform to existing social norms such as equality and equity or by the desire to achieve some instrumental goal such as minimising conflict or promoting productivity (Greenberg, 1993). These are all methods for organising the setting of reward portions.

Conversely, interpersonal justice refers to the social features of distributive justice (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Interpersonal justice may be examined by displaying concern toward individuals regarding the distributive outcomes they received (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Several studies provide evidence that people consider the nature of their treatment by others as a determinant of fairness. For instance, Lind and Tyler (1988) analysed citizens' responses to managing police and courts. They found that perceptions of ethical appropriateness and honesty, such as respect for rights and politeness, were seen as being among the most vital determinants of the fairness of the treatment they received. In addition, Bies and Moag (1986) found that job applicants who were disappointed with the outcomes they received (i.e., they were turned down) believed those outcomes to be fairer when the authority figure exhibited concern toward their predicament than when no such concern was conveyed. Hence, it seems that the quality of the interpersonal behaviour received is the foremost determinant of individuals' valuation of fair treatment (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

Being the intrinsic dimension of organisational justice conceptualisation, much of the initial studies were primarily concerned with distributive justice based on Adams' (1965), social exchange theory framework that assessed fairness (Dunaetz, 2020). The outlook of distributive justice relates to how individuals judge the fairness of the outcomes and how they respond to perceived unfairness in the outcome distribution (Dunaetz, 2020).

The extent of Adams' (1965) theory divided the judgment of absolute versus the relative level of outcomes; he maintained that one way to determine whether an outcome was fair was to calculate the ratio of one's contributions to one's outcome and then contrast the ratio and that of the others' contributions which would enable the comparison of the two input-outcome ratios. Adams's equity theory viewed social interaction as a reciprocal exchange governed by a norm of distributive justice (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). However different researchers have scrutinised the uni-dimensionality of this approach as far as how the space of conduct that the hypothesis aims to defend is overstretched and that the hypothesis neglects to incorporate the fairness uncertainties within all of the social motivation (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

When individuals compare their input and output ratio to others, they will experience equity when the two ratios are equal (Adams, 1965). Adams (1965) asserted that when people perceive their anticipated results as unfair when compared to referent others, they try to restore justice. However, the inspiration for reinstating equity may vary concerning the extent of imbalance experienced. So, in a circumstance of inequity, individuals may endeavour either behaviourally (modifying inputs, job performance) or mentally to re-establish equity. One technique of reinstating justice is to decrease inputs or act in a counterproductive way to rebalance the input-output proportion (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

Distributive injustice appears when individuals do not receive the reward they expect in correlation with the reward that others receive (Ismail & Zakaria, 2009). Distributive justice includes the receiver's perspectives on how his or her outcome is in comparison to a referent's result – that of another colleague (Ismail & Zakaria, 2009). So, the understanding of relative deprivation as a result of being unfairly benefited in a specific give-and-take relationship may tend to create inequality (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

As it is originally expressed in Adams's (1965) equity theory, when employees perceive their work conditions as unjust, they simply do not become dissatisfied but are rather inclined react in return. Likewise, as cited by Greenberg (1990: 400), "...if the ratios are unequal, the party whose ratio is higher is theorized to be inequitably overpaid (and to feel guilty) whereas the party whose ratio is lower is hypothesised to be inequitably poorly

paid (and to feel angry)". The equity theory assumes that individuals continuously compare the fairness of their own or others' rewards resulting in considering distributive justice as an exchange. Individuals consider what they have done in exchange for what they received (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

2.3 PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (PJ)

According to Skarlicki and Latham (1996), as cited by Ivancevich and Matteson (2002), procedural justice refers to the extent to which fair processes and procedures are in place and observed, and to which individuals see their leaders as being fair, sincere and logical or rational in what they do. Folger and Cropanzano (1998) define procedural justice as the "fairness issues concerning the methods, mechanisms, and processes used to determine outcomes". These definitions of procedural justice are supported by Ghran et al. (2019), who state that procedural justice is concerned with the fairness of the procedures followed leading to a particular outcome.

In 1975, Thibaut and Walker researched employees' reactions to the dispute resolution process which led to the development of their theory of procedural justice. Accordingly, employees judge the fairness of procedures according to two types of control: the amount of control they have over the procedures used to make a decision (referred to as *process control*) and the amount of control they have over influencing the decision (referred to as *decision control*). People want procedures that allow them to feel that they have participated in developing a decision that will affect them. Being able to voice their opinions allows them to influence others' decisions (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Further research revealed that procedures that provided employees with opportunities to influence a decision were perceived as fairer than procedures that denied process control (Dunaetz, 2020).

Farid et al. (2019) found that perceptions of procedural justice were boosted only when clarifications were accepted to be adequately considered and honestly communicated. It has been discovered that disallowed appeals were possibly observed as procedurally fair when the decisions were founded on reasonably related information (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). Greenberg and Baron (2008) found that employees saw their performance appraisals as being more attractive when numerical assessments were

accompanied by written accounts clarifying their appraisals than when no such written clarifications were given. Therefore, such discoveries sturdily recommended that it is not only the processes utilised to determine outcomes but the clarifications for those processes that affect perceptions of procedural justice (Greenberg & Baron, 2010).

Related to the study on control over processes and decisions, Lind and Tyler (1988) developed the self-interest and the group-value models of procedural justice. The self-interest model suggests that people seek decision control because they are concerned with maximising their outcomes (Lind & Tyler, 1988). However, when individuals have to cooperate with others in groups to achieve outcomes, the group-value model comes into play and the focus shifts from decision control to process control (Dunaetz, 2020). Procedures are then regarded as more important in attaining fair or favourable outcomes (Dunaetz, 2020). The group-value model explains the value-expressive effects of process control (Dunaetz, 2020). Group identity and group procedures are two elements that govern the functioning of groups (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). Employees consider procedures that allow them to express their opinions (voice) to be fair, for they can participate in group processes as valuable group members (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). Even if “voice” does not produce a favourable outcome, it enhances perceived procedural justice because its value-expressive function confirms the values of group participation and group membership status (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020).

2.3.1 The self-interest model of procedural justice

Leventhal (1980) used the traditional model of informed self-interest in his theories of procedural justice. The other model depends on group identification processes and on the view that procedural justice is a focal cognition in perceptions of the group (Leventhal, 1980). Lind and Tyler (1988) presented two models that defined the reason procedural effects happen. The models can be classified based upon whether the background of justice appeals to the individual economic interests or parts of the interaction that the member values (Dunaetz, 2020). These models portray an assertion by researchers to depict the effects of procedural justice, as opposed to simply showing its widespread applicability (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020).

The instrumental or self-interest model depends on the presumption that individuals attempt to serve their interests when cooperating with others (Dunaetz, 2020). The model

amplifies this supposition by speculating that individuals will not just choose processes and outcomes in which their interests are supported outright. Individuals will also choose processes that are for the most part reasonable for themselves within a social group, a political framework, or a work organisation (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). According to Jameel, Ahmad and Mousa (2020), the prospect of being able to influence processes is deemed to boost perceptions of procedural justice since such influence might result in more favourable outcomes. In this model, the highest levels of perceived fairness were found when employees could control the process, which would lead to the achievement of a particular goal (Dunaetz, 2020).

Thibaut and Walker's (1975) original conception of the shift from concerns with decision control to concerns with process control convinced individuals that they could always maintain complete control over outcomes when interacting with others. When people join and remain in groups, they realise that other people's interests must sometimes be placed above their own goals and interests. This is critical for group membership because members will remain in the group only if their concerns are also considered (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020).

Consequently, the self-interest model essentially guarantees that people may take a long-term focus when assessing their monetary gains (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). In the case of group interaction, individuals gain more by participation in the long run than they gain alone, despite the economic compromises inalienable in group interactions (Dunaetz, 2020). As a result, people may become understanding of short-term economic losses so long as they expect that beneficial outcomes will be forthcoming in the future (Dunaetz, 2020). Thus, short-term failures can be disregarded when there is some promise of future gain (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). This self-interest viewpoint was the fundamental aspect of the first lessons of procedural fairness (Dunaetz, 2020).

According to Jameel, Ahmad and Mousa (2020), individuals consider that the outcomes to unfair processes are themselves unfair, but only when those outcomes are minor. Nonetheless, more favourable outcomes were fair irrespective of the fairness of the procedure (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). In this method, the self-interest model commends that concerns about processes are dictated primarily by their effects (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). In other words, processes are respected whenever they lead to

preferred outcomes – that is when they augment an individual's self-interest (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020).

2.3.2 The group-value model of procedural justice

The group-value model has been proposed as a supplement to the self-interest model (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). Individuals are strongly influenced by shared identification with groups, even when that identification is founded on minimal shared circumstances (Dunaetz, 2020). Individuals in groups will probably set aside their self-interests and act in a way that helps all group members more than pure self-interest models would anticipate (Dunaetz, 2020). The group-value model assumes that people are concerned about their long-term social relationship with authorities or institutions acting as third parties, and do not view their relationship with third parties as short-term (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). Rather, individuals think about their relationship with the third party. Therefore, the group-value model recommends three non-control issues that affect procedural justice judgments: trust in the decision-maker, the neutral stance of the decision-making process and evidence about social standing such as expressions of respect and politeness (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020).

In a long-term relationship, people cannot always have what they want. Instead, they must compromise and accept others' desires and needs (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). Jameel, Ahmad and Mousa (2020) suggest that individuals assume that, after some time, all will benefit fairly from the use of fair procedures for decision making. Therefore, people will focus on whether the authority has created a neutral arena in which to resolve their problem, instead of focusing on whether they receive a favourable outcome in any given decision (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). In any specific circumstance, individuals will be concerned with having an unprejudiced leader who applies appropriate genuine criteria to make decisions (Chen, 2018).

Moreover, the long-term nature of group association leads individuals to focus on the goals of the decision-maker (Chen, 2018). The goals of leaders are particularly essential since current interactions permit individuals to anticipate what is to come (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). Since people are in organisations for the long term, their loyalty depends on their predictions about what will happen in the long term (Chen, 2018). In this manner, if people trust that their leaders are being reasonable and dealing fairly with them, they

build up a long-term commitment to the group (Dunaetz, 2020). Third, people care about their standing in the group (Dunaetz, 2020). Interpersonal treatment amid social interactions gives individuals information about their status within the group (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). When people view a procedure as affirming their status in the group, they will react in a strongly positive approach (Chen, 2018). Conversely, when people see the procedure as being unreasonable because their status is overlooked, they will respond strongly to the procedural injustice (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020).

As noted, the model's basic assumption is that group membership is a powerful aspect of social life. People devote much of their energy to understanding the functioning of the various groups to which they belong and participate in social processes within those groups (Chen, 2018). According to this model, affective relations within and between groups and cognitive constructions concerning those relations are potent factors of attitudes and behaviour (Chen, 2018).

The group-value model proposes that people value processes that support group solidarity since they value long-term associations with groups (Dong & Phuong, 2018). The group-value model argues that groups offer more than material rewards. Group affiliation is additionally a method for accomplishing social well-being and self-esteem (Dong & Phuong, 2018). Thus, people tend to be aware of their positions within groups and the group's potential for providing them with these valuable social rewards (Dong & Phuong, 2018).

Chen (2018) asserts that both the self-interest model and the group-value model have merit. Both models have received empirical support. According to Dong and Phuong (2018), procedural justice concerns are related to the delay in satisfaction. Donglong, Taejun, Julie and Sanghun (2019) identified a wide variety of dispute resolution processes and used multidimensional scaling techniques to identify the basic dimensions underlying those procedures. They discovered one measurement that was procedural in character, and factors stacking on that measurement were identified with perspectives about the delay of satisfaction, that is, to survey outcomes in a longer period (Donglong, Taejun, Julie & Sanghun, 2019). Farid, Iqbal, Jawahar, Ma and Khan (2019) studied the connection between several distributive and procedural justice aspects and six organisational variables, comprising turnover intention, job satisfaction, conflict-harmony,

evaluation of supervisor, tension-stress and trust in management through multiple regression analysis. They confirmed that procedural fairness is associated with lesser levels of disharmony and conflict in organisations (Farid, Iqbal, Jawahar, Ma & Khan, 2019). The conclusion that concerns about group coordination lead to heightened procedural justice is consistent with a long-term self-interest viewpoint on procedural justice (Farid, Iqbal, Jawahar, Ma & Khan, 2019).

Nevertheless, most of the presented evidence is consistent with the group-value model. According to Dunaetz (2020), the support of procedural justice by process control is independent of favourable outcomes. The arrangement of voice enhances procedural justice, even in circumstances where there are minimal objective reasons that the exercise of voice will influence decisions (Dunaetz, 2020). Dunaetz (2020) used structural equation modelling to test the role of personal control in procedural justice in both lab and field settings; however, no substantial fundamental connection between procedural justice and control judgments was found in either study. In other words, control judgments did not cause procedural justice judgments. Additionally, Jameel, Ahmad and Mousa (2020) found that decision fairness was more strongly associated with the scope to which the decision symbolised the interests of all group members than the extent to which it preferred persons. On the whole, people respond to procedural justice in ways that reflect both cognitive and attitudinal reactions, and self-interest in group membership (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020).

The final conceptualisation of organisational justice that confronts employees in light of decision makers is termed *interactional justice* (Bies & Moag, 1986).

2.4 INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE (IJ)

In a sense, interactional justice may be the simplest of the three components. It refers to how one person treats another (Chen, 2018). Individuals are interactionally just if they appropriately share information and avoid rude or cruel remarks. Employees measure the latitude of events concerning three dimensions: the outcomes they get from the organisation (distributive justice), formal processes by which outcomes are distributed (procedural justice), and the interpersonal treatment they get from decision-makers categorised as interactional justice (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018). Interactional justice is

described as the “third wave” in the organisational justice typology, with the first “wave” consisting of distributive justice and the “second wave” consisting of procedural justice).

Interactional justice emphasises the quality of interpersonal interaction between individuals when procedures are implemented (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). Perceived interactional justice occurs when people assess the fair conduct of an authority figure through the presentation of a formal process (Dunaetz, 2020). An effective organisational functioning is likewise described by the nature of the relational treatment that employees get during decision making from the supervisors; in this way, supervisors can satisfy the interactional justice commitments by having respectful interpersonal communication (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). Together with the perceptions of justice related to outcomes and procedures, perceptions of fair communication in social exchange relationships are of employee concern (Dunaetz, 2020). Bobocel (2021) defines interactional justice as the perception of fairness in the treatment that one employee receives from the other.

Organisational behaviour scholars are yet to reach a consensus as to whether interactional justice is part of procedural justice or whether it should be treated as a separate form of justice. Bies and Moag (1986) note that interactional justice represents the concerns of individuals about the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive during the implementation of organisational procedures. Folger and Cropanzano (1998) found the decision-making process to be made up of both the formal institutional aspect defined by Leventhal's six rules of justice and the informal interactions between decision makers and recipients representing interactional justice. Moreover, they concur that interactional justice should be part of procedural justice.

Karimi, Alipour, Pour and Azizi (2013) argued that the concept of interactional justice is broadly portrayed in which employees' evaluations of their interpersonal and informational treatment may lead to distinct outcomes. The interpersonal dimension reflects how much employees are treated with respect and dignity by authorities involved in outcome determination and procedure execution (Bobocel, 2021). Informational justice involves explanations provided to employees that communicate information about why procedures are designed in a certain way or why outcomes are distributed in a certain manner (Bobocel, 2021).

The relationship between interactional and procedural forms of justice has been advanced as a hypothetical midpoint in such a way that researchers could not reach a consensus concerning whether interactional justice should be treated as a separate construct or whether it relates only to the social perspective of procedural justice (Bies & Moag, 1986).

Initially, early empirical studies emphasised interactional justice as unique from procedural justice (Salam, 2020). Being seen as separate constructs; procedural justice was understood as perceived fairness in formal aspects of the process by which a decision is made, whereas interactional justice was grasped as an informal evaluation of the interpersonal treatment received during work allocation (Salam, 2020). Differently put, interactional justice refers to the quality of interpersonal treatment that employees receive from their supervisors during the execution of organisational procedures, whereas procedural justice signifies a fair exchange relationship between the employee and the organisation.

After a decade or so, researchers attempted to emphasise the similarity between these two previously called “separate constructs”. In line with this approach, Greenberg (2011) reiterated how interactional justice components are inherent in procedural and distributive justice, thus it would be misleading to talk of the independent effects of interpersonal justice. Researchers followed suit and preserved both interactional justice and procedural justice as parts of a similar procedure by which an allocation decision is made. Within this range, interactional justice focused on social traits while procedural justice referred to the formal traits of the process. Henceforth both conceptualisations were perceived to be the traits of a single theory (Salam, 2020).

Likewise, Xerri’s (2014) study on the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational justice perceptions has revealed that only interactional justice was significantly related to the performance of organisational citizenship behaviours. It is only when employees perceive that they are being fairly treated that they are more likely to participate in citizenship behaviours. Procedural justice prioritises instrumental concerns whereas interactional justice is more concerned with the issues such as respect, care and trust (Xerri, 2014). Similarly, Salam (2020) affirms the difference between interactional and procedural justice in that a manager may lack the

discretion to control organisational procedures but rather has discretion in the portrayal of processes. In addition, Bobocel (2021) supports the distinction between procedural and interactional justice in that managers may need discretion to control organisational procedures rather than having discretion in the authorising of processes.

Since interactional justice highlights one-on-one transactions, employees often seek it from their supervisors (Salam, 2020). This presents an opportunity for organisations to invest in healthy work relationships. In a quasi-experimental study conducted in 1996 by Skarlicki and Latham, union leaders were trained to behave more honestly. Among other things, these leaders were taught to provide apologies and explanations (informational justice) and to treat their reports with respect and courtesy (interpersonal justice). When workgroups were studied three months later, individuals who reported to trained leaders displayed more helpful citizenship behaviours than individuals who reported to untrained leaders.

Recently, the distinction between procedural and interactional justice concepts has been revisited; the most significant contribution was that by Bies who originally proposed the concept of interactional justice in 1986. Although interactional justice emphasised the extent of interpersonal treatment during the implementation of organisational procedures (Bies, 2001), it was advanced further by Salam (2020), who argued that people are concerned about interpersonal treatment in their normal experiences of organisations. Interactional concerns transcend formal decision-making contexts (Salam, 2020). In this way, the modernised construct domain has included variability of kinds of interpersonal treatment that transcends processes and outcomes in the decision-making contexts such as belittling judgments, disrespect, invasion of privacy and deception (Salam, 2020).

Perceptions of interactional justice are important in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour (Donglong, Taejun, Julie & Sanghun, 2019). According to Hidayah and Harnoto (2018), the only dimension of interactional justice that relates to organisational citizenship behaviour is the dimension of fairness.

Hidayah and Harnoto (2018) argue that the correlation between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour is only linked through the altruism dimension. According to Salam (2020), organisational citizenship behaviour is connected to

interactional justice directed at the supervisor, which is based on the agent system model (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000).

Individual employees are more open to doing extra-role activities when their superiors show them respect (Salam, 2020). When employees have a bad perception of organisational justice, they tend to resort to non-organisational citizenship behaviour if apologies or explanations are not offered by management (Donglong, Taejun, Julie & Sanghun, 2019). Chen (2018) believes that the quality of the subordinate-supervisor relationship is connected to the five components of organisational citizenship behaviour. Interactional justice can be increased when the supervisor clearly explains the justice procedure and considers workers questions regarding the justice process (Salam, 2020).

The supervisor needs to ensure that employees perceive the justice procedures as being fair. When employees' trust in their supervisor is strengthened, they feel encouraged to reciprocate with higher levels of organisational citizenship behaviour (Chen, 2018). Trust in the supervisor ties closely to all components of justice which positively influences organisational citizenship behaviours that benefit individuals and the organisation (Chen, 2018). Salam (2020) agrees that trust in supervisors complements the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational justice. Bobocel (2021) further attests that trust within an organisation correlates positively with organisational citizenship behaviour.

Chen (2018) identified two major streams that allow for perceptions of interactional justice, which are when decision-makers treat individuals with dignity and when subordinates are provided with adequate explanations and justifications about decisions taken. These streams prompted the sub-classification of interactional justice as interpersonal justice based on propriety and respect, and informational justice based on justification and truthfulness (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). As opposed to reviews that categorised interactional justice into two types, earlier studies mostly consolidated the informational and interpersonal components under the title of interactional justice (Johnson, Selenta & Lord, 2006).

2.4.1 Interpersonal justice

Interpersonal justice refers to the dignity and respect that one receives. If employees have good interpersonal relationships with their co-workers and management within an

organisation and perceive that their career plans and goals match that of their jobs and organisation, they display higher levels of organisational commitment (Chen, 2018). Other research has considered the interpersonal aspects of the manner decision-making procedures are enacted. Sujono, Tunas and Sudiarditha, (2020) assert that individuals who received negative outcomes such as being declined for a job were more likely to accept those results as fair when a rational clarification was presented than when no such clarifications were provided.

2.4.2 Informational justice

Informational justice is the provision of sufficient information and social accounts (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Sujono et al. (2020) further argue that employees with perceptions of organisational justice perform better in the workplace and display higher organisational commitment. Additionally, informational justice refers to the social factors of procedural justice. Informational justice may be sought on the condition that knowledge about processes that exhibit regard for people's concerns (Chen, 2018).

2.5 THE INTERACTION BETWEEN THE THREE COMPONENTS OF JUSTICE

Preserving the three components of justice concurrently is a valuable task, but it may also seem intimidating. Evidence suggests that the three components of justice interact (Chen, 2018). Nonetheless, this interaction can be defined in various ways. The crucial point is this: the ill effects of injustice can be partly lessened if at least one component of justice is upheld. For instance, procedural and distributive injustice will have fewer negative effects if interactional justice is high.

To recognise this phenomenon, Yaakobi and Weisberg (2020) studied the relationship between justice and filing legal claims for alleged workplace discrimination. They found that plaintiffs were most likely to follow lawsuits when procedural, distributive and interactional justice were all low. If just one element of justice was high, the probability of a legal claim dropped (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). This is good news since it implies that organisations have three attempts at justice. If an organisation can get at least one component of justice right, some essential benefits should occur.

According to Coetzee (2004), distributive justice, which has a low correlation with interactional and procedural justice, is not significantly related to the treatment of employees. This means that employees might be willing to tolerate injustices such as the promotion of an affirmative action (AA) candidate as long as the decision was taken in a procedurally and interactionally fair manner. This study also revealed that perceptions of fairness influenced employees' commitment regarding obedience, satisfaction, participation and loyalty.

2.5.1 Obedience

Employees' willingness to adhere to rules and conform to group norms (obedience) is a direct result of the way they are treated in terms of task autonomy (type and significance of jobs assigned), the fairness of decisions taken (salary increases, promotions) and the way they are treated (being recognised, informed about developments, guided and accommodated in the workplace) (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020).

2.5.2 Satisfaction

The level of employee satisfaction is strongly influenced by the amount of task autonomy they have and how fairly they are treated (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020).

2.5.3 Participation

Employees' willingness to participate in work-related activities is directly related to the amount of task autonomy they have (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020).

2.5.4 Loyalty

Employees' loyalty is directly related to the way they are treated, the responsibilities assigned to them, and the perceived fairness of decisions taken (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). The more employees are treated humanely and respectfully, the more likely they are to remain loyal to the organisation (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020).

2.6 THE IMPACT OF ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

Over the past few decades, a significant body of research examined the consequences of fair and unfair treatment by organisations. This literature has been summarised in four different meta-analytic reviews namely, job performance, trust and commitment,

organisational citizenship behaviour, and loyalty and customer satisfaction (Chen, 2018; Salam, 2020; Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020; Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). While these quantitative analyses contrast some details, they all highlight the positive effects of workplace justice. Each of the reviews are dealt with independently in the sections that follow.

2.6.1 Justice improves job performance

Workplace justice forecasts the efficiency with which employees execute their job duties, although more so in field sites than in the undergraduate laboratory (Chen, 2018). According to Sujono, Tunas and Sudiarditha (2020), justice effects are often strongest in real life. To some extent, this is because with time fairness leads to strengthening interpersonal relationships, and rationality prompts solid interpersonal connections.

In two studies, Rupp and Cropanzano (2002), and Cropanzano, Prehar and Chen (2002) studied whether managers treated their reports with interactional justice. Once they did, the subordinate and supervisor had a higher quality association. This strong association, in turn, stimulated employees to higher job performance (Chen, 2018). Managers were concerned that just processes and pay were not only time consuming but expensive too. However, these costs may be partially covered by higher output.

2.6.2 Justice builds trust and commitment

Trust is a willingness to become vulnerable to another party (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). Xerri (2014) asserts that all three components of justice (procedural, distributive and interactional) predict trust. These relationships can be quite strong. For instance, the correlation between perceptions of justice procedures and trust were as high as 0.60 (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Correlation coefficients range from -1 to 1, with 0 indicating no correlation, -1 indicating a perfect negative correlation, and 1 indicating a perfect positive correlation. In this case, a correlation coefficient of 0.60 suggests a strong positive relationship between perceptions of justice procedures and trust, implying that as perceptions of justice procedures increase, trust tends to increase as well. Correspondingly, fairly well-treated employees are also more devoted to their managers. According to Sujono, Tunas and Sudiarditha (2020), the relationship between perceived justice and affective commitment ranged between 0.37 and 0.43, indicating a moderate positive association between perceived justice and affective commitment.

2.6.3 Justice fosters employee organisational citizenship behaviours

Numerous studies have found that fairly well-treated workers are more likely to show extra conscientiousness, obey workplace policies and behave altruistically toward others (Salam, 2020). Undeniably, employees tend to adapt their citizenship behaviours sensibly, assigning them to those individuals or groups that have treated them fairly and withholding them from those who have not (Chen, 2018).

The case of temporary workers is apt for illustrative purposes,. A contingent worker is likely to be linked with two diverse institutions: the recruitment agency and the institution that contracts with it. In their study Wayne, Liden, Kraimer and Sparrowe (2003) examined contingent employees who were assigned to a Fortune 500 industrial firm. They found that citizenship behaviours toward this manufacturing organisation were influenced by the procedural fairness with which the industrial organisation treated the employees. Contingent workers who received fair procedures from the industrial firm achieved more organisational citizenship behaviours. Nevertheless, the procedural justice these temporary employees received from the recruitment agency did nothing to increase citizenship behaviours toward the industrial firm. In simple terms, individuals repaid procedural justice with diligent work, but they responded only to the organisation that treated them fairly. The industrial firm did not benefit from the recruitment agency's efforts at procedural justice.

2.6.4 Justice builds loyalty and customer satisfaction

Justice within the workplace promotes worker organisational citizenship behaviours, characterized by selfless actions (altruism) directed towards colleagues, which bears a striking resemblance to the customer service-oriented behaviours demonstrated by employees, including assisting others and attentively addressing their needs. Expanding on this, Salam (2020) proposed that fair treatment of workers would lead to organisational citizenship behaviours that "overflow" to customers. This "just play" results in customers feeling properly treated, thus yielding loyalty and customer satisfaction.

2.7 EMPLOYEES' BEHAVIOUR IN RESPONSE TO INJUSTICES

Individuals may respond in several different ways to a perceived injustice, with variable degrees of impact on the organisation (Chen, 2018). Several factors can influence the decision to act on a perceived injustice, including the extent of its impact, perceptions of past and likely future injustices, and personal dispositions such as a desire for retribution and the tendency to confront or avoid problem situations (Dong & Phuong, 2018). When workers perceive unfairness and injustice, they become embittered which is damaging for both the organisation and individuals. While some workers might derive small benefits from such an unfair environment, they would be very few as most suffer loss in such situations (Bobocel, 2021). Therefore, organisations should try control injustice by observing employees' responses and instituting proper guidelines, and policies and procedures for ensuring fair decisions. Otherwise, employees may defer to naming-and-blaming activities.

Naming is the first recognisable proof of fairness or unfairness in an outcome, procedure or system. If unfairness is noticed, an employee reacts to the unfairness and the strength of the response is influenced by the extent of the identified injustice or unfairness (Salam, 2020). Now and again these circumstances give way to the development of groups which support others in classifying and identifying the perceived injustice like exploitation, abuse, discrimination and unfair treatment as well as transforming that perceived injustice into a grievance and assigning blame to any of three distinct entities: procedure, person or system (Salam, 2020).

2.7.1 Acting on Injustice

According to Baldwin (2005), at the point when employees are affirmed about injustice and fix the fault to a person, procedure, or system, they choose what and how to react to it. Figure 2.2 illustrates the various behaviours employees will display in dealing with dissatisfaction.

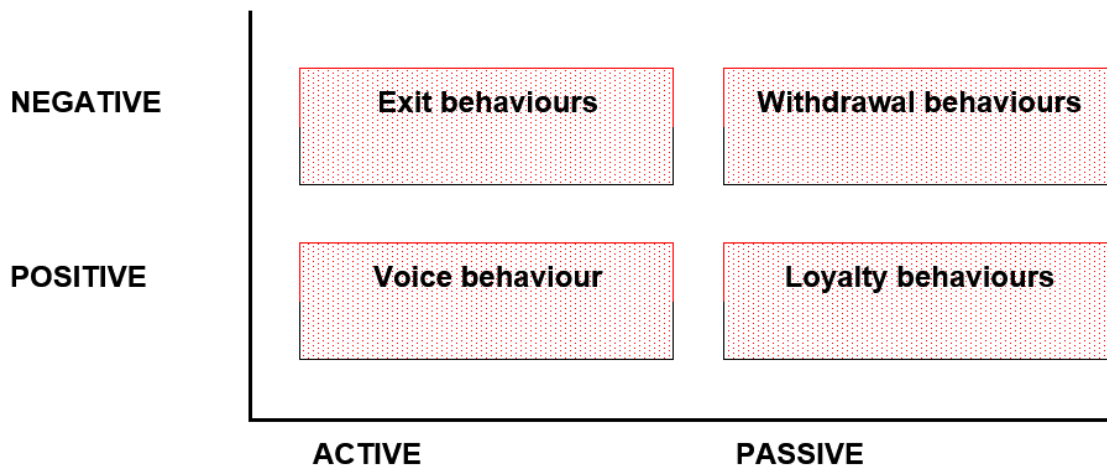


Figure 2.2: Behavioural responses to dissatisfaction

Source: Adapted from Coetzee (2004)

With reference to Figure 2.2, organisations will benefit the most from employees who deal with injustices *actively* and *positively*. Such employees will do something about the injustice in a constructive way such as bringing it to management's attention. This will enable the organisation to review its practices and prevent future problems. In addition, by allowing employees to raise their concerns, responding to their inputs and by providing them with explanations and feedback, the value of employees will be recognised. This, in turn, will lead to committed and loyal employees.

However, employees who respond to perceived injustices passively and negatively are harmful to the organisation. They are dissatisfied with their circumstances but do nothing to change it. Instead, they engage in withdrawal behaviour and do not attempt to contribute to the success of the organisation.

2.7.2 Factors influencing a person's need to act on an injustice

Two factors are the most vital in this regard. Firstly, the impact of the injustice on the perceiver; and secondly, the level of concern for controlling future injustices (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

2.7.2.1 The impact of Injustice

The observed level of injustice and the degree of accountability of a person building injustice will determine the intensity and need for a response from the perceiver

(Cropanzano, Stein & Nadisic, 2011). An unfairly treated worker will follow up on the injustice because:

- Injustice has been seen (level of injustice) and the individual in charge of this unfairness has been recognised (the supervisor – a person responsible).
- A discrepancy in the standard was affirmed (deviation from the process).

2.7.2.2 *Level of concern in limiting future injustices*

The second factor to impact an individual's need to act upon an unjust incident is the impression that if the incident is left unattended, injustice and unfairness will persevere. Consequently, limiting injustice to the current level necessitates a need to respond and react (Chen, 2018).

2.7.3 *Factors influencing the choice of action*

According to Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997), when employees observe injustice and they have to choose what to do, their choice to react is influenced by the benefit of response and the cost of response. Resentment, conflicts, retaliation, loss of opportunities, loss of reputation, strained interpersonal relationships, sense of failure and victimisation will denote the cost of response and the benefit would be the amendment of systems, procedures and practices (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

Employees commonly deal with injustice in one of four possible ways: change their behaviour to eliminate injustice; accept injustice and continue with it, quit the situation to avoid confrontation and continued injustice or rationalise the injustice by redefining and renaming injustice (Salam, 2020).

2.8 *HANDLING EMPLOYEES' REACTIONS TO INJUSTICES*

Employees that experience an injustice tend to act irrationally and emotionally when no avenue exists for reducing the injustice, when the chosen action has not fully solved the injustice, when feelings from the existing injustice are managed without considering the future and when unfairly treated employees are too angry to react rationally (Chen, 2018). These situations suggest that an organisation can do several things to channel reactions to injustice into less emotion-driven forms which are, thus, easier for the organisation to handle (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Organisations should consider the following options to manage employees' feelings about perceived injustices:

2.8.1 Eliminate gross injustices

First, organisations should avoid engaging in gross injustices. Although it is impossible to eliminate all forms of injustice and there are too many criteria for determining justice, injustices that do exist should be reasonable in scale (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

2.8.2 Provide accessible and effective mechanisms for responses to injustices

Providing a controlled, accessible, responsive, non-retributive means of allowing employees to vent their discontent and receive some reasonable response from the organisation can be beneficial as it avoids more harmful, emotional responses and reduces the perceived need for further action (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). One of the mechanisms that organisations can use to assure procedural fairness is to allow employees to be heard (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). This opportunity to express feelings and opinions is known as *voice*.

2.8.3 Allow employee voice

According to Yaakobi and Weisberg (2020), voice serves two critical roles in assuring procedural fairness: a *preventive* and a *remedial* role. Preventive voice is the process whereby organisations create mechanisms that permit employees to express their views about policies, procedures or key decisions in organisational governance and management (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). By providing opportunities for input by those influenced by a decision, organisations will likely be seen as fair in the first instance. Remedial voice mechanisms afford individuals the opportunity to express concerns about a decision that has already been made (Salam, 2020). This form of voice consists of efforts by employees to not only gain additional information about organisational practices but to also challenge and question them or attempt to change them (Salam, 2020).

Remedial voice serves several key functions. Its primary function is to reduce the level of dissatisfaction and distress in the employee experiencing injustice (Chen, 2018). It also provides diagnostic feedback to the organisation by indicating that some policy or practice is not working. Thus, it serves to alert the organisation to the fact that some employees find a policy or practice unfair (Chen, 2018). Identifying and notifying management of injustices, enables the organisation to correct or make changes as necessary. Voice does

not, however, assure that such changes or corrections will be made. Lastly, voice creates the opportunity for a new level of knowledge and understanding of the areas in which problems may be encountered in the future. This information enables the manager to design and implement future policies and practices so that justice concerns will not be raised (Chen, 2018).

The fair treatment of employees is important for three reasons: to improve performance effectiveness, to enhance the sense of organisational commitment, and to sustain individual dignity and humaneness. Closely related to these reasons are the functions of voice systems which include:

- assuring employees' fair treatment
- providing a context in which unfair treatment can be appealed
- improving the organisation's effectiveness
- sustaining employee loyalty and commitment

The first two functions meet the dignity and humaneness goal, the third meets the performance effectiveness goal, and the lastly, the commitment goal (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Therefore, a voice system has a direct influence on the perceived fairness of an organisation.

The purpose of organisational voice systems is to channel organisational dissatisfaction into acceptable forms and to respond to that dissatisfaction (Bobocel, 2021). Viewed from the individual's perspective, they provide mechanisms for hearing employee concerns and complaints. From the organisation's perspective, they serve as vehicles for stimulating feedback and commentary while maintaining control over the challenges and threats to management or even to the organisation's existence (Greenberg, 2011; Salam, 2020).

In understanding what organisational justice entails, an attempt should be made to apply fairness principles to the AA domain. In the next section, the fairness of AA will be evaluated against organisational justice criteria.

2.9 BENEFITS OF JUSTICE FOR THE ORGANISATION AND EMPLOYEES

Employees that perceive justice in the organisation react in a manner that is beneficial to the organisation (Greenberg, 2011). According to Yaakobi and Weisberg (2020), in organisations where employees' perceptions of organisational justice are high, there is high customer satisfaction, low turnover and low turnover intention, high organisational commitment, low absenteeism, high levels of OCB and low levels of employee theft (Salam, 2020).

Organisational justice brings benefits to workers as well (Chen, 2018). When any authority figure acts fairly, strong messages are sent to the environment that the organisation values employees (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). This message is very important for employees who already wish to be valued and accepted, as their feelings of self-worth increase resulting in improved physical and mental health and high pay satisfaction, low level of stress, and lesser feelings of discrimination (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

2.9.1 The psychological and economic impact of organisational injustice

Organisational justice is significant from a psychological and economic perspective (Greenberg & Baron, 2010; Chen, 2018). The experience and perception of injustice by workers can lead to counterproductive work behaviour and efforts to damage the interests of the organisation (Chen, 2018).

Counterproductive work behaviour includes absenteeism, waste of labour time and other resources, damage to organisational properties, theft, misuse of sensitive information and intentional low quality of work. All such responses are assumed to be the results of a violation of fairness (Salam, 2020).

2.9.2 Nature of employees' responses to injustice

The outcome of perceived justice generally comprises high performance, workplace satisfaction, employees' organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment whereas outcomes correlated to the perception of injustice are workers' withdrawal behaviour i.e., turnover, absenteeism, workers' counterproductive work behaviour i.e. employee theft (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

Studies in this area have confirmed that workers' perception of justice positively affects their behaviour and attitudes (Chen, 2018). Workers express high organisational citizenship behaviour and job commitment (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020), high performance and high job satisfaction (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020), high commitment to the organisation (Salam, 2020), satisfaction with the performance appraisal system (Salam, 2020), high psychological empowerment and organisational trust (Robbins, Ford & Tetrick, 2012; Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020), social behaviour and team loyalty (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Chen, 2018).

However, workers' perception of injustice negatively affects their attitudes and behaviour (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Their workplace hostility increases (Baron & Richardson, 1994), they feel anger and disrespect (Chen, 2018), their level of counterproductive work behaviour increases (Salam, 2020), and they are involved in organisational misbehaviour (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020), intention to protest and commit crime increases and their organisational citizenship behaviour tends to be low (Salam, 2020).

Studies have also recognised that the perception of injustice affects workers' health (Linna, Elovainio, Kivima, Pentti & Vahtera, 2011). Perception of the absence of justice (i.e. the perception of injustice) causes psychiatric disorder (Linna, Elovainio, Kivima, Pentti & Vahtera, 2011), deterioration in self-related health status and absence due to sickness (Salam, 2020).

The relationship between perception of fairness and health has been empirically examined and the health-related global cost of workplace stress and associated health issues owing to hostile conditions at the workplace including injustice was estimated at US\$ 2.5 trillion in 2010 demonstrating a serious social challenge (Chen, 2018; Salam, 2020).

Negative employee outcomes also result in harmful consequences for organisations as well (Salam, 2020; Chen, 2018). These harmful consequences may include absenteeism, turnover, burnout and low productivity (Salam, 2020; Chen, 2018).

2.10 CREATING PERCEPTIONS OF JUSTICE THROUGH HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

This section focuses on the role played by human resources management practices in influencing justice perceptions.

2.10.1 Selection procedures-positive job candidates

For most job applicants, the recruitment and selection procedure are their first interaction with an organisation. How job applicants are treated during this process can have implications later. Candidates who are treated fairly are more likely to form positive impressions of the organisation and recommend it to their friends (Chen, 2018). However, the converse is also valid. When candidates feel unfairly treated, they are more likely to consider a lawsuit as a potential remedy (Salam, 2020). This study proposes that it is beneficial for organisations to put their best foot forward. By treating candidates fairly during the hiring process, organisations set the basis for a relationship of trust and justice when those candidates become employees.

Chen's (2018) study on job applicants' responses to recruiting and hiring processes proposed that recruitment goes beyond someone being hired (Chen, 2018). Because candidates are often unaware of the reasons they were not selected or the capabilities of the appointed candidate, distributive justice is less of a concern during the selection process. In any case, supervisors do need to be attentive to procedural and interactional justice. It is also essential to understand that the selection process begins with recruitment as the initial communication and comprises all contact with job applicants leading to an offer or rejection (Chen, 2018).

In terms of procedural justice, research has recognised two expansive sets of concerns:

- Suitable questions and criteria are essential for procedural justice. Job applicants expect interview questions and screening tests to be related to the job, or at least to appear to be related to the job (Salam, 2020). Excessively personal interview questions and some screening tests, such as honesty tests, are often seen as unsuitable and an invasion of applicants' privacy (Salam, 2020).
- Sufficient opportunity to perform during the selection process means giving job applicants the chances to make a case for themselves and permitting sufficient

time in interviews (Chen, 2018). If standardised tests are utilised to screen applicants, justice can be boosted by permitting applicants to retest if they feel they did not perform their best (Chen, 2018).

2.10.2 Reward systems-justly balancing multiple goals

At the most fundamental level, rewards systems need to achieve two objectives: encourage individual performance and maintain group unity (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). While both objectives are valuable, the distributive justice study states that it is challenging to achieve them concurrently. Equity distributions, which remunerate performance, can spur individual effort. But the resultant inequality can be unsettling (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Therefore, if an organisation needs to preserve external equity, it can do so and risk internal inequality, but only as long as the distribution process is just.

When procedural justice is high, workers experience higher organisational commitment and a positive reaction to their supervisors. This is the two-factor model in action. Individuals that are not necessarily content with their pay are still unlikely to derogate the organisation when the procedures are just. Moreover, to procedural justice, interactional justice can be useful in overseeing pay justly.

Evidence of procedural justice can be seen in Greenberg's (1993) study on how pay cuts were communicated. Greenberg (1993) discovered that differences in how pay cuts were managed at two industrial plants produced dramatically dissimilar outcomes. The key to these dissimilar reactions could be attributed to interpersonal treatment. In the first case, a manager courteously, but speedily in about 15 minutes, proclaimed a 15% pay cut. In the other, a manager spent about an hour and a half speaking, taking questions, and communicating regrets about making an identical pay cut. During a subsequent 10-week period, employee theft was about 80% lower in the second case, and workers in that plant were 15 times less likely to resign. No employee wanted to have a pay cut but employees understood why it occurred, valued the supportive interpersonal treatment, and did not vent their anger on the organisation.

2.10.3 Conflict management- “you do not have to win” perception

Conflict resolution is likely to be most difficult when one or both parties are inflexible. At this point, the supervisor may listen to both disputants but will need to enforce a settlement. This is called arbitration, and it is finally autocratic. As a result, arbitration may sound risky because it hazards a distributive injustice; the settlement is imposed and not approved in advance by other parties (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018).

If any factor of justice is present during arbitration i.e. procedural, distributive or interactional, the overall assessment of the situation will be improved (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018). Because arbitration conserves procedural justice, an unfortunate outcome is less destructive than one might imagine. In simple terms, executives can make difficult decisions, but they must make them fairly (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). This illustrates a simple yet powerful lesson on conflict resolution: If an organisation cannot grant its employees their desired outcome, they can at a minimum grant a fair process.

2.10.4 Layoffs-softening hardship

Thus far, the discussion focused on evidence relating to justice in the context of reward systems, hiring and conflict resolution. These are ordinary events in a large organisation, and each will function more efficiently if justice is taken into account. Any scholar interested in the topic of organisational justice might speculate whether justice helps when something bad happens. Among common management circumstances that affect employees, downsizing is among the worst (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Layoffs have malicious effects, hurting the victims while undermining the confidence of survivors who remain employed. Although downsizing is a generally used cost-cutting strategy, it is extremely risky. The costs of staff reductions often outweigh the benefits (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). The event can be so negative that a sense of distributive injustice is practically a given. When downsizing is handled with interactional and procedural justice, victims are less likely to derogate their former employers (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Indeed, justice can have direct bottom-line effects.

Lind, Greenberg, Scott and Welchans (2000) interviewed several employees that were retrenched due to downsizing. Most of these individuals considered legal action following their retrenchment and approximately a quarter of them sought legal counsel. The single best predictor of intentions to take legal action was the justice of the treatment they

received at the time of their discharge. Among those who felt unfairly treated, Lind et al. (2000) found that a full 66% contemplated a lawsuit. Among those who felt fairly treated, this dropped to just 16% (Lind, Greenberg, Scott & Welchans, 2000).

Supervisors are often advised by human resources representatives not to apologise for the retrenchment since an apology can be seen as an admission of guilt. Research, however, indicates that an apology may help promote feelings of interactional justice that essentially decreases the risk of a lawsuit (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Justice, it would seem, offers a useful way to endure a crisis with the organisation's reputation intact.

Jameel and Ahmad (2020) observed that those workers who retained their jobs had a tendency towards “survivor guilt”. Nonetheless, if organisations present a reasonably good explanation for the retrenchment – an aspect of interactional justice – the remaining workforce will respond less negatively (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Offering unemployment benefits is also beneficial, as one might expect. Though, if these benefits are missing, a warning that a layoff is imminent will dull the negative reactions that might otherwise emerge (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

2.10.5 Performance appraisals: keeping score fairly

Most large organisations conduct performance evaluations in order to assign rewards, identify candidates for promotion, and develop human capital. Though these evaluations are beneficial, concerns persist, and their application is frequently questioned. Historically, researchers have advised practitioners to view performance appraisals as a sort of test wherein the fundamental task is to assign a valid rating to a more-or-less unbiased quantity (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

Cawley, Keeping and Levy (1998) meta-analysed 27 field studies, each of which studied worker participation in a performance appraisal. They found that when workers had a voice, they were more satisfied, perceived processes as fairer and were more inspired to do better. A notable finding was that these effects happened even when participation could not affect the rating. Merely being able to speak one's mind – labelled as “value-expressive” participation – caused employees to be more approving toward the performance appraisal system. These findings are consistent with the fair process effect mentioned earlier. More recent research on performance evaluation has taken a wider

perspective, emphasising the social setting and input from multiple sources (Salam, 2020).

2.11 SUMMARY

This chapter has covered a review of relevant literature on organisational justice. The chapter began with reviews of the concept of organisational justice and its three dimensions: procedural, distributive and interactional justice. Then, the components of each type of justice were discussed and identified. Distributive justice theories – equity theory, justice judgement model, taxonomy on justice classes, and referent cognitions theory – were deliberated on. Subsequent to this, detail on the self-interest model of procedural justice and the group-value model of procedural justice was expounded. Moreover, a categorisation of interactional justice into informational and interpersonal was provided as well as the importance of justice regarding employee behaviour and how organisations should manage human resources practices to give effect to fairness were also addressed. Organisational justice is of particular importance to employees' willingness to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour and this concept will be addressed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organisation citizenship behaviour (OCB) is discussed to explore its relationship with organisational justice. Since the study aims to determine the impact of justice on employees' willingness to engage in OCB, this section reviews the relevant literature on organisation citizenship behaviour and how justice ultimately contributes to the "bottom-line results" of an organisation.

3.1 THE CONCEPT OF ORGANISATION CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is referred to as individual behaviour that is secondarily acknowledged by the formal reward system but upholds the successful functioning of the organisation (Organ, 1988). Moreover, two noteworthy explanations of organisation citizenship behaviour were identified by Organ (1988), namely, optional behaviour targeted at individuals or at the organisation which exceeds present role expectations and is beneficial to the organisation or intended to benefit it. Individual behaviour that is optional, not openly or acknowledged by the formal remuneration system and that in the collective supports the effective functioning of the organisation. Both descriptions highlight organisation citizenship behaviour as being "discretionary" in nature; that is to say, activities that are not a requirement of the job (Organ, 1988). It means that the behaviour is an outcome of personal choice which is not outlined in the individual's employment contract with the organisation and therefore transcends the formal job description.

This concern was advanced by Morrison (1994), who indicated that OCB (17 items of 19 OCB items of Organ) was well-defined by the majority of the respondents as in-role; hence, showing the inaccurate nature of OCB. The diversity of perceptions of what OCB entails is also shared by management (Morrison, 1994). Thus, the conceptualisation of what OCB entails may differ from one individual to the next; the borderline amidst extra-role and in-role behaviour remains unclear. Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2004) proposed that OCBs surpass well-defined role expectations but are crucial for an organisation's existence.

Throughout the years, research has perpetually uncovered the fact that OCB remains the best determinant of job satisfaction (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). Yaakobi and Weisberg (2020) point out that the rewards for engaging in OCB are at best uncertain and indirect. Therefore, managers cannot demand or control OCB because it is the personal choice of employees whether to participate in this behaviour. Although OCB is important for organisational performance, these extra-role behaviours are seldom rewarded formally by the employers (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Massoudi, Jameel and Ahmad (2020) define OCB as individual contributions in the workplace that surpasses role requirements and contractually compensated job accomplishments. They also assert that organisational citizenship behaviour surpasses the already obligatory role requirements in its benefits to the organisation.

Wu and Peng (2018) define OCB as the activities that support the psychological and social environment in which task performance takes place. They support the notion that OCB is seen as extra-role behaviour which might not be recognised by the formal reward system. OCB thus refers to extra-role, pro-social and functional organisational behaviour displayed by groups and employees within an organisation. These non-traditional behaviours are on-the-job behaviours that are not included in formal job descriptions (Tian & Yang, 2019). The concept of organisational citizenship behaviour was developed in an endeavour to recognise several behaviours that have a growing positive effect on the organisation's functioning and job performance (Tian & Yang, 2019).

Extra-role behaviour refers to behaviour that is intended to benefit the organisation, which is discretionary and goes beyond existing role expectations (Chen, Liao, Li & Wang, 2021). Xia and Lin (2021) define OCB as discretionary behaviour that is not in any job description and cannot be imposed, nor is it acknowledged by the formal compensation structure. For instance, salespersons that go out of their way to please their customers would not be exhibiting OCB if they increase their sales and are consequently compensated with a commission on those sales. Chen, Liao, Li and Wang (2021) assert that OCB surpasses the indicators of performance that the organisation requires in a formal job description. According to Wu and Peng (2018), OCB also sheds more light on activities performed by employees that surpass expected role activities that the organisation has set for the employees, which encourage the well-being of colleagues, organisation and workgroups. Tian and Yang (2019) contend that although OCBs are

beneficial from the organisation's perspective, managers are usually met with difficulty in showing their existence or disciplining their absence through formal rewards owing to the voluntary nature of the behaviour.

Zhang, Liu and Wang (2020) define OCB as extra-role behaviours of employees that extend even beyond the normal duties prescribed by the employer. The performance of an employee in the work setting can be elucidated in terms of two dimensions: job detailed behaviour as well-defined in a job description, and non-job specific activities, or what Organ (1988) identified as "extra-role" work behaviour (Zhang, Liu & Wang, 2020). Zhao and Jiang (2017) state that the effective functioning of an organisation surpasses its subordinates' in-role behaviours in such a way that it incorporates extra-role or pro-social behaviours. Hence, OCB refers to useful gestures that are neither compulsory by prescribed job descriptions nor contractually rewarded by the formal organisation reward system (Zhao & Jiang, 2017). As OCB ignores dysfunctional and uncooperative behaviours, Tian and Yang (2019) characterised this behaviour as supporting one's colleagues, surpassing company standards, not taking work time to engage with private issues or volunteering for unplanned duties. The voluntary behaviour associated with OCB may be related to intra-organisation dynamics and may also be dedicated to being favourable for lessening another colleague's workload thus leading to advances in organisation success (Xia & Lin, 2021). Nonetheless, Chen, Liao, Li and Wang (2021) noted a problem with "discretionary" conceptualisation asserting that OCB encompasses elements that many observers would consider part of their jobs.

Tian and Yang (2019) observe that an organisation that depends solely on its plans for approved behaviour is a delicate social system that would collapse and emphasise the importance of acts outside the scope of formal responsibilities. OCB is conceptualised as a large set of work-related employee contributions, pro-social that is perceived to involve organisation efficiency (Christoph & Guido, 2017). OCB is not the only motive for the exact prediction of job satisfaction (Christoph & Guido, 2017). However, according to Chen, Liao, Li and Wang (2021), OCB strongly influenced job satisfaction.

3.2 DIMENSIONAL FORMS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

OCB was primarily conceptualised as a multi-component construct (LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002). However, the number of components varies so different authors have proposed up to 30 components (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006). The most popular dimensions of OCB have been identified, e.g., civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship and altruism (Organ, 1988; Tian & Yang, 2019; Zhang, Liu & Wang, 2020; Xia & Lin, 2021). According to Tian and Yang (2019), OCB has a general effect on organisational efficiency; thus, supervisors regularly consider OCB when surveying staff productivity and making decisions on promotions and pay increases. Employees that engage in OCB also demonstrate higher rates of job motivation than those that do not (Tian & Yang, 2019). In addition, it is noted that this increased display of OCB leads to higher productivity and profitability.

When research in OCB was first conducted in the 1980s, only two traits of employee behaviour were recognised as general compliance i.e., personal behaviour that a good employee should display and altruism which pertains to helping others (Bateman & Organ, 1983). However, as the concept of OCB evolved, Bateman and Organ (1983) subsequently identified and delineated five distinct components of OCB:

- Civic virtue (taking note of important matters that occur within the organisation),
- Conscientiousness (compliance with set norms),
- Courtesy (seeking others input before acting).
- Sportsmanship (not concerned about unimportant matters),
- Altruism (offering others help)

3.2.1 Civic virtue

Civic virtue comprises behaviours that define the active involvement of employees in business matters such as keeping up with organisation issues (Xia & Lin, 2021). These activities prioritise setting goals and placing the interests and objectives of the organisation ahead of one's self-interest (Xia & Lin, 2021). Tian and Yang (2019) describe this dimension as being responsible and exhibiting productive participation in the governance of the organisation. When employees exhibit these behaviours i.e., attend and actively participate in corporate meetings, it results in a speedy exchange and dissemination of information. Additionally, employees, by making suggestions about how

to respond to changing market requirements, enhance organisational responsiveness (Xia & Lin, 2021). Both the distribution of information within an organisation and responsiveness to the market is critical for organisational performance (Xia & Lin, 2021). Civic virtue behaviours indicate employees' enthusiasm for participating in organisations' macro or corporate life such as participating in its management, providing input into organisational strategy, engaging in policy debates, remaining abreast of the macro environment for analysing threats and opportunities, and looking out for the organisation's best interest (say e.g., locking doors) (Zhang, Liu & Wang, 2020).

3.2.2 Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is defined as helping behaviour aimed at the organisation overall. Zhang, Liu and Wang (2020) define it as the individuals' dedication to their job which goes beyond formal expectations such as volunteering to perform duties other than their duties and working long hours. For example, it involves staying late to finish a project even though there is no overtime or direct payment (Tian & Yang, 2019). According to Zhang, Liu and Wang (2020), conscientiousness comprises cooperative or compliance behaviours by employees that are always punctual and do not take needless time off. Conscientiousness is used to indicate that an employee is accountable, organised and hardworking (Tian & Yang, 2019). It indicates that employees with this personality trait invest more time and energy than normally expected in their work activities. Such employees would be willing to take on additional work or take extra care to perform work of high quality or go out of their way to provide outstanding service to clients (Bauwens, Audenaert, Huisman & Decramer, 2019).

Consequently, conscientiousness is a pattern of surpassing minimally mandatory levels of punctuality and attendance. It outlines the worker's readiness to surpass the minimum obligatory levels. Chen, Liao, Li and Wang (2021) argue that conscientiousness is positively correlated to altruism which refers to one employee working to aid another. These are the actions that do not involve direct assistance to others but comprise personal characteristics such as work dedication, perseverance, adhering to policies and dependability (Christoph & Guido, 2017). Hidayah and Harnoto (2018), argue that conscientiousness does not merely refer to compliance because compliance pertains to more impersonal contributions to the organisations in such forms as the use of work time, exemplary attendance, and respect for company property and faithful obedience to rules

about work processes and behaviours. Conscientiousness is more neutral than altruism, where the action is more one of generalised compliance in terms of how one should work (Organ, 1988). This worker will not only firmly obey the rules but will obey the spirit of the rule (de Geus, Ingrams, Tummers & Pandey, 2020).

3.2.3 Courtesy

Courtesy refers to behaviours that focus on conflict prevention and taking the necessary steps to lessen the effects of the conflicts in the future (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018). An example of courtesy is an employee that encourages others when they feel discouraged and demoralised about developments in the workplace. Courtesy includes avoiding problems by keeping others informed of choices that may affect them and passing along the information to those who may find it beneficial. Employees that display courtesy value work relationships and treat colleagues with respect. This means that the viewpoints and opinions of others are sought and hence respected. Courtesy is different from altruism in that courtesy comprises checking with other employees before acting (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018).

3.2.4 Sportsmanship

Hidayah and Harnoto (2018) define sportsmanship as the tendency of employees to endure impositions or inconveniences without complaints. Sportsmanship involves the behaviour of tolerating irritations that are an unavoidable part of nearly every type of organisational setting (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018). De Geus, Ingrams, Tummers and Pandey (2020) define sportsmanship as a willingness to accept the unavoidable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining. According to de Geus et al. (2020), employees that display sportsmanship do not complain about unimportant matters or express bitterness or complain about necessary changes that are implemented by management. Furthermore, de Geus et al. state that this type of employee will focus on the positives rather than the negatives in the organisation. According to Chen, Liao, Li and Wang (2021), good sportsmanship enhances the morale of employees which results in reduced employee turnover. This form of citizenship behaviour is reported to have an association with various desired organisational outcomes like improvement in the quantity and quality of production (Chen, Liao, Li & Wang, 2021). Furthermore, employees that exhibit sportsmanship do not complain unnecessarily. This results in a positive climate of tolerance among employees and consequently influences the customer–employee

interaction positively (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018). De Geus, Ingrams, Tummers and Pandey (2020) observed the dimension as the demonstration of readiness to withhold temporary and minor personal impositions and inconveniences without protest, appeal and fuss. Morrison (1994) asserts that not blowing problems out of proportion is part of sportsmanship behaviour. Chen, Liao, Li and Wang (2021) have expanded the description to encompass employees that preserve a positive attitude despite circumstances and are keen to sacrifice their interest at the expense of the workgroup's success.

3.2.5 Altruism

Hidayah and Harnoto (2018) define altruism as voluntary behaviours in which an employee offers assistance to another experiencing problems to complete their work due to unusual circumstances i.e., helping behaviour. It incorporates the inclination to be concerned for the well-being of colleagues consequently contributing to the performance of colleagues (Bauwens, Audenaert, Huisman & Decramer, 2019). Altruism benefits both supervisors and colleagues and includes behaviours such as voluntarily coaching a new hire on work-related issues and how to use the equipment, and assisting someone with a heavy workload (de Geus, Ingrams, Tummers & Pandey, 2020). Chen, Liao, Li and Wang (2021) argue that altruism is significantly related to performance evaluations and affectivity. Tian and Yang (2019), however, assert that an employee who accomplishes the duties of a job in an exemplary manner does not necessarily exhibit OCB because exemplary work does not reach out to others as required by altruism.

Altruism highlights voluntarily assisting others with work-related problems or preventing the occurrence of such problems (Bauwens, Audenaert, Huisman & Decramer, 2019). Altruism encompasses all unrestricted behaviours that have the effect of helping a specific individual with a structurally applicable problem or duty (Bauwens, Audenaert, Huisman & Decramer, 2019). These helping behaviours are related to colleagues and supervisors, for instance, doing the work of an absent colleague or helping an absent colleague so that the workload can be shared, and the task completed on time (Li & Wang, 2021). Morrison (1994) incorporated behaviours such as helping to orientate new employees, volunteering and helping employees outside of the department. According to Borman (2004), organisational citizenship behaviour consists of five dimensions:

- Volunteering for activities beyond the formal job description;
- Persistence of enthusiasm and application to complete important tasks;

- Following rules and prescribed procedures even when inconvenient
- Openly espousing and defending the organisation's objectives; and
- Assisting to others.

Borman (2004) states that some of these behaviours might be rewarded in performance appraisal systems. Borman's dimensions share some similarities to Organ's dimensions (Organ, 1988). However, the salient difference between Organ's definition from Borman's definition is Organ's recommendation that OCB is not formally compensated and is purely the worker's personal choice, while Borman contends that citizenship performance does not omit behaviour that is rewarded by supervisors.

3.3 CATEGORISATION OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

One of the most empirically researched OCB constructs distinguishes between two dimensions that categorise OCB into behaviours that support the company as a whole and behaviours that support other individuals at the OCBI workplace (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Williams and Anderson (1991) identified two dimensions: Organisation Citizenship Behaviour – Individual Behaviour (OCBI), which directly benefits particular individuals and indirectly contributes to the organisation, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Organisation behaviours (OCBO) which benefits the organisation in general or provides organisational benefits such as the performance of responsibilities that are not mandatory but contribute to organisational performance and image. Although OCBI relates to altruism, OCBO relates to the dimension of conscientiousness.

There has been criticism of the separation of OCB into components, for two reasons. First, the components are strongly correlated and overlapping (Williams & Anderson, 1991; LePine et al., 2002). Second, the components correlate with the same predictors – work attitudes, productivity, organisational engagement, perceived fairness, positive leadership and conscientiousness (LePine et al., 2002).

However, LePine et al. (2002) recommended that OCBO and OCBI be used in future research because they are conceptually different. OCBO represents impersonal behaviour, whereas OCBI represents interpersonal behaviour (Tian & Yang, 2019). In addition, both dimensions are driven by different motives: OCBO originates primarily from

organisational concerns, while OCBI originates primarily from pro-social values (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020; Xia & Lin, 2021). From an empirical perspective, the two-factor OCB model is superior to the one-factor OCB model (Tian & Yang, 2019).

One aspect of the time perspective is how long people expect to work in a particular organisation. In this regard, people who feel that they have been part of an organisation for a long time tend to show more OCB (Joreman, Anderson & Strathman, 2003). In addition, people who face job prospects outside their organisation have less OCB than those who see their future in the organisation (Joreman, Anderson & Strathman, 2003).

Since both studies discuss the timeframe of being in a single organisation, a lack of research persists on how people view their potential working time – that is, a time perspective that considers one's entire career potential outside of a specific organisation – that influences behaviours of organisational citizenship (Bauwens, Audenaert, Huisman & Decramer, 2019).

This study follows LePine's (2002) recommendations and explores OCB based on two constructs discussed further in subsequent paragraphs. The rationale for using the OCBI/OCBO approach in the current study is to clearly understand whether model behaviour towards organisations and individuals can provide mutual benefits. The use of this approach is justified because the OCBI/OCBO categories can help confirm whether human capital has a catalytic effect on organisational and interpersonal citizenship behaviours about job performance (Bauwens, Audenaert, Huisman & Decramer, 2019).

3.3.1 Personal support - organisational citizenship behaviour – individual (OCBI)

Personal support encompasses helping others by offering suggestions, teaching them useful knowledge or skills or directly performing some of their tasks (Borman, 2004). Personal support also includes collaborating with others by accepting suggestions and placing team goals ahead of personal interests. Williams and Anderson (1991) categorise behaviour dedicated to the co-worker, which directly benefits particular individuals, as OCBI. OCBI indirectly contributes to the performance of the organisation because when employees assist others that have been absent or take a special interest in their co-workers, it fosters a climate of sound labour relations, goodwill and willingness to contribute to the performance of the organisation (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018).

3.3.2 Organisational support - organisational citizenship behaviour – organisational support (OCBO)

Organisational support includes representing the organisation positively by defending and promoting it, and showing loyalty, should the organisation experience short-term hardship (Borman, 2004). Employees will support the organisation's mission and objectives by adhering to rules and procedures and by suggesting improvements (Wu & Peng, 2018).

Williams and Anderson (1991) distinguish between behaviours that are focused on the organisation, which will openly benefit the organisation, in general, as OCBO. Employees that exhibit OCBO observe the informal rules expressed by the organisation to preserve order and will, for example, give advance notice when they are unable to come to work. Wu and Peng (2018) further emphasise values that prevent unethical and undesirable behaviour, protective behaviours that preserve and maintain the organisation's norms and rules-enhancing behaviour, which is adaptive, proactive and accepting of necessary change as key determinants of OCBO (Wu & Peng, 2018).

As far as OCBO is concerned, OCB involvement in an organisation such as attending meetings and functions that are not required, may help employees to obtain useful information from organisations or supervisors (Xia & Lin, 2021). This information may be relevant to organisational policies/ systems and market demands, and may be of value to individuals in carrying out their work. To achieve greater job performance by engaging in OCBO, the effect will be greater on less experienced employees than on experienced ones. As information is embedded in organisational routines, less experienced employees can find the most effective ways to perform their tasks if they can quickly learn unwritten rules (Xia & Lin, 2021). Information is still useful for experienced employees, but not to the extent that it helps less experienced employees. Another way to link OCBO to job performance is to seek individuals that identify with their organisation when they see the organisation as providing opportunities for personal achievement (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020).

OCBO may allow individuals to develop or sustain a positive relationship with the organisation and can, therefore, be viewed as a medium for improving identification with the organisation; for example, employees identify themselves as members of the

organisation by taking the initiative to determine how to enhance the operations of the organisation (Xia & Lin, 2021). The affective interest of an employee within a company may be increased so as to spend additional time and energy supporting the organisation. Sheldon (1971) established that involvement and investment would improve employee engagement with their organisations.

Therefore, social interaction should take place between individuals and organisations in such a way that a "better" organisation will provide employees with a more productive working atmosphere and a greater potential for advancement in their careers. Xia and Lin (2021) propose that the effect of the psychological contract would be stronger on those with lower experiential human capital because experienced employees (regardless of whether their tenures were calculated in the same organisations) are usually stable and have a greater organisational commitment. Thus, the benefit of OCBO on individual goals is more likely to be transferred to less experienced employees.

Apart from Organ's (1988) conceptualisation of OCB dimensions, several researchers have proposed alternative categorisations. Tian and Yang (2019) contend that organisational citizenship can be re-conceptualised as a global theory comprising several related fundamental classifications that cut across all positive structurally important employee behaviours. The determination for a larger scope led the researcher to include extra-role behaviours, traditional in-role job performance behaviours and political behaviours into the organisational citizenship behaviour dimensions (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Sujono, Tunas and Sudiarditha (2020) designated the categories as:

- Organisation loyalty, which is the commitment to, and identification with, an organisation's leaders and the organisation surpassing simple interests of individuals, departments and workgroups. It may be shown as defending the organisation against pressures, cooperating with others to help the interests of the whole organisation and contributing to its good reputation (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).
- Organisation participation, which denotes the interest in organisational matters with a focus on ideal standards of quality approved by an one's constant communication and informed and responsible participation in organisational governance. This may encompass sharing informed opinions and new ideas with others, attendance of non-required meetings, being ready to deliver bad news or

support a disliked view to combating “group think” (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

- Organisation obedience, which reveals the approval of the need and desirability of balanced regulations and rules governing organisation structure, job descriptions and personnel policies. Obedience can be in terms of promptness in job completion and custodianship of organisation assets (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

3.4 THEORETICAL BASIS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOURS

3.4.1 Social exchange theory

Blau (1964), found the exchange to be an economic or social partnership. Economic exchange is a structured contract in which all parties decide in advance precisely what will be exchanged and when the transactions will take place (Blau, 1964). Such a type of exchange relationship is not founded on trust, because the performance of the contractual obligations will be implemented by the appropriate authorities. Social exchange refers to an exchange relationship marked by a mutual exchange of trust-based benefits (Xia & Lin, 2021). There is no agreement or contract on when, what, where and how the exchanges will take place (Xia & Lin, 2021). Characteristically, one party spontaneously offers something of value to another party who, in turn, feels indebted to return or reciprocate return the gesture. The continuity of the reciprocation and the reward value is likely to improve the rate of interaction between the parties concerned (Rioux & Penner, 2001). The employment relationship is mainly contractual, defined by a mutual agreement for monetary rewards and benefits between employers and their employees requiring the sharing of skills, time and expertise for organisations. Throughout the process of employee contact with colleagues, clients, bosses and other administrators, social communication grows (Xia & Lin, 2021). Under the law of reciprocity, when employees feel that the organisation has not only kept its part of the agreement but has also extended additional benefits to them, they feel indebted to repay the goodwill (Xia & Lin, 2021). Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006), recognised the key features of social exchange to comprise: the voluntary actions of individuals who are motivated by their consequences (proactive), the obligation of a party to reciprocate the benefits of some other party voluntarily (reactive), and the confidence that the other party will reciprocate the benefits in a timely and appropriate manner and situation (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006). The social exchange theory is based on the following principles:

- 1) Dyadic: Both parties are actively engaged as donors and recipients in the exchange of non-contractual benefits (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006).
- 2) Non-contracted/ non-explicit: In addition, both perceive benefits as (mostly) optional to qualify as and sustain social exchange (Lee & Allen, 2002).
- 3) Frequent: To maintain a generalized sense of obligation towards one another and trust in reciprocity, social exchanges should be ongoing and frequent (Lee & Allen, 2002).
- 4) Observable: Both sides should be in a position to see something and feel compelled and reciprocate (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006).
- 5) Long-Term Stability: The exchange will be roughly equivalent over the long term, but not essentially in the short term (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006).
- 6) Benefits are coveted: To maintain social exchange, receiving parties must perceive the desirability of discretionary acts (Lee, & Allen, 2002).

Sujono, Tunas and Sudiarditha (2020), assert that the view of social exchange is based on the mechanism of tit-for-tat. Based on this view, the organisation keeps those employees with high organisational commitment and citizenship behaviour that compensate for the positive behaviours of the organisation. Liden, Wayne, Kraimer and Sparrowe (2003), argued that if employees observe unfavourable behaviours such as low job security, limited progress opportunities, short-term recruitment, and limiting behaviours, they would compensate with low organisational commitment and citizenship behaviour.

3.4.2 Needs theory of employee behaviours

There are many human needs, and they are often defined as insatiable. Such needs give individuals a sense of scarcity and influence them to behave in ways that will certainly contribute to the fulfilment of those needs. According to Maslow (1970), human needs include basic or survival needs (physiological needs, belonging, safety needs) and growth needs (self-esteem and self-actualization). The survival needs are the most important and then followed by the growth needs. The arrangement of needs was made in such a way that it continues to direct and motivate behaviour towards their fulfilment if the survival needs or lower-level needs are not met (Maslow, 1970). As a result, when individuals fulfil their basic needs, the next need for hierarchy takes priority and begins to motivate until it is fulfilled. This process is based on the principle of satisfaction progression. Employee

needs comprise job security, generous pay, acceptance and recognition, self-esteem and self-fulfilment, and the satisfaction of those needs is the basic motivation behind all work-related behaviour (Maslow, 1970). Employees experience job satisfaction when their jobs provide ways to meet their needs (Xia & Lin, 2021). According to Xia and Lin (2021), previous studies have shown that job satisfaction is a precedent for desirable work behaviours and work performance.

Maslow's theory (1970), classified needs hierarchically in which physiological and safety needs were labelled as lower-level needs and were categorized as extrinsic needs. Extrinsic needs are needs that can be satisfied by tangible or physical items such as permanent employment, monetary increases, etc. (Maslow, 1970). On the other hand, higher-order needs can be classified as intrinsic needs that can only be met by some internally gratifying rewards such as promotions and higher responsibilities, awards and recognition, challenging work content, etc. (Maslow, 1970). According to Xia and Lin (2021), the need for belonging has been labelled as a lower-level need, however, it qualifies as an intrinsic need due to the method of fulfilment or gratification. The need for belonging can be met through coherent groups and supportive leadership (Xia & Lin, 2021).

3.5 CONSEQUENCES OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

3.5.1 Performance appraisals

MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter (1993) argue that it is wrong to evaluate employees solely on productivity and performance. MacKenzie et al. (1993) examined whether OCB would have an impact on the manager's employee performance assessment. The results indicated that most managers include OCB in their performance assessments, and often OCB and sales success are equally valued on performance assessments (Murphy, Athanasau & Neville, 2002). Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff and Blume (2009) confirmed the previous results by MacKenzie et al (1993) in a meta-analysis of 206 samples wherein individuals that exhibit more OCB also received higher performance assessments at the individual level. In addition, those that engaged in more OCBs also received more rewards than those who did not engage in OCBs or fewer OCBs. MacKenzie et al. (1993) argue that OCB may cause a variance between management assessments of employees and that employees should be aware of the factors involved in performance assessments.

However, it is also significant to understand how employees observe the use of OCB in their performance assessments.

Johnson, Holladay, and Quinones (2009) observed employee reactions to the use of OCB in performance assessments and studied the differences in gender-based assessment reactions. The hypothesis was that employees would perceive the use of OCB in performance assessments as fairer than excluding them from performance assessments. The researchers also assumed that women would perceive OCB weightings as fairer than men in performance assessments. The results showed that employees perceived the inclusion of OCB in performance assessments as fair. Men perceived OCB to be 20-30% the fairest, while women perceived OCB to be 25-50% the fairest. This data is important because employees will respond more positively to performance assessments that they feel are balanced and fair. Employees that feel that the organisation is fair will also demonstrate more OCB. According to Massoudi, Jameel and Ahmad (2020), the model weighting of OCB in performance assessments should be between 25% and 30%.

In 1993, Podsakoff and MacKenzie studied the manager's perspective in a study that was designed to examine the impact that OCBs have on organisational success and the impact that OCBs have on managers' evaluations of subordinates. The researchers assumed that OCBs would have a positive impact on evaluations completed by managers and that OCBs would have a positive impact on organisational performance. The results confirmed previous studies that found that OCB accounted for the variance between management's performance assessments (MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Fetter, 1993). The researchers were amazed to learn that the impact of certain OCBs on unit performance was not always positive. Sportsmanship and civic virtue had a positive effect on the performance of the unit but helping behaviour did not have an effect. The researchers suspect that this is the result of salespersons sacrificing their sales to help other inexperienced salespersons learn the trade. These results may be due to the presence of a moderator or mediator in the relationship between OCB and the performance of the job.

Salam (2020) states that a relationship with colleagues acts as a moderator between OCB and job performance. Salam (2020) also observes that task autonomy serves as a positive moderator for the mediated relationship between OCB and job performance.

Consequently, higher OCB does not merely result in higher job performance. Task autonomy and collegial relations have an impact on the relationship between OCB and the employees' job performance.

3.5.2 Employee turnover

The organisation invests a considerable amount of money, time and resources in the employee when an employee is hired. It's no surprise that the organisation loses the money they've invested when an employee resigns from the organisation. Organisations are, therefore, constantly investigating ways of reducing turnover. Podsakoff et al (2009), stated that OCB is negatively associated with absenteeism and turnover of employees. Xia and Lin (2021) observed that those with low OCB levels are more likely than employees with high OCB levels to leave an organisation. By reducing absenteeism and turnover, organisations would be able to save money and time and allocate their resources to various aspects of the organisation (Xia & Lin, 2021).

3.5.3 The selection process of employees

Research proposes that 99% of organisations use some form of an interview in their recruitment process; thus, it is important to study the impact of OCB screening responses on hiring decisions (Xia & Lin, 2021). Podsakoff et al. found that prospective employees that exhibit higher frequencies of OCB-related behaviour during an interview are more likely to receive higher ratings and higher salary recommendations. This study showed that an individual who displays OCB in an interview is more likely to get a job than an individual that does not display any OCB (Xia & Lin, 2021). Additional research has discovered that a structured interview is successful in forecasting those employees who are most likely to achieve OCB on the job (Salam, 2020).

3.6 THE RATIONALE BEHIND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organ and Bateman (1983) developed the concept of OCB to indicate structurally beneficial behaviours that can neither be enforced because of formal role responsibilities nor motivated by contractual security of remuneration. The basis behind accomplishing pro-social actions in workplaces can be explained through perceptions of fairness and the social exchange theory.

Primarily, in agreement with principles of the social exchange theory, employees execute OCBs when they trust that their association with the organisation is represented by the social exchange. Compared with monetary exchange, social exchanges encompass informal contracts and drawn-out contracts in which contestants' inputs are not mentioned (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). To the extent that an employee's satisfaction originates from the efforts of the organisation's executives and such efforts are non-manipulative; that individual is inclined to give in return for those efforts (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Organisational citizenship behaviours are furthermore likely to be under a person's control, and be a perceptible form of exchange (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). In other words, employees respond to positive organisational conditions or managerial behaviour by demonstrating extra-role behaviour and therefore follow a standard of positive exchange which induces individuals to react positively to favourable treatment from others (Wu & Peng, 2018). When employees regard social exchange as optimistic within the scope of organisation versus individual relationships; they are motivated to contribute to behaviours that benefit the organisation by surpassing the limits of pay or work contracts. In this logic, organisation productivity originates from social exchange relationships and citizenship behaviours of the employees. To the point that employees consider their work relationship as social exchange, an exchange would likely create actions that are outside of any contractual assurance (Wu & Peng, 2018).

Furthermore, the performance of OCBs may be stated from one's perceptions of fairness (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). According to Yaakobi and Weisberg (2020), individuals have a general predisposition of withholding OCB if they perceive injustice in rewards/ pay. Individuals confronted with perceived injustices in the workplace may be unable to abstain from performing their formal role requirements that may result in authorised sanctions; instead as a reaction, they may withhold voluntary behaviours to adjust their work input. Individuals that perceive injustices are probable to limit their unrestricted contribution to those activities that are officially agreed upon (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Correspondingly, because OCB is discretionary and exceeds employees' agreed role requirements, a decrease in OCB would expose a less essential change to employees' reward-to-input ratio than a conceivable withholding of in-role task behaviour (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020).

3.7 MEASURES OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Numerous scholars that measure OCB based their scales on Organ's (1988) five dimensions, namely civic virtue, sportsmanship, altruism, conscientiousness and courtesy. Morrison (1994) utilised a survey that comprised 40 behaviours of which 30 were taken from the available measures of OCB scales that were established by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990). The 30 items measured Organ's (1988) five dimensions of OCB on a seven-point Likert scale.

Bateman and Organ (1983) measured citizenship behaviour by assessing supervisors' responses to 30 seven-point items. The matters measured a variety of behaviours such as compliance, dependability, altruism, punctuality, house cleaning, criticism, cooperation, waste, complaints and arguing with others. Sujono, Tunas and Sudiarditha (2020) also made use of the same scale in their study on the influence of the workplace on OCB.

Williams and Anderson (1991) established another scale that utilised 21 items to define three classifications of OCB, namely job satisfaction, organisational commitment and performance. They had precise targets in mind, namely OCBI, OCBO and in-role behaviours.

Divisions with items relating to organisational commitment and job satisfaction were self-reports and the items that measured performance were done by executives. A five-point Likert scale measured the items in each class.

This study will use Moorman and Blakely's (1995) scale for OCB as it is particularly well suited to the organisation under investigation. The proposed organisation's employees will be able to identify with the items measured in this scale. The original questionnaire measured OCB by using self-reports, as is the case in this study.

3.8 ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

The display of OCB results when employers are thoughtful create positive employee relations and invest in a social exchange relationship with employees (Salam, 2020).

When employees perceive organisational support, they are more likely to reciprocate the gesture by showing citizenship behaviours (Salam, 2020).

Emerson's (1976) social exchange theory (SET) is a frame of reference that is a jointly reliant and satisfying procedure, which comprises "transactions" or basically "exchange". Hidayah and Harnoto (2018) elucidate that the SET includes interactions that produce commitments. These behaviours are co-dependent and provisional upon the behaviours of another person. These co-dependent transactions have a prospect to produce high-quality relationships under certain conditions.

Lavelle, Rupp and Brockner (2007) argue that the value of the social exchange relationship between employee and manager is of vital importance and fair treatment from the manager can contribute to the enhancement of the social exchange relationship. A decisive factor in the social exchange theory relies on fairness. Lavelle, Rupp and Brockner (2007) propose that employees differentiate between their co-workers, managers and organisation as distinctive social exchange partners and sources of justice and subsequently select to focus their OCB on one or the other.

3.9 THE BENEFITS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR TO INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYEES

3.9.1 Intrinsic benefits

Intrinsic benefits can be defined as intangible benefits that motivate the self-fulfilment of employees. These benefits are particular to individual employees and aligned to their special interests. These intrinsic benefits may include capacity building and skill acquisition, self-actualisation and sense of fulfilment, discovery and optimal use of employees' potentials and capabilities, increased competence and self-worth, increased job-relevant knowledge and expertise, and increased productivity.

3.9.1.1. Capacity building and skill acquisition

Employees can develop capacities and new skills through the display of OCB. Massoudi, Jameel and Ahmad (2020) define the individual initiative dimensions of OCB as voluntary acts of creativity and innovation designed to enhance one's task or the performance of

the organisation, persisting with extra enthusiasm and effort to achieve one's job. This type of OCB will trigger inventive approaches and solutions to work among employees. This allows employees to think outside the box and to offer world-class solutions to work-related problems. Individual initiative is a crucial aspect of the OCB because organisation need continuous improvement and innovation.

3.9.1.2. *Self-actualisation and sense of fulfilment*

After the display of the helping, sportsmanship and self-development aspects of the OCB, employees report improved efficiency both quantitatively and qualitatively, resulting in a sense of self-actualisation and fulfilment (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Each time employees meet or exceed job objectives they usually feel a sense of accomplishment and confidence in their abilities.

3.9.1.3. *Discovery and optimal use of employees' potentials and capabilities*

OCB compels employees to become innovative and proactively solve problems to the benefit of their organisations (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).). This helps rouse the "sleeping giants" in each employee and to unlock employees' potential.

3.9.1.4. *Increased competence and self-worth*

Internalising and adhering to organisational rules and procedures helps employees develop a mastery of work processes and increase their skill and self-worth level. This is the organisational compliance dimension of OCB defined as the internalisation and acceptance of the rules, regulations and procedures that result in scrupulous adherence to them, even when no one observes or monitors compliance (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

3.9.1.5. *Increased job-relevant knowledge and expertise*

The self-development dimension includes voluntary employee behaviour to improve their knowledge, skills and abilities (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Employees stay abreast of current developments and innovations in their fields and benchmark rival organisations for improved performance. This type of behaviour includes attending seminars and workshops, enrolling in the acquisition of skills and obtaining higher degrees.

3.9.1.6. *Increased Productivity*

OCB is distinguished by diligence and resourcefulness, which combines to increase employee productivity. In an empirical study on OCB and business performance, Salam (2020) found that OCB accounts for 63% of the variance in individual performance. In addition, Salam (2020) showed the dimensions of organisational loyalty, organisational follow-up, individual initiative and interpersonal maintenance harmony to influence individual performance considerably. Improved productivity can be mental (technical) or physical performance productivity. This can be viewed as a general effect of intrinsic satisfaction or benefits that eventually influence the employee's efficiency or productivity across all other intrinsic benefits (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

3.9.2 Extrinsic benefits

Extrinsic benefits are the tangible rewards given by the organisation for desirable behaviours and performances from employees (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Management publicly rewards employees in an attempt to promote these desired behaviours. The rewards include pay/wage increases, promotion and increased responsibilities, sponsored holidays, awards and recognition, further training, job security and development packages recommendation, etc.

3.9.2.1. *Pay/wage raise*

Management frequently uses monetary rewards to motivate employees to develop spontaneous and helpful organisational behaviours (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). A pay increase may be provided with the promotion of employees but may also be independent of any incentive or other activity. An increase would be beneficial to employees as it may fulfil their physiological and other basic needs which is why employees benefit extrinsically.

3.9.2.2. *Promotion and higher responsibilities*

Increased efficiency is most likely to improve, both qualitatively and quantitatively, if employees show effort and dedication (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). This result usually attracts rewards like promotions and higher responsibilities based on performance assessment processes in organisations. To maximise resources, managers would commit more strategic tasks to such conscientious employees (Sujono, Tunas &

Sudiarditha, 2020). Employees, however, benefit from the prestige and other advantages offered by the new position.

3.9.2.3. Awards and Recognition

Organisations typically recognise employees that have played a role in achieving strategic organisational objectives (Johnson, Holladay, & Quinones, 2009). Exceptional employees are awarded prizes and the organisation is publicly recognised. This class of reward is tangible and defined as an extrinsic benefit to diligent organisational employees.

3.9.2.4. Sponsored vacation

Sometimes organisations, by awarding employees and sponsoring their families' vacations to various countries of the world, are rewarding diligence. This form of reward is measurable and provides marked external benefits (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

3.9.2.5. Training and development

In a bid to further enhance their productivity, conscientious employees are sometimes recommended for training and development opportunities within and outside the organisation (Johnson, Holladay & Quinones, 2009). Because of its tangibility, this reward is an extrinsic benefit.

3.9.2.6. Job security

Many organisations desire to retain their most productive employees by putting in place strategies that guarantee job security for employees. Organisations affirm the appointment of staff and give tenure to valued employees to ensure that these organisational assets are retained (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). This is an extrinsic benefit as it is conferred by the organisation as a reaction to the productive behaviour of employees.

It is important to remember that certain incentives give dual benefits to employees. Over the long run, such corporate rewards known as extrinsic benefits give employees implicit satisfaction. Those rewards include awards and recognition, promotion and higher responsibilities, and training and development recommendations (Johnson, Holladay & Quinones, 2009; Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Although they are offered by the

organisation, incentives impact the intrinsic satisfaction, self-esteem and productivity of employees.

3.10 MOTIVES OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Over the years, it has become clear that employees perform OCB for diverse reasons. Rioux and Penner (2001) assert that there are three different motivations for engagement in OCB namely: impression management, pro-social values and organisational concerns.

3.10.1 Impression management

Impression management comprises employees attempting to build a positive reputation for their gain and evade being perceived negatively (Tian & Yang, 2019). Lower-ranking staff tend to direct their helpful behaviour towards higher-ranking staff within the organisation because they want their actions to be noticeable to decision-makers within the organisation (Tian & Yang, 2019). Employees of higher status are less likely to direct their helpful behaviour towards those of lower status within the organisation.

Employees engaged in impression management are more likely to direct their behaviour to individuals as such behaviours are typically more noticeable than those directed towards an organisation. Wu and Peng (2018) propose that individuals inspired by impression management are more likely to participate in altruistic activities that can be categorised as OCBI because altruism is perceived as a beneficial behaviour. Individuals that participate in OCB based on impression management are more likely to engage in OCBI than those motivated by organisational concern. These findings were consistent with previous research which suggests that employees would engage in higher OCB rates if they thought that this would improve their chances for promotion (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). Once these employees have their promotions, they become engaged in fewer OCB. Similarly, Zhang, Liu and Wang (2020) conclude that employees are more likely to see incentive allocation as fair when conventional motivations of OCB are considered instead of self-serving motivations. Jameel, Mahmood and Jwmaa (2020) suggest that OCB could potentially damage an employee when the supervisor sees the employee performing OCB as a means of controlling impressions. Motivations are important when it comes to OCB and performance assessments (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020).

3.10.2 Pro-social values

Pro-social values are the result of a desire to be helpful (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). People who engage in OCB because of pro-social values are genuinely concerned about the welfare of others. Subsequently, the company benefits, but the outcome is a side effect of the behaviour of the individual against other employees. Jameel and Ahmad (2020) argue that pro-social values are mostly associated with an individual-oriented OCB.

3.10.3 Organisational concern

Organisational concern is based on the theory of social exchange which stipulates that an employee is engaged in OCB because the organisation has given them a good job and treats them fairly (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). These individuals feel obliged to give back to the organisation that gave them so much. Employees feel they owe the organisation and try to repay the organisation through the performance of the OCB. There are two components to the organisational concern. First, individuals want to help the organisation because they are associated with it. Second, the individual assumes that positively influencing the organisation often affects individuals within the organisation (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Additionally, work conducted by Rioux and Penner in 2001 suggests that OCBO is more aligned with organisational issues than OCBI. Rioux and Penner (2001) conclude that individuals that participate in OCB because of organisational problems are more likely to be interested in OCBO than those driven by impression management or pro-social values.

3.10.4 Perceptions of co-workers and organisational citizenship behaviour

Karem, Mahmood, Jameel and Ahmad (2019) theorise that a vital predecessor of promoting OCBs is the extent to which employees receive assistance from colleagues. The social exchange theory is based on reactions in response to positive treatment. Where trust is present among parties, reciprocation will happen. The idea of exchange is a moral principle based on the principle that people should treat others as they would like to be treated themselves.

Nevertheless, an exchange can generate either a “virtuous” or “vicious” cycle (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007). The virtuous cycle results when OCB rises because of recurrent

helping behaviours between workers. The vicious cycle happens when employees withhold helping behaviours since they do not receive help from co-workers.

Organisations benefit from maintaining or creating the virtuous cycle. One way of attaining it is when leaders and supervisors set an example by displaying these behaviours themselves (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007). Employees that perceive, acquire and imitate helping behaviours from supervisors can then carry these behaviours with them into their workgroups (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007).

3.11 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEPTION OF ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Massoudi, Jameel and Ahmad (2020) argue that employees will exceed the call of duty and will be intensely dedicated to organisations if employees believe that the organisation has treated them fairly. According to Mousa, Jameel and Ahmad (2019), OCB is related to perceptions of organisational justice. Massoudi, Jameel and Ahmad (2020) state that fairness instead of job satisfaction accounts for OCB. Their study found empirical evidence that perceived fairness determines the extent of employees' cooperative OCB contributions to organisations. Consequently, OCB could be significantly facilitated if worker perceptions of organisational justice are enhanced.

Massoudi et al. (2020) also observed the relationship between OCB and perceptions of fairness. They found that employees have positive attitudes towards their work and their work outcomes if they believe they are treated fairly by the organisation. The strongest implication of Moorman and Blakely (1995) studies was that supervisors can directly influence OCB and if managers want to increase citizenship behaviours, they should increase the fairness of their interactions with employees (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). According to Salam (2020), organisational justice does influence OCB, however, the various dimensions of organisational justice have inconsistent effects on the various dimensions of OCB.

3.11.1 Procedural justice and organisational citizenship behaviour

This segment endeavours to elucidate the various dimensions of organisational justice and their individual effects on OCB. Massoudi et al. (2020) contend that although

distributive justice is not vividly related to trust in supervisors, procedural justice is a significant predictor of trust in supervisors which is also an important predictor of OCB. The relationship between procedural justice and OCB suggests that citizenship behaviours arise in a context wherein the social exchange shows the quality of supervisors-subordinate relationships. Additionally, Tian and Yang (2019) state that procedural justice is an important determining influence of employee behaviour and considerable evidence confirms that procedural justice is a predictor of employee attitudes.

According to studies by Massoudi et al. (2020), procedural justice is linked to citizenship behaviours of conscientiousness, sportsmanship and courtesy. Proposed clarifications on why the dimensions of altruism and civic virtue are not related indicate that these dimensions only focused on co-workers to the exclusion of supervisors that completed the survey and would find it more challenging to observe behaviours focused on co-workers. They concluded that employees surpass their duties because they see the necessity to reciprocate the fair treatment that they received from the organisation.

According to Mousa, Jameel and Ahmad (2019), studies about the extent of organisation support perceived by employees created an environment in which employees would likely respond by showing citizenship behaviours. Activities perceived to support procedural fairness may be successful in communicating to employees that the organisation values and supports its employees.

Original work on procedural justice focused on the context of approved processes. Researchers observed that those parties that were involved in dispute resolution processes did not only respond to the outcomes they received but to the procedure that was followed in determining these outcomes (Salam, 2020). Leventhal (1980) states that procedures used in dispute resolution had to meet six conditions to be fair, namely:

- Consistency: The same procedure must be applied to all individuals, and it must be the same procedure without fail.
- Bias suppression: The decision-maker does not have a vested interest in the outcome or make decisions founded on personal beliefs.
- Accuracy: The procedures must be accurate, and information given by both parties must be correct and honest.

- Correctable: There must be a tool to correct or change bad decisions.
- Ethical: Procedures must conform to fundamental ethics and morals.
- Representation: An opportunity for both parties to present their case must be given, consequently providing the process control.

Perceptions of procedural fairness seem to be widespread in that procedures such as the permittance of voice are accepted as fair in many cultures (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007). Other essential facets of procedures such as openness and clarity are measured by several cultures to contribute to fairness.

3.12 DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Sujono, Tunas and Sudiarditha (2020) studied organisational justice and found support for a positive relationship between distributive justice and OCB. These results indicate that since supervisors implement fair procedures and outcomes within the organisation, employees will respond to them with behaviour that will benefit the supervisor.

According to Xia and Lin (2021), other issues should be considered when reviewing distributive justice. They propose that equity is not the only standard that is applied when determining a fair result. For example, the longevity of one's employment with the organisation, rank and past performance are considered in the outcome of distributions. They assert that the effect of possible negative results of distributive justice can be decreased by providing valid information (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). If organisations can provide factual information about budget constraints, lack of funding or legislative requirements to justify their decisions, employees may still engage in OCB despite not having received a pay increase or a promotion for instance.

By influencing an individual's decision to engage in OCB, perceptions of fairness, in addition to being an important predictor of job attitudes may also inspire efficiency in organisations (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Organ (1988) proposed that fairness is a rational procedure, and the outcome is a belief. This belief influences behaviour. Organisational followers spontaneously evaluate their circumstances according to some rule of justice. Perceptions of fairness are significant in boosting levels of faith and trust

amongst employees, which are necessary to deliver the helpful, though discretionary behaviours of OCB.

3.13 INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Yaakobi and Weisberg (2020) support the statement that investment injustice creates exponential behavioural reactions. They propose that results can be anticipated on the strength of the influence of the interpersonal dimension of interactional justice on citizenship behaviour which is directed at the organisation. If employees are treated fairly, they observe a high-quality relationship with the organisation and will execute extra-role behaviours that are beneficial to the organisation. If supervisors invest in their relationships with employees, it should prompt employee behaviour that benefits the supervisor and the organisation.

According to Zhang, Liu and Wang (2020), subordinates regard supervisors as being fair if supervisors honestly and openly consider employees' perspectives. Expressively communicating fair intentions is vital, ensuring that subordinates understand what is going on and that information is open and dependable. A supervisor's request to be trusted may be honoured when it comes from a supervisor who has a proven track record of fairness.

3.14 EFFECTS OF DIVERSE CATEGORIES OF JUSTICE ON ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR-INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOURS AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR-ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOURS

Researchers studied several predictors of OCB so that organisational practices could be enhanced to increase OCB. Karriker and Williams (2009) studied the effects of justice on the different OCB traits such as altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship. They found interactional justice to be a strongest predictor of OCB.

Conscientiousness relates closely to OCBI and is significantly related to interactional justice. This is because it involves the personal initiative and willingness of individuals to carry out their responsibilities thoroughly and dutifully (Karriker & Williams, 2009). The

objective of a study conducted by Karriker and Williams (2009) was to determine which kind of justice had the most significant impact on OCB. It was found that all kinds of justice play an equally important role as they are interrelated (Karriker & Williams, 2009). Practices that augment perceptions of fairness that relate to all kinds of justice boost citizenship behaviours and therefore benefit the employee, supervisor and the organisation (Karriker & Williams, 2009).

3.15 EFFECTIVENESS AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Haydam (2004) contends that labour is a key resource within the South African economy and argues that European mechanics are more productive than their African counterparts because they have better healthcare, more positive attitudes towards work and ethical values, and are better educated. If Haydam's theory (2004) is correct, to remain competitive in a global economy, South Africa should increase efficiency by educating and training of its employees and improving the attitudes of employees towards work.

OCB contributes in various ways to organisational effectiveness (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Obedience, dependability, creativity, and adherence to rule and governance guidelines are only a few qualities necessary for the effectiveness of an organisation. These qualities can, however, not be specified by contract. Therefore, organisations relies on employees' willingness to engage in these behaviours and voluntarily perform extra-role duties (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). OCB may contribute to organisational productivity by assisting resource adaptability, transformation and innovation. While helpful activities by co-workers temporarily detract employees from productivity, when rendered naturally, they can swiftly solve co-workers' difficulties (Zhang, Liu & Wang, 2020). Managing the needs of a co-worker that may have to follow a long process of communication to resolve a problem may take longer than a temporary break in individual efficiency. Both employees would be enabled to continue promptly with their productivity, which will generate organisational effectiveness.

Turnipseed and Murkison (1996) identified an element of OCB that they termed "benevolence". Benevolence comprises behaviour such as arguing, resisting negative influences by others, protecting organisational property, complaining, poor quality output and wasting materials. Even though most "benevolent" elements do not openly influence output, they may enhance output through the establishment of a work environment that is

conducive to high productivity. Consequently, lesser resources may be necessary which increases productivity.

The negative impact of an employee's absenteeism may be reversed by conscientiousness displayed which may ultimately contribute to organisational effectiveness (Turnipseed & Murkison, 1996). Employees are often absent due to serious illnesses but there are many examples of minor illnesses, where the discretion to be absent or present at work lies with the employees themselves. Conscientious employees will surpass the required or satisfactory level of contribution and come to work despite individual conditions that may have been recognised as valid explanations for their absenteeism from work. The organisation will only be able to function efficiently if non-attendance is kept to a minimum. Non-attendance raises the organisation's expenditure when contingent employees must be employed and paid to replace absent employees (Turnipseed & Murkison, 1996). Turnipseed and Murkison (1996) mention that cleanliness similarly frames a part of the conscientious worker.

Organisational effectiveness considers the operational use of scarce resources, for example, water, electricity, etc. The organisation relies on individuals to display conscientiousness in the utilisation of these resources as the effort and cost involved in monitoring the usage of these resources could be better used for more positive purposes such as planning, innovativeness and problem solving (Karriker & Williams, 2009).

Borman (2004) asserts that OCB boosts co-workers and executives' productivity and contributes to an organisation's effectiveness. However, if the organisation does not create a fair and supportive work environment, employees will not display OCB (Borman, 2004).

3.16 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed OCB to indicate how critical perceptions about fairness are for the display of OCB. This chapter introduced two dimensions of OCB: organisation citizenship behaviour–individual (OCBI) and organisation citizenship behaviour–organisation (OCBO). Common dimensions of OCB by various researchers were identified and briefly discussed. The importance of OCB citizenship behaviour was outlined. The effects of

diverse categories of justice on OCBI and OCBO were also discussed. Finally, the value of investing in practices that will enhance OCB was outlined.

CHAPTER 4: JOB SATISFACTION

In this chapter, the appropriate literature will be reviewed to get a better understanding of the significance of job satisfaction. With the uprising of a sturdy union liberation movement, the needs and concerns of employees can no longer be neglected in the labour market. This review will explore the nature of job satisfaction and how it influences employee behaviour. This chapter will provide definitions of job satisfaction and discuss theories related to motivation and job satisfaction.

4.1 THE CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

According to Locke's (1976) discrepancy theory, the idea of job satisfaction (JS) occurs when there is a difference between what the employee has at their disposal and their needs. According to Kerber and Campbell (1987), a job facet satisfaction measurement helps to recognise particular aspects of work that need change. The results may help organisations improve overall employee satisfaction or recognise organisational issues such as high turnover (Kerber & Campbell, 1987). The various definitions of job satisfaction are similar with studies by Jameel and Ahmad (2020), who assert that job satisfaction consists of five components:

- General working conditions
- Attitude towards colleagues
- Financial benefits
- Attitudes towards the education system
- Attitudes towards supervision

JS is linked to the physical and psychological well-being of employees and an individual who is dissatisfied with work experiences stress that can cause illness (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Baron and Greenberg (2003) concur that JS is an attitude towards an individual's job and its affective, cognitive and evaluative responses towards their job. While some individuals may feel consistently satisfied with their jobs, others may be reasonably dissatisfied.

Mueller and Kim (2008) assert that JS can be considered from two standpoints depending on how employees feel about their roles and responsibilities according to the job

description. The first standpoint, which also happens to be the most examined, is referred to as global job satisfaction. This viewpoint is concerned with how workers feel at a general level. For instance, it can be a measure of whether employees love their job or not (Mueller & Kim, 2008). In this respect, JS indicates the emotional condition of employees and is also sometimes used as a predictor for promotion programs in the workplace, to implement effective strategies (Mueller & Kim, 2008). The second is job facet satisfaction refers to feelings about particular aspects of employment such as pay, benefits, employment hierarchy (reporting structure), development opportunities, the working environment, and the nature of relationships with one's colleagues (e.g., "Overall, I love my career, but my schedule is difficult to manage") (Mueller & Kim, 2008). JS is a dynamic variable and is affected by situational factors in the work environment and individual's attitude factors (Dong & Phuong, 2018). Lower levels of JS were also found to be linked to turnover intentions and low organisational commitment (Dong & Phuong, 2018).

Due to fierce competition in the labour market and an increase in the number of organisations that compete globally, the well-being of organisations has become an object of extensive research and theoretical interest (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). JS can also be portrayed as a feeling of pleasure that stems from employees' impressions of their jobs. According to Hidayah and Harnoto (2018), JS refers to employees' expressions of well-being associated with performing their jobs. Job satisfaction can be seen as a global feeling or as a related collection of attitudes regarding various aspects or facets of the job (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Kareem, Mahmood, Jameel and Ahmad (2019) clarify that a global approach is used to assess the overall attitude while a facet approach is used to examine which parts of the work yield JS. In general, people are satisfied with their work based on their appraisal (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Employees will be satisfied if they are treated fairly and in agreement with the results they receive or the procedures that are implemented (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

When employees dislike their jobs, they either resign, taking with them the expertise and experience they may have acquired in the organisation or remain and allow conditions to worsen, neglect their duties, reduce effort and become chronically or voluntarily absent (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). Job satisfaction is related to the main factors of organisational behaviour and the prediction of the subjective well-being of employees.

Researchers have tried to understand and forecast job satisfaction for decades (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu, 2020). Dissatisfied employees tend to be uncommitted, unproductive, unfriendly and uncooperative and are more likely to participate in negative organisational actions such as absenteeism, sabotage, waste and theft (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018).

Dong and Phuong (2018) assert that job satisfaction occurs when a job meets the standards, values and expectations of an individual and will influence their performance and commitment. The higher the extent of the expectations, the higher the level of job satisfaction will be. Mohammad, Rand and Ra'Ed, (2019) contend that job satisfaction is an attitude and an internal state that can be correlated with individual feelings of achievement, either qualitatively or quantitatively. Kareem, Mahmood, Jameel and Ahmad (2019) propose that job satisfaction is a multi-faceted concept, that comprises present and past-oriented pleasant feelings that result when individuals evaluate their work roles. Ghran, Jameel and Ahmad (2019) state that job satisfaction can be reached when employees become one with the organisation, show commitment and perform to the best of their ability. Additionally, performance and job satisfaction are positively influenced by rewards.

There are various aspects to job satisfaction and the challenge to comprehend job satisfaction and its effects within an organisation is easier said than done. Mohammad, Rand and Ra'Ed (2019) stress that job satisfaction is a multi-dimensional and complex concept that can mean diverse things to different individuals. However, Hidayah and Harnoto (2018) also warn that a satisfied employee may not automatically be a productive employee.

Job satisfaction also includes physical working conditions, the work itself, personal achievement, responsibility, recognition, advancement, job security, supervision, salary, institution policy and administration, benefits and interpersonal relations (Kareem, Mahmood, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). To understand job satisfaction, it is necessary to differentiate between attitude and morale, and their relationship to job satisfaction (Kareem, Mahmood, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Attitude can be defined as a consideration that inclines an individual to act in a certain way and comprises affective, cognitive and behavioural components (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Morale is defined as the degree to

which a person's needs are satisfied and the degree to which a person observes that satisfaction as originating from the total job (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu, 2020).

An organisation's well-being refers to how it functions, and the quality of work-life experienced by employees is of the utmost importance (Karem, Mahmood, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Job satisfaction (JS) can be formally defined as the degree of negative or positive feelings individuals have about their jobs. When employees' expectations are met, employees will have feelings of accomplishment which have a direct influence on their job satisfaction (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). It includes the employees' mental and physical health, social well-being and sense of happiness which are all associated with the term job satisfaction (Dong & Phuong, 2018). According to Davidescu et al. (2020), job satisfaction is described as an overall attitude towards one's job – it is the difference between the outcomes received and what individuals believe they should receive. JS is seen in a dynamic process as a predictor and outcome variable for other employment-related performance-oriented factors, e.g., work engagement (Karem, Mahmood, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019).

Job satisfaction is conceived as a multidimensional framework that defines one's satisfaction with one's boss, colleagues, salary, promotional incentives, job security and company policy (Dong & Phuong, 2018). Job satisfaction, as a form of emotional well-being, is a dynamic emotional response to the understanding of the relationship between what the person wants from their work and what the job offers (Karem, Mahmood, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Additionally, Karem et al (2019) state that though job satisfaction is an attitude, researchers should be advised to ascertain the purposes of cognitive assessment which are affected by beliefs, emotions and behaviours. Davidescu et al. (2020) acknowledged several factors influencing job satisfaction such as the necessity for the organisation to create an environment that inspires employee involvement and manages stress in the workplace. In general, job satisfaction encapsulates employees' feelings about their jobs (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu, 2020). Research has shown that job satisfaction is a multidimensional phenomenon influenced by various external and internal factors such as the employee's principles, values, expectations, nature of the job, opportunities provided, personality etc. (Karem, Mahmood, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). These definitions of job satisfaction can be summed as a collection of

feelings, attitudes, behaviours and beliefs individuals have toward their jobs. Thus, job satisfaction is a work-related attitude that denotes an emotional feeling of accomplishment that can be either qualitative or quantitative (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019).

4.1.1 The rationale for understanding job satisfaction

Most South African companies have a low level of employee job satisfaction, resulting in an absence of commitment to performance and the accomplishment of organisational goals (Mayer & Botha, 2004). Managers in South African organisations are faced with productivity and job satisfaction at the top of their list of worries (Mayer & Botha, 2004). This denotes that job satisfaction affects employees' commitment and performance.

Studies show that it is important for economic measurement to obtain information and reduce the response time to establish actions in an organisation (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). Individuals at management levels tend to be fulfilled with their jobs possibly owing to better working conditions, better remuneration and job content (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). JS is most commonly used and measured in employee surveys as a diagnostic variable to derive actions according to the organisation's goals and strategies (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019).

It is vital that managers pay special attention to employees' attitudes as job satisfaction can drop more speedily than it develops (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). The job satisfaction level across several groups may not be consistent but could be correlated to some variables (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). This permits executives to foresee which groups are likely to display actions associated with dissatisfaction (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). Older employees are commonly satisfied with their jobs even though this may change as their probabilities of progress get reduced and they face the certainty of retirement (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

The JS level across several groups may not be consistent but could be correlated to some variables (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019), which permits executives to foresee the groups that are likely to display actions associated with dissatisfaction (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). JS measurement provides insight into employee attitudes within the organisation and can be used to support corporate strategy development (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). JS can be viewed as a global construct forming part of most employee

surveys on one hand or as comprising different facets where JS is a hierarchical construct (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

High JS may serve as a goal for companies to reduce fluctuations and improve their performance, but it is of profound importance for employees themselves to improve their quality of life (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu, 2020). For the prediction of general life satisfaction, JS shows a high variance proportion. JS assessment, therefore, plays a key role as companies want to engage and achieve their targets with highly satisfied employees.

The balanced scorecard can derive these goals since it is an instrument for the conversion of the objectives and priorities of an organisation into measurable metrics (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu, 2020). The balanced scorecard's learning and development growth perspective, which is one of four perspectives, forms the foundation of the other perspectives (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu, 2020). Further education, information technology and infrastructure investments form part of the learning and development framework, which lay the groundwork for achieving defined objectives. The perspective of learning and growth includes, among other indicators, employee satisfaction with increasing productivity and quality when JS can be measured through an employee survey.

Managers need to be hands-on in maintaining and improving their employees' life satisfaction beyond merely satisfaction in the workplace as job satisfaction forms part of life satisfaction. This means that an individual's life outside work may have an impact on their feelings on the job (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). The next segment explores the two main types of job satisfaction.

4.2 TYPES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Discovering accurately what makes individuals feel fulfilled about their work can turn into a multi-faceted issue. According to Jameel and Ahmad (2020), there are diverse aspects that make individuals feel negative or positive about their job.

4.2.1 Global job satisfaction (GJS)

The first, and most studied, is global job satisfaction (GJS) relating to employees general feelings about their work (e.g., "overall, I love my job.") (Mueller & Kim, 2008). According to Mueller and Kim (2008), the GJS assessment system is nothing more than asking individuals to answer one question like; all things considered, how satisfied are you with your job? GJS is an effective way to assess well-being either in a single-item or multi-item form where the benefit of multiple items lies in greater reliability (Mueller & Kim, 2008).

4.2.2 Job facet satisfaction (JFS)

Some employees may be content with a small number of facets of their work but unhappy with all other facets (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). A practical example of this scenario may be the profession of educators where most educators have stated that they are satisfied with the working hours and holidays but there are other aspects such as the work itself and supervision that lead to their job dissatisfaction. In addition, Baron and Greenberg (2003) assert that the aspects that lead employees to hold negative or positive perceptions of their jobs have been recognised as indicated in the sections that follow:

4.2.2.1 *The work itself*

Employees may be totally satisfied with their working conditions and their co-workers but may be unhappy with the work itself. The work itself will play an essential role in influencing how satisfied employees are with their jobs (Baron & Greenberg, 2003).

Jameel and Ahmad (2020) also propose that employees should be assigned some independence in how they execute their tasks, which will lead to their job satisfaction. This will bring about autonomy and independence in carrying out a job.

Furthermore, some employees may perceive their jobs as boring and less motivating. Baron and Greenberg (2003) point out that individuals would reasonably desire a job that is challenging, interesting and provides opportunities for recognition and self-actualisation.

4.2.2.2 *Level of pay*

There is no reservation that financial rewards play a very significant role in determining job satisfaction. As stated by Jameel and Ahmad (2020), the level of pay can have a powerful effect on determining job satisfaction. People have multiple needs and money

provides the means to satisfy these needs, (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Moreover, a desire for money originates from individuals' need to satisfy their security and physical needs, whereas individuals termed "go-getters" perceive compensation as a recognition and status symbol (Locke, 1976). Consequently, the concept of money or pay may have various meanings to various individuals. Dong and Phuong (2018) add that if remunerations are not market-related it can lead to discontent and dissatisfaction. Employees may be distressed by the fact that their qualifications and experience are inconsistent with their remuneration (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Davidescu et al. (2020) assert that employees will compare their remuneration and inputs and rewards with other employees.

4.2.2.3 Working Conditions

An employee would rather desire working conditions that will result in greater physical convenience and comfort (Dong & Phuong, 2018); however, the lack of such working conditions amid other things could impact poorly on employees' physical and psychological well-being (Baron & Greenberg, 2003). Jameel and Ahmad (2020) argue that working conditions will influence job satisfaction as employees are concerned with a relaxed physical work environment. This will, in turn, solidify a more favourable level of job satisfaction. Davidescu et al. (2020) assert that elements such as ventilation, temperature, hygiene, resources, lighting, noise and working hours all form part of working conditions. Employees may feel that poor working conditions will only incite undesirable performance since their jobs are physically and psychologically demanding (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

Nonetheless, Massoudi et al. (2020) caution that if working conditions are too extreme or favourable this could be ignored or taken for granted by most employees. In such cases where the employees do not appreciate their good working conditions or if it is the opposite, it may not affect or bother them (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018). Furthermore, employees may use poor working conditions as an excuse against the organisation as they may feel their work efforts are unappreciated or unacknowledged (Baron & Greenberg, 2003; Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

4.2.2.4 A genetic or hereditary disposition

According to Arvey, Carter and Buerkley (1991), job satisfaction might have a genetic cause.

Arvey et al (1991) conducted a study that was based on the Minnesota twin family to determine the influence of genes and environment on the development of psychological traits in twins. The use of identical twins in the studies has consistently been popular in psychological studies since identical twins share identical genes. Subsequently, any mismatch in the development of psychological traits between the twins can be attributed to environmental influences (Arvey, Carter & Buerkley, 1991).

Arvey, Carter and Buerkley (1991) focused on the level of job satisfaction in 34 sets of identical twins who had been separated from an early age. If job satisfaction is merely the result of environmental factors, there is no expectation for any notable relationship in the level of job satisfaction between identical twins who were raised in different environments and had different jobs. Subsequently, if identical twins with dissimilar backgrounds and different jobs show a similar level of job satisfaction, then we should consider a genetic disposition as a determining factor (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

Arvey et al's (1991) studies have revealed that almost 30% of the difference in job satisfaction depends on genetic factors. Furthermore, the level of job satisfaction between genetically identical individuals with dissimilar jobs is more similar than the level of job satisfaction between genetically different people with the same job (Arvey, Carter & Buerkley, 1991). Nevertheless, this does not suggest that there is a gene for "job satisfaction". Considering everything, it is difficult to determine the percentage of job satisfaction as a function of an individual's disposition (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019).

4.2.2.5 *Affective disposition*

Ghran, Jameel and Ahmad (2019) studied the relationship between affective disposition – a predisposition to have negative or positive thoughts and emotions – job satisfaction, subjective well-being – a perceived level of satisfaction about life in general – and job characteristics. The findings of the study indicated that affective disposition had a significant influence on subjective well-being. Subjective well-being in succession and affective disposition, in consequence, had a noteworthy effect on job satisfaction and so did job satisfaction on subjective well-being. Finally, job characteristics were the most significant determinants of job satisfaction, but they were scarcely more important than subjective well-being (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). This reveals that, in addition to the content of the job itself, the affective disposition of an individual is a key determinant for job satisfaction. Another assumption is that job satisfaction impacts a person's overall satisfaction. This indicates that an individual employee who is dissatisfied with the job itself, but very satisfied with life on a personal level, may perform well on the job (Ghran, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Similarly, an employee who is very satisfied with the job itself, but very dissatisfied with life on a personal level, may perform poorly on the job.

4.2.2.6 Gender

Jameel and Ahmad (2020) studied and revealed that women's job satisfaction is typically lesser than men's job satisfaction. One description for this phenomenon could be that women are less devoted to their work since their earnings are, or at least used to be, simply a secondary income in the household. Moreover, women experience less job satisfaction because they tend to have fewer good jobs in comparison to men (Karem, Mahmood, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019).

4.2.2.7 Age

According to Jameel and Ahmad (2020), job satisfaction tends to rise during working life. Older people tend to have better jobs as a result of a longer duration in the workplace leading to greater opportunities to acquire more desirable jobs. In addition, older people have adjusted their expectations over the years and are subsequently more easily content and more satisfied; dissatisfied older people are more likely to opt for early retirement, while the remaining older people are satisfied with their job (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). This creates a tilted image of the level of job satisfaction among older people by cancelling out the dissatisfied segment (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). Jameel and Ahmad (2020) revealed a U-shaped connection between job satisfaction and lifecycle. Job satisfaction starts significantly high in the teenage years, then takes a nosedive in the twenties and thirties, then it rises back up again through the forties and more in the fifties and sixties (Karem, Mahmood, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019).

4.2.2.8 Supervision

Baron and Greenberg (2003), as cited by Jameel and Ahmad (2020), state that if employees perceive their managers as competent, sincere and fair the level of job satisfaction will be high. Conversely, employee perceptions of incompetent managers will result in a lower level of job satisfaction (Baron & Greenberg, 2003; Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

4.2.2.9 Promotions

According to Jameel and Ahmad (2020) promotion opportunities have a stronger influence on job satisfaction as compared to achievement and recognition. Hiring managers are often asked whether an "opportunity for advancement" exists within an organisation (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). The prospect of promotion will result in favourable changes such as autonomy, pay and supervision (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Nonetheless, Mohammad, Rand and Ra'Ed (2019) caution that the accelerated promotion

of high performers may result in disappointment among steadfastly diligent yet less creative senior employees.

Jameel and Ahmad (2020) observed that the desire to be promoted originates from the desire for psychological growth, social stay and justice. Management should acknowledge that promotion can function as a tool for encouragement and motivation in ensuring a high performance and the achievement of goals at the higher level (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

It is essential to understand how the various sources of job satisfaction impact an individual's behaviour. This is a critical facet for organisations as the distinctions in job satisfaction levels can influence and affect employees' perceptions of their jobs. Consequently, the next segment will focus on the approaches to job satisfaction.

4.3 APPROACHES TO JOB SATISFACTION

According to Xerri (2014), three distinct approaches have been developed to measure the level of employees' satisfaction. The first method is called the "information processing model" and it focuses on the features of the job (Xerri, 2014). According to this method, employees collect data about the job, workplace, and organisation and cognitively measure these elements to determine the level of satisfaction (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

The second approach was identified as the "social information processing model" i.e., information based on what others at work think and past behaviours (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). This method shifts the attention from the effects of the context and repercussions of past behaviours, rather than to rational decision-making processes and individual predispositions (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Therefore, job satisfaction is reliant on how others at work evaluate the workplace (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

The third approach proposes that job satisfaction depends on the dispositions or characteristics of the employee. These dispositions can be based on genetic heritage or experience or both (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). To summarise, job satisfaction is a function of:

- The features of a job
- The perception of others
- The employee's personality.

4.4 THE MENTAL PROCESS OF CONSTRUCTION OF JOB SATISFACTION

The estimation of JS is a compound mental process which starts from the evaluation of one's expectations of the ideal job and ends with the general well-being of the individual employee (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). JS includes both physical and psychological factors. It requires the employee to consider all the characteristics of the job and can be determined by many factors. Scholars have included these probable determinants of JS in both empirical and theoretical studies. According to Jameel and Ahmad (2020), the contribution of empirical literature is crucial, but confusing in many respects. They state that scholars have commonly devoted their attention to some determinants at a time, given the difficulty in creating adequate questionnaires including the most appropriate descriptive factors of job satisfaction and in carrying out models including proxies for many characteristics of the job and aspects of the individual employee.

Notwithstanding, by exploiting Locke's (1976) study, the various determinants of JS can be summarised by integrating his approach with notions of behavioural theory and the results of empirical analyses.

4.5 THE DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

To sort out the main determinants of JS, it is essential to describe employees' understanding of their job and their well-being (Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). As Locke stated (1976), a job is a complex interrelationship of roles, tasks, responsibilities, rewards, interactions, and incentives. Therefore, JS depends on the estimation of many dimensions, which are classified into three groups: the *work*, the *context*, and the *rewards* (Massoudi, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Although empirical literature has investigated all these dimensions, more recent approaches have integrated Locke's taxonomy with new and more precise terminologies, which lead to a comprehensive description of the determinants of JS.

4.5.1 The work itself

The first set of determinants of JS falls within the ambit of work (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019), which describes all the main characteristics of the job. It approximates how the job is carried out and includes variables such as professional training, task activities, achievement, control, variety, and intrinsic interest in the job (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). This job dimension has been greatly considered in empirical studies, which have primarily focused on its fundamental components of work as positively influencing JS. For instance, an interesting job is considered by employees to be a positive determinant of JS (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020), or one of the

most significant job aspects (Dong & Phuong, 2018). Correspondingly, good job content defined as having an exciting job, useful for helping other persons and society, which is thought to improve employee independence influences JS meaningfully and positively (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019) and employees (particularly managers) seem commonly dedicated more to their jobs than to their organisations (Afsar & Umrani, 2019). Similarly, self-determination and autonomy positively impact job satisfaction (Bauwens, Audenaert, Huisman & Decramer, 2019) and the same is true for employees' contribution to managerial examination processes (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu, 2020).

4.5.2 The context of social and physical working conditions

The second group of determinants of job satisfaction considered by Locke (1976) is the context, which refers to social and physical working conditions. Scholars have not studied this group of variables in depth; however, some authors have proven the significance of some aspects of the context such as the physical work environment and working hours (Dong & Phuong, 2018). Amongst other proxies of the working environment, employee satisfaction seems to be negatively influenced by company size and it differs by a segment of activity and organisational form (Afsar & Umrani, 2019). Nevertheless, some studies establish that satisfaction is only indirectly determined by the size of organisations since size determines different processes of organisations and different atmospheres and learning satisfaction (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020).

The concept of context can, however, be stretched similarly over elements of physical working conditions and precisely to social conditions (Afsar & Umrani, 2019). The context also refers employee interaction and therefore relationships must be included as a valid proxy of the context (Dong & Phuong, 2018). An empirical study has in this case satisfactorily established that employees' understanding of colleagues, supervisors and customers increases job satisfaction (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). More precisely, the relationship with supervisors seems even more significant than relationships with colleagues (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). In general, relationships may be considered a good that organisations can in some instances exchange for monetary compensation (Dong & Phuong, 2018).

4.5.3 Rewards received by the employee

Finally, the last significant group of variables describing JS involves rewards (Afsar & Umrani, 2019). Rewards comprise all the monetary benefits provided by the organisation as pay, promotion and other benefits, but also responsibilities and verbal recognition (Afsar & Umrani, 2019). Jameel, Mahmood and Jwmaa (2020) state that the most studied form of reward is a wage even though the results of the empirical literature are relatively perplexing. On one hand, employees' compensation and JS seem positively related within an in-country cross sectional

analysis which is confirmed by some studies on the correlation between wage and job satisfaction (Adams, 1963; Judge & Bono, 2001; Eisenbeiss, Knippenberg & Boerner, 2008; Perry, Witt & Penney, 2010; Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). Other studies have, however, revealed that the relationship between the wage level and JS can be negative or is commonly weak or undetermined (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 1999; Donglong, Taejun, Julie & Sanghun, 2019). Moreover, in segments of activity where the significance of other aspects of the work and the context are more important (as in the social services sector) and when the contextual variables are controlled by the employee (on-the-job relationships), the wage does not influence JS (Donglong, Taejun, Julie & Sanghun, 2019).

A stronger correlation appears instead of JS and some sub-dimensions of the wage (Locke, 1976). Empirical studies have established that not only does the level of wage have a vital consequence on JS but so too does the existence of overtime policies and bonuses, pay equity and pay security. First, the outcome of monetary rewards on JS is positive and noteworthy when companies implement policies of economic contribution and budgetary emphasis (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Second, when the actual wage is below the expected level, employees become less satisfied with their job (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Likewise, variances in wages among colleagues, which is an index of distributive fairness, negatively affect JS (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018). With regards to other possible financial rewards, empirical studies have shown that changes in employees' pay, overtime and promotion opportunities positively influence JS (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018). Donglong, Taejun, Julie and Sanghun (2019) argue that the significance of non-monetary rewards has been examined primarily by presenting psychological factors as in the contribution of behavioural theory. Both empirical and theoretical studies show that employees are motivated by incentives other than the wage, for instance fairness, social approval and other non-monetary characteristics of the job (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

4.6 THE PROCESS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Understanding the aspects of the job that impact an employee's satisfaction is inadequate to predict the level of job satisfaction (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018). As stated by Locke (1976), job satisfaction results from the perception that one's job satisfies or allows the fulfilment of one's important values, to the degree that those values correspond with one's needs. The work, the context and the rewards are only proxies for the essence of the job, while JS arises from a

comparison between the job and employees' needs and expectations (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018). Moreover, each job aspect is not attributed the same value by all employees, since different employees can have dissimilar preferences (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

Empirical studies on JS have seldom assessed workers' expectations (Bobocel, 2021). Primarily, expectations have been approximated by professional and natural traits of employees. It is hence presumed that individual expectations primarily depend on the characteristics of employees and on the predisposition of similar classes of individuals to adopt similar expectations and preferences (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). For instance, men and women differ in their expectations which is why job satisfaction tends to be higher for women (Bauwens, Audenaert, Huisman & Decramer, 2019). Afsar and Umrani (2019) argue that the satisfaction quality of women is stated to have diminished in the recent years owing to the convergence of expectations between women and men. Employees with lower educational levels tend to report higher job satisfaction due to the influence of both the heightened expectations of highly educated individuals and the phenomenon of educational overqualification (Akram, Lei, Haider & Hussain, 2018). Similarly, age is correlated with JS, but in a U-shaped manner, and therefore employees' expectations appear to be lower when they enter the labour market and follow a process of adaptation in the long run (Akram, Lei, Haider & Hussain, 2018).

Employee needs comprise both physical, financial and psychological needs. Maslow (1970) identified five categories of needs: physiological needs, needs for security, needs for self-esteem, needs for identification and involvement, and needs for self-fulfilment. These categories include psychological health and psychological desires beyond physiological needs and the consumption of goods. Additionally, needs identify the numerous characteristics of a job that are assessed by employees and that have been defined in preceding paragraphs (Akram, Lei, Haider & Hussain, 2018). It seems possible to state that employees assess their needs on the diverse features that a job should supply and compare them with the characteristics of their jobs.

Locke's definition (1976) of JS suggests that employees evaluate their jobs through individual values. Furthermore, employees identify what they want and value (contents) and how much they want and value (intensity). Employees express individual preferences for each aspect of their job and therefore their evaluation of job satisfaction can vary even

if the job has precisely the same features (in terms of context, work and rewards) and employees have the same personality traits and needs (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018).

The concept of values is the most complex to explain. Nevertheless, starting from the 1980s, works of literature in behavioural theory have stressed the existence of individuals with mixed preferences in terms of values attributed to both monetary and non-monetary rewards and preferences. A better understanding of employees' values comes from the concepts of social preferences, motivations and non-self-regarding preferences (Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018).

Primarily introduced by psychologists, the term motivation explains all factors influencing individuals' actions and in particular the level of energy that individuals dedicate to their choices. The core difference in (both psychological and economic) literature is between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Intrinsic motivations are satisfied when employees accept an activity for their direct satisfaction. Subsequently, the intrinsic nature is definite to the task and focused on a self-defined goal, the flow of activity and the obligation of social and personal norms – fairness, benevolence and identity – for their own sake (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). Intrinsic motivations comprise interest in the activity achieved, good relationships with colleagues and supervisors, and involvement and autonomy in decision-making at a strategic and operational level (Akram, Lei, Haider & Hussain, 2018). These aspects are convincingly linked to work as defined by Locke (1976). Moreover, intrinsic motivations are more firmly correlated to the satisfaction of higher needs, like self-fulfilment and self-esteem in Maslow's scale, hence their fulfilment comes after the satisfaction of more basic needs, which are linked to financial rewards. Extrinsic motivations arise when employees please their needs indirectly, primarily through financial rewards and purchasing goods or services (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

The concept of motivation seems to correspond to the model by Locke. A job incorporates both intrinsic and extrinsic needs, employees have both intrinsic and extrinsic expectations and individuals allocate dissimilar intensity to their intrinsic and extrinsic values. The intensity of values also depends on the preference of employees for aspects other than the self-sphere. Experimental studies have presented a key contribution to understanding social preferences. Afsar and Umrani (2019) contend that social

preferences, in general, appear when the effectiveness of an individual is affected by dissimilarities in the distribution of the physical resources of other persons. In other words, the decision-makers take into consideration not only their remuneration but also how material resources are distributed to others. Depending on the impact of the others' condition on the individual's welfare, social preferences are then sectioned into pure altruism (when the individual always values positively material resources assigned to other persons), inequality aversion (when differences in the remuneration or the welfare of others decrease the welfare of the individual), and interchange (when an individual responds friendly to kind actions and with aggression to offensive actions) (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020). The emphasis is to evidence the dependence of individual welfare on features other than the self and in particular on the welfare of others. When applied to employees, it means that job satisfaction does not only depend on the individual's position in the workplace but also the welfare of others in the organisation: for instance, co-workers, clients and superiors (Afsar & Umrani, 2019). The significance of social preferences has been studied particularly within non-profit organisations or in sectors of general interest. For instance, social preferences appear to clarify why non-profit organisations can select selfless employees willing to contribute part of their work and motivated to develop a sense of group associated with the social dimension of the activity (Akram, Lei, Haider & Hussain, 2018). Correlated to this, fairness is perhaps the most studied among the other social preferences, considering the distribution of remuneration among colleagues, but also considering the organisational processes that influence the distribution of welfare (Afsar & Umrani, 2019). Empirical studies on job satisfaction have concluded that individual job satisfaction depends on both distributive and procedural fairness (Karem, Jameel & Ahmad, 2020).

4.7 THE INTERACTIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

In the management of incentives and the provision of rewards to increase employee satisfaction, some job characteristics frequently correlate with others and consequently, their final influence on job satisfaction is undecided (Jameel, Ahmad & Mousa, 2020). Furthermore, Jameel, Ahmad and Mousa (2020) assert that the key interference between variables has been described by the psychological observations of employees. This effect has been stated in behavioural studies as the crowding-out of intrinsic motivations. The functioning of intrinsic motivations has been empirically proven by Farid, Iqbal, Jawahar and Khan (2019), explaining that, under specific

conditions, extrinsic rewards can be observed by employees as ways of disciplining and controlling.

Jameel, Ahmad and Mousa (2020) state that in some contexts, monetary rewards can damage employees' involvement in their team and their self-image as job holders and organisational mission. Farid, Iqbal, Jawahar and Khan (2019) observed a negative impact of pay-for-performance on employees' perceptions of their capabilities, and then on their performance. These outcomes give important contributions to understanding job satisfaction and advise researchers on the significance of likely interactions not only between rewards, on one hand, and job satisfaction on the other, but also among rewards, with consequences on job satisfaction that may be negative (Donglong, Taejun, Julie & Sanghun, 2019). However, profit sharing has been commonly recognised to increase employee satisfaction and effort. Therefore, it does not seem to crowd out intrinsic motivations perhaps because it concerns the outcomes of the organisation as a whole and not of specific job activities (Donglong, Taejun, Julie & Sanghun, 2019).

According to Greenberg and Baron (2010), interactions also concern employees' behaviours within an organisation. According to Farid et al. (2019), the perceptions, behaviours and preferences of employees are influenced by their interaction with the working environment and with similar individuals. Precisely, individuals belonging to the same group are inclined to behave correspondingly owing to three key typologies of effects. First, contextual effects are acknowledged in the embracing of behaviours that are influenced by the distribution of circumstantial characteristics in the group (Farid, Iqbal, Jawahar & Khan, 2019). Second, endogenous effects occur when the individual behaviour is influenced by the frequency of that behaviour in the group. Third, correlated effects comprise the development of alike behaviours of employees in one organisation because they face comparable institutional environments or have similar individual characteristics. Commonly employees within one organisation have a habit of expressing similar levels of job satisfaction not only because of similar work conditions (rewards, the work, the context) but also because their motivations are similar, and employees influence each other's perceptions and attitudes towards the job. The development of similar attitudes and perceptions of employees within organisations have been confirmed by studies on the sorting of employees with similar characteristics in the same sector or organisation (Greenberg & Baron, 2010). Thus, both approaches assist in claiming that the working environment at the same time tends to choose individuals with similar features and to motivate employees toward similar behaviours and perceptions due to the frequency of those features and behaviours in the group (Baron & Greenberg, 2003).

4.8 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF JOB SATISFACTION

Having discussed the several definitions of satisfaction, it's essential to explore the diverse responses and attitudes employees will reflect toward their jobs. It is these behaviours and attitudes that essentially determine the levels of job satisfaction that individuals have toward their jobs (Baron & Greenberg, 2003). Different researchers and scholars created extensive theories based on job satisfaction. They intended to offer a basis for understanding, not simply the causes influencing such attitudes but also the reasons why it results in such effects, (Baron & Greenberg, 2003).

Additionally, whereas some employees may feel intensely optimistic about their jobs and others very negative it is important to determine the factors that contribute to the variable grades of job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction (Kaur & Kaur, 2016). The next section will discuss the various theories of JS to determine how they can be applied to increase and improve JS.

4.8.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

According to Maslow's theory (1970), people's needs range from fundamental to high level. These needs are existent within every individual in a hierarchy, namely safety and security, physiological, social, self-actualisation and status needs. Failure to satisfy one's needs may affect the next level of need. Low order needs take precedence before the higher order needs are stimulated, so that needs are satisfied in categorisation. According to this theory, individuals who are struggling to live are less anxious about needs on higher levels than individuals who have time and energy to be aware of higher-level needs.

4.8.2 Locke's value theory

According to this theory, the influence of the different factors can be determined if one knows the value individuals place on a specific work-related outcome (Locke, 1976). The higher the value placed on each factor, the higher the change in satisfaction. This theory also supports that if too much value is placed on a specific factor, stronger feelings of dissatisfaction will take place. Locke's theory is multidimensional and significantly precise to each individual. This can be exemplified in the subsequent instance: two employees that carry out similar tasks at the same place of work may experience the same level of satisfaction but in completely different ways. One employee may be intensely influenced

by the physical features of the job whereas the other employee may be influenced by the challenge and variation integral to the job (Locke, 1976). In comparison, Baron and Greenberg (2003) contend that even though Locke's theory has not been expansively examined, an excessive amount of importance placed on values indicates that job satisfaction may arise from many factors.

4.8.3 Herzberg's two-factor theory

A study conducted by Herzberg observed what individuals want from their jobs (Herzberg, 1966). Individuals had to define work conditions in which they felt good or bad. The responses received were then classified into positive or negative responses. The features correlated to job satisfaction were labelled as motivators and those related to job dissatisfaction as hygiene factors. The features correlated to job satisfaction comprised the work itself, recognition, advancement, growth, achievement and responsibilities. Herzberg classified these characteristics as "motivators". The job characteristics associated with dissatisfaction comprised interpersonal relationships, supervision, working conditions, administration and company policy, and were labelled as hygiene factors (Farid, Iqbal, Jawahar & Khan, 2019).

Judge, Bono and Locke (2000) agree that this theory does a good job in explaining the concept of job satisfaction and state that if indeed JS exists, there are aspects that lead to its achievement. On the other hand, if these aspects are not there then they lead to the opposite outcome which is dissatisfaction. According to Baron and Greenberg (2003), various factors influence job dissatisfaction and job satisfaction. Kaur and Kaur (2016) dismiss maintenance and hygienic factors from the list of influential factors and state that they have ignorable value concerning the level of motivation. One of the problems, according to critics of the approach, is that the theory fails to provide a measure of motivators and hygienic factors (Farid, Iqbal, Jawahar & Khan, 2019). Nonetheless, critics of the theory have been unsuccessful in proving that the theory is invalid.

4.8.3.1. Hygiene factors

Hygiene factors are aspects of the job such as remuneration, benefits, working conditions, policies and practices consistent with a lower order of needs. Maslow (1970) argues that when hygienic factors are adhered to, motivators are then encouraged and at the same time the level of dissatisfaction with the job decreases. However, it is noteworthy that

although inadequate hygiene factors may result in dissatisfaction, job satisfaction is not guaranteed. Therefore, hygiene factors must precede motivators (Farid, Iqbal, Jawahar & Khan, 2019). Organisations need to prioritise hygiene because it can lead to unhappy employees who may consider seeking alternative job opportunities. Those that may opt to stay may be incompetent and therefore compromise the performance of the firm.

4.8.3.2. Motivators

According to Herzberg (1966), motivators comprise job content such as self-esteem, responsibility, autonomy and growth, which fulfil high order necessities and can lead to an outcome of job satisfaction. Allowing employees more creativity and responsibility in their jobs is an example of a motivator that may inspire them to apply more effort and perform better.

4.8.4 Cornell model

Hulin, Roznowski and Hachiya (1985) present an approach that seeks to ensure that already existing theories are incorporated into the Cornell model as far as attitude realisation and job satisfaction are concerned. According to the model, job satisfaction is determined by two factors namely role inputs and outcomes (Hulin, Roznowski & Hachiya, 1985). Outcomes involve factors such as intrinsic factors, working conditions and pay as well as the status of the job description. On the other hand, role inputs include factors such as time, experience and effort as well as the level of training. In other words, outcomes are concerned with what the worker receives from their job whereas role inputs involve the roles and responsibilities that the employee is expected to dispense (Hulin, Roznowski & Hachiya, 1985). Also, the model argues that the opportunity cost of the job significantly influences the worker's perception regarding the value that they place on inputs. For instance, when the demand for labour is low (high rate of unemployment), the level of competition in the labour market is high, and therefore, workers consider their input less valuable due to a low opportunity cost of labour (Hulin, Roznowski & Hachiya, 1985).

In conclusion, the model recommends that individuals' frames of reference, which denote past experiences with outcomes, affect how they perceive current outcomes received. This concept of frames of reference, as generated and modified by individuals'

experience, accounts, partly, for variances in job satisfaction with empirically identical jobs. Nonetheless, direct tests of the model are absent.

4.9 PROCESS THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Behaviour is an essential signal of an individual's expectations and perception about a circumstance and likely outcome of behaviour (Farid, Iqbal, Jawahar & Khan, 2019). Process theories explain how and by which goals individuals are motivated. They are established on the hypothesis that individuals make sensible choices concerning their behaviour (Farid, Iqbal, Jawahar & Khan, 2019). The most common process theories are the job characteristics model, the expectancy theory and the equity theory.

4.9.1 The Job Characteristic Model

The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) was developed by Richard Hackman and Greg Oldham in 1976. Hackman and Oldham's study was founded on work redesign, which is defined as varying jobs to boost both the quality of employees' productivity and their work experience (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Dong and Phuong (2018) refer to this model as an interactive model that develops employees and the workplace to attain maximum fit in the workplace. The model produces a dominant context for describing task characteristics and determining their relationship to worker performance, motivation and satisfaction. The model stresses that the job should be created to retain features to allow situations for high motivation, satisfaction and performance (Dong & Phuong, 2018).

There are five fundamental characteristics of the job that influence employees' attitudes and behaviour, namely task identity, skill variety, job autonomy, task significance and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Dong & Phuong, 2018). The correlation between the fundamental characteristics and work results is moderated by employees' skill, knowledge, context satisfaction and growth-need strength; hence, the correlation between the fundamental job characteristics and work outcomes may vary (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Dong & Phuong, 2018).

According to the JCM theory, jobs that are augmented to offer the fundamental characteristics are probable to be more motivating and satisfying than jobs that do not offer these characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). More precisely, it is suggested

that fundamental job characteristics lead to three vital emotional states – responsibility for outcomes, knowledge of results and experienced meaningfulness of the work –which, in turn, results in job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Dong & Phuong, 2018).

There is both direct and indirect support for the legitimacy of the model's essential proposition that fundamental job characteristics lead to more satisfying work. With regards to indirect evidence, studies through the years and types of organisations indicate that when employees are requested to assess various aspects of their job, such as promotion opportunities, pay, co-workers, supervision, and so on, the work itself mostly appears as the most essential job aspect and with main outcomes such as employee retention (Dong & Phuong, 2018).

As stated by Donglong, Taejun, Julie and Sanghun (2019), goals are fixed conjointly with employees and management, with employees being accountable for achieving these goals. Additionally, this would augment the fortification and development of their jobs. Donglong et al (2019) categorised JCM in terms of five fundamental dimensions, which will be clarified as:

- Task identity: the degree to which employees can see their work from the beginning to the end.
- Skills variety: the degree to which the job allows employees to perform different tasks that require different skills and talents.
- Job autonomy: the degree to which the job allows employees the control, freedom and discretion to plan and execute their tasks.
- Task significance: the degree to which one's work is perceived as significant.
- Feedback: the extent to which direct and clear information is given to the employees to evaluate how they are performing their jobs.

Most employees may bemoan the lack creativity and variety in their jobs, consequently rendering the job dull. Donglong, Taejun, Julie and Sanghun (2019) add that if the task identity, task variety and task significance dimensions were incorporated into a job, this would make the job more valuable, interesting and worthwhile to the employee. This will consequently have a positive effect on job satisfaction. Jobs that contain autonomy will provide employees with a sense of self-fulfilment and personal responsibility. If a job

possesses feedback, employees will become more cautious about their effectiveness and performance (Donglong, Taejun, Julie & Sanghun, 2019).

4.9.2 Expectancy theory

This expectancy theory was created by Vroom (1964), who argues that job satisfaction is a function of three factors: expectancy, instrumentality and valence. Expectancy is concerned with performance whereby the point of consideration is the employee's view that their efforts ultimately lead to desired results whereas valence is concerned with how significant the rewards reaped from the effort are perceived. In the case of instrumentality, the theory advocates that good performance attracts rewards. Consequently, the theory argues that job satisfaction is a product of valence, expectancy and instrumentality. In addition, the theory considers that these three factors are correlated with personal goals and how they are aligned. As a result, the expectancy theory is seen as a contingency model because it connotes that the employee level of motivation is not determined by attitude and therefore high performance does not directly result from personal objectives (Donglong, Taejun, Julie & Sanghun, 2019).

4.9.3 Equity theory

The equity theory determines that there is a relationship between outcomes and inputs, and this relationship provides a comparison between organisational culture and the current business environments. As far as the exchange of labour is concerned, outcomes are gains to the individual whereas inputs are contributions made by the employee. According to Tian and Yang (2019), various outcomes and inputs are allocated weights according to perceived importance and observations. It implies that how individuals perceive to be treated compared to others at the same level determines their level of inspiration or motivation to perform better.

4.10 MEASUREMENT OF JOB SATISFACTION

Numerous scholars observe that job satisfaction is a universal theory that consists of different aspects. The most common classification considers five facets of job satisfaction: the work itself, promotions, pay, supervision and co-workers (Locke, 1976). Greenberg and Baron (2003) include a few other aspects such as company management, working conditions and recognition in the classification of job satisfaction. Additionally, it is

common for researchers to separate job satisfaction into extrinsic and intrinsic factors whereby promotions and pay are considered extrinsic factors and the work itself, supervision and co-workers are considered intrinsic factors.

A perceptive reader will observe a rather casual use of measurement terms ("indicated by", "comprised") that, in the measurement literature, commonly indicates very dissimilar conceptualisations of a theory. This looseness is deliberate. Mainly the use of the term "comprised" usually represents the usage of a concept as an aggregate or manifest or formative variable in which precise items or aspects cause the concept (Kaur & Kaur, 2016). Contrarily, the use of the term "indicated" usually suggests a reflective or latent concept, where the items or subscales specify a higher order concept. Even though clarity in thinking about concepts is often commended in this literature, substantial misperceptions can be generated by making false choices (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Precisely, in this case, concepts can be latent or manifest, contingent on how the researcher desires to treat them. Noticeably, when considering the aspects of job satisfaction, it is a visible variable in that overall job satisfaction is comprised explicit satisfaction in diverse spheres. Job satisfaction is also a latent variable in that individual's general attitude toward their jobs probably causes precise satisfaction to be favourably correlated (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Consequently, I do not think that measures or conceptualisations of job satisfaction are progressive by imposing false contradictions into the literature. With that caution in mind, two additional subjects warrant discussion. Firstly, it is imperative to highlight the missing role of effect in job satisfaction measures and its repercussions for research on, and measurement of, job satisfaction. Secondly, the measurement of job satisfaction for research purposes is an issue that needs addressing. Both issues will be addressed in the sections to follow.

As previously stated, affect is fundamental to any explanation of job satisfaction or more commonly job attitudes. Nonetheless, an acknowledgement of the role of effect creates complications for researchers. As noted by Mohammad, Rand and Ra'Ed (2019), sentimental responses are probable to be episodic and momentary, state variables rather than consistent chronic, trait-like variables. Assessment of effect should reveal its episodic and state-like nature. Otherwise, we become trapped in a procedural deadlock in which researchers endeavour to study propositions of freshly established theories with

methods and analyses suitable only to the needs of an older age group of abstract models (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020).

To some extent, this debate is a research design matter. It has been addressed and partly resolved by ecological momentary assessments (EMA) or multilevel statistical analyses and event signal methods (ESM) that combine within- and between- individual effects (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). ESM designs demonstrate that when job satisfaction is measured on an experience-sampled basis, approximately one-third to one-half of the difference in job satisfaction is within an individual. Therefore, usual "one-shot" between-person research designs omit a significant quota of the difference in job satisfaction by considering individual variation as momentary inaccuracy. Conversely, another possibly more debatable issue is whether existing measures of job satisfaction are poorly appropriate to measure the affective nature of job satisfaction. This is a multifaceted issue and space permits only a few brief thoughts here. Firstly, it is very difficult, possibly insurmountably, to discrete measures of effect and cognition. Chen (2018) made this argument about positive affect.

A second and related point is to express doubtful concern toward efforts to develop measures of "job cognitions" as different from measures of "job affects". For instance, Christoph and Guido (2017) contend that job effect should be evaluated independently from job satisfaction due to the excessively cognitive focus of the latter measures. Nonetheless, Chen, Liao, Li, and Wang (2021) indicated a measure of job cognition related as intensely with effect as did their assessment of job satisfaction. Akram, Lei, Haider and Hussain (2018) proposed that affect and cognition each contribute (approximately equally) to job satisfaction. Possibly the best recommendation is that research on distinct emotions and moods should be continued together with studies on JS.

The Work Adjustment Model theory explains all people and work environments concerning the demands they place on one another (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967). The model also explains how people and work environments can reinforce each other and what each can give, or provide, to the other. Good working relations are the result of changes made to create an atmosphere for cultivating employee-to-work

relationships with the characteristics of the work environment (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967).

The more closely a person's abilities (experience, skills, expertise, attitude, behaviour, etc.) align with their position or work environment requirements, the more likely they are to do the job well and are regarded by the employer as satisfactory (Wu & Peng, 2018). Similarly, the more closely the position or work environment reinforcers (rewards) align with the values a person seeks to fulfil through his or her work, the more likely he or she will view the job as satisfying (Salam, 2020). Therefore, the theory states that the fit between an employee and work environment characteristics will induce JS (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967).

The Work Adjustment Model theory suggests that satisfaction is more than an overall component, and thus integrates satisfaction with particular aspects of one's job, such as management, co-workers, working hours and conditions, pay and types of work (Dawis, 2005). Dawis (2005) also highlighted the more intrinsic aspects of work such as the satisfaction resulting from the fulfilment of aspirations, expectations and needs.

Turning to practical subjects in evaluating job satisfaction, the two most widely certified employee attitude analysis measures are the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967), and Job Descriptive Index (QDI) developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969). The MSQ has the benefit of adaptability: short and long forms are obtainable as well as faceted and general measures. Conceptually, the MSQ was based on the Theory of Work Adjustment Model, which uses the relation between work personality and working environment as the explanation for work adjustment results such as job satisfaction (Dawis, 2005). Twenty aspects of the job and working environment are calculated employing a single point per factor and three scales: internal, external and total fulfilment (Arvey, Carter & Buerkley, 1991). Typical factors of intrinsic satisfaction include an individual's desire for advancement, recognition, achievement and responsibility. Extrinsic factors include pay, supervision, working conditions, organisational policies and procedures (Salam, 2020). General satisfaction is the average job satisfaction of the 20 different aspects measured by the MSQ.

Factors associated with job satisfaction include demographic variables (ethnicity, gender, age, marital status, experience level and education) (Salam, 2020), work task variables (job performance, autonomy, diversity of work tasks and workload) and work environment variables (salary, benefits, rewards, hours of work and the physical environment) (Salam, 2020)

Employees with lower self-reported work satisfaction are more absent-minded and more likely to leave their jobs or employers. In addition, job satisfaction is higher for younger and older employees, non-union employees, and less trained employees (Salam, 2020). Standard working hours are frequently correlated with lower women's job satisfaction but not in men (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). However, the gender composition does not affect job satisfaction when accounting for versatility (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019).

Reducing men's earnings and not forcing them to choose between home and work lowers their job satisfaction, thus providing women with additional earnings but requiring them to choose between home and work lowers their job satisfaction (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019).

Generally, theoretical concepts appear to support the view that black workers are more likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs than white employees (Xerri, 2014). There are two explanatory types of differences between black and white job satisfaction, namely cultural and structural theories. Cultural theories explain the differences in predispositions of the attitudes, values, and psychological conditions of black and white employees that are formed during the formative years (Xerri, 2014).

This may explain why job satisfaction differences exist between black and white, individuals even though there are no cultural differences between the two classes (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Structural theories are defined as group differences in the differential treatment of black and white employee experiences in the work context (Xia & Lin, 2021). Cultural theories also argue that black and white employees may hold different values and that black employees prefer to favour extrinsic work rewards (income, health, etc.) over intrinsic work rewards (feelings of achievement) (Xerri, 2014).

The JDI measures satisfaction with five diverse job areas: promotion, pay, co-workers, the work itself and supervision. This index is consistent and has a notable range of validation evidence. As for general measures of job satisfaction, the scale developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951) is commonly used. In their study, Judge, Bono, and Locke (2000) used a reliable (i.e., internal consistencies [α] at .80 or above) a five-item version of this scale to measure job satisfaction. The five items are:

- I find real enjoyment in my work.
- I feel fairly satisfied with my present job.
- I consider my job to be rather unpleasant.
- Each day at work seems like it will never end
- Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.

Two further matters concerning the measurement of job satisfaction are worth attention. Firstly, some measures are faceted such as the JDI, while others are universal. If a measure is facet-based, general job satisfaction is usually referred to as a sum of the aspects. Brief and Roberson (1989) discovered that individual questions about numerous facets of the job did not relate well with a universal measure of overall job satisfaction. Founded on these outcomes, the researchers contended that faceted and universal measures do not measure the same theory. In simple terms, the sum is not the same as the whole parts.

Secondly, even though most job satisfaction researchers have expected that single-item measures are untrustworthy and should not be used, this has not gone unopposed. Xia and Lin (2021) found that the reliability of single-item measures of job satisfaction is .67. Additionally, for the G.M. Faces scale, another single-item measure of job satisfaction that requests respondents to check one of five aspects that best defines their overall satisfaction, the reliability was projected to be .66 (Rue & Byars, 1994). Nonetheless, these are decent levels of reliability, it is essential to keep in mind that these levels are lesser than most multiple-item measures of job satisfaction. For instance, Xia and Lin (2021) used a three-item measure of job satisfaction with inter-item reliability of $\alpha = .85$. The items in this measure are:

Table 4.1: illustrative example of job satisfaction

1. How satisfied are you with your job in general (circle one)?				
1	2	3	4	5
Very Dissatisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Neutral	Somewhat Satisfied	Very Satisfied

2. All things considered, are you satisfied with your present job (circle one)?
YES NO

3. Underneath, please write down your best estimates on the percentage of time you feel satisfied, dissatisfied, and neutral about your present job on average. The three figures should add up to equal 100%. ON THE AVERAGE:
The percentage of time I feel satisfied with my current job _____% (note: only this response is scored)
The percentage of time I feel dissatisfied with my present job _____%
The percentage of time I feel neutral about my present job _____%
TOTAL _____%

When used in practice, these items need to be consistent before summing. Though this measure is not a replacement for the abundance of details delivered in a faceted measure of job satisfaction, it is considered a soundly valid measure of overall job satisfaction and more reliable than a single-item measure (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019).

4.11 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION

The overall concern for organisations is what will be the outcome: employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction, how this impacts the organisation. There is satisfactory evidence to warrant that job satisfaction or dissatisfaction can have positive or negative consequences for employees (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). Attention must be exercised not to generate stereotypes since satisfaction or dissatisfaction is concerned with individuals.

Additionally, the outcomes of individuals cannot be anticipated, hence this is unlikely to generalise them entirely (Mousa, Jameel & Ahmad, 2019). According to Mohammad, Rand and Ra'Ed (2019), in recent years ample research studies have been considered to

measure the effects of job satisfaction on employee turnover, absenteeism and productivity.

The following evidence will be concisely discussed to highlight the consequences of job dissatisfaction or satisfaction.

4.11.1 Employee productivity

Four decades of research into this subject contend that a satisfied employee is not a productive employee owing to two reasons. Firstly, there is satisfactory evidence to point out that job performance results in job satisfaction (Xia & Lin, 2021). A simple instance of this scenario is when employees were assured at their preliminary job interviews that a special increase in remuneration will be given to employees that perform above-expected standards. If these employees have met all the requirements and have not received their perceived rewards, this could lead them to be dissatisfied.

Secondly, the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction exists. Empirical research findings have shown that these two variables are not closely linked to each other. For instance, the condition of the employees' abilities and the work equipment have a greater influence on how much they can produce than their job satisfaction does (Xia & Lin, 2021).

4.11.2 Employee turnover

When organisations have a high turnover, it often means employees in those institutions have a shorter tenure than those of other comparable institutions. According to Massoudi, Jameel and Ahmad (2020), the core reason for turnover is job satisfaction. Xia and Lin (2021) advocate that if the levels of job satisfaction are constantly low, it more probable for workers to resign. Likewise, organisations with small satisfaction levels yield higher turnover rates (Xia & Lin, 2021). Turnover is of foremost concern to management since it can have an incredible influence on standard operations.

Job dissatisfaction “drives” employees out of their current jobs and has a greater impact on turnover than incentives that “entice” them into new jobs (Mohammad, Rand & Ra'Ed, 2019). Nonetheless, Karem, Jameel and Ahmad (2020) contend that there can be some favourable outcomes resulting from turnover. This could lead to the appointment of

outsiders and internal promotions. Along with attracting and retaining employees, management must ensure that all their employees are repeatedly attending to their jobs.

4.11.3 Employee absenteeism

According to Xia and Lin (2021), there is a negative relationship between absenteeism and satisfaction. Employees experiencing low levels of job satisfaction are more likely to be absent. Additionally, a higher rate of absenteeism will result in a vast monetary liability for management on performance and productivity (Xia & Lin, 2021). Absenteeism is parallel to turnover in the sense that common activities and operations are also interrupted, and extra costs increased.

Nonetheless, absenteeism may be owing to other valid reasons such as personal or medical reasons (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). Baron and Greenberg (2003) reiterate that other explanations for absenteeism must be examined by human resource departments as one cannot overlook absenteeism as owing to workers having poor superior and co-worker relationships or a strong hatred of the job itself (Baron & Greenberg, 2003).

4.11.4 Union activity

According to Mohammad, Rand and Ra'Ed (2019), research studies established that employees will join a union primarily founded on their dissatisfaction with working conditions and their apparent lack of influence to change those conditions. In addition, Hidayah and Harnoto (2018) emphasise that employees become distressed by arbitrary and capricious discipline, poor pay and by poor and unsafe working conditions. Consequently, this will call for mutual action or unionisation, which may be supposed as the best solution to their complaints.

This raises the question of how employees can express their dissatisfaction. One of the most apparent expressions of dissatisfied employees is the wish to leave the organisation, as discussed in preceding sections. Additional ways of communicating their dissatisfaction are:

- Employees may become insubordinate.
- Employees may avoid or complete their tasks in a disorganised manner.

- Employees may encourage others very negatively, in so doing decreasing the general morale of the organisation.
- Employees may steal or act neglectfully towards the organisation's assets or property.

It can be concluded that the consequences of job satisfaction can lead to employees being dissatisfied with their jobs, which can be expressed in numerous ways (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020).

4.12 IMPORTANCE OF JOB SATISFACTION

The examination of job satisfaction enriches management with a wealth of knowledge relating to its employees, jobs, the environment, etc., which has enabled decision-making and the amendment of organisational policies and behaviour (Schappe, 1998). Job satisfaction shows the overall level of satisfaction of the organisation with its policies, programmes, among other things (Kaur, 2016). Secondly, it is a diagnostic method for determining employees' issues, adjusting and correcting them with the least resistance (Kaur & Kaur, 2016). Thirdly, it improves the company's communication structure and management can address the outcomes with a potential course of action (Schappe, 1998).

Fourthly, it helps to develop employees' attitudes towards work and promotes the incorporation of staff into the organisation (Wesolowski & Mossholder, 1997). It inspires a sense of belonging and a sense of engagement that contributes to an overall increase in the efficiency of the organisation. Fifthly, it lets employers know exactly what employees want and what management is doing. This also enables the mutual resolution of disputes and other unwelcome circumstances (Kaur & Kaur, 2016).

Finally, it promotes the determination of training and development needs of both employees and the organisation. An increase in job satisfaction and productivity, can also improve job performance (Kaur & Kaur, 2016). By attempting to assess employee feeling, they can focus their efforts to boost employee job satisfaction. In addition, they can train first level supervisors, especially, to pay attention to their subordinates' feelings so as to enhance their performance (Kaur & Kaur, 2016).

Currently, the topic of job satisfaction is getting wider attention. Job satisfaction is the contentment that one experiences when doing a job (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). It is one of the significant factors influencing not only the productivity of employees but also their behaviour such as accidents, absenteeism, etc. Job satisfaction is the creation of an employee's understanding of how well the position offers certain items that are considered significant (Sujono, Tunas & Sudiarditha, 2020). Job satisfaction is of critical importance to the success of every institution. Satisfied employees are an organisation's greatest assets while dissatisfied employees are the greatest liabilities. No organisation can effectively accomplish its purpose and mission unless, and until, those that make up the organisation are satisfied with their work (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). Dissatisfaction leads to anger, and anger leads to hostility. Employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs are assumed to be confrontational towards management. Dissatisfaction is contagious and spreads rapidly to other employees and is likely to affect the productivity and performance of other employees and the reputation of the organisation (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020).

A dissatisfied employee may cause significant damage to the image and properties of the company and may hurt its business interests. Job satisfaction/dissatisfaction is the creation of several factors related to current work circumstances (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). Such factors include prospects for career development, work involvement, levels of tension at work, due recognition of merit, relations with supervisors and colleagues, adequate compensation and good working conditions, feeling of fatigue and loneliness, grievance removal and the reputation of the organisation (Kuldeep, 2009). Job satisfaction is a dynamic and important concept for human resource managers to recognise that most employees do not feel that their job is being adequately rewarded (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). Nor do they assume that their organisations are doing enough to attract, train, or manage high-quality performers. Since Herzberg (1959) reported on satisfiers and dissatisfiers in the workplace, job satisfaction has also been maintained as a way of increasing employee morale. Improving employee productivity, quality of jobs and organisational performance are all part of this (Herzberg, 1966).

The salient idea of job satisfaction has become so profoundly rooted in the thought of jobs and employees that its significance has been taken for granted as if it were a tenet of

managerial confidence (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). Human resource managers now want to learn how to get satisfied employees, not why employees should be satisfied. Employees and managers can have specific reasons to want organisational conditions that facilitate JS (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020). Employees spend most of their time at work, worrying about work, planning for work, and resting for work, as work offers "daily meaning as well as daily bread." However, work is not always a place where employees feel satisfied.

The human resource manager may be concerned with the satisfaction of employees at work for reasons other than their employees (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu, 2020). Altruistic managers tend to have satisfied employees because they care for their employees. Result-oriented managers want satisfied employees since satisfied employees will perform better and have less absenteeism and longer service life (Davidescu, Apostu, Paul & Casuneanu, 2020). Satisfied employees often appear to deliver higher quality work than their unsatisfied counterparts. Research on the humanisation of the workplace suggests that satisfied employees are more productive and that organisations with satisfied employees are more effective. Satisfied employees are more likely to experience a high degree of internal job satisfaction, high-quality job outcomes and less absenteeism and turnover (Jameel, Mahmood & Jwmaa, 2020).

4.13 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JUSTICE AND JOB SATISFACTION

This study focuses on the relationship between organisational justice and job satisfaction. The following section addresses the conceptual framework of the study as presented in Figure 4.1.

4.13.1 Distributive justice as a determinant of job satisfaction

According to Adams (1965), people are not necessarily intrigued by physical results. They often pay close attention to whether such results are warranted or not, i.e., commensurate rewards with a performance at the workplace. The literature is full of studies (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Greenberg, 1987; Schappe, 1998) corroborating the fact that distributive justice has been established as one of the key factors influencing job satisfaction. Findings from several studies (Mcfarlin & Sweeney, 1992) offer credibility to the question that distributive justice has a

considerable effect on results in terms of personal work satisfaction, employee satisfaction and promotion. This is reverberated by DeConinck and Stilwell (2004), who contend that distributive justice is a predictor of pay satisfaction, one of the components of job satisfaction in their research. In a similar vein, Ismail and Zakaria (2009) conducted a study to establish the mediating impact of distributive justice in the relationship between pay design and job satisfaction; it was shown that there was a substantial and positive relationship between pay design and job satisfaction. Fernandes and Awamleh (2006) contend that distributive justice refers to employees' perception of fairness in terms of outcomes, i.e., pay rates, work schedule, promotions, workload and various fringe benefits, perceived to be major determinants of JS. In a study conducted in the banking sector to identify factors that have a major effect on customer-oriented behaviours of employees and employee engagement in their job, Davidescu, Apostu, Paul and Casuneanu (2020) found that employees are more interested in meeting the needs of customers when they know that the company is fair in the distribution of rewards.

4.13.2 Procedural justice as a determinant of job satisfaction

Procedural justice has a strong effect on job satisfaction and extant literature confirms this high correlation (Awamleh & Fernandes, 2006; Wesolowski & Mossholder, 1997). Awamleh and Fernandes (2006) contend that fairness in the compliance and preservation of the law-and-order situation tends to raise public trust. Kim and Mauborgne (1993) emphasise that when employees believe that the decision-making process is reasonable and equitable, contribution to their jobs increases dramatically and they are more cooperative. Masterson, Lewis, Goldman and Taylor (2000) found that procedural justice is a significant predictor of employees' level of satisfaction; decisions that have been made fairly appear to appeal to employees more than decisions that are considered to be made unfairly, resulting in dissatisfaction (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Mossholder, Bennett and Martin (1998) argue that the complexities of job satisfaction can be well explained by procedural justice. Other studies indicate that if the organisation's processes and procedures are considered to be fair by the employees, they are inclined to be more satisfied, more willing to accept procedures and more likely to promote higher organisational commitment (Tyler & Lind, 1988). Kuldeep (2009) asserts that when an organisation is faced with a high turnover of employees, procedural justice will play a vital role in the satisfaction of employees.

4.13.3 Interactional justice as a determinant of job satisfaction

Adam (1965) points out that when employees find the relationship between the manager and the subordinate to be fair, it may lead to a higher result for employees. On the contrary, when the relationship is unpleasant between the two, it leads to a negative outcome. Several studies have reported an important correlation between interactional justice and job satisfaction (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000). Mikula, Petrik and Tanzer (1990) observed that there is a high degree of perceived interactional injustice among employees who appear to put greater importance on their interactions with superiors. Mount, Ilies and Johnson (2017) observed that employees' involvement in determining their pay gives them a positive sense of perceived interactional fairness within the organisation; this, in effect, increases job satisfaction (Ismail & Zakaria, 2009; Uddin, Luva & Hossain, 2019). According to Uddin et al. (2019), individuals that nurture good relationships with their co-workers are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

The conceptual framework of the objectives examined in this study is shown in Figure 4.1

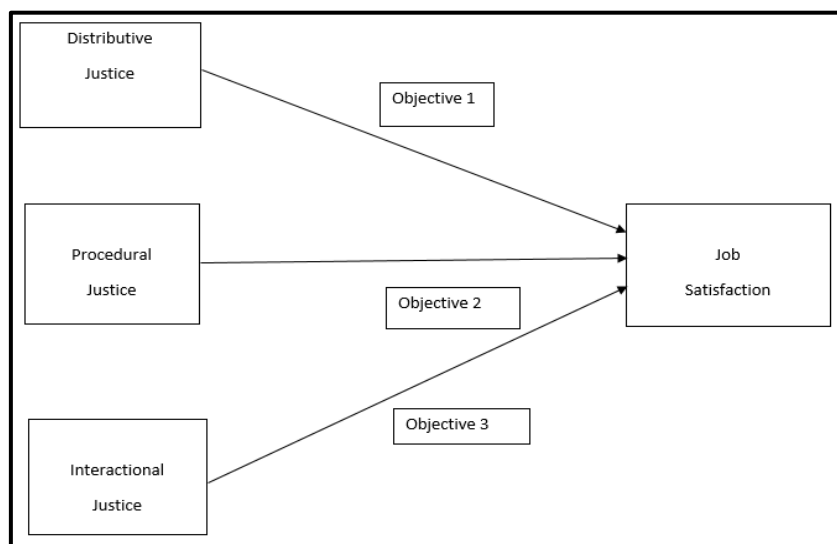


Figure 4. 2: The conceptual framework of this study

4.14 SUMMARY

A review of previous studies on the topic of job satisfaction was provided. This chapter also highlighted two types of job satisfaction in the workplace. Additionally, the theories that influence job satisfaction from various scholars were presented. The consequences and importance of job satisfaction were expounded on as well as the development of

research objectives. The next chapter will focus on the research methodology that will be used for this research.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology used in this study. Simple random sampling was applied to permanent employees between the ages of 18–65 years who were employed in the financial industry in South Africa forming part of the sample. The empirical investigation carried out will be discussed according to the steps in the research process and the chapter will conclude with a summary.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Knowledge gained through observation, whether direct or indirect, is referred to as empirical research. The empirical evidence in this study was analysed quantitatively focusing on two key concepts related to empirical research: reliability and validity (Girden & Kabacoff, 2011). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2015), quantitative research can be defined as "... *to identify relationships among two or more variables and then, based on the results, to confirm or modify existing theories or practices.*" Leedy and Ormrod (2015) argue that during quantitative research, researchers will identify a few variables to study, collect data on these variables, and then measure the variables collected from a sample of a particular population.

The different statistical strategies used to investigate the empirical research objectives of the study are described. The primary research objective was to determine the influence of justice perceptions on organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction in a South African organisation. These objectives form the centre of this study from which all other objectives have been derived.

The study was conducted in two parts. The first part consisted of a literature review and the second part involved the empirical study.

Phase 1: literature review

- Step 1: Conceptualised organisational justice and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective
- Step 2: Conceptualised OCB and its dimensions from a theoretical perspective.

Step 3: Conceptualised job satisfaction and the factors that influence job satisfaction.

Phase 2: empirical study

The empirical study took place among a population consisting of individuals employed at Assupol, a financial institution based in South Africa. The population consisted of 600 employees; a sample of employees from different ethnicity, gender, staff category, age and educational level groups were drawn. The sample size of this study was 600, and 600 questionnaires were sent out to ensure that the targeted 300 could be generated. As it was stated under methods, to ensure adherence to ethical research, participation in this study was voluntary in nature. It was, therefore, a possibility that some participants selected for the study may decide not to participate. The 600 participants selected were office-bound and had access to e-mail. A link to the online questionnaire was sent out to 600 participants through e-mail to the target population.

This study made use of a disproportionate, stratified sampling method. Stratified sampling involves separating the population into subgroups called “strata” and then randomly drawing a sample from each stratum (subgroup). A sample drawn at random is unbiased in the sense that the sample has equal probabilities of being selected (Yin, 2014). In this study, the subgroups were determined according to ethnicity, gender, staff category, age and educational level. A list of employees categorised according to the different groups was obtained from the organisation.

According to Yin (2014), data includes facts collected from participants or observations or published information which is categorised as primary or secondary data. Primary data was collected by means of a self-developed structured questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed electronically by using the Lime survey. The questionnaire covered the following topics:

- Biographical data
- Organisational justice perceptions
- Organisational citizenship behaviour
- Job satisfaction

The participants' responses to each of the questionnaire items of the were captured into an electronic spreadsheet format. All data was analysed through statistical analysis, using a statistical package (SPSS Inc, 2008). The statistical procedure was conducted in the following stages:

Stage 1: Exploratory factor analysis of organisational justice, OCB, and job satisfaction.

Stage 2: Descriptive statistics which include Cronbach's alpha coefficients, testing the uni-dimensionality of the OJ, OCB and job satisfaction, in-fit and out-fit item statistics (RASCH model analysis) were utilised. Means and standard deviations were utilised to analyse the data to assess the internal consistency of the measuring instruments.

Stage 3: Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was calculated to indicate the direction and strength of the relationship between the constructs.

Stage 4: Multivariate statistics (canonical correlation analysis and multiple regressions), inferential statistics were utilised to explore the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (OCB and job satisfaction) that is explained by the independent variable (organisational justice). The assumption of normality was rejected, ANOVA could not be used in this section and the Kruskal Willis test was used to address questions on significant mean differences between the constructs; multiple regression was also used to predict the interrelationships between job satisfaction and OCB. The statistical significance level of $p \leq 0.05$ was used which provided a 95% of confidence in the results being accepted as the standard when applied in other research contexts (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

Results were presented in tables, diagrams, and/ or graphs and a discussion of the findings were presented in a systematic framework, ensuring that the interpretation of the findings is conveyed in a clear and articulate manner. The results of the empirical research were integrated into the findings of the literature review.

The chapter begins with a definition of the research objectives followed by an explanation of the sampling strategy. The measurement instrument will be discussed with a specific focus on the design and development of the questionnaire. The methods of data collection are then described. The research questions will be identified along with the statistical processing approaches were used. Finally, the ethical considerations of the research methodology are provided, and a brief summary of the chapter will be provided. The

empirical research phase explained in this chapter consisted of numerous steps as outlined in Figure 5.1.

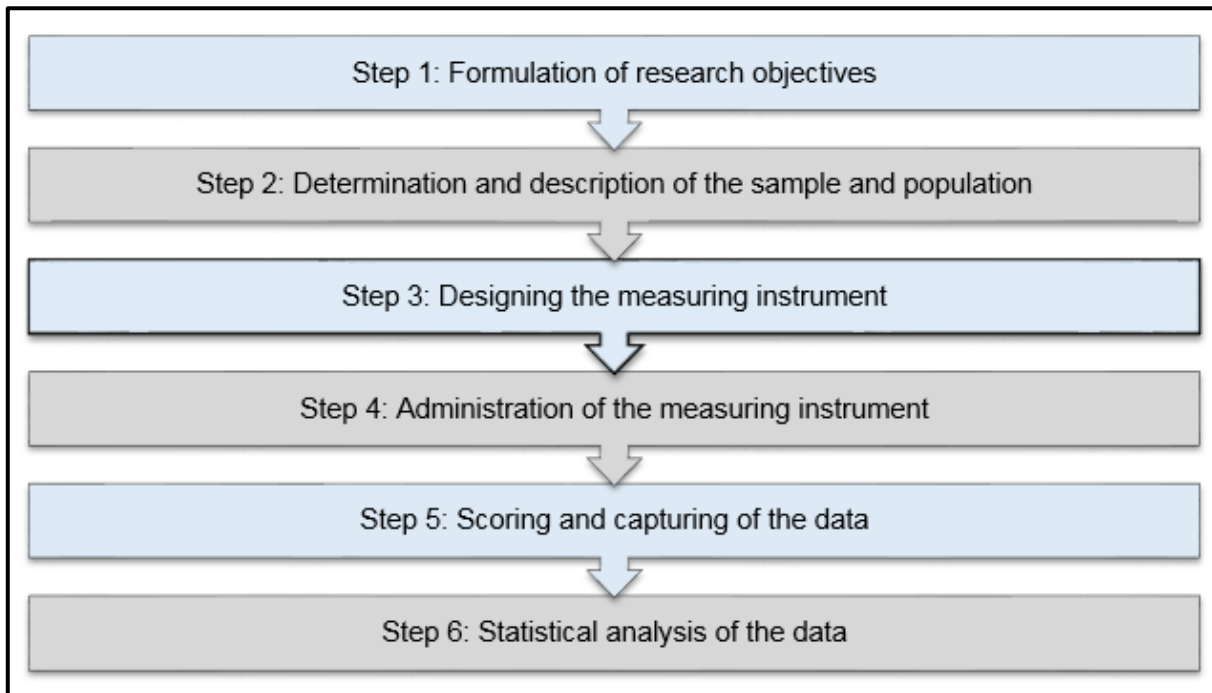


Figure 5.1: Steps in the research process

Source: Adapted from Moosa (2016)

5.2 FORMULATION OF RESEARCH AIMS

The specific aims of the empirical study are listed below:

Research aim 1: Investigate the influence organisational justice has on organisational citizenship behaviour.

Research aim 2: Investigate the influence organisational justice has on job satisfaction.

Research aim 3: Investigate the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction.

Research aim 4: Investigate whether the sample of respondents differs significantly regarding their justice perceptions, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction regarding different age, ethnicity, gender, marital status, job level and educational level.

Research aim 5: Formulate recommendations on how organisations should treat their employees to promote OCB.

Research aim 6: Formulate recommendations on how organisations should treat their employees to promote job satisfaction.

Research aim 7: Indicate what further research will evolve from the findings of this study.

The research additionally endeavoured to investigate broad trends on the relationships between demographic variables such as age, gender, ethnic group, marital status, staff level, and highest educational level.

5.3 DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE AND POPULATION

5.3.1 Sampling strategy used

The population from which the sample was chosen consisted of employees within the financial services sector in South Africa. The empirical study took place amongst permanent employees between the ages of 18 and 65 who had access to emails and computers employed at Assupol in South Africa. An employee within the context of this study was an individual that worked full time under a contract of employment and had recognised rights and duties with a formal qualification (i.e., lower than Grade 12, Grade 12, 1-year certificate, 3 years diploma, degree, honours degree, master's degree). At the time of data collection, the total population constituted of approximately $N = 600$ permanent employees employed by Assupol in South Africa.

Researchers would like to determine and describe how things are. Because populations are very large, the researcher selected a representative sample of a particular population to generalise the population as a whole, provided that the sample was truly representative of the population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). A population refers to the total unit or group of individuals under investigation for research purposes and the sample is then extracted from that group (Salkind, 2012). The sampling process allows an estimate of the entire population based on a section of the population (Salkind, 2012).

Etikan and Bala (2017) identified two main categories of sampling: probability and non-probability of sampling patterns. According to Kumar (2014), if the number of elements is indefinite or cannot be individually identified, a non-probability sampling design should be used. In this case, the population was not undefined and could be identified. Therefore, the study made use of probability sampling.

Probability sampling stipulates that each section of the known population must be represented in the sample (Etikan & Bala, 2017). Probability samples are used for a serious analysis to determine the possibility and prospect for error and bias (Adwok, 2015). Random sampling is the process of selecting the components of a sample that ensures that each member of the population has the same chance of being selected. The sample characteristics are assumed to be similar to those of the total population from which it is drawn (Adwok, 2015). As a result, the primary step in the selection of a sample is to explain the sample frame (Etikan & Bala, 2017).

The sample frame refers to those individuals that have a chance to be included in the sample selection procedure. Examples of sampling frames include golf club members, city phone directories, and graduate school learners (Adwok, 2015). It is desirable to have an updated and complete sample frame list that is consistent with the target population of the study. Population validity is said to be established when the target population is represented by the target sample (Etikan & Bala, 2017).

Once the sample frame and the sample size have been determined, the researcher proceeds to select the sample randomly from the frame. There are several methods of random sampling, including the use of a lottery procedure to draw randomised numbers, the use of a random number table and computer programs for the selection of sampling units (Etikan & Bala, 2017).

Kumar (2014) identified various designs and techniques used in probability sampling such as simple random sampling, cluster sampling or stratified sampling. Simple random sampling was selected as the suitable type of probability sampling for this study. Although simple random sampling is identified as a very basic type of probability sampling, it is also the most commonly used method where each participant has an equal and independent chance of being selected and has therefore been identified as appropriate for the current study (Kumar, 2014).

A simple random sample of $n = 600$ was drawn and the questionnaire was sent to all employees who met the selection criteria of the sampling frame. All employees between 18 and 65 years of age employed by Assupol Life in South Africa formed part of the

population. 307 questionnaires were completed resulting in a response rate of 51.16%. This response was representative of the study population and would allow for valid data analysis.

5.3.2 Representation of the sample

Information about the population was obtained from a private company with branches in all nine provinces of South Africa. The representability of the sample was analysed in terms of biographical data such as age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, staff level and education level.

The HR department provided a list of all employees that met the criteria of the sample and their email addresses. A simple random sampling method was used to select participants.

5.3.3 Demographic characteristics of the sample

5.3.3.1 Age

The age distribution of the sample is shown in Table 5.1, which provides information of how the sample is distributed according to five age groups. The frequency of individual age groups was used to express the percentage of the groups in terms of the total population.

Table 5. 1.: Age distribution of the sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Under 30	103	33.6	33.6	33.6
	31-40	108	35.2	35.2	68.7
	41-50	65	21.2	21.2	89.9
	51-60	30	9.8	9.8	99.7
	61 and above	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	307	100.0	100.0	

From Table 5.1, 35% of the employees were between the ages of 31 and 40 years old, which was the largest proportion of respondents. The second-largest group of respondents constituted 34% of the sample aged 18-30 years. This could be the result of

an abundance of entry-level positions within the organisation that require less work experience. This was unsurprising given that most companies aim to comply with guidelines provided by the Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) that encourages the employment of Black people and the youth.

5.3.3.2. Ethnic group

The ethnic group distribution of the sample is shown in Table 5.2 and Figure 5.2.

Table 5. 2.: Ethnic group distribution of the sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Black	233	55	55	55
	White	39	40	40	40
	Coloured	20	2	2	2
	Indian	13	2	2	2
	Asian	0	0	0	0
	Other	2	1	1	1
	Total	307	100.0	100.0	100.0

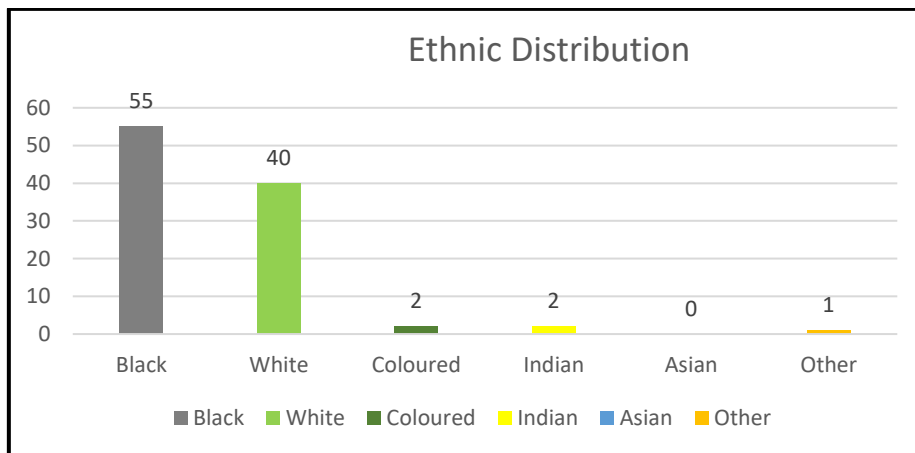


Figure 5. 2: Ethnic group distribution of the sample

Figure 5.2 shows that the majority of respondents were Black, which could be attributed to transformation initiatives aimed at appointing more Black employees so as to reach Employment Equity targets. The number of Coloured and Indian people in the sample was relatively low with a representation of 2% apiece. No Asians participated in the study.

5.3.3.3. Gender

The gender distribution of the sample is shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5. 3.: Gender distribution of sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	172	56.02	56.02	56.02
	Male	135	43.98	43.98	43.98
	Total	307	100.0	100.0	

The gender distribution of the sample shows a higher representation for women (56%) compared to only 44% of men.

5.3.3.4. Marital status

The marital status distribution of the sample is shown in Table 5.4 and Figure 5.3.

Table 5. 4.: Marital status distribution of sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single (including divorced, widowed)	152	49.51	49.51	49.51
	Married (incl living together)	155	50.49	50.49	50.49
	Total	307	100.0	100.0	

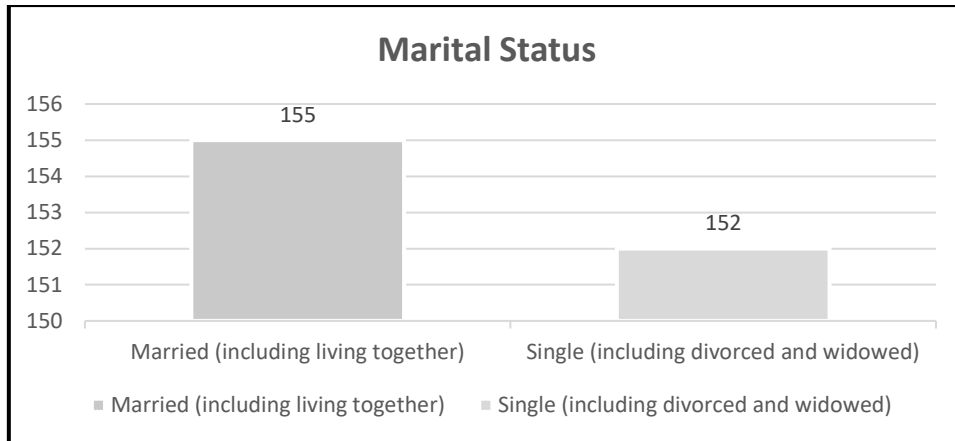


Figure 5.3: Marital status distribution of sample

This question was asked to determine the employees' profiles and their unique needs. The question provided two alternatives – single (including divorced, widowed) and married (including living together). The sample consisted of 49.51% single and 50.49% married employees.

5.3.3.5 Staff level

The respondents were asked to provide their staff category by choosing from top management, middle management, supervisory level, or clerical level. The results are shown in Table 5.5 and Figure 5.4.

Table 5.5.: Staff level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Top management	6	1.96	1.96	19.21
	Middle management	59	19.21	19.21	55.05
	Supervisory level	73	23.78	23.78	19.21
	Clerical staff	169	55.05	55.05	23.78
	Total	307	100.0	100.0	55.05

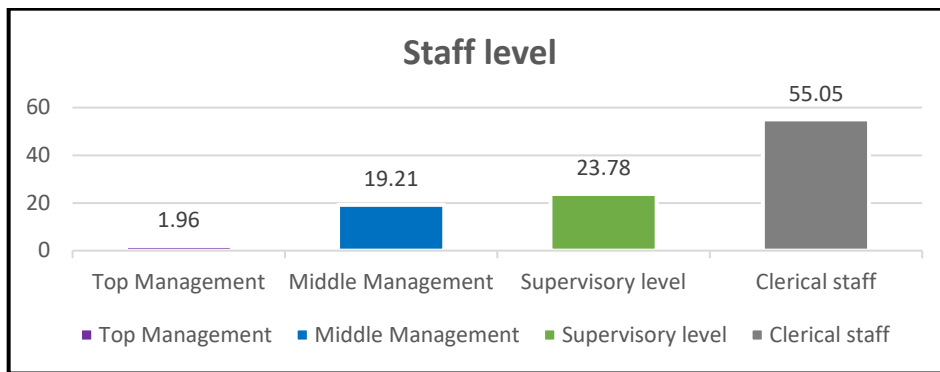


Figure 5.4: Staff level

Figure 5.4 shows that the majority of respondents occupied positions on a clerical level (55%) and supervisory level (24%). The remaining split reflected that 19% of the respondents were middle management with only 2% of the sample representing top management.

5.3.3.6. Highest educational qualification

All respondents indicated their qualification level which is presented in Table 5.6 and Figure 5.5.

Table 5.6.: Highest educational qualification

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Lower than Grade 12	0	0	0	0
	Grade 12	62	20	20	20
	Certificate (1 year)	82	27	27	27
	Diploma (3 years)	63	20	20	20
	Degree	57	19	19	19
	Honours degree	36	12	12	12
	Master's degree	6	2	2	2
	Total	307	100.0	100.0	

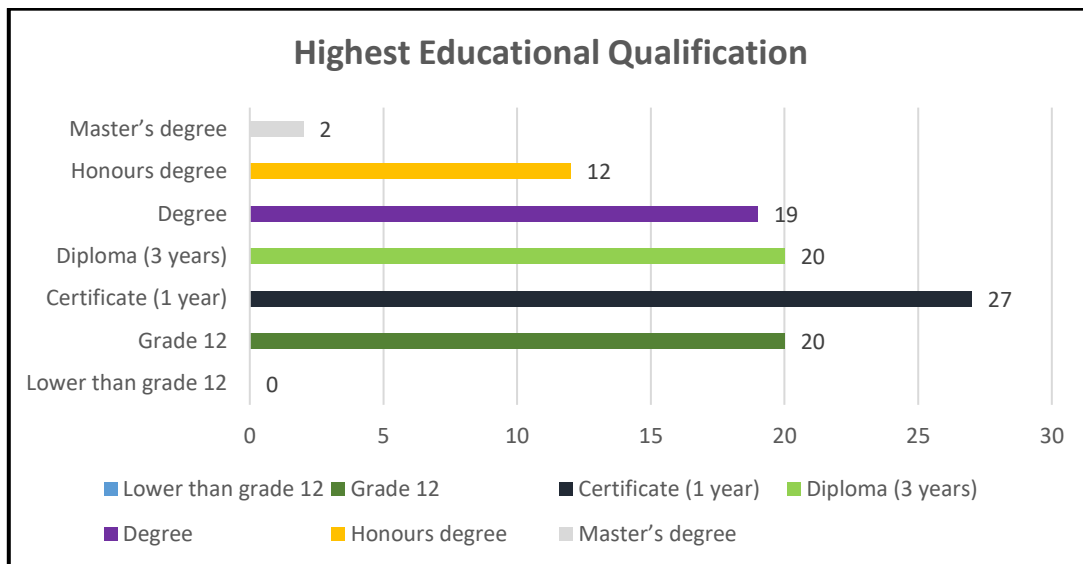


Figure 5.5: Highest educational qualification

As illustrated in Figure 5.5, most of respondents held a certificate, diploma and Grade 12 qualification (67%). For those with postgraduate qualification, 19% of the respondents had a degree, 12% of the respondents had Honours degree and only 2% were qualified at a master's level. The sample does not represent respondents without a Grade 12 certificate as it a minimum requirement for appointment at the organisation under study.

5.4 DESIGN OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

5.4.1 Overall research design

According to Wrench, Maddox and Richmond (2012), the research design describes the plan in which information is collected from the research participants. Yin (2014) defines research design as a framework in which the research is conducted in order to best answer the research questions and achieve the objectives of the study. This study used a quantitative research approach.

The purpose of quantitative research is explanatory in that the research describes or explains a phenomenon (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010; Salkind, 2012). The quantitative information provided by the survey may be reviewed using statistical analysis (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Salkind, 2012). Standardised information that may be used to define or describe variables or to study the relationship between variables is an essential element of this research design. On the other hand, correlational research studies investigate the degree to which discrepancies in one variable relate to discrepancies in one or more other

variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Salkind, 2012). Descriptive studies aim to explore a specific situation at a point in time by selecting a particular sample rather than drawing conclusions on causality (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Both the nature of this study as well as the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlational and inferential research indicated the use of quantitative survey design (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Salkind, 2012). A quantitative survey design with a focus on descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical analyses was used to achieve the research objectives.

5.4.2 Type of measuring instrument chosen: Web-based questionnaire

The survey method is used for descriptive reporting and makes use of a questionnaire to identify individual differences and perceptions (Salkind, 2012). Web-based surveys were administered to a sample of a population and the information obtained can be generalised to the whole population provided that the sample is representative of the population. In this research, the main reasons for making use of a web-based questionnaire to collect the primary data, include the following:

- It is a relatively cheap method.
- It can easily facilitate data collection from a large population
- It is relatively easy to distribute and collect questionnaires when respondents are from a single organisation, as is the case in this study.
- The majority of respondents have an office type of job in which they could complete the questionnaire during office hours.

According to Salkind (2012) one of the major disadvantages of using questionnaires is that the response rate is much lower than other methods as people must make some effort to complete and return the questionnaire (Salkind, 2012). Questionnaires were used in this study due to the cost-effective nature and for the ease of administration in reaching a large sample. In addition, the questionnaire enabled respondents to provide information on their behaviour, attitudes and perceptions. According to Aldridge and Levine (2001), making use of electronic surveys presents the following limitations:

- Respondents may have fears concerning anonymity and therefore might not be comfortable regarding the security of data sent over the internet and its storage on a remote computer or server;
- There is a sampling bias towards individuals that are young, well-educated and versed in the use of technology; and

- Respondents need to be familiar with, and have access to, a computer that has the required software.

Some of these limitations were addressed in the current study as the sample comprised participants with a minimum of a matric qualification. Therefore, having a given level of education, the entire sample had access to computers and the internet.

5.4.3 Development and design of the organisational justice, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction questionnaire

A well-designed questionnaire is important for a successful survey. Salkind (2012) asserts that a good questionnaire is one which helps directly accomplish the research objectives, offers accurate and complete information, is brief and easy for both respondents and interviewers to complete, and is designed as to make sound analysis and interpretation possible.

There are at least nine different steps in the development and design of the questionnaire: define the target respondents, decide on the information required, determine question content, select the method of reaching the respondents, sequence the questions, word the questions, check questionnaire length, pre-test the questionnaire, and develop the final questionnaire (Salkind, 2012). For the current study, a self-developed questionnaire was electronically distributed to employees at Assupol, a private organisation based in South Africa.

5.4.3.1. *Scaling of the questions*

Firstly, a survey is a scientific measurement and must be treated as such. A survey format must be properly put together, pre-tested and justified before it can be presumed to be a valid measure of the construct being studied. A structured questionnaire was selected for the study as it provides alternatives to each question, and the respondent simply needs to select and identify the answer to the question. Before the actual items could be developed, the researcher decided on the type of rating scale to be used. Salkind (2012) states that two methods can be used to generate rating scales, namely Likert and Thurstone. The Likert scale developed in 1932 was used in this study because of its extensive application and ease of development.

Most Likert scales offer five possible options: two negatives, two positives and a neutral or undecided. However, this may present some problems. Survey participants get an “easy way out” and often they select the neutral option when they are trying to avoid putting much thought into a question. According to Paulhus (1991), a seven-point Likert rating is affected by response style bias. Paulus (1991) defines response styles as response biases that participants show independent of the content of the questions. Response biases are a systematic predisposition to answer a range of questionnaire items on some basis other than the specific item content i.e. what the items were intended to measure (Paulhus, 1991).

Six-point scale forces participants to make a selection thus giving researchers better data. And if at any point a neutral is desired, the slight agree or slight disagree can be averaged together. Furthermore, an equal number of items in the response scale can produce groupings that are easier to discuss and understand. In many organisations, this means groupings of unfavourable, uncertain and favourable. For instance, unfavourability is the combination of responses that are either disagree or strongly disagree. Below is an example of a six-point scale:

- 1= Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Slightly disagree
- 4 = Slightly agree
- 5= Agree
- 6= Strongly agree

5.4.3.2. *The layout of the questionnaire*

A well-designed questionnaire should meet the objectives of the research (Stangor, 2014). This may seem obvious, but many research surveys ignore important aspects due to insufficient preparatory work and due to poor understanding of some key issues. To some level, this cannot be avoided. Every survey will leave some questions unanswered and provide a need for further research, but the aim of a good questionnaire design is to reduce those issues (Stangor, 2014). The questionnaire was divided into four sections with different categories as shown in Figure 5.6.

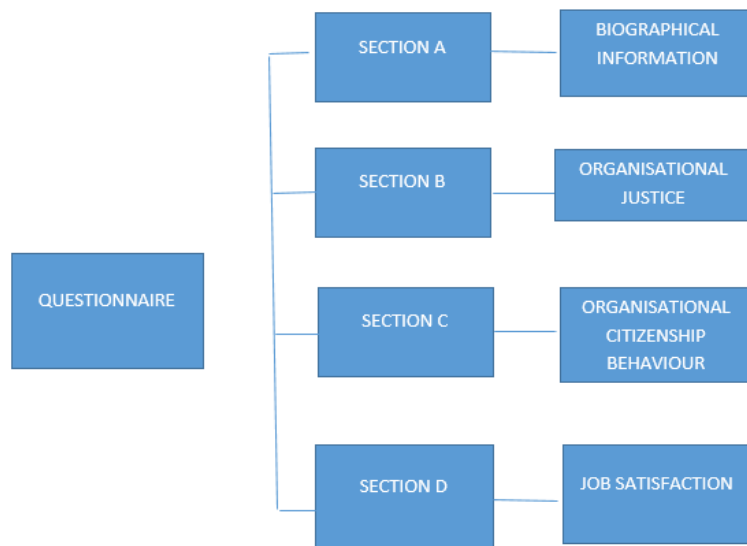


Figure 5. 6: Questionnaire design

➤ Biographical details

The biographical information of the respondents gathered comprised: gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, staff category, highest educational qualification, the ethnicity of supervisor, and gender of supervisor.

➤ Organisational justice

The organisational justice section included 25 statements that represent the OJ instrument as developed by the researchers. This section covered statements about an individual's perceptions of dimensions such as organisational procedures, rewards and recognition, communication, and decision making.

➤ Organisational citizenship behaviour:

The section on OCB comprised 25 statements that related to the individual's contribution to the organisation, helping colleagues with their responsibilities, protecting the organisation by putting it first, following organisational rules and regulations.

➤ Job satisfaction

The section on job satisfaction comprised of 25 statements that relate to the individual's satisfaction with the current role, work environment, commitment to the employer, striving to meet deadlines, staying informed about developments within the organisation and overtime work without.

5.4.3.3. *Pretesting the questionnaire*

This study made use of a self-developed questionnaire and items were drafted based on the literature review. After the statistician had a look at the questionnaire, a pilot study was run to pre-test the questionnaire before distribution to the sample. Interviews were held with a group of 10 respondents using the draft questionnaire to test if the questionnaire would achieve the desired results. The pre-test was done to determine:

- A suitable format of questions that would achieve the desired results.
- The arrangement of questions was in a logical order.
- Questions were understandable in the same way by all participants.
- Whether questions should be added or removed.
- Whether instructions to complete the questionnaire were clear and adequate.

5.5 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Measures need to be put in place to ensure the validity and reliability of the research process and its results.

5.5.1. Reliability

The reliability of the measuring instrument was addressed by assessing the internal consistency of the measuring instrument data, where each item on a scale correlates with another item, thus ensuring that the items are measuring the same construct (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). The Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to determine the internal consistency reliability of the instruments. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges from 0 (no internal consistency) to 1 (maximum internal consistency); therefore, the higher the alpha coefficient, the more reliable the item or test (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002).

The reliability test is of particular importance because it measures the degree to which all the items in a measurement test the same attribute. Internal consistency implies a high degree of generalisability across the items within the test. Cronbach's alpha is the most common estimate of the internal consistency of items in a scale (Dubrin, 2012). It can be expressed with the following formula:

$$\text{Alpha} = N / (N-1) [1 - \sum \sigma^2(\gamma_i) / \sigma^{2x} x]$$

In the above formula, N equals a number of items; $\sum \sigma^2 (\gamma_i)$ is the sum of item variance and σ^2_x the variance of the total composite. Further analysis was utilised to assess the construct validity and measurement reliability of the OJ, OCB and JS instrument which were newly constructed in the questionnaire for the purposes of this study.

In the literature review, reliability was addressed by ensuring that information collected was accurate, unbiased and comprehensive (Fink, 2010). Internal consistency in the empirical study was used to assess the reliability of the measuring instrument. Internal consistency measures the extent to which multiple items all measure the total construct (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). In the present study, the internal consistency reliability of the instrument was tested using Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012).

5.5.2. Validity

Validity is the extent to which an instrument of measurement assesses what it is supposed to measure (Wrench, Maddox & Richmond, 2012). It is uncommon, if not impossible, that an instrument can be 100% valid, so degrees are generally used to measure validity (Stangor, 2014). The validation process involves gathering and analysing data to test the accuracy of an instrument. The validity of the content was established by ensuring that the measurement instrument used represented the dimensions of the domain being studied.

External validity can be defined as the extent to which findings and conclusions of a research study can be generalised beyond its context and confines (Creswell, 2013). For studies that are descriptive in nature, such as this, external validity is a necessity (Stangor, 2014). In this study, this was done by ensuring that the sample was representative of the population. Targeting the total population of professional office-bound employees will help increase the generalisability of the results to the target population. As previously stated, this study was descriptive and explanatory in nature and disproportionate; thus, a stratified sampling method was used. Participants were provided with standard instructions. The validity of the instruments used to gather data was ensured in the following manner:

- Scientific research questionnaires that are acceptable in terms of content validity, face validity and construct validity were used to measure the construct of this research study (Salkind, 2012; Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006)
- To ensure the internal consistency reliability and construct of recently created OJ and OCB scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficients and exploratory factor analysis were used (Salkind, 2012; Terre Blanche, et al, 2006)
- Efforts were made to guarantee that the data gathered was accurate and that the data was faultlessly coded and suitably analysed to guarantee content validity. The processing of data was conducted by a knowledgeable statistician using computer software used for data analysis (Salkind, 2012; Terre Blanche, et al, 2006).
- The researcher ascertained that the findings of this study were based on the data analysed to guarantee content validity. Standardised methods were used to report and interpret the results (Salkind, 2012; Terre Blanche, et al, 2006).

In this study, validity was assured by developing an appropriate and standardised measuring instrument (Wrench, Maddox & Richmond, 2012). To assure content validity, efforts were made to ensure that the data collected was accurate, coded accurately, and appropriately analysed. The researcher also ensured that the findings of this study were based on the data analysed to ensure content validity. The reporting and interpretation of the results was carried out according to standardised procedures. Finally, the researcher ensured that the conclusions, implications and recommendations were based on the findings of the research.

5.5.3 The validity of the empirical research

The research endeavoured to establish measurement as well as internal and external validity. Internal validity in the empirical study was achieved by developing an appropriate and standardised measuring instrument. The instrument was scrutinised to confirm content, criterion and construct validity. The measuring instrument included standard instructions and information to all participants. The statistical procedures were controlled for socio-demographic variables (age, ethnicity, gender, marital status, staff category and educational level). Internal validity was further ensured by minimising selection bias by using random sampling to target the total population of employees in a South-African-based organisation. To confirm external validity, participants from different socio-

demographic groups such as ethnicity, gender, age, education level, staff category and tenure were included to reflect the socio-demographic profile of the population.

5.6 ADMINISTRATION OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

Written permission to perform the study and ethical clearance was obtained before data was collected. The email addresses of the prospective participants were drawn from the list provided to the researcher by the company’s human resources department after an ethical clearance certificate had been issued for the study. The prospective participants were sent emails requesting them to partake in the study, with a link to the actual survey included in the email. Respondents were informed that by clicking on the link to the survey, they had agreed to take part in the study. They were then led to the online survey website, a Lime Survey where a welcome message and guidance on how to proceed was provided. Each section provided participants with instructions on how to complete the survey.

The questionnaire was self-explanatory and did not require supervision to complete. The survey did not take more than 30 minutes to complete but it had no time limit imposed. The online survey platform, Lime Survey, automatically gathered the responses of each survey completed.

Table 5.7 displays the data administration and collection processes that were followed. The data was collected over a period of three months. After enough completed surveys were received, the survey was closed for analysis of the data. None of the study participants were minors or harmed in any way.

Table 5. 7.: Data collection process

Steps	Details
<p>Step 1: Ethical Considerations</p>	<p>Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the research ethics committee of the institution. A certificate was received and recorded awarding ethical clearance from the ethics committee. The researcher pledged to protect the confidentiality and privacy of all the participants in the study.</p>

Steps	Details
Step 2: Uploading questionnaire onto the online site	The paper-based questionnaire was converted into an online web-based survey and uploaded onto Lime Survey. The online survey included biographical details, organisational justice, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction. Codes were allocated to questionnaire items because it would assist during the data analysis process. The settings were designed so respondents could only reply once to a single questionnaire.
Step 3: Invitation to participate sent out to sample	A letter in the body of an email containing all the necessary information needed by the participants, such as the purpose of the research, the potential benefits of the study, voluntary participation and withdrawal, and contact details of the researcher and supervisor was provided. A welcome message was also included on the online site. Participants were informed that before proceeding to participate in the survey, they were providing voluntary consent by clicking the “I accept” button.
Step 4: Waiting period	The researcher waited for a sufficient response rate before closing the survey which took three months.

5.7 SCORING AND CAPTURING OF THE DATA

A link to the survey was sent out to 600 participants because the survey had to be completed online. All completed responses were captured on the researcher’s Lime Survey profile. The data set was downloaded to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet, using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for statistical analysis. To produce the required tests needed for further review, the research data obtained from the study was entered into the SPSS program.

A total of 323 surveys were completed. Out of the 323 questionnaires received, 16 questionnaires had to be discarded due to incompleteness and unanswered questions. Therefore, the target of 300 participants was reached and the statistical analysis could be done. The responses were arranged according to the codes that were set previously.

5.8 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The study made use of a quantitative research design. Quantitative studies are based on measuring quantity and applying that to phenomena that can be articulated in numeric terms. The phenomena represented by those observations are then analysed and defined numerically using statistics (Yin, 2014).

Data is usually structured, defined, and checked during the data analysis process. Part of organising the data involves updating it, testing for consistency, capturing it on a system, converting the data, and creating and recording a database structure that incorporates the various actions. The final step in the analysis was to ensure that the statistical analysis did indeed result in the achievement of the study objectives.

During the data analysis process a large amount of data is transformed into verifiable sets of conclusions and reports (Sreejesh, Mohapatra & Anusree, 2014). This quantitative study started by describing what was observed and recording those observations. The quantitative data was collected using a web-survey software, Lime Survey, and the data was then organised and manipulated to disclose topics of interest. The data analysis software used was a specialised research data analysis software, known as the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). A statistician was employed to perform this step in the research process.

The final step of data analysis was to ensure the statistical analysis addressed the research questions in order to achieve the objectives of the study. This step helped the researcher examine the various research objectives and determine relationships. Conclusions were drawn to provide recommendations and to serve as a basis for further study.

Through exploratory factor analysis, descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data. Figure 5.7 describes the various steps taken in the process of scientific study and the statistical methods used during each of the data analysis.

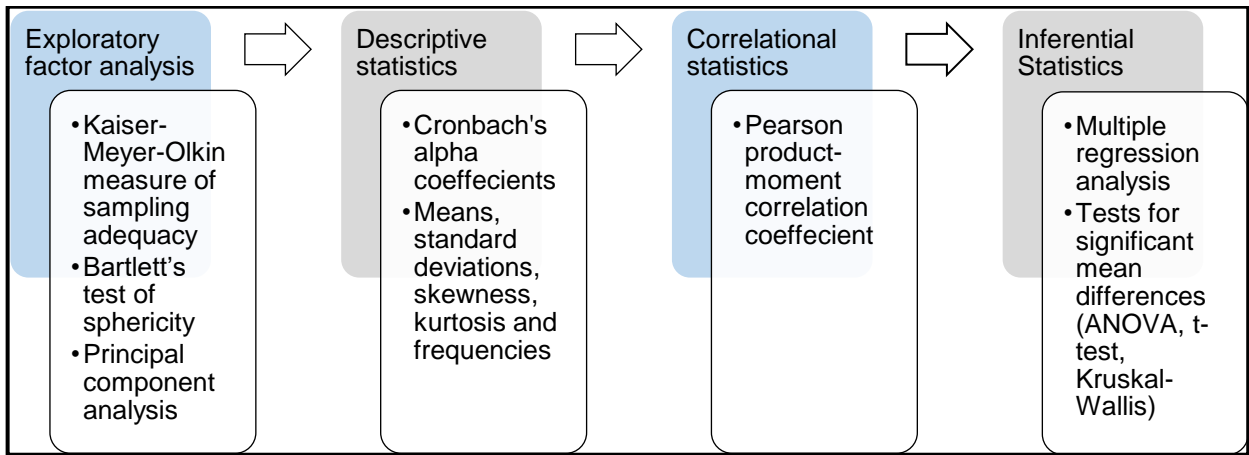


Figure 5.7: Statistical processes

Source: Adapted from Moosa (2016)

5.9 TYPE OF RESEARCH

This research was descriptive and explanatory in nature. Descriptive research uses surveys to gather information and interpret certain aspects of subjects in a quantitative manner (Wrench, Maddox & Richmond, 2012). A quantitative research methodology with a focus on descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical analyses was used to achieve the empirical research objectives. The research objectives were achieved by collecting and analysing data obtained from the respondents in order to establish the relationship between various variables and to explain the nature of relationships between those variables.

5.9.1 Exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis is a standard technique of multivariate analysis used to distinguish underlying variables or constructs from a set of observed variables (Hair, Wolfinger, Money, Samouel & Page, 2015). Factor analysis was used and it is described as an advanced statistical technique that examines the correlation between variables and identifies clusters of highly interrelated variables, thus reducing the number of variables that represents a particular construct or underlying theme (Salkind 2012; Leedy & Ormrod 2015). The greatest strength of factor analysis is that it enables researchers to examine sets of variables and how they are related, rather than dealing with individual variables (Salkind 2012).

The two forms of factor analysis which could be applied are confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) has been used in this research to investigate the influence of perceptions of justice on organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction. The underlying structures are calculated when the exploratory factor analysis is used by reducing a large number of variables to a more manageable size while maintaining as much of the original data (Lamb, Wolfenbarger, Money, Samouel & Page, 2015). For EFA, key component or common factor analysis for two different types of models may be used. The current study used the principal component approach by reducing the original set of variables to a smaller set of variables by defining the key factors (Girden & Kabacoff, 2011).

The data was analysed in a regression coefficients factor pattern matrix (Yang, 2010). Also considered was the theoretical analysis of the factors to ensure consistency of factors within each group and to clarify the proportion of variance (Yang, 2010). The findings of the factor analysis are presented in Chapter 6.

5.9.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics presents statistical summaries of the data to describe the basic characteristics of a large amount of data to provide a logical and straightforward image (Struwig & Stead, 2001). There are three factors that a researcher seeks to understand about a data set: the degree to which variables relate to each other; the amount of uncertainty; and the central tendency points (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015).

5.9.2.1. Cronbach's alpha coefficients

The descriptive statistics applied in this study included Cronbach's alpha coefficients, frequency data, means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis. Tables, diagrams and graphs were used to present the results. To ensure that the interpretation of the findings is conveyed clearly and coherently the findings were systematically discussed following a framework. This stage involves calculating frequencies, means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis, and internal consistency reliability coefficients.

As this analysis was of a highly exploratory sort, the critical value of the alpha coefficient of the Cronbach was set at .70. Where factors fall below this amount, those factors were excluded from the study or any additional statistical analysis for the three variables namely

organisational justice, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction. The Cronbach's coefficient alpha is symbolised as ' α ' (Stangor, 2011). The coefficient was used to measure the OCB factors and job satisfaction factors. Statistical computer programs are available and were used to calculate the coefficient alpha which reflects the underlying correlational structure of a scale and ranges from an $\alpha = 0.0$ (indicating that the measure is entirely error) to an $\alpha = +1.0$ (indicating that the measure has no error) (Stangor, 2011).

The Cronbach alpha coefficient of a scale should ideally be above 0.7 (DeVellis, 2003). Pallant (2011), however, indicates that it is important to consider the number of items on the scale, as a lower number of items could cause lower Cronbach's alpha coefficients. Different suggestions have been proposed for an acceptable level of coefficient alpha, but an alpha above 0.8 constitutes a reliable measure (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). It is generally agreed upon that the lower limit for Cronbach's alpha is 0.70, although it may decrease to 0.60 in exploratory research (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010).

5.9.2.2. Means, standard deviations, kurtosis, skewedness and frequencies

One of the most prevalent statistical figures is the central tendency. There are three central tendency measurements i.e., mean, mode, and median (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). The mean (M) is the most widely used and most accurate in research. The mean shows the score distribution midpoint or middle. Mathematically, it reflects the numerical average of the scores within the data set, which is determined by adding all the scores and dividing the sum by the number of scores (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015; Salkind, 2012).

The standard deviation (SD) indicates how the raw data is spread around the mean (Nisber, Elder & Miner, 2009). The standard deviation is an estimate of a data set's mean variability (Punch, 2014). It is the square root of the variance in mathematics. Smaller standard deviation values mean that the scores are similar to the average, while larger values mean that the scores are further from the average (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). The mean and standard deviation are statistical tools that provide valuable information about the distribution of a set of scores in a data set.

The data form or shape is indicated by the values of skewness and kurtosis. The kurtosis value is the point where an unusually pointy or flat distribution is indicated by data.

(Ormrod & Leedy, 2015). The skewed statistic calculates symmetry in terms of frequency distributions, which means that perfectly symmetrical distributions have a skewness of 0 and represent a regular distribution (Nisber, Elder & Miner, 2009). This would result in a positive or negative skew depending on which side of the mean the data is distributed. Total skewness values for a normal distribution will vary between -1 and 1. (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Kurtosis offers information on the size of the distribution period, which can be positive or negative (Pallant, 2011). The kurtosis value has to be 0 for a perfectly normal distribution.

The easiest way to describe the numerical data of variables is with frequency distribution (Neuman, 2014). A frequency distribution is usually presented as a table that indicates how many, and in most cases what percentage, of individuals in the sample, fell into each of a set of categories (Stangor 2011). The frequency distribution is usually displayed from the lowest to the highest values in the table (Walliman 2011). In this study frequency data was analysed to interpret the results and report on how respondents reacted to certain items. Data on frequency was analysed to interpret findings that explain how respondents reacted to certain objects.

5.9.3 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics were used to analyse statistically based hypotheses by drawing inferences from the data obtained from the sample and, based on probabilities, generalising it for a specific population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

5.9.3.1. Correlations

Relationships play a crucial role in data analysis and the objective of correlation is to determine whether a relationship exists between variables, and to ascertain the strength and direction of such a relationship (Pallant, 2011; Yong & Pearce, 2013). The most widely used statistic for determining correlation is the Pearson product-moment correlation, sometimes called the Pearson (r) (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). In this study, the Pearson product-moment correlation was used to identify whether a relationship existed between the variables as well as the direction and the strength of the relationship. Correlation is a statistical process to determine whether two or more variables are in some way associated with one another (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). The resulting statistic, called a correlation coefficient, is a number ranging between -1 (perfect negative correlation)

and +1 (perfect positive correlation); most correlation coefficients are decimals somewhere between these two extremes (Wang & Wang, 2012; Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Positive correlation implies that as the value of one variable increases, the value of the other variable would also increase, while negative correlation implies an inverse relationship in which one variable increases while the other decreases (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015; Saunders et al., 2009; Singh, 2006; Stangor, 2011). However, correlational statistics does not necessarily investigate the underlying reasons or causes of such relationships (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015).

To study the correlation between these variables, smaller clusters of highly interrelated variables are established which represent a common theme (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Bi-variate correlation was used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the variables. Tests for normality were conducted to assess the distribution of scores to determine whether parametric (Pearson product-moment correlation) or non-parametric (Spearman rho correlation) techniques should be used.

5.9.3.2. Regression analysis

Regression is used to investigate the accuracy of which one or more variables demonstrate predictions regarding the values of another independent variable. Simple linear regression uses *a single independent variable* to generate predictions for the dependent variable. Multiple regression analysis is used to predict the relationship of the dependent variable from *a number of independent variables* (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Moosa (2016) states that “regression analysis is used to make forecasts by understanding which of the independent variables are related to the dependent variable, and to further explore the nature of these relationships”.

A standard linear multiple regression analysis was carried out in this study to establish the degree of variance in the dependent variable (job satisfaction)) that was predicted by the dependent variable (organisational justice).

5.9.3.3. Test for significant mean differences

One of the most useful tools to determine whether conclusions can be drawn about the population based on information obtained from the sample is to test for statistical

significance (Salkind 2018). The study tested for statistically significant differences between respondents of different ages, gender, ethnicity, post levels, years of service, and qualifications. Parametric and non-parametric tests were utilised. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to compare the mean scores or the variance in the scores with more than two groups (Pallant 2011; Stangor 2011). The one-way analysis of variance included one independent variable or factor which had different levels or groupings (Pallant 2011). The t-test was used to test the significance of the difference between two means based on two unrelated and independent groups (Salkind 2012). The Kruskal-Wallis test was accepted as the non-parametric alternative to the one-way analysis between groups due to small group sizes (Pallant 2011; Stangor, 2014). This test compared scores on a variance for three or more groups by converting the scores to ranks and analysing the mean rank for each group (Leedy & Ormrod 2015; Pallant 2011). The level of statistical significance was set at $p \leq 0.05$. The following tests were used for each category:

- Analysis of variance (ANOVA): organisational level and educational qualifications
- Kruskal-Wallis test: Ethnicity
- T-test: Gender and marital status

5.9.3.4. Test for level of significance

The level of significance is a crucial contribution to the testing of hypotheses. It influences the test's vital value and power and has a consequential effect on the inferential outcome. According to Kim (2015) the significance level is the probability of accepting the true null hypothesis, which reflects the degree of risk the researcher is willing to take for type I error. It is an accepted standard to set the level to 0.05, although levels 0.01 and 0.10 are commonly used as well.

According to Salkind (2012), there are two types of errors that could be made in terms of the level of significance.

- Type I error (or alpha error): the researcher assumes that there is no statistical difference or impact in the population when in fact there is a difference.
- Type II error (or beta error): the researcher assumes that a statistical anomaly or effect occurs in the population when no difference exists.

5.9.3.5. *Research variables*

Creswell (2013) defines variables as phenomena that vary depending on the conditions affecting them. There are two kinds of variables, namely dependent and independent variables. The independent variable is not dependent on anything else and is manipulated to determine its effects on the dependent variable (Stangor, 2014). The independent variable for this study was organisational justice, and the dependent variables were OCB and job satisfaction.

5.9.3.6. *Unit of analysis*

This refers to the application of logic and reason to refine collected data (Raeside, Adams & Khan, 2014). There are two key questions in determining the unit of analysis. Firstly, there must be a determination made about the lowest level of independent units. Statistical analysis is important to determine the level to which units are independent. Secondly, a determination must be made about the degree of variation in the causal variable. If most of its variation is between the non-independent units, then aggregation or averaging should be used (Raeside, Adams & Khan, 2014). The terms of individual measurement, the unit of analysis, were the individuals employed by an organisation in the private sector organisation. The analysis of data was represented by the group of individuals within a private organisation in South Africa. Moreover, the researcher focused on organisational justice, OCB and job satisfaction and the purpose was to determine whether there is a correlation between these variables.

5.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical issues are concerns and dilemmas that arise over the proper way to execute research, especially not to create harmful conditions for the subjects of inquiry, humans, in the research process (Schurink, 2005). The UNISA ethical guidelines and standards formed the basis on which this research was carried out. The research was conducted within the scope of the ethical requirements and procedures of the institution and the research ethics procedures were always followed. These considerations formed part of every step of the research process to ensure that it guides the researcher and the study. A letter of consent was obtained from the HR director of the organisation to provide organisational permission for this study.

The scope and purpose of the study were explained to the respondents using a cover letter accompanying the questionnaires. In this letter, participants were assured of strict anonymity and confidentiality and that the study was voluntary in nature. An electronic questionnaire was used wherein participants were informed that by completing the questionnaire, they consented to partaking in the study. The principles of ethics in research, as indicated in the institutional Research Ethics Policy of Unisa (2013), copied verbatim are as follows:

- All research participants have the right to privacy to the extent permitted by law (e.g., child abuse cases should be reported to the appropriate authorities in terms of the law).
- Privacy includes autonomy over personal information, anonymity and confidentiality, especially if the research deals with stigmatising, sensitive or potentially damaging issues or information. When deciding on what information should be regarded as private and confidential, the perspective of the participant(s) on the matter should be respected.
- All personal information and records provided by participants should remain confidential. When conducting interviews, it should be made clear that confidentiality and anonymity will be safeguarded. Whenever it is methodologically feasible, participants should be allowed to respond anonymously or under a pseudonym to protect their privacy.
- All personal information obtained directly or indirectly on or about the participants (e.g., names obtained by researchers from the hospital and school records), as well as information obtained in the course of research which may reveal the identity of participants, will remain confidential and anonymous. This guarantee will be given when researchers ask consent to use data that is not already available within the public domain (e.g., classified data on prisoners held by the Department of Correctional Services).
- In the case of covert observation (e.g., of a public scene) steps should be taken to ensure that the information will not be used or published in a form in which the individuals could be identified.
- Researchers should maintain privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality of information in collecting, creating, storing, accessing, transferring and disposing of personal records and data under their control, whether these are written, automated or

recorded in any other medium, including computer equipment, graphs, drawings, photographs, films or other devices in which visual images are embodied.

- Researchers should make appropriate arrangements for the preservation and confidentiality of research records for one year after the submission of the report or the results.
- Risk minimisation should be applied to research records. The possibility of a breach of confidentiality and anonymity should be anticipated, addressed, and explained to the participants as an attendant risk.
- Codes or other identifiers should be used to break obvious connections between data and individuals/ organisations/ institutions where possible. Where there is a mixture of information obtained from the public domain and information obtained with the participants' informed consent, no traceable link should be left between the two sets of information.
- Confidentiality and anonymity of participants and their localities should be maintained when reporting to clients/ sponsors/ funders. Participants should not be identified or made identifiable in the report unless there are clear reasons for doing so. If the researcher or institution intends to identify participants or communities in the report, their informed consent allowing such disclosure should be obtained, preferably in writing.
- Research findings published in the public domain (e.g., theses and articles) that relate to specific participants (e.g. organisations or communities) should protect their privacy. Identifiers that could be traced back to the participants in the study should be removed. However, the public interest may outweigh the right to privacy and may require that participants be named in reports (e.g., when child labour is used by a firm).
- Participants' consent should be sought where data identifying them are to be shared with individuals or organisations, not in the research team. They should be provided with information about such individuals or organisations (their names, addresses, etc).
- The obligation to maintain privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality extends to the entire research team, other researchers at UNISA, UNISA administrative employees, and all those (from or outside UNISA) not directly associated with the research that may have access to the information.

When conducting research, there are several ethical issues to be addressed. When designing and presenting research, ethical considerations also need to be weighed against each other (Wrench, Maddox & Richmond, 2012). Wrench, Maddox and Richmond identified five main principles of research ethics:

- Minimise the risk of harm: the participants should not be affected by the study. If there is some risk that participants might be injured or in an uncomfortable situation, there must be clear justifications for this. There are many kinds of harm, including physical injury, psychological distress and financial damage to participants.
- Obtain informed consent: informed consent means that participants should understand and know what is expected of them. Such details should include the purpose of the study, the procedures used, and the possible results. The participants should be willing and participate without intimidation or misrepresentation.
- Protect anonymity and confidentiality: research data should be safeguarded from collection to publication at all stages of the process. If researchers intend to provide the participants' identity in their study, first they should get permission. An alternative to identity disclosure is to delete identifiers such as names and geographic locations.
- Avoid deceptive practices: research should prevent, whenever possible, any form of deceptive practices. There are, however, some cases where deception is necessary, such as when research information may alter the outcome. When deception is needed it should be explained.
- Provide the right to withdraw: study participants should be allowed at any stage to withdraw from the project and should be made aware of this from the outset. When a person wants to withdraw, they will not be under any pressure in any way from ceasing to take part.

To ensure that all ethical conditions were met, the following procedures were followed in terms of the methods used to conduct the research:

- Research was conducted within recognised limits.
- Written permission was obtained from the study organisation.
- Anyone reading the final report would not be able to identify individual participants.
- Conventional and current resources were used to analyse and describe concepts.
- The theories of research experts were used to ensure that a scientific research process has been carried out.

- Each source used was quoted and referenced explicitly.
- Participation in this study was entirely voluntary, without intimidation or misrepresentation.

With regard to the protection of the privacy of the participant, the following procedures were followed:

- The cover letter email included all the information about the research to the participants including the study's goal and objectives. The Researcher and Supervisor's contact details were also given.
- The survey was only accessible via a connection sent through a direct email.
- Participants were guaranteed confidentiality.
- The participants had the option not to participate in the study before the submission of the questionnaire.
- Each individual's informed and voluntary consent was received.
- The participants were not asked to supply their names or other information that could disclose their identity.
- Details about the participants could not be identified by someone reading the final study.

As far as data protection is concerned, the following procedures were followed:

- The questionnaires were saved in an online database that is secured with a password.
- The data is stored on an external hard drive for five years.
- The data is password protected.
- A computer software program was used to delete all electronic data stored on the external hard drive. The hard drive was then formatted. The researcher kept a record of what was deleted and when.

The final step relates to the conclusions based on the results and their integration with the theories discussed in section 4.9. The limitations of the research were discussed, and recommendations were made in terms of the influence of organisational justice on OCB and job satisfaction. The next chapter focuses on the results of the study and the interpretation thereof.

5.11 SUMMARY

Chapter 5 focused on the research design and methodology of this study. The empirical study and the methods used are explained in detail by formulating the research aims, determining and describing the sample, designing the measuring instrument, administering the measuring instrument, scoring the measuring instrument, and processing and analysing the data. The chapter concluded with an overview of the ethical considerations adhered to in this study.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS

The aim of this chapter is to report on and discuss the statistical results of the study and to integrate the empirical research findings with the information derived from the literature review. The statistical results, pertaining to the research aims that were presented in Chapter 1, are reported upon.

The empirical study continues with the following steps in this chapter:

- Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results
- Step 8: Integrating the research findings

The statistical results of the exploratory factor analysis, and descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics are discussed in the sections that follow.

6.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: FACTOR ANALYSIS

In this section, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests were used to assess the suitability of the collected data for factor analysis. The KMO statistic, which ranges from 0 to 1, indicated good factor analysis with values exceeding 0.6 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

A summary chart for interpreting KMO values (Kaiser, 1974) is provided below. For detailed demographic information about the respondents, please refer to Chapter 5. Below is a tabular chart for the interpretation of the KMO values (Kaiser, 1974):

Figure 6.1: Interpretation of KMO values

KMO measure	Interpretation
$KMO \geq 0.90$	Marvelous
$0.80 \leq KMO < 0.90$	Meritorious
$0.70 \leq KMO < 0.80$	Average
$0.60 \leq KMO < 0.70$	Mediocre
$0.50 \leq KMO < 0.60$	Terrible
$KMO < 0.50$	Unacceptable

For the factor analysis to be considered acceptable, Bartlett's test of sphericity must be statistically significant, and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy must be met.

Table 6. 1: KMO and Bartlett's test for organisational justice, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction

		Organisational Justice	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Job Satisfaction
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy		.970	.963	.950
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. Chi-square	8299.862	7115.333	6137.596
	Df	300	300	300
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000

All KMO values for organisational justice (OJ), organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and job satisfaction (JS) were greater than 0.9, confirming the data's appropriateness for factor analysis (see table 6.8). Bartlett's test of sphericity, conducted at a 0.05 significance level, yielded statistically significant results for all three variables (OJ, OCB, and JS), supporting the suitability of factor analysis. Detailed demographic information about the respondents can be found in Chapter 5.

6.2.1 Diagnostic statistics for factor analysis

Since the KMO and Bartlett's test validated the suitability of factor analysis, the next step was to identify the number of factors for extraction using eigenvalues by employing principal axis factoring as the extraction method and Promax as the rotation method. Initial eigenvalues represent the variance explained by each factor. The rule of thumb is that factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 should be retained as factors of the construct.

The principal axis factoring method of extraction revealed that OJ had two factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0. These factors, after rotation, together explained 68.9% of the variance in the data. The recommendation is that factors cumulatively explaining greater than 60% of the variance should be retained. For OCB, three factors were extracted and found to cumulatively explain 64.8% of the variance in the data while for JS, four factors

were extracted and found to cumulatively explain 61.8% of the variance. The results are summarised in Table 6.2 below.

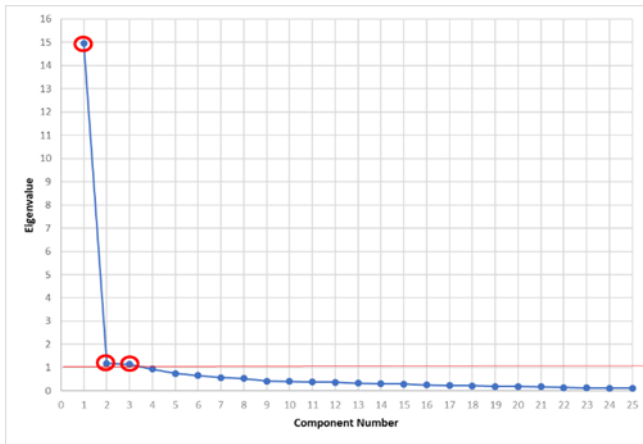
Table 6. 2: Total variance explained: organisational justice, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction

Factor	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings	
	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Total Variance Explained: Organisational Justice		
1: Procedural Justice	65.271	65.271
2: Distributive Justice	3.624	68.895
Total Variance Explained: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour		
1: Personal Value System	58.538	58.538
2: Personal Mindset	3.438	61.976
3: Interaction with Others	2.792	64.768
Total Variance Explained: Job Satisfaction		
1: Personal Orientation	49.688	49.688
2: Work Context	5.230	54.918
3: Employee Loyalty	4.455	59.372
4: Career Opportunities	2.404	61.776

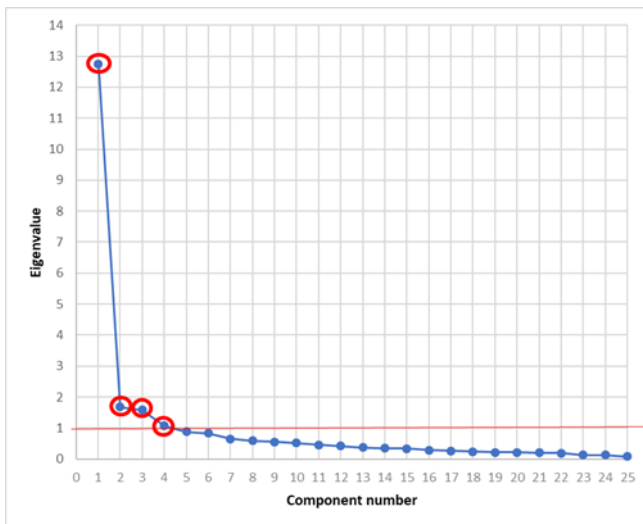
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

To verify the number of factors, the scree plot – a plot of the eigenvalues of factors arranged in descending order and components (factors) according to the order of extraction – can be used. In the scree plot, there should be a sharp reduction in the size of eigenvalues, which appears to be the “elbow” of the plot. When eigenvalues drop severely, it means additional factors would add little or nothing to the information already extracted. Figure 6.1 illustrates the scree plots for OJ, OCB and JS respectively. These results support the findings reported in Table 6.2.

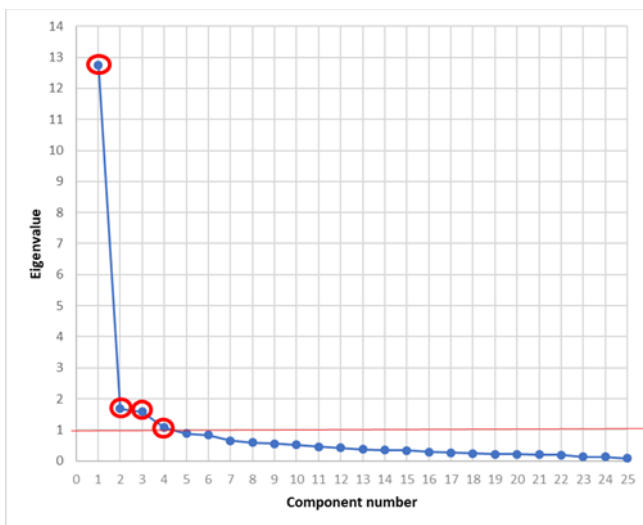
Figure 6.1: Scree plots for organisational justice, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction



Organisational Justice



Organisational Citizenship Behaviour



Job Satisfaction

Tables 6.3 to 6.5 illustrate the final factor loadings for each item obtained from the pattern matrix for OJ, OCB and JS, respectively. Ideally one would consider factor loadings greater than 0.4 and more than 2 items loading on a factor. However, it's worth noting that

the factor loadings for IJ were below the recommended threshold of 1 for eigenvalues, suggesting that IJ may not be a valid factor in this context. Additionally, the scree plot shows 4 factors for OCB, but the 4th eigenvalue is below 1, then we do not regard the 4th factor as a valid factor.

Table 6.3: Final Factor loadings: Organisational justice

No.	Item	Factors	
		PJ	DJ
1	Selection criteria for appointments/promotions are applied consistently.	0,855	
2	Organisation rules and procedures are applied consistently to all employees.	0,871	
3	Employees are provided with opportunities to express their views on work-related matters.	0,889	
4	Supervisors make use of joint decision-making.	0,735	
5	The organisation makes decisions based on fair and accurate information.	0,817	
6	Employees can utilise appeal procedures to resolve issues.	0,754	
8	The allocation of funds for training is done in a fair and transparent manner.	0,424	
7	Managers are held accountable for their actions.	0,725	
9	Rewards reflect the effort that employees put into their work.	0,818	
10	The most competent and qualified employees are promoted.	0,973	
11	Employees are given jobs that give them the opportunity to use their personal initiative or judgement in completing a task.	0,836	
12	Employees are given fair workloads.	0,756	
13	In general, employees are treated with respect.	0,694	
14	Managers consider input from employees before making decisions.	0,650	
15	Employees can challenge decisions without fear of victimisation.	0,555	
16	The organisation's culture and practices prevent managers from abusing their power.	0,480	0,465
17	Managers are expected and held accountable for upholding ethical standards.		0,594
18	My organisation is transparent as regards remuneration practices.		0,470
19	Supervisors provide constructive feedback on work performance.		0,644
20	Organisation policies and procedures are available and easily accessible.		0,840
21	Employees receive regular communication on organisational events.		0,975
22	Employees are at ease when attending social events because such events do take cultural differences into consideration.		0,748
23	My organisation has zero tolerance for discrimination.		0,444
24	Employees are allowed to determine their own work pace, order of tasks and work methods.		0,499
25	Employees are provided with adequate resources to complete their tasks.		0,567

Extraction Method: Principal Axis factoring; Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser normalization

Table 6.4: Final factor loadings: organisational citizenship behaviour

No.	Item	Factors		
		IWO	PVS	PM
1	I often help others with their tasks.			0,682
2	I willingly work overtime to complete urgent tasks.	0,406		0,555
3	I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off			0,674
4	I am patient with newly appointed colleagues who still need to master the job.			0,745
5	I show genuine concern and courtesy towards co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.			0,650
6	I tolerate injustices in order to prevent conflict.			
7	I do not abuse sick leave or take unnecessarily long breaks.			0,623
8	I attend work meetings even if it is not directly related to my job.	0,650		
9	I share ideas for new projects or developments widely.	0,592		
10	I keep up with developments in the organisation.	0,533		
11	I do report wrongdoing and dishonesty of others if it harms the organisation.	0,681		
12	I show pride when representing the organisation in public.	0,757		
14	I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.	0,466	0,405	
13	I am proud to be associated with my organisation.	0,703		
15	I do not misuse the organisation's resources (paper, internet, telephone etc).		0,515	
16	I voice my concerns for the better of the organisation even if it means challenging authority.	0,655		
17	I abide by the rules and regulations of the workplace.		0,719	
18	I am punctual for work and meetings.		0,936	
19	I make an effort to acquire new skills that will benefit the organisation.		0,739	
20	I often volunteer to participate in task groups.		0,501	
21	I am willing to bear any inconveniences that may arise in the organisation.	0,404	0,454	
22	I speak highly of my organisation outside of the work environment.	0,601	0,469	
23	I am prepared to make sacrifices in the best interest of the organisation.	0,517	0,482	
24	I look out for the well-being of my colleagues.		0,436	
25	I upheld ethical and sound moral values when performing my job.		0,452	

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring; Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 6.5: Final factor loadings: job satisfaction

No	Item	Factors			
		PO	WC	EL	CO
1	I stay informed about the organisation.	0,625			
2	I keep my workplace clean and tidy.	0,905			
3	I make suggestions to improve operations.	0,741			
4	I do not stay away from work without a valid reason.	0,980			

No	Item	Factors			
		PO	WC	EL	CO
5	I do everything possible to meet deadlines, even if it means working overtime without pay.	0,844			
6	I seldom think about quitting my job.				
7	I share ideas for new projects or improvements widely.	0,621			
8	I perform extra duties and responsibilities to enhance my career prospects.	0,851			
9	I complete tasks beyond what is required.	0,895			
10	I show up for work early so that I can get things ready.	0,803			
11					
12	I find my work environment pleasant.		0,413		
13	I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well.	0,579			
14	My job is more than merely an eight-to-five job which enables me to make a living.		0,413		
15	I will not resign because the organisation has done a lot for me and I feel obliged to continue employment with it.			1,020	
16	I cannot resign because the costs associated with leaving the organisation are too high (e.g. retirement, medical and leave benefits).			0,871	
17	I will not resign because I like my job and enjoy working for the employer.			0,732	
18	I make the most of the learning opportunities provided to me by my employer.	0,579			
19	I doubt whether hard work will lead to promotion because of employment equity requirements.				-0,762
20	I stay with my employer mainly because of the scarcity of alternative employment opportunities.				-0,674
21	I attend social functions regularly.		0,475		
22	I will consider a job offer from another company only if it is considerably better than my current job.		0,484		
23	I regard my colleagues as friends.		0,874		
24	The organisation really cares about my well-being.		0,834		
25	My manager recognises me for work done well.		0,681		

Extraction Method: PrincipalAxis Factoring; Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

The factor column represents the rotated factors that have been extracted. These are the core factors, which have been used as the final factor after data reduction. According to the grouping of the items, each group of items is labelled to represent a factor. Cross-loaded items were studied to determine to which factor they should be allocated or whether the item should be discarded from further analyses. Normally, when there is a difference of more than 0.1 in the cross-loadings, such an item will be retained on the factor where it had the highest loading if it makes theoretical sense. The item's values have been boldfaced to indicate where they were retained. Item 16 cross-loaded in the

organisational justice construct. As the loadings were very close (0.480 and 0,465) it was decided to delete this item from further analyses. For the organisational citizenship behaviour, five items cross-loaded. Item 2 was retained with factor 3 and item 22 with factor 1. Items 14, 21 and 23 were deleted from further analyses as they were cross loaded with very close factor loadings. Item 6 did not load onto any factor with a loading higher than 0.4. Due to only 2 items loading onto the fourth factor, career opportunities, these items were deleted from further analysis.

6.2.2 Summary: Factor Analysis

Table 6.6 summarises the findings of the factor analysis. It indicates the factors extracted from each section of the questionnaire, a brief description of the factor, the items included in each factor, the number of items and the corresponding total number of items per factor.

The factors and their corresponding items, as delineated in the pattern matrix, underwent a comprehensive analysis within the framework of the theory in order to assign appropriate names or categories to each of these identified factors. As explained above, nine factors were identified, and the factors were labelled as follows:

- (i) Organisational Justice:
 - Factor 1: Procedural Justice (PJ)
 - Factor 2: Distributive Justice (DJ)
- (ii) Organisational Citizenship Behaviour:
 - Factor 1: Personal Value System (PVS)
 - Factor 2: Personal mindset (PM)
 - Factor 3: Interaction with Others (IWO)
- (iii) Job Satisfaction:
 - Factor 1: Personal Orientation (PO)
 - Factor 2: Work Context (WC)
 - Factor 3: Employee Loyalty (EL)
 - Factor 4: Career Opportunities (CO) (excluded from further analysis due to loading of only 2 items)

Table 6.6: Summary of factor analysis for OJ, OCB and JS

Factor	Dimension name	Dimension description	Items per dimension	Total Nr. of items
Organisational Justice				
1	Procedural Justice (PJ)	PJ is the fairness issues concerning the methods, mechanisms, and processes used to determine outcomes.	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 &	15
2	Distributive Justice (DJ)	DJ is an individual's perceived fairness of an outcome or decision such as a promotion or salary.	17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24 & 25	9
Total number of items				24
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour				
1	Personal value system (PVS)	Behaviours that are focused on the organisation and that will benefit the organisation	, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 16 & 22	8
2	Personal Mindset (PM)	Is a notion that guides how we deal with situations, how we figure out what is going on and what we should do.	15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 24 & 25	7
3	Interaction with others (IWO)	Involves helping others by offering suggestions, teaching them useful knowledge or skills or directly performing some of their tasks	1, 2, 3, 4, 5 & 7	6
Total number of items				21
Job satisfaction				
1	Personal orientation (PO)	This segment specifies the work situation in terms of human interaction processes.	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13 & 18	11
2	Work context (WC)	Refers to general conditions at work such as pay, benefits, employment, hierarchy, (reporting structure), development opportunities, the working environment, and the nature of the relationships with one's colleagues.	12, 14, 21, 22, 23, 24 & 25	7
3	Employee loyalty (EL)	Employee loyalty is described as employees who are committed to the success of their business and think that working for the employer is in their best interests.	15, 16 & 17	3
4	Career opportunities (CO)	Refers to any opportunity that will bring the employee closer to their career objectives. This might be a job or a	19 & 20, both reverse coded due to the negative factor loading	2

Factor	Dimension name	Dimension description	Items per dimension	Total Nr. of items
		training programme that will help the advance in their profession.		
Total number of items				23

6.3 RELIABILITY

One of the most important steps in the analysis of data is to test the reliability of the questionnaires. In this section, Cronbach's alpha coefficients are presented for each of the factors identified in the exploratory factor analysis discussed in Section 6.1. Cronbach's alpha is a measure of the internal consistency of a test or scale (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Factors that did not meet the reliability criteria (0.70) were excluded from further analysis. Career opportunities, a construct of job satisfaction, was thus excluded from any further analysis. Table 6.7 reports the internal consistency (reliability) of the different scales of the questionnaire.

Table 6.7: Internal consistency (reliability) of the organisational justice, organisational justice and organisation citizenship behaviour questionnaires

Organisational justice			
Factor	Dimension name	Cronbach's alpha	Total Nr. of items
1	Procedural justice	.972	15
2	Distributive justice	.937	9
Total number of items			24
Organisational citizenship behaviour			
1	Interaction with others	.927	6
2	Personal value system	.927	8
3	Personal Mindset	.925	7
Total number of items			21
Job Satisfaction			
1	Personal orientation	.951	11
2	Work context	.867	7
3	Employee Loyalty	.845	3
4.	Career opportunities (reverse scored items)	.542	2
Total number of items			23

Based on the results tabulated above, all the identified factors meet the threshold criteria and their internal consistency is considered acceptable, except for the CO construct. The career opportunities construct has therefore been deleted from any further analyses.

6.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

After the reliability of the questionnaire was established, descriptive statistics were conducted on the newly identified factors. Descriptive statistics help us in investigating the statistical distribution of the factors. The total number of respondents, the means (*M*), standard deviations (*SD*), skewness and kurtosis were computed for each factor as part of the analysis. Table 6.8 below presents the descriptive statistics for each of the factors.

Table 6. 8: Summary of descriptive statistics of variables

Construct	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation (SD)	Skewness	Kurtosis
Organisational Justice				
Procedural Justice	4.3464	1.1553	-1.014	0.494
Distributive Justice	4.5089	1.0474	-0.907	0.715
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour				
Interaction with others	4.8105	.8983	-1.433	3.533
Personal value system	4.5505	1.0059	-1.324	2.550
Personal Mindset	4.9041	.9007	-1.376	2.820
Job Satisfaction				
Personal orientation	4.6352	.9744	-1.209	2.349
Work context	4.1564	.9472	-0.548	0.527
Employee Loyalty	3.5505	1.2896	-0.014	-0.313

The mean is a measure of the location of the data and from the results above we observe that OCB factors recorded the highest average values. Interaction with others, specifically, had the highest mean value across all the factors and indicates the importance of interaction on perceptions about justice, and job satisfaction. EL shows the lowest mean value (3.5505), indicating that employees are not very concerned about employee loyalty. In statistics, skewness and kurtosis are very important characterisations of the data. Skewness measures the lack of symmetry whereas kurtosis measures whether the data are heavy-tailed or light-tailed in comparison to a normal distribution (symmetric) (Groeneveld & Meeden, 1984). Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010), and Bryne (2010) argued that data is considered to be normal if skewness is between -2 to +2 and kurtosis is between -7 to +7. All the constructs' skewness values lay between -2 and +2 and therefore the factors were assumed to be normally distributed.

6.4.1 Correlations

Once the reliability statistics and the descriptive analysis of the data were completed, statistical correlations were undertaken to determine the direction and strength of the relationship between the OJ, OCB and JS factors. This was done to achieve research aims 1 to 4. The Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was used. The Pearson correlation has a value between -1 to 1, with a value of -1 meaning a perfect negative linear correlation, 0 being no correlation, and +1 meaning a perfect positive correlation. Table 6.9 shows the correlation coefficients between OJ, OCB and JS factors. Moderate (above 0.3) and strong (above 0.5) positive relationships were evident. All the correlation coefficients were statistically significant at the 1% level of significance as the p-values were all smaller than 0.001.

Table 6.9 also answers the research question dealing with the relationship between OCB and JS. Strong positive relationships exist between PO and all three OCB factors, as well as between WC and all three OCB factors. With regard to EL, there was a strong positive relationship with PVS and a positive moderate relationship with the other two factors of OCB. Each of the nine relationships were statistically significant at the 1% level of significance.

Table 6. 9: Correlation analysis: OJ, OCB and JS

	Procedural Justice	Distributive Justice	Interaction with others	Personal value system	Personal Mindset	Personal orientation	Work context	Employee Loyalty
Procedural Justice	-							
Distributive Justice	.866	-						
Interaction with others	.455	.560	-					
Personal value system	.634	.666	.792	-				
Personal Mindset	.482	.569	.820	.827	-			
Personal orientation	.475	.522	.822	.795	.833	-		
Work context	.551	.602	.651	.656	.616	.782	-	
Employee Loyalty	.345	.355	.496	.505	.485	.609	.656	-

6.5 INFERENCE STATISTICS

This section addresses research aims 1 to 3 through the use of inferential statistics. Research aim 4 sought to determine the statistical differences between different demographic groups with regard to the variables. To determine the difference in mean of demographic variables consisting of two categories, the independent T-test was used.

For the independent T-test, the null hypothesis is that the two samples are taken from populations with the same means. That is the difference in mean equals zero (Park, 2009). One of the assumptions of the T-test is the homogeneity of variances for the two groups. Therefore, as a point of departure, Levene's test of equality of variances was used. If the p-value is greater than the level of significance, typically 5%, then the group variances can be assumed as equal (Kim, 2015).

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a statistical test used to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the means of a variable with three or more categories. ANOVA is a parametric test. That means some distributional assumptions need to be met (Cardinal & Aitken, 2013). Should the assumptions of ANOVA be violated, either the robust Welch test can be used if the sample is large enough or a non-parametric alternative, the Kruskal-Wallis, test should be considered (Hecke, 2012). The Kruskal-Wallis test is a non-parametric test which assesses the differences between three or more independently sampled groups regarding a specified variable (McKnight & Najab, 2010).

6.6.1 The difference in means (t-test): Gender

In this section, gender (male/ female) was tested for differences in means regarding the identified factors of OJ, OCB and JS respectively, at a 5% level of significance. Table 6.10 provides descriptive statistics for all the factors of OJ, OCB and JS stratified by gender.

Table 6. 10: Gender group statistics for OJ, OCB and JS

Organisational justice	Gender	N	Mean
Procedural justice	Male	135	4.56
	Female	172	4.18
Distributive justice	Male	135	4.67
	Female	172	4.39

Organisational justice	Gender	N	Mean
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Gender	N	Mean
Interaction with others	Male	135	4.81
	Female	172	4.81
Personal value system	Male	135	4.61
	Female	172	4.50
Personal Mindset	Male	135	4.92
	Female	172	4.88
Job satisfaction	Gender	N	Mean
Personal orientation	Male	135	4.70
	Female	172	4.58
Work context	Male	135	4.26
	Female	172	4.06
Employee loyalty	Male	135	3.58
	Female	172	3.52

Table 6.11 summarises the results of Levene's test of equality of variance and the test for equality of means for male and women for OJ, OCB and JS.

Table 6.11: Levene's test and t-test values for the difference in mean by gender

Organisational justice	Levene's Test		T-test		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Procedural justice	5.833	0.016	2.874	299.7	0.004
Distributive justice	1.112	0.292	2.344	305	0.020
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Interaction with others	0.814	0.368	0.010	305	0.992
Personal value system	0.369	0.544	0.921	305	0.358
Personal Mindset	2.385	0.124	0.357	305	0.722
Job satisfaction	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Personal orientation	0.152	0.697	1.092	305	0.276
Work context	0.880	0.349	1.850	305	0.065
Employee loyalty	6.915	0.009	0.427	304.3	0.670

From the results above, we observe that for all factors except PJ and EL the assumption of homogeneity of variances holds as the p-values are greater than 0.05. The results indicate that statistically significant differences exist between men and women regarding PJ (with sample means, female = 4.18 and men = 4.56). From the sample data, we see that women are less concerned about PJ and DJ than men. Regarding the factors of OCB and JS, no statistically significant differences in the mean values exist (all p-values greater than 0.05).

6.6.2 The difference in means test (t-test): Marital status

In this section, the difference between single and married employees as regards to OJ, OCB and JS at a 5% level of significance was determined. Table 6.12 gives some descriptive statistics for all the factors of OJ, OCB and JS about marital status. From the sample, we can compare how, on average, each marital status group rated a factor. For example, the average score for single employees for PVS was 4.45 and the average mean score for married employees was 4.64. This indicates that PVS linked to OCB is more important to married employees than to single employees.

Table 6.12: Marital status group statistics for OJ, OCB and JS

Organisational justice	Marital status	N	Mean
Procedural justice	Single	152	4.12
	Married	155	4.55
Distributive justice	Single	152	4.35
	Married	155	4.65
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour		N	Mean
Interaction with others	Single	152	4.77
	Married	155	4.84
Personal value system	Single	152	4.45
	Married	155	4.64
Personal Mindset	Single	152	4.87
	Married	155	4.93
Job satisfaction		N	Mean
Personal orientation	Single	152	4.60
	Married	155	4.66
Work context	Single	152	4.13
	Married	155	4.17

Organisational justice	Marital status	N	Mean
Employee loyalty	Single	152	3.52
	Married	155	3.57

Table 6.13 summarises the results of Levene’s test of equality of variance as well as the test for equality of means for single and married employees for OJ, OCB and JS.

Table 6.13: Levene’s test and t-test values for the difference in mean rating by marital status

Organisational justice	Levene’s Test		T-test		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Procedural justice	4.302	0.039	-3.301	299.1	0.001
Distributive justice	0.809	0.369	-2.493	305	0.013
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Interaction with others	1.646	0.200	-0.724	305	0.470
Personal value system	2.327	0.128	-1.670	305	0.096
Personal Mindset	5.749	0.017	-0.523	290.3	0.601
Job satisfaction	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Personal orientation	0.040	0.841	-0.500	305	0.617
Work context	0.260	0.611	-0.333	305	0.740
Employee loyalty	0.928	0.336	-0.325	305	0.746

From the results above we observe that for all factors, except PJ and DJ, the assumption of homogeneity of variances holds as the p-values are greater than 0.05. Moreover, not all the mean differences are significant as the p-values are all greater than 0.05. According to the T-test, as displayed in Table 6.13, marital status played a significant role as regards to PJ and DJ. The mean scores in Table 6.12 indicate that married employees are more concerned with PJ and DJ than single employees.

6.6.3 Kruskal-Wallis test: Ethnicity

Ethnicity (Black/White/Coloured/Indian) was tested for differences in means regarding the identified factors of OJ, OCB and JS at a 5% level of significance. Due to vast differences in the sample size of each group, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis one-way analyses of

variance on ranks tests were conducted. Table 6.14 reports on the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test.

Table 6.14: Ethnicity differences with regards to organisational justice, organisation citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction

	Ethnicity	N	Mean Rank	H	Sig
Organisational justice					
Procedural justice	Black	233	150.11	1.464	0.691
	White	39	168.01		
	Coloured	20	158.48		
	Indian	13	151.42		
Distributive justice	Black	233	148.95	2.139	0.544
	White	39	168.13		
	Coloured	20	164.85		
	Indian	13	161.96		
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Ethnicity	N	Mean Rank	H	Sig
Interaction with others (IWO)	Black	233	144.95	10.393	0.016
	White	39	192.28		
	Coloured	20	168.68		
	Indian	13	155.35		
Personal value system (PVS)	Black	233	147.07	11.959	0.008
	White	39	197.28		
	Coloured	20	133.15		
	Indian	13	157.00		
Personal Mindset (PM)	Black	233	147.46	7.309	0.063
	White	39	186.68		
	Coloured	20	142.20		
	Indian	13	167.81		
Job satisfaction	Ethnicity	N	Mean Rank	H	Sig
Personal orientation	Black	233	146.72	8.782	0.032

	Ethnicity	N	Mean Rank	H	Sig
(PO)	White	39	191.65		
	Coloured	20	148.00		
	Indian	13	157.27		
Work context (WC)	Black	233	148.64	3.017	0.389
	White	39	171.13		
	Coloured	20	170.38		
	Indian	13	150.04		
Employee loyalty (EL)	Black	233	147.35	5.374	0.146
	White	39	174.12		
	Coloured	20	181.40		
	Indian	13	147.23		

From the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test, statistically significant differences exist between the ethnic groups with regard to IWO, PVS and PO with p-values less than 0.05. The mean ranks indicate that Blacks perceive interaction with others (mean=144.95) and PVS (mean=147.07) to be of less importance than the other ethnic groups when it concerns OCB. Whites scored the highest on IWO (mean=192.28), PVS (mean=197.28) and PO (mean = 191.65). In terms of JS, PO is the least important to Blacks (mean=146.72), but the most important to Whites (191.65). No statistically significant difference between the ethnic groups exists for the other factors (all p-values greater than 0.05).

6.6.4 Analysis of Variance: Educational Categories

The highest educational qualification categories were tested for differences in means for each factor of OJ, OCB and JS. An ANOVA test for significant differences in mean rating identified for OJ, OCB and JS was conducted.

Five categories were considered in the results. The categories were coded as follows:

1. Grade 12 and lower
2. Certificate (1 year)
3. Diploma

4. Degree
5. Postgraduate (Honours and Masters)

Table 6.15 reports the descriptive statistics for the different factors of OJ, OCB and JS stratified by educational group. From the descriptive statistics, it was observed that employees with a higher education level (degree or postgraduate) tend to be more concerned about OJ than employees with a diploma or less. The opposite holds for OCB and JS where employees with a higher education level were less concerned about OCB or job satisfaction than employees with a diploma or lower qualification. These differences were however not significant.

Table 6. 15: Educational group statistics for OJ, OCB and JS

	Education code	N	Mean
Organisational justice			
Procedural justice	1	63	4.37
	2	82	4.24
	3	63	4.25
	4	57	4.41
	5	42	4.55
Distributive justice	1	63	4.63
	2	82	4.47
	3	63	4.30
	4	57	4.55
	5	42	4.62
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Education code	N	Mean
Interaction with others	1	63	4.95
	2	82	4.68
	3	63	4.79
	4	57	4.87
	5	42	4.78
Personal value system	1	63	4.63
	2	82	4.39
	3	63	4.53
	4	57	4.66
	5	42	4.60
Personal Mindset	1	63	4.99
	2	82	4.70

	Education code	N	Mean
	3	63	4.98
	4	57	4.95
	5	42	4.95
Job satisfaction	Education code	N	Mean
Personal orientation	1	63	4.76
	2	82	4.44
	3	63	4.64
	4	57	4.75
	5	42	4.63
Work context	1	63	4.45
	2	82	4.02
	3	63	4.02
	4	57	4.16
	5	42	4.16
Employee loyalty	1	63	3.87
	2	82	3.30
	3	63	3.62
	4	57	3.47
	5	42	3.51

One of the assumptions of ANOVA as in the t-test is the homogeneity of variances. Therefore, the starting point was again Levene's test of equality of variance. Table 6.16 summarises the results of Levene's test of equality of variance and the ANOVA test.

Table 6.16: Levene's test and ANOVA values for the difference in mean rating by education level

	Levene's Test		ANOVA Test	
	F	Sig.	F	Sig.
Organisational justice				
Procedural justice	0.401	0.808	0.679	0.607
Distributive justice	0.448	0.774	1.010	0.402
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	F	Sig.	F	Sig.
Interaction with others	0.659	0.621	0.907	0.460
Personal value system	0.181	0.948	0.796	0.529
Personal Mindset	0.229	0.952	1.357	0.249
Job satisfaction	F	Sig.	F	Sig.

	Levene's Test		ANOVA Test	
Personal orientation	0.209	0.884	1.305	0.268
Work context	1.290	0.274	2.301	0.059
Employee loyalty	1.961	0.100	1.893	0.111

The results show that for all factors we have homogeneity of variance as all p-values are greater than 0.05. Moreover, at a 5% level of significance, it is observed from the ANOVA results that the mean values for the different education groups cannot be assumed as different across all the factors of OJ, OCB and JS as all the p-values are larger than 0.05. There are no significant differences between the various educational groups in terms of OJ, OCB and JS.

6.6.5 Analysis of Variance: Staff categories

The staff categories were tested for differences in means for each factor of OJ, OCB and JS. An ANOVA test for significant differences in mean rating for the factors identified for OJ, OCB and JS were conducted.

The categories of staff included the following:

1. Clerical Staff
2. Middle management
3. Supervisory level

Table 6.17 reports the descriptive statistics for the different factors of OJ, OCB and JS according to staff category.

Table 6. 17: Staff group statistics for OJ, OCB and JS

	Staff code	N	Mean
Organisational justice			
Procedural justice	1	169	4.03
	2	73	4.50
	3	65	5.00
Distributive justice	1	169	4.27
	2	73	4.57
	3	65	5.06
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Staff code	N	Mean

	Staff code	N	Mean
Interaction with others	1	169	4.70
	2	73	4.78
	3	65	5.14
Personal value system	1	169	4.32
	2	73	4.59
	3	65	5.10
Personal Mindset	1	169	4.78
	2	73	4.89
	3	65	5.25
Job satisfaction	Staff code	N	Mean
Personal orientation	1	169	4.53
	2	73	4.50
	3	65	5.06
Work context	1	169	4.12
	2	73	3.87
	3	65	4.56
Employee loyalty	1	169	3.52
	2	73	3.29
	3	65	3.93

Table 6.18 summarises the results of Levene's test of equality of variance and the ANOVA test.

Table 6.18: Levene's test and ANOVA values for the difference in the mean by Staff category

	Levene's Test		ANOVA Test	
	F	Sig.	F	Sig.
Organisational justice				
Procedural justice	10.110	0.000	19.666	0.000
Distributive justice	3.911	0.021	14.757	0.000
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	F	Sig.	F	Sig.
Interaction with others	6.870	0.001	5.961	0.003
Personal value system	5.024	0.007	15.194	0.000
Personal Mindset	8.025	0.000	6.887	0.001
Job satisfaction	F	Sig.	F	Sig.

	Levene's Test		ANOVA Test	
Personal orientation	1.359	0.258	8.307	0.000
Work context	3.287	0.039	9.779	0.000
Employee loyalty	2.961	0.053	4.541	0.011

From Table 6.18, Levene's test shows that none of the factors except PO have homogeneity of variance as all the p-values are less than 0.05. However, from the ANOVA results, we observed a significant difference in means for the various staff categories with regards to each of the factors of OJ, OCB and JS (all p-values are less than 0.05).

The mean scores in Table 6.17, shows that as the level of staff category increases from clerical staff to supervisory level, the mean scores in terms of OJ, OCB and job satisfaction increased. The differences between junior staff and senior staff were significant in terms of OJ, OCB and JS. Senior staff place a high value on the importance of OJ, OCB and JS. Senior staff is however not more loyal than junior staff.

6.7 RESEARCH AIMS 1 AND 2

To answer research aims 1 and 2, namely, to determine the influence organisational justice has on organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction, multiple linear regression analyses were conducted. As both OCB and JS were represented by three sub-factors respectively, six multiple regression analyses were conducted where each factor of OCB and JS was considered as the response variable and both factors of OJ as the explanatory variables.

Linear regression analysis is a statistical method that allows us to examine linear relationships between two (simple linear regression) or more (multiple linear regression) variables. It is a tool to predict the dependent variable by examining its relationship with one or more independent variables (Freund, Schmidlin, Wannier, Bloch, Mir, Schwab, Rouiller & Nogo, 2006).

Multiple linear regression analysis requires the following assumptions (Dulewicz, Higgs, & Slaski, 2019):

1. The observations must be independent.

2. There should be a linear relationship between the predictors and dependent variable.
3. No multicollinearity should exist between independent variables.
4. Outliers need to be investigated and deleted as they will have an impact on estimation.
5. Normality of residuals.
6. Homoscedasticity or constant variance

For all the models given in this section, assumptions 1 to 6 hold. All respondents were individuals, and the survey measured their perceptions at one point in time (cross-sectional); therefore, the observations used in the regression are independent. The correlation matrix presented in Table 6.8 provided evidence of linear relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable with moderate to strong positive linear relationships. Regarding multicollinearity, all tolerance values were 0.250 which is above 0.1; therefore, there was no evidence of multicollinearity between the independent variables. There was also no evidence of outliers as skewness values across all items were between -2 and +2 (see Table 6.3 in Section 6.3).

Assumptions 5 and 6 will be explored for each result presented. The normality of residuals will be investigated by making use of the cumulative probability plots of residuals (P-P plot). If the standardised residuals are normally distributed, the scatters should fall on or tightly close to the normal distribution line (Das & Imon, 2016). The homoscedasticity assumption can be checked using a visual examination of a plot of the standardised residuals by the regression standardised predicted value where no definite pattern should be evident for the assumption to be met. The plots for each model are attached in the Appendix.

Organisational justice and Interaction with others

Tables 6.19 and 6.20 summarise the results of regression analysis investigating the influence of the factors of OJ (procedural justice [PJ] and distributive justice [DJ]) on Interaction with others, a factor of OCB.

Table 6.19: Model summary of organisational justice and Interaction with others

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	.563	.313	70.719	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant) PJ and DJ

Table 6. 20: Regression coefficients for organisational justice and Interaction with others

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.648	.188		14.076	.000
Procedural Justice	-.094	.074	-.121	-1.274	.204
Distributive Justice	.570	.081	.665	7.015	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Interaction with others

From the results above (Table 6.19), it is evident that the F-test is statistically significant as the p-value is <0.001, indicating that all the regression coefficients are significantly different from zero and the adjusted R-square value of 0.313 indicates that 31.3% of the variance in the factor interaction with others is explained by the model. From Table 6.20, it was observed that DJ is a strong (std Beta = 0.665) statistically significant predictor of interaction with others. PJ is not a statistically significant predictor of the IWO.

Figures A1a and A1b provide the P-P plot and a plot of the standardized residuals by the standardised predicted value respectively. From the P-P plot, normality can be assumed since there is only a slight deviation from the normal distribution line. Moreover, from the scatter plot we can see that the values are fairly distributed around zero which is indicative of homoscedasticity.

Organisational justice and personal value system

Table 6.21 and 6.22 summarises the results of regression analysis investigating the impact of the factors PJ and DJ on personal value system (PVS), a factor of OCB.

Table 6.21: Model summary of organisational justice and personal value system

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	.676	.453	70.677	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant) PJ and DJ

Table 6.22: Regression coefficients for organisational justice and personal value system

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.658	.188		8.823	.000
Procedural Justice	.197	.074	.227	2.681	.008
Distributive Justice	.451	.081	.470	5.555	.000

a. Dependent Variable: PVS

From the results (Table 6.21), it is evident that the F-test is statistically significant as the p-value is <0.001, indicating that the regression coefficients are significantly different from zero and the adjusted R-square value of 45,3 indicates that 45.3% of the variance in the factor PVS is explained by the model. As indicated in Table 6.22, DJ is a strong (std Beta = 0.470) statistically significant predictor of PVS.

Figures A2a and A2b provide the P-P plot and a plot of the standardised residuals by the standardised predicted value respectively. From the P-P plot, normality can be assumed since there is only a slight deviation from the normal distribution line. Moreover, from the scatter plot we can see that the values are fairly distributed around zero which is indicative of homoscedasticity.

Organisational justice and personal mindset

Tables 6.23 and 6.24 summarise the results of regression analysis investigating the influence of PJ and DJ on personal mindset (PM).

Table 6.23: Model summary of organisational justice and personal mindset

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	.569	.324	72.794	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant) PJ and DJ

Table 6.24: Regression coefficients for organisational justice and Personal Mindset

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.700	.188		14.384	.000
Procedural Justice	-.033	.074	-.042	-.450	.653
Distributive Justice	.521	.081	.605	6.418	.000

a. Dependent Variable: PM

From Table 6.23, it is evident that the F-test is statistically significant as the p-value is <0.001, indicating that the regression coefficients are significantly different from zero and the adjusted R-square value of 0.324 indicates that 32.4% of the variance in the factor PM is explained by the model. As indicated in Table 6.24, DJ is a strong (std Beta = 0.605) statistically significant predictor of PM. This implies that an increase in DJ will result in a higher value of PM.

Figures A3a and A3b provide the P-P plot and a plot of the standardised residuals by the standardised predicted value respectively. From the P-P plot, normality can be assumed since there is only a slight deviation from the normal distribution line. Moreover, from the scatter plot we can see that the values are fairly distributed around zero which is indicative of homoscedasticity.

Organisational justice and personal orientation

Tables 6.25 and 6.26 summarise the results of regression analysis investigating the impact of the factors PJ and DJ on personal orientation (PO).

Table 6.25: Model summary of organisational justice and personal orientation

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	.524	.274	57.473	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant) PJ and DJ

Table 6.26: Regression coefficients for organisational justice and personal orientation

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.444	.210		11.615	.000
Procedural Justice	.079	.082	.094	.960	.338
Distributive Justice	.410	.091	.440	4.507	.000

a. Dependent Variable: PO

Table 6.25 indicates that the F-test is statistically significant as the p-value is <0.001, indicating that the regression coefficients are significantly different from zero and the adjusted R-square value of 0.274 indicates that 27.4% of the variance in the factor PO is explained by the model. As indicated in Table 6.26, DJ is a strong (std Beta = 0.440) statistically significant predictor of PO. This implies that a decrease of DJ will result in a lower value (by 0.440) of PO and in turn JS. Simply put, if employees are not paid enough or decisions made are unfair, they will experience less job satisfaction.

Figures A4a and A4b provide the P-P plot and a plot of the standardised residuals by the standardised predicted value respectively. From the P-P plot, normality can be assumed since there is only a slight deviation from the normal distribution line. Moreover, from the scatter plot we can see that the values are fairly distributed around zero which is indicative of homoscedasticity.

Organisational justice and work context

Tables 6.27 and 6.28 summarise the results of regression analysis investigating the impact of the factors PJ and DJ on work context (WC).

Table 6.27: Model summary of organisational justice and work context

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	.605	.366	50.266	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant) PJ and DJ

Table 6.28: Regression coefficients for organisational justice and work context

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.697	.191		8.877	.000
Procedural Justice	.097	.075	.119	1.300	.195
Distributive Justice	.452	.083	.499	5.468	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WC

Table 6.27 indicates that the F-test is statistically significant as the p-value is <0.001, indicating that the regression coefficients are significantly different from zero and the adjusted R-square value of 0.366 indicates that 36.6% of the variance in the factor WC is explained by the model. As indicated in Table 6.28, DJ is a strong (std Beta = 0.499) statistically significant predictor of the WC. This implies that DJ influences WC and in turn JS.

Figures A5a and A5b provide the P-P plot and a plot of the standardised residuals by the standardised predicted value respectively. From the P-P plot, normality can be assumed since there is only a slight deviation from the normal distribution line. Moreover, from the scatter plot we can see that the values are fairly distributed around zero which is indicative of homoscedasticity.

Organisational justice and employee loyalty

Tables 6.29 and 6.30 summarise the results of regression analysis investigating the influence of the factors PJ and DJ on employee loyalty (EL).

Table 6.29: Model summary of organisational justice and employee loyalty

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	.363	.132	23.057	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant) PJ and DJ

Table 6.30: Regression coefficients for organisational justice and employee loyalty

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.572	.305		5.160	.000
Procedural Justice	.166	.119	.149	1.389	.166
Distributive Justice	.279	.132	.227	2.120	.035

a. Dependent Variable: EL

Table 6.29 above indicates that the F-test is statistically significant as the p-value is <0.001, indicating that the regression coefficients are significantly different from zero and the adjusted R-square value of 0.132 indicates that only 13.2% of the variance in the factor EL is explained by the model. As indicated in Table 6.30, neither PJ nor DJ are (std Beta = 0.227) statistically significant predictors of EL.

Figures A6a and A6b provide the P-P plot and a plot of the standardised residuals by the standardised predicted value respectively. From the P-P plot, normality can be assumed since there is only a slight deviation from the normal distribution line. Moreover, from the scatter plot we can see that the values are fairly distributed around zero which is indicative of homoscedasticity.

6.8 RESEARCH AIM 3

To investigate the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction, a Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated. This statistical method was utilised to determine the strength and direction of the linear association between the two

variables. By examining the Pearson correlation values, we could determine whether a significant relationship existed between organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction.

Table 6. 31: Pearson correlation values

		Interaction with others	Personal value system	Personal mindset	Personal Orientation	Work Context	Emp_Loyalty
Interaction Others	Pearson Correlation	--					
	N	307					
Personal Value System	Pearson Correlation	.792**	--				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000					
	N	307	307				
Personal Mindset	Pearson Correlation	.820**	.827**	--			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000				
	N	307	307	307			
Personal Orientation	Pearson Correlation	.822**	.795**	.833**	--		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000			
	N	307	307	307	307		
Work Context	Pearson Correlation	.651**	.656**	.616**	.782**	--	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		
	N	307	307	307	307	307	
Employee loyalty	Pearson Correlation	.496**	.505**	.485**	.609**	.656**	--
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	307	307	307	307	307	307

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

These correlations show the relationships between six different variables: Interaction with Others, Personal Value System, Personal mindset, Personal Orientation, Work Context, and Employee Loyalty. The values in the table represent the Pearson correlation coefficients which measures the strength and direction of the relationships between pairs of variables.

- Interaction with others: There is no correlation between this variable and any of the other variables in the table. This means that the level of interaction with others is

not linked to an employee's engagement in organisational citizenship behaviours or job satisfaction.

- **Personal Value System:** This variable is strongly correlated with PM ($r=0.820$) and PO ($r=0.822$). Both correlations are positive, which means that an employee's personal value system is closely linked to his/her mindset which are displayed in his/her satisfaction with the job.
- **Personal Orientation:** This variable is strongly correlated with PVS ($r=0.795$), PM ($r=0.833$), and WC ($r=0.782$). These positive correlations suggest that individuals with mindsets that are aligned with the organisation are likely to be satisfied with the context of their jobs.
- **Work Context:** This variable is moderately correlated with PO ($r=0.782$) and less strongly correlated with the other variables. This suggests that people who are satisfied with their work context are likely to align their personal values and orientation with that of the organisation.
- **Employee Loyalty** is strongly correlated with PVS ($r=0.786$), PO ($r=0.786$), and WC ($r=0.656$), but only moderately correlated with IWO. This indicates that individuals that are loyal to their organisation are more likely to have a PM and PVS that align with the organisation's values, and perceive the work context as being supportive. Essentially, people who share the same values and mindset as their organisation are more likely to be committed and loyal to that organisation.

6.9 SUMMARY

The findings of the empirical study were presented in this chapter. This chapter discussed the exploratory factor analysis, descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and inferential statistics to determine the interrelationships between OJ, OCB and JS. The next chapter integrates the findings of the literature study with the findings of the empirical study.

CHAPTER 7: FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The perception of justice as it links to organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction is the foundation of this study. This chapter will outline the findings and make recommendations based on the results of the study. The reasons for undertaking the study are discussed and research gaps are identified.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The results of this study emphasised the influence of organisational justice (OJ) on organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and job satisfaction (JS). This study followed the two-factor model of OJ that was classified as procedural justice (PJ) and distributive justice (DJ) (Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993; Taşkaya & Demirkıran, 2016). Three factors of OCB were identified – personal value system (PVS), personal mindset (PM) and interaction with others (IWO). JS was categorised according to three constructs namely personal orientation (PO), employee loyalty (EL) and work context (WC). According to the analysis, a relationship between OJ and OCB exists, with different levels of OJ leading to diverse behaviours.

This research is useful for managers to learn about the significance of OJ-OCB relationships, particularly in an African socialist country with a poor, low-literacy culture like South Africa. The findings of this study will help managers improve fairness in the workplace by taking into account the fairness of the decision (DJ) and the procedures used in making a decision (PJ). Organisations should look at the fairness of decisions made by managers and how procedures and rules are applied fairly.

When procedures and rules are applied fairly, organisations create a pool of employees willing to engage in desirable OCB (Demirkıran, Taşkaya & Demirkıran, 2016). At the same time, OJ and OCB results in employee satisfaction. Satisfied employees, in turn, are less likely to leave the organisation and contribute to the performance of the organisation.

7.2 REASONS FOR UNDERTAKING THE RESEARCH

In the highly competitive job market of today, organisations need to understand the importance of treating employees fairly in order to retain and attract top talent. This study on the influence of perceptions of justice on OCB and JS sheds light on how employees' psychological and emotional well-being and their motivation to support the organisation's objectives are all impacted by how they are treated.

One of the key findings of this study is that fair treatment can lead to positive outcomes such as increased job satisfaction and citizenship behaviour. JS is a crucial aspect of employee retention, and organisations that ensure their employees are satisfied are likely to retain them for longer. Employees that feel that they are treated fairly are more likely to engage in citizenship behaviour, which benefits the organisation in the long term.

This study also highlights the moral obligations that organisations have towards their employees beyond the transaction of monetary rewards for task completion. This emphasises the importance of treating employees as individuals with emotions, aspirations, and goals. Organisations that recognise and appreciate the value of their employees are more likely to create a positive work environment that fosters motivation and engagement.

Moreover, the study underlines that the influence of fair treatment on employees is not limited to JS and OCB only. It also affects employees' psychological and emotional well-being, which is vital for their overall performance and productivity. Employees that feel like they are treated unfairly are more likely to experience stress and anxiety, which can lead to burnout and decreased productivity. On the other hand, employees that are treated fairly are more likely to experience positive emotions such as happiness and contentment, which can enhance their performance and productivity.

Overall, the study's findings suggest that organisations need to prioritise the fair treatment of their employees as an essential aspect of their business strategy. This means creating a work environment that is built on mutual trust, respect, and fairness. Organisations can achieve this by developing policies and procedures that are perceived to be transparent and fair. For instance, organisations can ensure equal opportunities for all employees,

provide regular feedback and recognition, and promote transparency and open communication.

7.3 CONCLUSIONS BASED ON THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

The purpose of the study was to investigate the influence of perceptions of justice on OCB and JS. The research questions were:

- 1) What is the relationship between OJ and OCB?
- 2) What is the relationship between OJ and JS?
- 3) What is the relationship between OCB and JS?
- 4) Are there differences in fairness perceptions, OCB and JS among employees of different ethnicity, gender, marital status, job level and educational level?
- 5) How should organisations treat their employees to promote OCB and JS?
- 6) How should organisations treat their employees to promote JS?

Table 7.1 presents an overview of the research aims and the statistical procedures and statistics that were carried out to investigate the research aims.

Table 7. 1: Summary of research aims and statistical procedures

Empirical research aim	Statistical procedure	Statistics
Research aim 1: Investigate the influence OJ has on OCB.	Correlation Analysis Regression Analysis	Pearson product-moment correlation and regression analysis
Research aim 2: Investigate the influence OJ has on JS.	Correlation Analysis Regression Analysis	Pearson product-moment correlation and regression analysis
Research aim 3: Investigate the relationship between OCB and JS.	Correlation Analysis Regression Analysis	Pearson product-moment correlation and regression analysis.
Research aim 4: Investigate whether the sample of respondents differs significantly regarding their justice perceptions, OCB and JS in terms of different ethnicity, gender, marital status, job level and educational level.	Inferential statistics	T-test Kruskal-Wallis and ANOVA
Research aim 5: Formulate recommendations on how organisations should treat	Interpretation and integration of research findings	

Empirical research aim	Statistical procedure	Statistics
their employees to promote OCB.		
Research aim 6: Formulate recommendations on how organisations should treat their employees to promote JS.	Interpretation and integration of research findings	
Research aim 7: Indicate what further research will evolve from the findings of this study.	Interpretation and integration of research findings	

7.3.1 Conclusions from Research Aim 1: Determining the relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour

Research aim 1 focused on OJ and its influence on OCB. In terms of this research objective, two factors were extracted from the data with respect to OJ namely distributive justice (DJ) and procedural justice (PJ). Concerning OCB, three factors were extracted from the data namely interaction with others (IWO), personal value system (PVS) and personal mindset (PM). The relationship between OJ and OCB is illustrated in Figure 7.1.

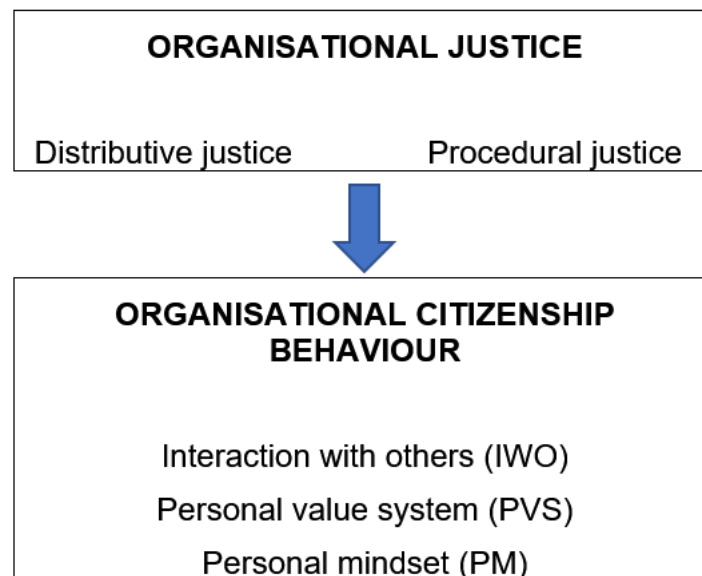


Figure 7.1: Organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational justice

7.3.1.1 Relationship between OJ and Interaction with others

IWO involves communicating with others, offering suggestions, and sharing useful knowledge or skills (Henttonen & Kess, 2017). DJ was positively correlated with IWO, which means that as DJ increased, so did IWO (Zhou, Chang & Ma, 2019; Zhang, Liu, &

Wang, 2020). On the other hand, PJ was not statistically correlated to IWO, which means that procedures are of less importance than actual decisions when it concerns individual interaction with others. (Keiningham, Aksoy, Buoye & Calvert, 2019; Mount, Ilies, R & Johnson, 2017; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997).

7.3.1.2 Relationship between OJ and personal value system

PVS consists of behaviours and beliefs that are focused on the organisation and will benefit the organisation (Liu, Li, Chen & Yang, 2019). DJ is positively correlated with PVS. The more decisions were perceived as fair by respondents, the more their personal values were aligned to the values and mission of the organisation. In such cases favourable perceptions about the fairness of decisions would result in OCB (Ngo, Loi, Zhang & Lau, 2019; Uddin, Luva & Hossain, 2019; Liu, Li, Chen & Yang, 2019).

PJ was measured by statements about the use of fair and accurate information; the application of rules and procedures in a consistent manner to all employees; the consistent application of selection criteria for appointments and promotions; and empowering employees to use their personal initiatives. Positive perceptions of fairness in PJ were found to raise employees' motivation to aid their work group willingly and to increase the quality of their work performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2019; Colquitt, 2019; Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon & Wesson, 2019; Judge & Piccolo, 2019; Skarlicki & van Jaarsveld, 2019).

7.3.1.3 Relationship between OJ and Personal Mindset

PM relates to how people deal with situations in the most appropriate manner (Dulewicz, Higgs & Slaski, 2019). DJ is positively correlated with PM. This means that if employees perceive higher levels of DJ, they are more likely to feel positive about their organisation and their ability to deal with complex situations (Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon & Wesson, 2019). However, PJ was not significantly related to PM. Fair procedures will not guarantee that employees will go beyond the call of duty to perform their duties. It can be assumed that employees expect fair procedures and policies and do not regard it as a motivator to exceed performance expectations (Treviño & Nelson, 2019; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2019).

7.3.2 Conclusions drawn from Research Aim 2: Determining the relationship between organisational justice and job satisfaction

Research aim 2 focused on OJ and its influence on JS. Three factors were extracted from the data concerning job satisfaction namely personal orientation (PO), work context (WC) and employee loyalty (EL). The factors identified in the study are shown in Figure 7.2.



Figure 7.2: Relationship between Organisational Justice and Job satisfaction

The findings from each category are discussed briefly in the section below.

7.3.2.1 The relationship between OJ and personal orientation

Personal orientation refers to how employees feel about their work and life in general (Zhou, Chang & Ma, 2019). PO refers to matters such as household income, managerial responsibility, and financial responsibility. According to the results, DJ and PO are positively correlated. An increase in DJ leads to an increase in how connected and committed employees feel towards the organisation. This result is supported by Zhou, Chang and Ma (2019) as well as Van den Bos and Lind (2019). However, PJ was not significantly correlated to PO. This implies that the degree to which employees feel positively about their work and life in general (PO) depends on factors other than the perceived fairness of procedures. (Cheng, Wang, Lu & Wang, 2019; Bhatti, Alvi & Rizwan, 2019). Employees would thus place a higher value on the fairness of a decision than on the perceived fairness of procedures because the actual outcomes of a decision are linked to their personal beliefs and value system.

7.3.2.2 The relationship between OJ and work context

Work context refers to general conditions at work such as pay, benefits, employment, hierarchy, reporting structure, development opportunities, the working environment, and the nature of the relationships with one's colleagues (Liao, Joshi, & Chuang, 2021).

The study found a significant and positive correlation between DJ and WC. This means that when decisions about pay levels, development opportunities, and other work conditions were perceived as being fair, employees experienced a more positive work environment.

The link between PJ and WC was not statistically significant. Fairness in the workplace did not ensure that employees would regard their work environment as pleasant.

7.3.2.3 The relationship between OJ and employee loyalty

Employee loyalty refers to the level to which employees are committed to the success of the organisation and that working for the employer is in their best interest (Van den Bos & Lind, 2019). The results indicate that DJ is positively linked to EL. This means that employees may feel valued when they are paid at the same level or more than others doing the same job elsewhere. Individuals utilise different justice standards such as needs, equality, and equity to proactively evaluate the fairness of decisions in a given circumstance (Xerri, 2014; Greenberg, 2017; Jaiswal & Dhar, 2019; Liu, Li, Li & Chen, 2019). When employees perceive decisions about pay, opportunities, training, and performance evaluation to be fair, they are likely to display employee loyalty.

On the other hand, PJ was not significantly correlated to EL. This finding is in line with similar findings reported by Montes-Botella, Medina-Moreno and Pérez-Rodríguez (2019), Sánchez-Teba, Jiménez-Jiménez, Martínez-Costa and Lloréns-Montes (2019) and Yoon and Kim (2019). Employees are more concerned about the fairness of decisions than with how policies and procedures are applied. To summarise, DJ was related to all three factors of JS whereas PJ was not related to any of the three factors of JS.

7.3.3 Conclusions drawn from Research Aim 3: Determining the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction

Positive statistically significant relationships were found between all the factors of JS and OCB. Three factors were extracted from the data with respect to OCB – personal value system (PVS), interaction with others (IWO) and personal mindset (PM). Job satisfaction consisted of three factors – personal orientation (PO), work context (WC) and employee loyalty (EL).

Table 6.36 displays the Pearson correlation coefficients between IWO, PVS, PM, PO, WC, and EL. The table reveals significant and positive correlations between all the variables measured. Specifically, PVS and PM show a strong positive correlation, indicating that when individuals' personal values and mindset are aligned, they are likely to experience job satisfaction in terms of personal commitment, work environment and loyalty. This result is consistent with prior research that has identified a link between PVS and behaviour (Dweck, 2017; Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004).

Furthermore, IWO allows employees to experience the work environment as conducive and pleasant. This result is in line with previous research on social networks which has shown that people tend to form ties with others that are like them in terms of demographics, interests, and social status and this contributes to a conducive work environment (McPherson, Smith-Lovin & Cook, 2001).

Lastly, WC and EL demonstrates a strong positive correlation, indicating that individuals that work in pleasant work environments are more likely to remain loyal to their employer. This result is consistent with prior research on organisational culture which suggests that the culture of an organisation has a significant impact on employee attitudes and behaviours, including job satisfaction and loyalty (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Overall, the significant correlations between the variables measured in this study suggest that they are interrelated and influence each other. Further research is needed to investigate causal relationships between these variables and the mechanisms that underpin these relationships.

7.3.4 Conclusions drawn from Research Aim 4: Investigating whether the sample of respondents differs significantly regarding their justice perceptions, organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction according to gender, marital status, ethnicity, educational level and job level

Various tests were conducted to investigate research aim 4. T-tests were used to investigate whether gender and marital status played a significant role regarding OJ, OCB and JS. A Kruskal-Wallis's test was used to investigate whether ethnicity played a significant role in OJ, OCB and JS. Lastly, for educational and staff categories, ANOVA tests were used. The findings from each category are discussed in the sections below.

7.3.4.1 Gender

The study found that there were significant differences between men and women in terms of their perception of PJ, with men showing higher levels of PJ than women. This finding supports previous studies that suggest that men are particularly concerned with procedural fairness (Cai, Zhu & Lin, 2019; Wang, Zhu & Zheng, 2019; Hosseinian, Yazdani & Kargar, 2019).

The study also found that when there is a lack of PJ in the workplace, employees are less likely to be loyal (EL) and may have negative perceptions and attitudes that lead to intentions to resign. However, the difference between men and women in terms of EL was not significant (Khusro & Qamar, 2019; Li, Zhang, Li & Liang, 2019).

The results indicate that there was no significant difference in the feelings of men and women towards OCB and JS (O'Flynn & Gausden, 2019). This means that there is no evidence to support the belief that men and women have different attitudes towards displaying organisational citizenship behaviour or experiencing different levels of job satisfaction.

7.3.4.2 Marital status

According to the results, marital status played a significant role with regard to PJ and DJ. The results indicated that married individuals were more concerned with PJ than single individuals. This finding is consistent with previous research that showed a positive

relationship between marital status and PJ (Smith, 2019). Married people may benefit from the social support and stability within the framework provided by their marital status, which can greatly support a sense of PJ.

While an employee's perception of justice may be unimportant at the start of their career, it will become more important as they grow older and get married. In such a case, if the organisation fails to adhere to fairness principles, it may lose those employees who are older, mature and truly skilled. Furthermore, the results found that PVS linked to OCB is more important to married employees than to single employees. People have very different perspectives on the world. Due to the added responsibilities that come with marriage, married employees may view their jobs as being more valuable and significant. Those who are single, divorced, or widowed, however, have different needs than those who are married because they may have fewer responsibilities. Management must learn how to mentor staff members with different perceptions. No statistically significant difference regarding marital status were found for IWO, PM, PO, WC and EL.

Similarly, married individuals were also more concerned about DJ compared to single individuals. Previous research found a positive relationship between marital status and perceptions of resource allocation fairness in organisations (Johnson & Smith, 2018). The results indicated that both single and married people engage in IWO at a high level and exhibit strong PVS. These findings are consistent with previous research showing no significant differences in OCB based on marital status (Brown & Johnson, 2017). Single and married individuals demonstrate a desire for active participation and support their organisation equally well. The data do however suggest that married employees place a higher value on interaction with others and PVS, but this difference was small and not statistically significant. Previous studies have reported mixed findings on the effect of marital status on OCB. Some studies suggest that being married is associated with higher levels of OCB, such as supporting colleagues and going beyond formal job requirements (Smith & Wilson, 2016), but other studies found no significant differences in OCB based on marital status (Johnson & Smith, 2018).

Both single and married individuals reported relatively high levels of JS. This finding is consistent with previous research that has shown no significant differences in overall JS based on marital status (Miller, Lu & Yang, 2019). JS is influenced by various factors,

including work-life balance, career development opportunities, and job characteristics, which may be independent of marital status.

The results indicate that married individuals have slightly higher levels of satisfaction in terms of PO and the WC compared to single individuals. While these differences are minor, previous studies have also reported similar findings, suggesting that being married is associated with slightly higher levels of JS (Johnson & Brown, 2017). The presence of a supportive marital relationship may contribute to a more positive outlook and satisfaction with personal and work-related aspects of life.

The results indicated that both single and married individuals exhibit moderate levels of EL, with no significant difference between the two groups. This finding is consistent with previous research that has found no significant association between marital status and EL (Smith & Wilson, 2016). EL is influenced by various factors, including JS, organisational commitment, and perceived support from the organisation, which may not be directly affected by marital status.

7.3.4.3 Ethnicity

This study did not find any statistically significant differences in the perception of PJ and DJ among the different ethnic groups. However, this study found significant differences in perceptions of OCB across the ethnic groups. Black employees rated the IWO and PVS of less importance to OCB compared to other ethnic groups, while White employees rated these factors as most important for OCB. There was a difference in importance with respect to PO with Whites being more concerned about PO compared to employees from other ethnic groups.

In cases where elements of PJ seem to be perceived differently across ethnicity, the significant differences in IWO may signify passive, embedded weak synergies present in interactional diversity and engagement among the employees. Where minority groups are not represented at top management level, aspects of anxiety, uncertainty, and alienation may occur which could affect or disrupt the work ethic of the affected groups or individuals (Colquit et al., 2015; Parivash & Bidarian, 2012).

According to Colquit et al. (2015), people from different ethnicity groups may behave quite differently when faced with similar situations. According to this study, Black people have different perceptions of IWO and PVS compared to White people who consider IWO and PVS to be very important to OCB. These findings point to a possible need for social events that “break the ice” to encourage dialogue during such events, transcending into improved interaction in the workplace and in turn, creating collaboration synergies. Spector (2018) proposes that employees' perceptions of PVS and IWO may be impacted by cultural difference in terms of individualist or collectivist orientation because they may view the relationship as having varying levels of importance depending on their values and belief systems that feed and shape PO. With regard to JS, PO is the least important to Blacks but the most important to Whites.

Studies by Spector (2018) identified self-assertiveness, acceptance of aggression, inner support, time competence, synergy, and spontaneity as part of personal orientation. These elements may need conscious awareness from management to ensure PO elements are embedded in the development of training programmes (Baldwin, 2015).

These findings suggest that dysfunctional, inherently poor cohesion may be present in networks. Ethnically diverse staffing and social structures that encourage dialogue and communication flow may be needed in the workplace to overcome differences in personal value systems and interaction with others. It is also important for staff to be aware of cultural differences that may affect staff perceptions of PVS and IWO.

Management may need to ensure that certain individual psychological factors such as self-efficacy and internal support are included in training programmes to improve JS among all employees, regardless of ethnicity. In simple terms, these findings suggest that different ethnic groups have different perspectives on fairness, behave differently at work, and have varying levels of JS. It is important for organisations to be aware of these differences and ensure fairness and inclusivity for all employees.

7.3.4.4 Educational/ Qualification

The study found that individuals with higher levels of education tend to exhibit more positive perceptions and behaviours in various aspects of OJ, OCB and JS. Participants with postgraduate (Honours and Masters) and diploma education levels expressed a

strong belief in justice, engaged in IWO, aligned their PVS with the organisation's values, displayed a positive PM, and reported high levels of JS.

These findings are supported by previous research that showed a positive correlation between higher education levels and JS (Hou, Liu, & Zhang, 2020; Joshi & Verma, 2016; Gyensare, 2015). Additionally, other studies have shown that higher education levels can contribute to a more positive perception of OJ (Nagaraju, 2019) and stronger engagement in OCB (Khalid, Shahzad, Mahmood & Mubeen, 2018).

However, it is important to note that individuals with diverse educational backgrounds, including those with a lower level of formal education such as Grade 12 and below, also exhibited positive perceptions and behaviours with regard to these variables. This is consistent with previous research that has shown that JS is not solely dependent on educational level (Zheng, Zhu, Li & Li, 2020).

Organisations should focus on promoting a fair and equitable work environment, encouraging positive behaviours, and nurturing a strong sense of value alignment and positive PM among employees, regardless of their educational level. This can lead to increased JS and overall organisational success.

7.3.4.5 Organisational/job level/ staff level/ job title

The results indicate that occupational level has a significant impact on OJ, OCB and JS. In terms of PJ, the study found that clerical staff perceived fair implementation of procedures in their organisation. This finding is consistent with a similar study by Brown and Johnson (2019) that also reported a positive perception of PJ among clerical staff members. However, in contrast to this study's findings, Anderson and Wilson (2018) found that clerical staff may have a more critical perception of PJ due to perceived inconsistencies in procedures. Middle management, on the other hand, holds a higher perception of fairness in procedures compared to clerical staff (Jones & Brown, 2021). A contrary finding by Johnson and Wilson (2021) suggests that middle management may have a lower perception of PJ due to increased pressure and complexity in decision-making. The supervisory level exhibits the highest perception of PJ, indicating a strong belief in the fairness and consistency of the implemented procedures (Lee & Smith, 2022). Similar findings were reported by Wilson and Thompson (2023) which also found that

supervisory level employees have a significantly higher perception of PJ compared to staff on lower levels.

Regarding DJ, the study indicates that clerical staff perceived a fair distribution of rewards and outcomes within the organisation (Anderson & Johnson, 2023). This finding is consistent with Garcia and Thompson (2021), who also reported positive perceptions of DJ among clerical staff. However, opposing our findings, Johnson and Brown (2020) found that clerical staff may have a lower perception of DJ due to perceived inequities in reward allocation. Middle management demonstrates a strong belief in fair distribution compared to the clerical staff (Miller & Davis, 2022). According to Garcia (2019), middle management may have a more favourable perception of DJ due to having more power and authority in addressing inequities within the organisation. Similar findings were reported by Wilson and Johnson (2022), confirming that supervisory level employees perceive a significantly higher level of DJ compared to staff on other levels.

Regarding OCB, the study found that clerical staff members engage in positive IWO, demonstrate a positive PVS, and possess a favourable PM (Chen & Wang, 2020). This finding is consistent with a study by Davis and Smith (2019) that also reported positive OCB among clerical staff members. However, in contrast, Miller and Jackson (2021) found that clerical staff may display lower levels of OCB due to job constraints and limited autonomy. Middle management members also display similar OCB tendencies but with slightly higher scores, indicating more positive engagement and collaboration (Wilson & Thompson, 2022). Supervisors exhibit the highest level of OCB, demonstrating the most positive IWO, a strong PVS, and a highly favourable PM (Liu et al., 2023). Similar findings were reported in a study by Peterson and Anderson (2020) which found that supervisory level employees exhibit significantly higher levels of OCB compared to staff on other levels.

In terms of JS, the study reveals that clerical staff members report a positive PO towards JS, indicating overall contentment with their work. This finding is consistent with a study by Baker and Green (2022) that also reported high levels of JS among clerical staff. However, in contrast to these findings, Johnson and Wilson (2021) found that clerical staff may experience lower JS due to limited growth opportunities and job autonomy. Middle management exhibits a similar level of JS as the clerical staff (Miller & Brown, 2020).

Thompson and Davis (2019) found that middle management may experience lower JS due to increased responsibilities and pressure. The supervisory level, on the other hand, demonstrates the highest level of JS, indicating a strong sense of fulfilment and satisfaction with their roles (Wilson et al., 2023). Similar findings were reported in a study by Peterson and Anderson (2022) which found that supervisory level employees experience significantly higher levels of JS compared to staff on other levels.

The study also examined WC and EL as factors of JS. It found that the clerical staff reported positive satisfaction with their WC (Davis et al., 2021). This finding aligns with a study by Thompson et al. (2022) that also reported high satisfaction with the WC among clerical staff. However, in contrast, Gupta and Sharma (2020) found that clerical staff may have lower satisfaction with WC due to high workload and role ambiguity. Middle management members also reported positive satisfaction with the WC, indicating a favourable work environment (Miller & Wilson, 2021). Johnson and Garcia (2018) found that middle management may have lower satisfaction with WC due to organisational politics and lack of resources. The supervisory level exhibited the highest level of satisfaction with WC, indicating a highly positive work environment (Ng & Feldman, 2018). Similar findings were reported in a study by Thompson and Anderson (2022) which found that supervisory level employees had significantly higher satisfaction with WC compared to staff on other levels.

These findings provide insights into the perceptions and behaviours of staff at different levels within the organisation, highlighting the importance of OJ, OCB and JS. However, it is essential to consider opposing viewpoints and variations in findings across different studies, recognising that individual and contextual factors can influence these relationships. Further research is needed to delve deeper into the dynamics and factors affecting these outcomes across staff levels.

7.3.5 Research Aim 5: Strategies to promote and enhance organisational citizenship behaviour

According to the results, establishing OCB as an organisational culture could lead to high productivity and performance. As such, the net effect of a desirable OCB as a culture synonymous among employees is high productivity and performance. Some of the strategies that organisations can employ to enhance OCB includes the following:

7.3.5.1 Encourage and recognise employees who display OCB

Managers should recognise and appreciate employees that go beyond their job responsibilities by demonstrating OCB. This creates a positive work culture and will motivate employees to continue to display OCB.

7.3.5.2 Provide training opportunities

Organisations can offer training programmes that enhance skills such as teamwork, communication, and conflict resolution, which are important for demonstrating OCB.

7.3.5.2 Foster a positive work environment

Creating a positive work environment that fosters respect, cooperation, and valuable contributions can motivate employees to exhibit OCB. Organisations can provide opportunities for employees to network and network through team-building activities, social events, and employee recognition events.

7.3.5.3 Implement and enforce ethical conduct

Organisations should have a clearly defined code of ethics that encourages honesty, integrity and accountability in the workplace. This will encourage employees to maintain appropriate ethical standards, especially while doing their job, which is an important aspect of OCB.

7.3.5.4 Set clear expectations and goals

Managers should set clear expectations and goals for their employees and give them feedback on their performance. This will give employees a sense of direction and purpose, which will motivate them to exhibit OCB to help the organisation achieve its goals.

7.3.5.5 Promote employee-family social events

Social event participation often encourages embracing diversity between employees. Hence, fostering a sense of “we are a community” among employees, that goes beyond just work, generates a culture of support and enables employees to act as ambassadors of the organisation. Because of the resultant increase in employee morale, synergy is created. Competitiveness will likely influence interactional dialogues that are social

among workforces, thereby shaping the organisational culture into one where diversity is not the barrier, but an enabler to knowledge sharing and cooperation.

7.3.6 Research Aim 6: Recommendations on how organisations should treat their employees to promote job satisfaction

Employee JS is a critical factor in the success of any organisation. When employees are satisfied with their jobs, they are more motivated, engaged, and productive. Therefore, it is crucial for organisations to understand how to create a work environment that promotes JS among their employees. In this research aim, various recommendations that organisations can implement to treat their employees in ways that promote JS are provided.

7.3.6.1 Create a conducive work environment

Organisations can create a pleasant working environment by ensuring that the workplace is clean and tidy, and by providing employees with the tools and facilities they need to do their jobs effectively. Newsletters to celebrate the achievement of the organisation and employees will create positivity.

7.3.6.2 Ensure fair compensation

Offering fair and competitive compensation is essential to job satisfaction. Regularly analysing every aspect of an organisation's compensation policy and maintaining compensation levels that are consistent with similar jobs in an external environment can help ensure that compensation programmes are competitive.

7.3.6.3 Provide learning opportunities

Employees provided with professional development opportunities are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. The organisation should conduct a training needs analysis on a regular basis and provide appropriate training. Resources such as funds, time off and work flexibility should be made available to encourage employees to attend seminars and conferences.

7.3.6.5 Encourage open communication

Organisations need to create an environment where employees feel comfortable sharing their ideas and feedback. This can be done through regular group meetings, suggestion boxes and anonymous surveys. This will help employees feel heard and valued.

7.3.6.6 Encourage work-life balance

By providing workplace flexibility such as flexible working hours and working from home may allow employees to achieve work-life balance and experience job satisfaction.

7.3.6.7 Develop positive relationships

An organisation can use team building activities to strengthen and improve co-worker relationships. Social media groups run by employees in different departments of an organisation can also help foster positive relationships.

7.3.6.7 Provide stability

Employees feel more secure in their jobs when they receive effective, efficient and transparent communication. Regularly informing employees about the organisation's financial status, goals and strategic objectives can help ensure business stability.

7.4 INTEGRATION OF STUDY OBJECTIVES AND FINDINGS

The research conducted in this study was intricately linked to the discussion of the study objectives, as it aimed to investigate and analyse the relationship between OJ, OCB, and JS. By aligning the research findings with the study objectives, the study effectively demonstrated how the data collected contributed to achieving the research aims and objectives outlined at the onset of the study.

One of the primary study objectives was to conceptualise and operationalise OJ, OCB and JS. Through a thorough examination of these constructs, the research sought to provide a clear understanding of how OJ influences employee behaviour and attitudes within the workplace. By linking the research findings to this objective, the study could showcase how the data collected contributed to defining and measuring these key variables.

Furthermore, the study objectives included exploring the impact of OJ on OCB and JS. By analysing the data collected through surveys and questionnaires, the research aimed to uncover the extent to which perceptions of fairness and justice within the organisation influenced employees' willingness to engage in OCB and their overall JS levels. The discussion of the research findings in relation to this objective allowed for a deeper understanding of the mechanisms through which OJ affected employee behaviour and attitudes.

Another key study objective was to examine the mediating role of OCB in the relationship between OJ and JS. By investigating how OCB acted as a mediator in this relationship, the research aimed to provide insights into the underlying processes that linked perceptions of fairness with job satisfaction outcomes. By linking the research outcomes to this objective, the study could elucidate the pathways through which OJ impacted JS through the mediating effect of OCB.

Moreover, the study objectives also included exploring individual differences in perceptions of fairness, OCB, and JS among employees of different demographic backgrounds such as ethnicity, gender, marital status, job level, and educational level. By analysing the data to identify statistical differences based on these demographic variables, the research aimed to provide a nuanced understanding of how OJ and JS varied across different employee groups. The discussion of these findings in relation to the study objectives allowed for a comprehensive exploration of the factors that influenced employee perceptions and attitudes within the organisation.

By linking the research findings to the study objectives, the study effectively demonstrated how the data collected contributed to achieving a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between OJ, OCB, and JS. Through a systematic analysis of the research outcomes in relation to the study objectives, the study provided valuable insights into the mechanisms through which OJ influenced employee behaviour and attitudes, thereby contributing to the existing body of knowledge in the field of organisational behaviour and human resource management.

7.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The interest in OJ continues to grow and expand, and researchers are investigating the role of justice in a variety of situations. It is recommended that the findings of the study

be extended to include other industries such as service, manufacturing, and industrial organisations. This would increase the generalisability of the findings.

Numerous researchers have proposed various characteristics of OJ, including PJ, DJ, interactional justice (IJ), consisting of informational and interpersonal justice. Nevertheless, the only organisational justice factors that played a key role in this study were DJ and PJ. Further studies may expand on the importance of informational and interpersonal justice. This study focused primarily on entry-level and less experienced employees. Future studies in other environments may improve the generalisability of the findings by including employees from all staff levels.

Future research into value and belief systems and their implications for PO among different demographic groups may provide additional insight on how OJ can be improved.

7.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The term "organisational justice" describes how people view fairness in organisations. Researchers in organisational behaviour and human resources management have previously shown a strong interest in this construct. This study aimed to create a better understanding of OJ and how it influences employees' preparedness to engage in OCB. The understanding was that fairness would contribute as a motivator to engage in extra-role behaviour and promote JS.

This study intended to provide managers with guidelines on how employees' justice perceptions influence their work behaviour and satisfaction levels. Fairness has a positive effect on productivity and employees' intention to remain with an organisation. Strategies to retain valuable employees, and to increase employee commitment and satisfaction have been recommended.

7.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are limitations associated with this study, as with all studies. The sample used and the generalisability of the findings posed a challenge. The experience of employees within a given organisational context is often the basis with most organisational research

studies. This study attempted to achieve external validity by gathering data from a representative sample. It is acknowledged that the sample cannot be considered representative of the larger South African population. The Pretoria-based financial services organisation has been a useful site for collecting data from a wide range of people, but only people who either had access to a computer or had access to the internet were included in the sample. The sample was not equally represented by the different biographical groups based on age, gender, ethnicity, and level of employment.

Secondly, the OJ measurement instrument assessed the participants' perceptions in terms of the extent to which these behaviours influenced their OCB and job satisfaction. Therefore, there was no "objective" indicator of the actual amount of justice they had received. The experience of justice is fundamentally subjective and it is, therefore, difficult to provide exact guidelines on how justice should be managed. Gathering OJ data from various organisations is one way to overcome this problem in future studies.

Finally, the respondents do not all interpret scales in the same manner and what might be dissatisfactory for one could be judged as acceptable by others. This could result in skewed data.

7.8 CONCLUSIONS

The research investigated the influence of perceptions of OJ on OCB and JS among employees in a finance-based firm. The research managed to gather data from 307 participants. Exploratory factor analysis was successfully used as a data reduction technique. It parsimoniously explained the co-variation between a large number of variables. It identified common factors that explained the order and structure of the observed variables. Regarding the objectives of the study, two factors were extracted from the data with respect to OJ: distributive justice (DJ) and procedural justice (PJ). Concerning OCB, three factors were extracted from the data namely interaction with others (IWO), personal value system (PVS) and personal mindset (PM). Regarding Job satisfaction, three factors were extracted from the data namely personal orientation (PS), work context (WC) and employee loyalty (EL).

Conclusions from the research aim to investigate OJ's influence on OCB revealed that DJ plays a crucial role in influencing OCB in terms of interaction with others and Personal mindset, while PJ may have a less pronounced impact on these factors. The fairness of decisions within an organisation can positively affect employee engagement in terms of communication, sharing of knowledge, and handling complex situations. Understanding and implementing fair OJ practices can promote a positive work environment and enhance employee engagement and performance.

Research aim 2 intended to determine the relationship between OJ and JS. The results revealed that DJ plays a crucial role in determining JS, while PJ was not significantly related to personal orientation, work context or loyalty.

Conclusions drawn from research aim 3, which is to determine the relationship between, OCB and JS, revealed that there is a strong relationship between OCB and JS. Satisfied employees are likely to engage in OCB and perform duties not prescribed in formal job descriptions. The results provide valuable insights into the dynamics between employee behaviour, attitudes, and job satisfaction.

Conclusions drawn from research aim 4, which was to determine the differences in fairness perceptions, OCB and JS among employees of different ethnicity, gender, marital status, job level and educational level, revealed that gender differences exist with regard to PJ, with men perceiving higher levels than women. Marital status is associated with higher perceptions of justice, and both single and married individuals display positive behaviours in terms of OCB and JS. Ethnicity, education and staff level also influence perceptions of OJ, OCB, JS. Whites were the most concerned about PO, whereas staff with higher education levels and supervisors were the most prepared to engage in OCB and experienced the highest levels of job satisfaction.

The recommended strategies to promote and enhance OCB include recognising and appreciating OCBs, providing training opportunities, fostering a positive work environment, implementing ethical standards, setting clear expectations and goals, ensuring fair compensation, providing learning opportunities, acknowledging employee contributions, encouraging open communication and work-life balance, developing positive relationships, and providing stability through effective communication.

The recommended strategies on how organisations should treat their employees to promote JS include creating a positive workplace by ensuring cleanliness and providing necessary tools, offering fair compensation that aligns with industry standards, providing learning opportunities through training programmes and professional development, acknowledging employee contributions through recognition systems, fostering open communication through meetings and surveys, encouraging work-life balance with flexible hours, developing positive relationships through team-building activities and social media groups, and providing stability by transparently communicating organisational goals and financial status.

Future research should aim to broaden the scope of OJ, investigate additional justice factors, replicate findings in diverse environments, and explore the role of values and belief systems in shaping perceptions of justice. These efforts will contribute to a deeper understanding of OJ and its implications for employee behaviour.

7.9 SUMMARY

This chapter provided an overview of the findings of this study. The chapter also emphasised the distinctive way in which this research contributes to the body of knowledge. Recommendations were made on how organisations could ensure fairness, promote OCB and enhance job satisfaction.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Prospective participant,

You are invited to participate in a survey conducted by Gudani Mudau, under the supervision of Professor M. Coetzee, a professor, in the Department of Human Resources Management towards MCom (Masters) Business Management, at the University of South Africa.

The survey you have received has been designed to study the influence of justice perceptions on organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction. You were selected to participate in this survey because we think you have probably experienced issues of justice in the past and would be able to comment on how it affected your behaviour in the workplace and the satisfaction with your job. By completing this survey, you agree that the information you provide may be used for research purposes, including dissemination through peer-reviewed publications and conference proceedings.

It is anticipated that the information we gain from this survey will help us to provide guidelines to help managers better understand perceptions of justice from the employees' point of view and increase job satisfaction. You are, however, under no obligation to complete the survey and you can withdraw from the study prior to submitting the survey. Your input will play a valuable part in our efforts to create fairness in the workplace and to help employees engage in behaviours that will create job satisfaction and make the workplace a better place. The survey is developed to be anonymous, meaning that we will have no way of connecting the information

that you provide to you personally. Consequently, you will not be able to withdraw from the study once you have clicked the send button based on the anonymous nature of the survey. If you choose to participate in this survey it will take up no more than 20 minutes of your time. You will not benefit from your participation as an individual, however, it is envisioned that the findings of this study will help managers to improve their decision making while deciding the outcomes (distributive justice), implementing the rules (procedural justice) and dealing with the employees (interactional justice). We do not foresee that you will experience any negative consequences by completing the survey. The researcher(s) undertake to keep any information provided herein confidential, not to let it out of our possession and to report on the findings from the perspective of the participating group and not from the perspective of an individual.

The records will be kept for five years for audit purposes where after it all electronic versions will be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer. The results of the study will be published without information that identifies participants. Your employer will be provided with the overall results of the study which excludes information that identifies individual responses. You will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for your participation in the survey.

The research study was approved by the Group Executive HR Director of Assupol. Gudani Mudau as the primary researcher, must adhere to the ethical standards of University of South Africa and cannot use his position as an Assupol HR representative to share information obtained from you with your employer. The primary researcher, Gudani Mudau, can be contacted during office hours at 012 741 4169 or email at gudanim@gmail.com. The study leader, Prof. M Coetzee, can be contacted during office hours at Coetzm@unisa.ac.za. Should you have any questions regarding the ethical aspects of the study, you can contact the chairperson of the UNISA ERC Prof EL Kempen, kempeel@unisa.ac.za. Alternatively, you can report any serious unethical behaviour at the University's Toll-Free Hotline 0800 86 96 93.

You are making a decision whether or not to participate by continuing to the next page. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time prior to clicking the send button.

A PERSONAL PARTICULARS (please tick the appropriate block)

1 GENDER

Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
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2 ETHNICITY

Black	<input type="checkbox"/>
White	<input type="checkbox"/>
Coloured	<input type="checkbox"/>
Asian	<input type="checkbox"/>
Indian	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>

3 AGE (years)

<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
----------------------	----------------------

4 MARITAL STATUS

Single (incl divorced, widowed)	<input type="checkbox"/>	Married (incl living together)	<input type="checkbox"/>
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8 STAFF CATEGORY

Top management E/F	<input type="checkbox"/>
-----------------------	--------------------------

Middle management M/P	
Supervisory level T	
Clerical staff A/B	

9 HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

Lower than Grade 12		Degree	
Grade 12		Honours degree	
Certificate (1 year)		Master's degree	
Diploma (3 years)		Doctor's degree	

Answer the following questions about your supervisor:

12 ETHNICITY OF SUPERVISOR

Black		White		Coloured		Asian	
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13 GENDER OF SUPERVISOR

Male		Female	
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B ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

Section B contains items relating to your perception of justice within your job and organisation. Indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

	Statement	Strongly disagree Strongly agree					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Employees are provided with opportunities to express their views on work-related matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Supervisors make use of joint decision making.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Organisation rules and procedures are applied consistently to all employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Selection criteria for appointments/promotions are applied consistently.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	The organisation makes decisions based on fair and accurate information.	1	2	3	4	5	6

6	Employees can utilise appeal procedures to resolve issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Managers are held accountable for their actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	The allocation of funds for training is done in a fair and transparent manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Rewards reflect the effort that employees put into their work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	The most competent and qualified employees are promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Employees are given jobs that give them the opportunity to use their personal initiative or judgement in completing a task.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Employees are given fair workloads.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	In general, employees are treated with respect.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Managers consider input from employees before making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Employees can challenge decisions without fear of victimisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	The organisation's culture and practices prevent managers from abusing their power.	1	2	3	4	5	6

17	Managers are expected and held accountable for upholding ethical standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	My organisation is transparent as regards to remuneration practices.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Supervisors provide constructive feedback on work performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Organisation policies and procedures are available and easily accessible.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Employees receive regular communication on organisational events.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Employees are at ease when attending social events because such events do take cultural differences into consideration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	My organisation has a zero tolerance for discrimination.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Employees are allowed to determine their own work pace, order of tasks and work methods.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	Employees are provided with adequate resources to complete their tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6

C ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Section C contains items relating to your citizenship behaviour on your job and organisation.

	Statement	Strongly disagree			Strongly agree		
1	I often help others with their tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I willingly work overtime to complete urgent tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am patient with newly appointed colleagues who still need to master the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I show genuine concern and courtesy towards co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I tolerate injustices in order to prevent conflict.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I do not abuse sick leave or take unnecessarily long breaks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I attend work meetings even if it is not directly related to my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I share ideas for new projects or developments widely.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Statement	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree					
		1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I keep up with developments in the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I do report wrongdoing and dishonesty of others if it harms the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I show pride when representing the organisation in public.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I am proud to be associated with my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I do not misuse the organisation's resources (paper, internet, telephone etc).	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I voice my concerns for the better of the organisation even if it means challenging authority.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I abide by the rules and regulations of the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I am punctual for work and meetings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I make an effort to acquire new skills that will benefit the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I often volunteer to participate in task groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	I am willing to bear inconveniences that may arise in the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I speak highly of my organisation outside of the work environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Statement	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	5	6
23	I am prepared to make sacrifices in the best interest of the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	5	6
24	I look out for the well-being of my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	5	6
25	I upheld ethically and sound moral values when performing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	5	6

D JOB SATISFACTION

Section D contains items relating to your satisfaction with your job and organisation. The descriptive statements are listed to provide a description of how you feel about your job and organisation. Judge how each statement fits you. PLEASE BE HONEST!!

	Statement	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	5	6
1	I stay informed about the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	5	6
2	I keep my workplace clean and tidy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	5	6
3	I make suggestions to improve operations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	5	6
4	I do not stay away from work without a valid reason.	1	2	3	4	5	6	5	6

	Statement	Strongly disagree				Strongly agree	
5	I do everything possible to meet deadlines, even if it means working overtime without pay.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I seldom think about quitting my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I share ideas for new projects or improvements widely.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I perform extra duties and responsibilities to enhance my career prospects.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I complete tasks beyond what is required.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I show up for work early so that I can get things ready.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I enjoy my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I find my work environment pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	My job is more than merely an eight-to-five job which enables me to make a living.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I will not resign because the organisation has done a lot for me and I feel obliged to continue employment with it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I cannot resign because the costs associated with leaving the organisation are too high (eg retirement, medical and leave benefits).	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I will not resign because I like my job and enjoy working for the employer.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Statement	Strongly disagree				Strongly agree	
18	I make the most of learning opportunities provided to me by the employer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I doubt whether hard work will lead to a promotion because of employment equity requirements.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I stay with my employer mainly because of the scarcity of alternative employment opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	I attend social functions regularly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I will consider a job offer from another company only if it is <i>considerably</i> better than my current job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I regard my colleagues as friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	The organisation really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	My manager recognises me for work done well.	1	2	3	4	5	6

MANY THANKS FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX A1: Organisational justice and interaction with others

Figure A1 C: Residual P-P plot for interaction with others

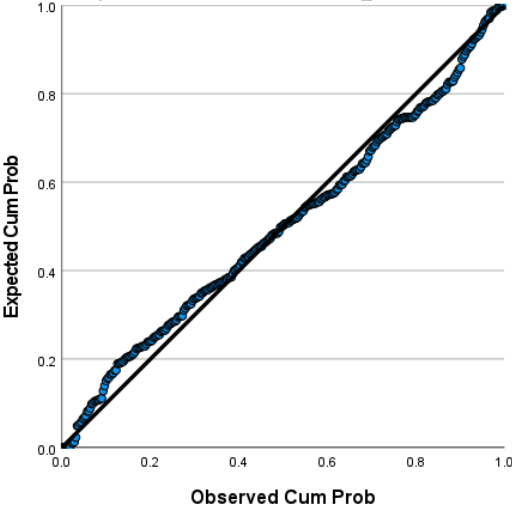
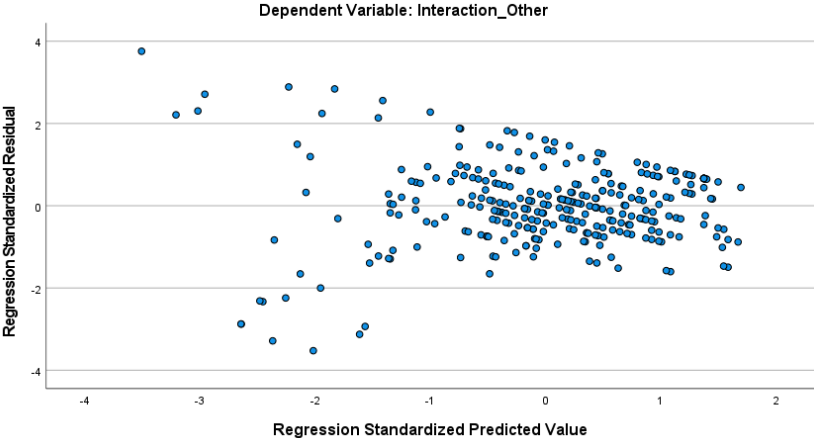


Figure A1 D: Standardized residuals and predicted values scatter plot - Interaction with others



APPENDIX A2: Organisational justice and personal value system

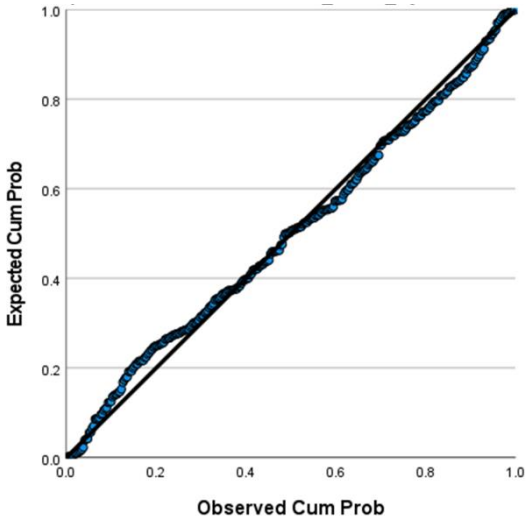


Figure A2 C: Residual P-P plot for personal value system

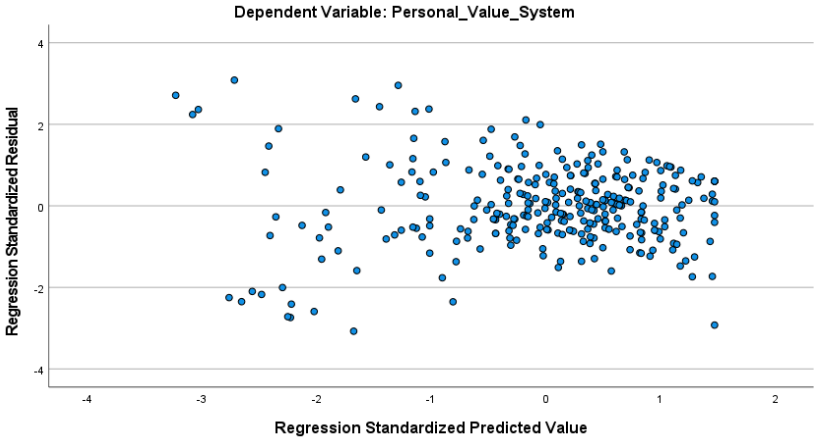


Figure A2 D: Standardized residuals and predicted values scatter plot - Personal value system

APPENDIX A3: Organisational justice and personal mindset

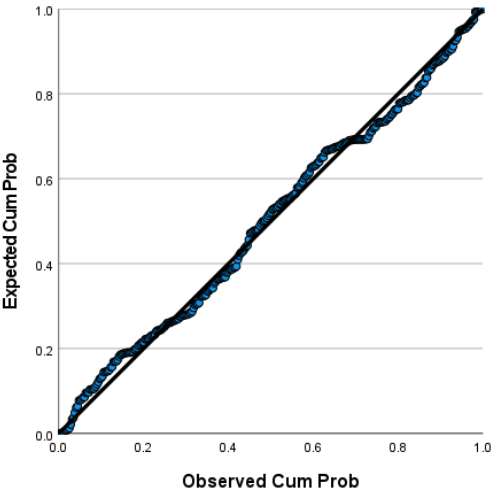


Figure A3 C: Residual P-P plot for Personal Mindset

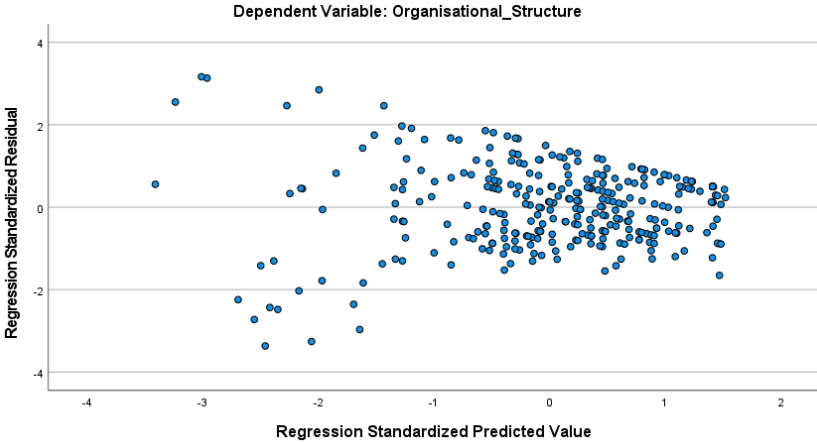


Figure A3 D: Standardized residuals and predicted values scatter plot -Personal Mindset

APPENDIX A4: Organisational justice and personal orientation

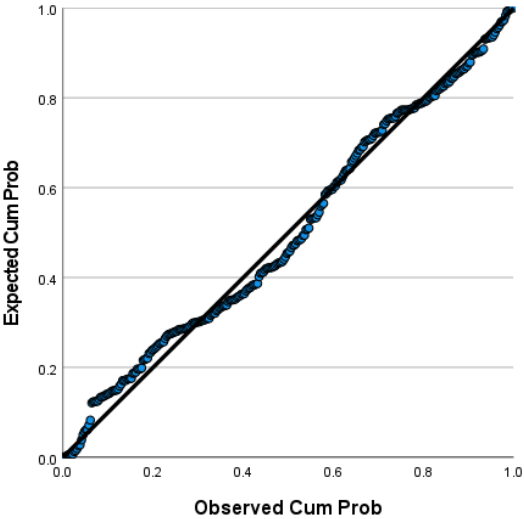


Figure A4 C: Residual P-P plot for personal orientation

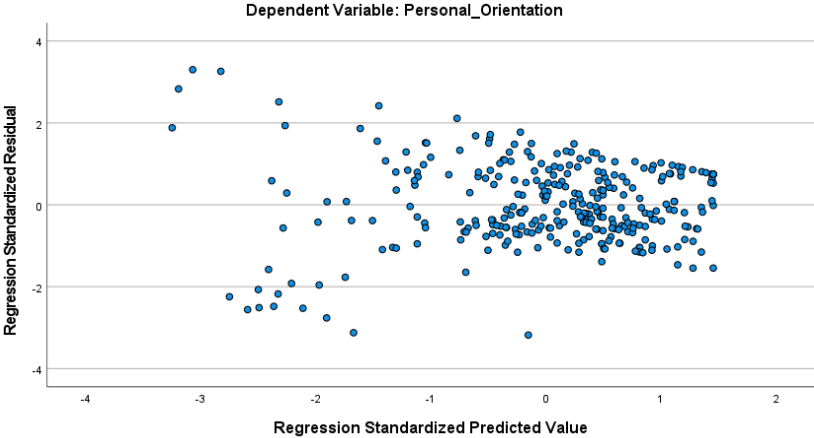


Figure A4 D: Standardized residuals and predicted values scatter plot - Personal Orientation

APPENDIX A5: Organisational justice and work context

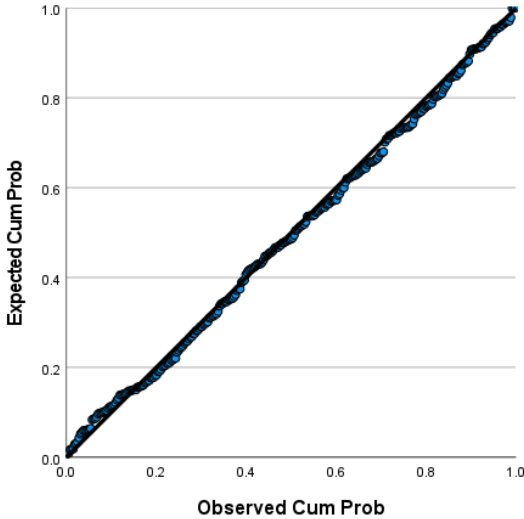


Figure A5 C: Residual P-P plot for work context

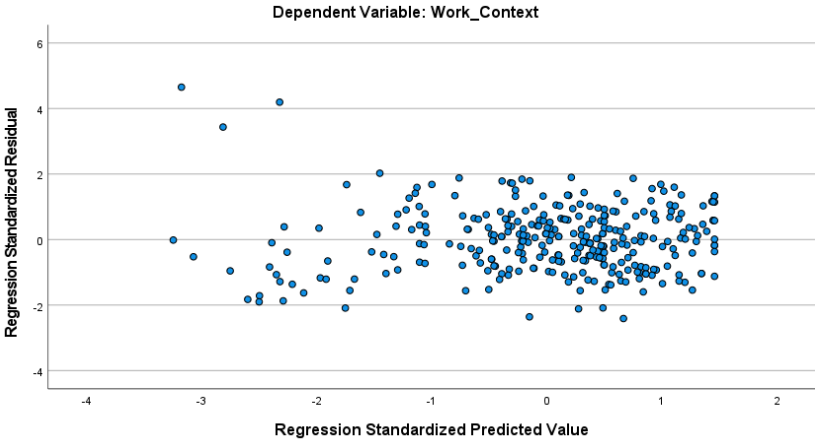


Figure A5 D: Standardized residuals and predicted values scatter plot - Work context

APPENDIX A6: Organisational justice and employee loyalty

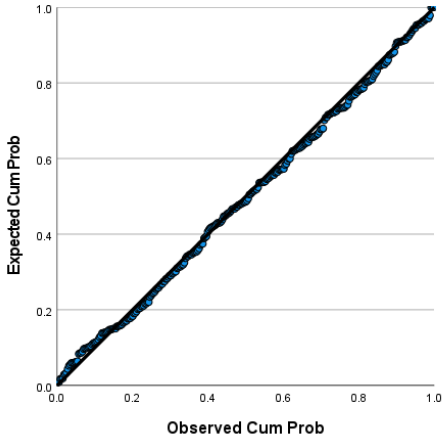


Figure A6 A: Residual P-P plot for employee loyalty

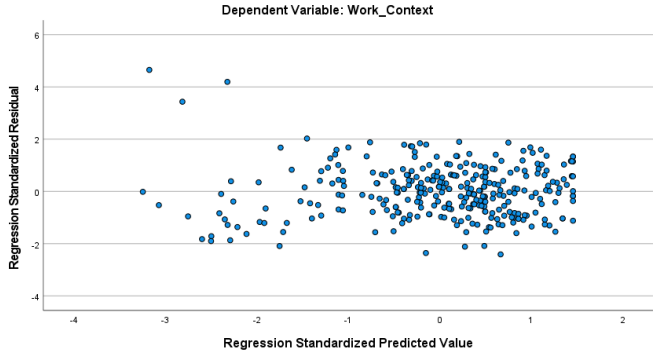


Figure A6 B: Standardized residuals and predicted values scatter plot - Employee loyalty

UNISA COLLEGE OF ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES RESEARCH
ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

14 September 2018 (Date of issue)

22 November 2022 (Date of amendment)

Ref #: 2018_HRM_005

Name: Mr Gudani Collins Mudau

Student No #: 57080496

Dear Mr Gudani Collins Mudau

Decision: Ethics Approval Extended to 31 December 2023

Working title of research:

The influence of justice perceptions on organisational citizenship behaviour and

Researcher(s): Mr Gudani Collins Mudau, gudanim@gmail.com; 072 074 3084,
College of Economic and Management Sciences
Department of Human Resource Management
University of South Africa

Supervisor(s): Prof Mariette Coetzee, Coetzm@unisa.ac.za, 012 429 3008
College of Economic and Management Sciences
Department of Human Resource Management
University of South Africa

Qualification: Masters

Thank you for the application requesting amendments to the original research ethics certificate issued by the CEMS Department of Human Resource Management Research Ethics Review Committee for the above-mentioned research on 14 September 2018. The approval of the requested amendment is granted.

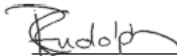


The low risk application was reviewed by the College Research Ethics Review Committee (CRERC) in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment, using the expedited method.

The proposed research may now continue with the proviso that:

- 1. The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.*
- 2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the UNISA Research Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.*
- 3. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.*

Kind regards,



Dr Elizabeth Cornelia Rudolph
Acting Chairperson, CRERC
E-mail: rudolec@unisa.ac.za
Tel: 012 429 2586



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15 May 2018

Group Executive Director: Human Resources
Assupol Life
P. O. Box 35900,
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Student Researcher
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57 Steve Biko street
Arcadia
0083

LETTER OF AUTHORISATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT OUR ORGANISATION

Dear Mr. Mudau

This letter will serve as authorisation for you to conduct the research project entitled "The influence of justice perceptions on organisational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction" at our Assupol offices.

Upon a review of the letter you sent to us, we are glad to offer you an opportunity to conduct the same study in our organisation. All interviews, filed surveys, observations around the site and the distribution of questionnaires are approved and will be duly supervised by the human resource department.

If you have any concerns or require additional information, feel free to contact the HR department.

Yours sincerely,


SL NDWALAZA
GROUP EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR: HR



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Assupol Life Ltd reg no: 2020/025085/06. Authorised financial services provider. Directors: EDJ Aghlue, AS Birell (Chairperson), D de Klerk, IG Greenstreet, NE Guite, R Kister, M B Mkwana-Haisis, R Moshapo, SI Ndwalaza, KC Radebe, Z Saban, CJ van Dyk, SJ de Beer (Company Secretary)



Ethics Approval.pdf



Approval letter.pdf