



REPUBLIC OF TURKEY  
NİĞDE ÖMER HALISDEMİR UNIVERSITY  
SOCIAL SCIENCES INSTITUTE  
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

**THE EFFECT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT  
PRACTICES, PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE, AND  
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS ON TURNOVER INTENTION: AN  
INVESTIGATION OF THE KOSOVO BANKING SECTOR**

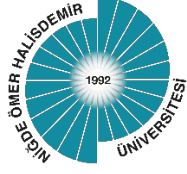
**Doctorate Thesis**

**Prepared by:**

**Artan VESELI**

**NİĞDE**

**2020**



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April, 2020

## ONAY SAYFASI

Prof. Dr. Fatih ÇETİN danışmanlığında Artan VESELI tarafından hazırlanan “The Effect of Human Resource Management Practices, Perceived Organizational Justice, and Citizenship Behaviors on Turnover Intention: An Investigation of the Kosovo Banking Sector” adlı bu çalışma jürimiz tarafından Niğde Ömer Halisdemir Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İşletme Anabilim Dalı’nda Doktora Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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### JÜRİ :

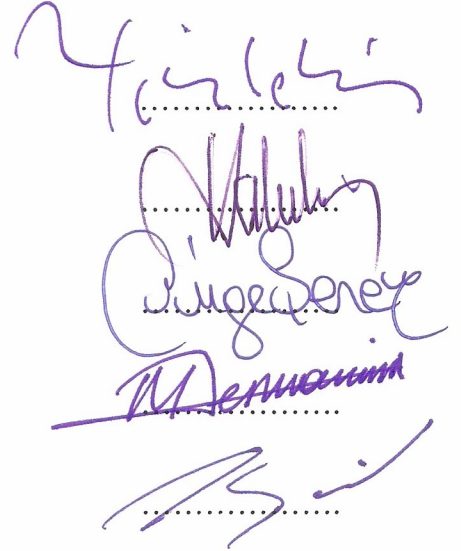
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Four handwritten signatures in purple ink are visible on the right side of the page, corresponding to the jury members listed on the left. The signatures are written over dotted lines. The first signature is the most prominent and appears to be 'Fatih Çetin'. The other three are less legible but correspond to the other members of the jury.

### ONAY :

Bu tezin kabulü Enstitü Yönetim Kurulu’nun ..... Tarih ve ..... sayılı kararı ile onaylanmıştır.

Doç. Dr. Emin Hüseyin ÇETENAK  
Enstitü Müdürü

## **DECLARATION**

I declare with full responsibility that my doctoral thesis: "The Effect of Human Resource Management Practices, Perceived Organizational Justice, and Citizenship Behaviors on Turnover Intention: An Investigation of the Kosovo Banking Sector" is the result of my own independent work in accordance with scientific and academic rules. Any material taken from third-party sources is acknowledged and addressed by academic rules. I have read and understood the Nigde Omer Halisdemir University's regulations and procedures concerning plagiarism.

**Date 15/04/2020**

**Artan VESELI**



## **Abstract**

### **The Effect of Human Resource Management Practices, Perceived Organizational Justice, and Citizenship Behaviors on Turnover Intention: An Investigation of the Kosovo Banking Sector**

**Artan VESELI**

**PHD Thesis, Department of Business Administration**

**Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Fatih ÇETİN**

**April, 2020, 263 Pages**

The main purpose of this thesis was to examine the effects of human resource management (HRM) practices, perceived organizational justice, and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) on employee turnover intention. For this purpose, 459 employees from commercial banks in Kosovo were recruited for this study. The relationships among study variables were investigated using correlation and hierarchical regression analyses. The results demonstrated that performance appraisal and compensation practices decreased employee turnover intentions. In addition, recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, and compensation practices increased OCB at the individual level (OCB-I), whereas recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and compensation practices increased OCB at the organizational level (OCB-O). Job analysis, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation practices increased distributive justice perceptions. Furthermore, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation practices increased procedural and interactional justice perceptions. Distributive, procedural, and interactional justice perceptions decreased turnover intention. The procedural and interactional justice perceptions increased both OCB-I and OCB-O. Finally, altruism, sportsmanship, consciousness, and civic virtue behaviors decreased turnover intention. These findings are discussed in the context of the established literature and also within the Kosovo cultural context.

# ÖZET

## İNSAN KAYNAKLARI UYGULAMALARI, ALGILANAN ÖRGÜTSEL ADALET VE VATANDAŞLIK DAVRANIŞLARININ İŞTEN AYRILMA NİYETİ ÜZERİNE ETKİSİ: KOSOVA BANKA SEKTÖRÜNDE BİR ARAŞTIRMA

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**Nisan, 2020, 263 Sayfa**

Bu tezin amacı insan kaynakları yönetimi uygulamaları, algılana örgütsel adalet ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarının çalışanların işten ayrılma niyeti üzerindeki etkisini araştırmaktır. Bu amaçla araştırmaya Kosova’da ticari bankalarda çalışan toplam 459 çalışan katılmıştır. Araştırma değişkenlerinin aralarındaki ilişkiler korelasyon ve regresyon analizleri yapılarak incelenmiştir. Araştırma bulguları performans değerlendirme ve ücretlendirme uygulamalarının işten ayrılma niyetini azalttığını göstermiştir. Seçim ve işe alma, performans değerlendirme ve ücretlendirme uygulamalarının kişilere yönelik vatandaşlık davranışlarını artırdığı; seçim ve işe alma, eğitim ve geliştirme, performans değerlendirme ve ücretlendirme uygulamalarının örgüte yönelik vatandaşlık davranışlarını artırdığı bulunmuştur. İş analizi, eğitim ve geliştirme, performans değerlendirme ve ücretlendirme uygulamalarının dağıtımsal; eğitim ve geliştirme, performans değerlendirme ve ücretlendirme uygulamalarının yöntemsel ve etkileşimsel adalet algılarını artırmıştır. Dağıtımsal, yöntemsel ve etkileşimsel adalet algıları işten ayrılma niyetini azalmıştır. Yöntemsel ve etkileşimsel adalet algısının kişilere ve örgüte yönelik vatandaşlık davranışlarını artırmıştır. Sonuç olarak diğergamlık, centilmenlik, vicdanlılık ve sivil erdem davranışlarının işten ayrılma niyetini azalttığı bulunmuştur. Tüm elde edilen bulgular literatürle birlikte ve Kosova kültürel bağlamında tartışılmıştır.

# **Foreword**

## **(Acknowledgment)**

This thesis is my final work for the award of PhD in Business Administration at Niğde Ömer Halisdemir University. I would like to take this opportunity to express my gratitude to all those who have supported, advised and assisted me in pursuing this research. Specifically, I would like to thank my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Fatih Çetin for his continued and valuable support, professional guidance, and constructive feedback on improving the quality of this thesis. He spent countless hours reading the successive versions of my thesis and provided me with instrumental advice which helped me to clarify my ideas.

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## Abbreviations Index

BKT	Banka Kombetare Tregtare
CBK	Central Bank of Kosovo
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
ERB	Extra-role Behavior
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HPWPs	High Performance Work Practices
HRM practices	Human Resource Management practices
KBA	Kosovo Banking Association
KMO value	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy
KSAs	Knowledge, Skills and Abilities
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
NLB	Nova Ljublanska Banka
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OCB-I	Organizational Citizenship Behavior at the individual level
OCB-O	Organizational Citizenship Behavior at the organizational
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PMS	Performance Management System
POB	Prosocial Organizational Behavior
ProMES	Productivity Measurement and Enhancement System
PWST	Proximal Withdrawal States Theory
RMSEA	The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
TEB	Türkiye Ekonomisi Bankası
TI	Turnover Intention
TLI	Tucker Lewis Index

# **Chapter I – Introduction**

## **1.1 Research Background**

The strategic value of the human resource (HR) function has been increasingly acknowledged by management scholars and practitioners because the acquisition, development, and retention of talented employees provide organizations with a unique source of competitive advantage. Various researchers have attempted to describe the strategic role and importance of the HR function. A number of studies have focused on the development of strategic management in an attempt to coordinate an organization's strategic plans and management development activities in order to enhance the development of leaders (Clardy, 2008). Other studies have concentrated mainly on the role of human resource management (HRM) practices in endorsing social capital as a means for augmenting organizational performance. Furthermore, numerous empirical studies have investigated the relationship between HR practices and organizational performance over a wide range of settings. A progression of studies have offered a menu of HR practices that have confirmed the importance of the strategic role of HR. Although extensive evidence indicates that HRM practices can have a positive impact on an organizational performance, the explicit way in which these practices affect organizational performance remain unclear because the studies vary so much in terms of sample characteristics, research design, HRM practices examined, contextual factors, theoretical grounds, depth of analysis, definitions of HRM practices, moderating variables, and indicators of performance.

However, there is a general consensus among scholars that appropriate HRM practices contribute to the enhancement of organizational justice within organizations. Organizational justice focuses on the way in which outcomes are distributed and rewards are allocated, the procedures that are followed to determine how outcomes are distributed or rewards are allocated, and the way in which people manage relations among themselves. These categories of justice are usually referred to as distributive justice, procedural justice,

and interactional justice. Thoughts on organizational justice have often been associated with various organizational outcomes. For instance, the fairness of decisions about outcome distributions as well as the fairness of procedures adopted in the distribution process have been found to impact individual attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, job commitment, and organizational trust) and behaviors (e.g., intention to quit, and unproductive conducts) (e.g., Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Lind & Tyler, 1988).

It is also widely acknowledged that appropriate HRM practices contribute to motivating employees to perform duties and responsibilities beyond their formal job descriptions. In today's competitive business environment, organizations and employees face challenges resulting from dynamic technological and environmental changes that have increased the need for flexibility and extra-role behaviors (ERBs) on the part of employees. Work behaviors that demonstrate extra roles beyond traditional ones are known as "organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB)" (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983). Organ (1988) described OCB as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not explicitly recognized by the formal system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4). Since the early prevalence of the term OCB by Organ and his associates, the realm of OCB has developed at a remarkable level, with the introduction of an extensive number of related constructs. The most common related constructs in the literature include "prosocial behavior" (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1991; George & Bettenhausen, 1990), "organizational spontaneity" (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997), ERB (Van Dyne et al., 1995), and "contextual performance" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Furthermore, it is widely acknowledged among scientists that OCBs have a direct impact on individual level outcomes, such as performance appraisals, managerial decisions about reward allocations, and employees' turnover intention, as well as organizational level outcomes, such as productivity, efficiency, costs, and profitability.

The existing literature also suggests that HRM practices are related to employee-related outcomes, such as employee turnover intentions. Employee turnover intentions and actual turnover constitutes a serious issues for many organizations across the world,

because of their potentially negative impact on an organization's overall performance (Campion, 1991; Shaw et al., 2009). Consequences of employee turnover intentions include the following: decline in performance due to lower morale among employees, delayed and inefficient services due to employee absenteeism, additional overtime compensations to permanent and temporary employees who carry on the work burden to meet the organization's performance objectives. Employee turnover has been defined by Burgess (1998) as "the movement of workers around the labor market, between firms, and among the states of employment, unemployment, and inactivity" (p. 55). Employee turnover intention is described as the next rational step after employees experience job dissatisfaction, and in addition to a few other steps, turnover intention is the final step before actual turnover (Mobley, 1977). The existence of possible relationships between HRM practices and employee turnover intentions was initially introduced by Mobley et al. (1979) and started to expand after the 1990s, and it became more prevalent after the start of the new millennium. Although, extensive research has been conducted on this relationship in various settings, few studies have examined the impact of HRM practices on turnover intentions in the context of the banking sector, and almost no previous studies have examined this relationship in the context of the banking sector in Kosovo.

In the current study, these issues are addressed, and the effect of HRM practices on turnover intentions among the employees of the banking sector in Kosovo are investigated. The first chapter of this research includes the problem, aim and objectives, research model and hypotheses, importance, limitations, and assumptions. In the second chapter, the concepts of HRM practices, organizational justice, OCB, and turnover intentions will be discussed. Information relating to previous studies investigating the interactions between variables of the research are examined in detail in the third chapter. Background information about the Kosovo banking industry, and the design and methods of the research conducted to find relationships among the variables that form the subject of the study are provided in the fourth chapter. In the fifth chapter, the results of the descriptive statistics, correlation, and regression analysis are presented. In the sixth chapter, the study is concluded with the discussion and evaluation of the findings in light of studies in the existing literature.

## 1.2 Research Context

The banking sector is considered one of the most vital sectors in most economies because it contributes significantly to economic development by facilitating business financial performance. Therefore it has a key role in maintaining the stability of a financial system by providing loans to individuals, families, institutions, and various enterprises. (KBA, 2019). Commercial banks, amongst other contributions, also facilitate the development of savings plans. They are recognized as strategic monetary instruments of governments that facilitate the employment of considerable numbers of people in a national context and that directly impact economic growth and global gross domestic product (GDP) through employment and loans.

As in other parts of the world, the banking sector in Kosovo contributes to economic growth and to the growth of GDP. However, the Kosovo banking sector is a relatively new system; since 1999, it has seen rapid development and has become one of the best performing sectors in Kosovo, with a wide range of financial services and a large increase in deposits and loans (IMF, 2013). Although the banking sector in Kosovo is concentrated, the sector is still open to new domestic and new international players. Of the 10 banks operating in Kosovo, eight are foreign banks and hold the largest market share, representing 67.5% of total assets in the financial sector (CBK, 2019). Furthermore, foreign-owned banks have the largest share of system assets (approximately 90%), while local-owned banks account for only 10% of total assets. Their products and services include banking accounts, loans, domestic and international payments, banking cards, banking guarantees, letters of credit, e-banking, and so on. Banks in Kosovo not only have a special role in the economic development of the country through the provision of loans in various sectors but also through employment, which also affects GDP growth. The total number of employees in the banking sector is 3,322 (CBK, 2019).

One of the challenges that the banking system in Kosovo has been faced with within the last 20 years is the concentration of banking activities in two main banks: Procredit Bank and Raiffeisen Bank Kosovo, which in 2008 together accounted for approximately 66.5% of activities, including employment, and this adversely affected the competitiveness

of the banking system (CBK, 2009). However, with the market penetration of other foreign banks (Türk Ekonomi Bankası [TEB], Banka Kombëtare Tregtare [BKT], and Nova Ljubljanska Banka [NLB]), this has changed in favor of customers as well as employees. Increased competition in the banking system has also affected the rate of employee turnover, by creating new employment opportunities for bank employees. The phenomenon of employee turnover affects most financial institutions and especially commercial banks in Kosovo. Considering the high cost of employee turnover, it is crucial for the banking sector in Kosovo to understand the underlying factors that determine employee turnover intention. Identifying and understanding this phenomenon is crucial because besides lowering costs, organizations can also attain sustainable competitive advantage in the market.

### **1.3 Research Problem**

Considerable research efforts have been devoted towards the identification of factors that influence employee turnover intention in various organizational contexts. Evidence from the literature suggests that employee turnover intention is influenced by various factors, such as social and cultural practices (Peretz & Fried, 2013); HRM practices, including training and development, internal mobility, employment security, performance appraisal, rewards, and job description (Lee et al., 2018); perception of organizational justice (Flint et al., 2012; Hausknecht et al., 2011; Herda & Lavelle, 2012; Kim et al., 2012); and OCBs (Campbell & Im, 2016; Cho & Ryu, 2009; Dalal et al., 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Sharoni et al., 2012; Tsai & Wu, 2010).

The existence of possible relationships between HRM practices and employee turnover intentions was initially mentioned by Mobley et al. (1979), who extended their previous turnover model to include different intermediate linkages between the variables that were external to individuals and that could potentially impact employee turnover intentions. The research started to expand after the 1990s, and since then, extensive research has been conducted to investigate this relationship in various settings (Bambacas & Kulik, 2013; De Gieter & Hofmans, 2015; Erturk, 2014; Gardner et al., 2011; He et al.,

2016; Lee et al., 2018; Peretz & Fried, 2013). In most of these studies, results have indicated a negative relationship between HRM practices and turnover intentions.

Additional factors that can determine employee turnover intentions include organizational justice and OCBs. The possible relationships between organizational justice and turnover intentions has been examined by several authors (e.g., Flint et al., 2012; Hausknecht et al., 2011; Herda & Lavelle, 2012; Karatepe & Shahriari, 2014; Kim et al., 2012; Moon, 2017), who, interestingly, found a negative relationship between organizational justice perceptions and employee turnover intentions. Similarly, previous research on the relationship between OCB and turnover intention (e.g., Campbell & Im, 2016; Cho & Ryu, 2009; Dalal et al., 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Sharoni et al., 2012; Tsai & Wu, 2010) revealed a negative relationship between OCB and turnover intentions.

The existing literature indicates that the relationship between HRM practices, organizational justice, OCBs, and turnover intention is an area of knowledge that has been sufficiently explored, and it is evident that in most previous studies, there exist direct or indirect relationships among these variables; however, there are numerous directions for further research in this field that can be considered as research gaps in the existing literature. Despite the extensive research examining the relationship between HRM practices, organizational justice, and OCBs on turnover intention, little (if any) research has been conducted on the identification of factors that influence employee turnover intention in the banking industry in general. Moreover, no empirical results have been reported relating to the predicting factors of employee turnover intentions in the Kosovo banking sector.

#### **1.4 Research Aim and Objectives**

The present research aims to study the impact of HRM practices, perceived organizational justice, and OCBs on employee turnover intentions. Additionally, this study also endeavors to bridge the concept of HRM practices, organizational justice, and OCB with the research literature by assessing employee turnover intentions, which remain

understudied in the context of the Kosovo banking sector. In order to achieve this research aim, the following objectives have been developed:

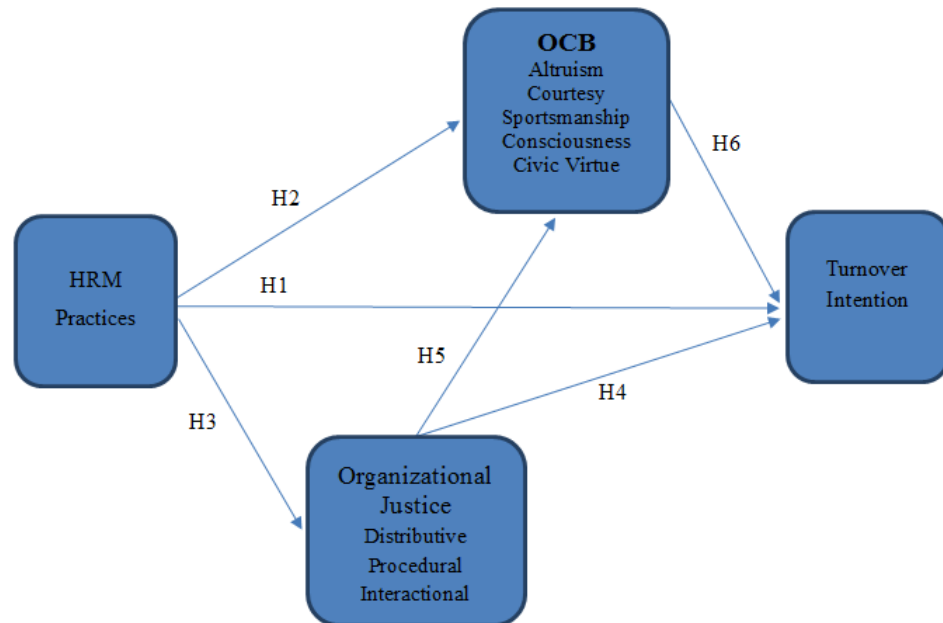
1. To investigate the effect of HRM practices on employee turnover intentions in the Kosovo commercial banks.
2. To investigate the effect of HRM practices on employee OCBs in Kosovo commercial banks.
3. To investigate the effect of HRM practices on employee perceptions of organizational justice in Kosovo commercial banks.
4. To investigate the effect of organizational justice perceptions on employee turnover intentions in Kosovo commercial banks.
5. To investigate the effect of organizational justice perceptions on employee OCBs in Kosovo commercial banks.
6. To investigate the effect of OCB on employees' turnover intentions in Kosovo commercial banks.
7. To determine the possible differences in employee turnover intentions according to demographic variables, such as gender, marital status, education, organization, and job position.

## **1.5 Research Model and Hypotheses**

In order to accomplish the aims and objectives of this research, the following research model (Figure 1), research hypotheses, and research question were framed and tested in this study.

**Figure 1**

***Research Model***



**H1:** *There is a negative relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and turnover intention.*

**H2:** *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and OCB.*

**H3:** *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational justice perceptions.*

*H4: There is a negative relationship between organizational justice perceptions (sub dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and turnover intention.*

*H5: There is a positive relationship between organizational justice perceptions (sub dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and OCB.*

*H6: There is a negative relationship between OCB (sub dimensions: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, consciousness, and civic virtue) and turnover intention.*

*RQ1: Are there any differences in turnover intentions according to demographic variables such as gender, marital status, education, organization, and job position?*

## **1.6 Importance**

The crucial feature and strength that distinguishes this study from other HRM practice research is that it analyzes HRM practices in five dimensions: job analysis and design, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and compensation. The selected five practices, which depict a general HRM function as opposed to a specific HRM application, were translated and adapted to Kosovan culture. Furthermore, the application of multidimensional organizational justice, OCB, and turnover intention scales in the context of the Kosovo banking sector makes this study important for both academic and professional audiences.

This study is expected to contribute to the literature in the local context as it will provide empirical evidence from a relatively new cultural context. There is a dearth of literature on the relationship between HRM practices and turnover intentions in Kosovo, as most of the studies on this domain have been conducted in developed countries (e.g., EU countries, U.S.A., Canada, China, Australia, and Korea). Therefore, the application of the proposed model to a sample of employees from the Kosovo banking sector should be considered as an empirical contribution to existing knowledge.

Another important feature of this study is that it allows the managers of commercial banks in Kosovo to make evidence-based decisions to manage the turnover intentions of their valuable employees as they are the core resources to provide quality customer services, improve business processes, and enhance organizational performance in general.

## **1.7 Limitations**

This research had a number of limitations. Firstly, there is no general consensus among researchers on which HRM Practices should be used when examining the interactions between selected HRM Practices and employee turnover intentions. Consequently, the five HRM Practices selected for this study may not be representative and appropriate practices for employees in Kosovo commercial banks.

Secondly, this study was a cross-sectional study and examined only quantitative data that were collected from survey questionnaires. More specifically, this study did not examine longitudinal data to determine the impact of HRM practices, organizational justice perceptions, and OCBs on turnover intentions in a longitudinal framework. This implies that cross-sectional studies cannot decisively determine the relationships among variables as in the case of longitudinal studies (Saunders et al., 2009). Moreover, in addition to quantitative data, this study did not examine in-depth and qualitative data collected from interviews with bank employees. This limited the study from generating findings from the mixed method, which can analyze a richer data set and produce more extended analytical outcomes (Molina-Azorin, 2011).

Thirdly, the present study collected data based on the personal perceptions of bank employees, an approach that might lead to bias. Instead, turnover intention data could have also been obtained as organizational data from HR and senior managers of the responding banks. This would contribute to better understanding these relationships and could increase the generalizability of the results.

Finally, this study has only examined the Kosovo commercial bank model, which represents a narrow focus. This may limit the ability to generalize the findings not only across other industries in Kosovo but also within the banking industry in developed countries. This implies that the findings of this study may not be valid for the banking industry in developed countries because of the significant dissimilarities in cultural contexts.

## **1.8 Assumptions**

Due to the absence of previous studies investigating the banking sector in Kosovo and based on informal discussions and interviews with bank employees and managers, it was assumed that the factors influencing employee turnover intentions in the Kosovo banking sector may be multiple. It may be personal factors, such as employee demographics, individual factors, such as employee psychological processes and behavior, organizational factors, such as HRM practices and organizational justice within bank institutions. Furthermore, this phenomenon is observed by the bank employees and managers as dissatisfaction with existing conventional HRM practices, which are usually inflexible with no provision for training and development and which lack recognition, performance-based pay, and promotions. Therefore, in order to fill this literature gap, an empirical study was conducted for examining the impact of HRM practices, organizational justice, and OCB on employee turnover intentions in the Kosovo banking sector.

## **Chapter II - Literature Review**

This chapter reviews the extant literature on the field of HRM practices, organizational justice, OCB, and turnover intention. Section 2.1 discusses previous research on HRM practices from the earliest historical stages of the HRM concept to the development of the strategic role of HRM function. It also discusses selected HRM practices, such as job analysis and design, employee recruitment and selection, employee training and development, performance management, and reward management. Section 2.2 discusses the concept and origins of organizational justice, its sub dimensions, antecedents, and outcomes. Section 2.3 discusses the concept and definitions of OCB, related constructs and sub dimensions, antecedents, and outcomes. Finally, section 2.4 discusses the historical development of the employee turnover concept, types of turnover, and it focuses in particular on employee turnover intention.

### **2.1 Human Resource Management Practices**

#### **2.1.1. Historical Development of HRM Concept**

Like other social and cultural studies, the study of management is concerned with fluctuating ideas about the nature and scope of work, the human environment, and how organizations function (Wren & Bedeian, 2009). The practice of management is ancient and has existed since the birth of early civilizations; however, its formal study has evolved. As an independent field, management was acknowledged during the 18th century, and it achieved major recognition during the middle of the 20th century. The emergence of classical theories at the beginning of 20th century provided enormous contributions to the field of management. The introduction of the bureaucracy theory by Max Weber contributed significantly in placing business on the right equilibrium by presenting strict business rules and regulations, chain of command and controlled systems, rule of law, appointment and promotion based on competences and capabilities, and the notion of

power derived from official individual position (Kondalkar, 2007). Another major contribution to the field of management was from Frederick Taylor, who introduced the scientific management theory by transforming the industrial floor process and establishing relationships between management and workers. Taylor's scientific approach contributed to the field of management by developing the following concepts: functional foremanship, time and motion study, standardization of processes, goal setting plus work measurement and feedback, a differential piece-rate system of payment, money as a motivator, management's responsibility for training, scientific selection, the shortened work week and rest pauses, and the concept of supervision (Locke, 1982). In addition, the administrative management theory was introduced by Henry Fayol, who advocated for the domination of administration over management and made a clear division between operational and managerial activities (Tompkins, 2005). Due to his outstanding contributions to management and by virtue of his extensive work in the management field, he was recognized as one of the fathers of management, and his principles remain valid even today.

The HR function emerged within organizations in the beginning of the 20th century as a reaction to economic and industrial development (Ulrich & Dulebohn, 2015). The main goal of the HR function was to overcome organizational difficulties and to add value to organizations by managing and streamlining employment relations more effectively. The HR function evolved in reaction to developments related to the industrial revolution and the introduction of organizational structures within larger corporations. Early contributors to the HR concept were professional engineers who emerged at the end of the 1800s as the leading innovators of the production process and who presented tremendous changes to management (Braverman, 1974; Ulrich & Dulebohn, 2015). These early contributors appreciated the need for the HR function to overcome organizational and environmental challenges in order to decrease employee turnover and increase productivity.

Undoubtedly, one of the most important contributors and the most prominent theorist of management in the 20th century was Frederick Taylor (Locke, 1982). Endorsed as the father of scientific management, Taylor studied the efficiency of job performance by scheduling and dividing work in an attempt to determine the fastest time for performing a

particular task (Wren & Bedeian, 2009). Locke (1982) indicated that Taylor's vision and ideas were not only fundamentally right but that they have been well acknowledged by management practitioners and scholars. Following the work of Taylor, Lillian and Frank Gilbreth, two industrial psychologists, provided a major contribution to scientific management by undergoing studies on motion to analyze and reduce the motions involved in jobs (Wren & Bedeian, 2009). Hence, scientific management has added value to HR through introducing and legitimating job analysis as an important management practice and by representing a new approach to practicing management. Furthermore, the work of Taylor and Gilbreth offered significant contributions to management in general and to the HR function in particular in terms of the formalization and specialization of these two disciplines (Wren & Bedeian, 2009).

The beginning of the 20th century, particularly the advent of World War I, provided the circumstances that led to an extensive labor shortage, especially for skilled workers who were engaged in military activities and services. Consequently, production in the U.S. was challenged with long-term employee turnover problems and increased pressure from the rapid increase in wages (Ulrich & Dulebohn, 2015). In response to this labor dearth, employee turnover, and efficiency challenges, organizations started to establish personnel departments in order to consolidate and supervise activities and practices related to employment (Jacoby, 1985). In addition, organizations also started to implement other programs and practices, such as including the application of hiring tests for selecting and placing employees more efficiently based on their capabilities, which in turn improved the welfare of their employees (Ulrich & Dulebohn, 2015).

Between the 1930s and 1950s, there was a human relations movement, as well as the introduction of academic and applied sciences from the behavioral studies, which contributed to the improvement of the personnel profession. Despite this increasing frame of knowledge, during the 1960s, the personnel practitioners were often regarded as “little more than a glorified file clerks who planned the company picnic” (Jamrog & Overholt, 2004, p. 52). However, this perception changed with the emergence of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 in the U.S. and the succeeding developments from economic, social, technological,

and demographic factors in the 1970s and the 1980s. These developments triggered senior managers to reflect and adopt the new HR approach.

During the late 1970s and early 1980s, many organizations encountered the negative effects of high interest rates, severe competition, and diminishing efficiency, and this increased the demand for larger accountability in all organizational departments. This negative trend impacted the new HR function as well. Although there were available methods for assessing the costs and benefits of HR programs, they were not sufficiently utilized (Jamrog & Overholt, 2004). Many HR professionals were still viewed as personnel administrators by their employers; however, there was a growing tendency to see HR professionals as people who could add value to their organizations and provide the organization with a competitive advantage because of their strategic approach to the changing environment. As a result, this encouraged HR professionals to adopt new methodologies, and their roles were once again transformed into strategic business partners for their organizations (Jamrog & Overholt, 2004).

From the late 1980s, many organizations began to transform the role of HR from administrative and personnel management functions to a strategic corporate function in order to enhance organizational efficiency. One of the main reasons for this dramatic transformation in the perceptions and roles of HR function was the impact of numerous external and internal factors that served as incentives for this transformation. These factors included the following: globalization and competition in international arena, trade liberalization, advancements in employment law, the diminished influence of unions, changes in demographic structures, and the transformation of the economy from a production-based to a service- and knowledge-based economy (Mahoney & Deckop, 1986; Ulrich & Dulebohn, 2015). During this period, the term “personnel management” was commonly changed to “human resource management,” which was characterized by three general waves (Ulrich & Dulebohn, 2015). The first wave was considered the administrative wave of HR and included the traditional administrative functions of HR, such as providing HR administrative services and working on compliance regulatory. The second wave was considered the HR practices wave and referred to the novel approach of HR practices, such as recruitment and selection, training and development, career

advancement, compensation and rewards, communication, and organizational policies and procedures. The third wave was considered the HR strategy wave, where HR function was positioned as a strategic corporate function in order to align HR practices with business strategy. During this wave, business strategy became a mirror that determined the criteria for aligning HR practices to business success through the strategic role of the HR function (Ulrich & Dulebohn, 2015).

### **2.1.2. Strategic Role of HRM Function and HR Practices**

In recent years, there has been a prevailing consensus among scholars and practitioners that HR professionals should be considered as strategic business partners who can contribute to the formulation and implementation of strategy. The strategic value of the HR function has been increasingly acknowledged by management scholars and practitioners because the acquisition, development, and retention of talented employees provide organizations with a unique source of competitive advantage (Barney, 1991; Heneman et al., 2000; Kim & Sung-Choon, 2013). This was further supported by Porter (1985), who included HRM as a crucial support activity of the value chain that when interacting with other primary and support activities was critical for an organization to achieve sustainable competitive advantage. Another well-known theory that provides explanations of the strategic importance of the HR function is the resource-based view (RBV) of the firm (Barney, 1991; Barney & Wright, 1998; Buller & McEvoy, 2012; Phan et al., 2005). The RBV perspective claims that the sustainable competitive advantage and superior performance of an organization is measured by the distinctiveness of its resources, competences, and capabilities (Johnson et al., 2011). In this context, Buller and McEvoy (2012) suggested that firm-specific capabilities, such as knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs), as well as the behaviors of individuals and business processes and practices provided a sustainable source for businesses to attain competitive advantage. In other words, these strategy frameworks highlight the critical role of human capital in shaping long-term organizational performance (Wright et al., 2001).

Furthermore, Kim and Sung-Choon (2013) highlighted the importance of aligning and integrating the HR function into business strategy through strategy formulation and strategy implementation. This is particularly important because during strategy formulation, an HR function can shed light on the types of employee KSAs that can be mobilized to create competitive advantage, whereas during strategy implementation, the HR function manages and aligns HR competencies with business strategy (Kim & Sung-Choon, 2013). In this context, Ulrich (1997) suggested that in order for organizations to effectively implement their business strategy, HR functions should inspire employees to embrace the business strategy and advise them to stay committed to strategic requirements. When the new HR strategy is being implemented, the HR function can play a crucial role by enhancing employee participation in decision-making processes and by sharing with them relevant information regarding organizational strategy (Kim & Sung-Choon, 2013).

Human resource researchers have attempted to describe the role and importance of the strategic HR function by emphasizing the likely difference between planned and actual HR strategies during the implementation phase. For example, a number of studies have focused on the development of strategic management in an attempt to coordinate organizational strategic plans and management development activities to enhance the development of leaders (Clardy, 2008). In this context, Dyer (1983) supported the idea for closer synchronization between strategic planning and development of employee skill. Likewise, Manzini and Gridley (1986) revealed the positive implications of recruitment and employee development activities in various strategic planning scenarios.

In addition, some studies have examined contingency structures contending that the suitable HRM practices relied on relevant factors, such as business strategy or environmental conditions (Chandler & McEvoy, 2000). In this context, Khatri (2000) analyzed the relationships between organizational strategy and HR practices and HR practices and organizational performance and advocated that overall, organizational strategy influenced HR practices. Furthermore, Khatri (2000) revealed that HR practices directly affected organizational performance, whereas business strategy played a mediating role between HR practices and organizational performance. Similarly, Richard and

Johnson (2001) established that the effectiveness of strategic HR management significantly decreased employee turnover, which in turn improved overall organizational performance.

Other research have concentrated mainly on the role of HRM practices in endorsing social capital as a means for augmenting organizational performance. Social capital is an integral component of human capital, and in-depth understanding of the organization's specific values, culture, structure, strategies, and processes (Fitz-enz, 2000). Social capital can be described as the value of real or potential resources and assets an individual can obtain for an organization, depending on who he or she knows, what linkages that person is connected with, and also his or her status in specific societies (Putnam, 1995). Social capital can be developed through high performance HR practices, such as transparent communication, building trust, truthfulness and openness, feedback and appreciation, teamwork and collaboration, and promotion of work-life balance initiatives (Luthans & Youssef, 2004).

On the other hand, the growing accentuation on the strategic support of the HR function was combined with the increasing enthusiasm to relate HR activities to organizational competitive performance. An extensive number of empirical studies have investigated the correlation between HR practices and organizational performance over a wide range of settings. A progression of studies offered a menu of HR practices that confirmed the importance of the strategic role of HR. Albeit extensive evidence advocates that HRM practices can have a positive impact on organization's performance, the explicit methods by which these practices affect organizational performance remain unclear (Buller & McEvoy, 2012; Combs et al., 2006). This ambiguity lies in the manner that investigations vary broadly in terms of sample characteristics, research design, HRM practices examined (Combs et al. 2006), contextual factors, theoretical grounds, depth of analysis, definitions of HRM practices, and performance indicators (Guest, 2011). Within this context, some researchers have employed "best practice" perspectives, arguing that high performance HRM practices can be comprehensively applicable for all organizations (Huselid, 1995). For example, Mostafa (2017) examined a mediation model to assess whether high performance HR practices positively affected employee attitudes and behaviors, which in turn affected job satisfaction and OCBs. His results revealed that high

performance HR practices had a positive effect on employee attitudes and behaviors, which in turn led to improved job satisfaction and enhanced OCBs. Likewise, Chew and Chan (2008) observed the impacts of key HR practices on organizational commitment and intention to stay for permanent employees. Their findings uncovered that organizational commitment was decidedly influenced by person-organization fit, compensation, acknowledgment, and the possibility to conduct challenging work assignments, whereas intention to stay was considerably associated with person-organization fit, compensation, acknowledgment, training, and career development. By contrast, taking the social exchange perspective, Tremblay et al. (2010) examined the linkage between HRM practices and organizational commitment and extraordinary performance evaluation scores through the mediating role of procedural justice and organizational trust and support as interactive exchange instruments. Their findings indicated that HRM practices could encourage greater in-role and extra-role performance if they were acknowledged as methods of support and promoted procedural justice. However, they advised that in order to improve behavioral performance, HRM practices should be implemented through the application of not only procedural justice but also through organizational support (Tremblay et al., 2010). Furthermore, Kehoe and Wright (2013) analyzed the relationships between employee views of high performance HR practices and employee absenteeism, intention to stay, and OCBs, through the mediating role of affective organizational commitment. Their findings uncovered that employee insights of high performance HR practices correlated positively to all dependent variables and that affective organizational commitment moderately mediated the relationship between HR practice insights and OCBs and entirely mediated the relationship between HR practice insights and the intention to stay with the organization.

The evidence presented above suggests that there is consensus among strategic HRM scholars and practitioners concerning the relationships between HRM strategy, HRM practices, and organizational performance. It is evident that HRM practices are important for generating firm-specific human capital that when allied with organizational strategy, lead to superior organizational performance (Buller & McEvoy, 2012). Strategic HRM theorists have suggested that performance-enhancing HR practices, also recognized as high performance work practices (HPWPs) (Huselid, 1995), increased employee KSAs (Becker

& Huselid, 1998). According to Huselid (1995), HPWPs include inducement reward, training and development, employee involvement, selectivity, and flexible work engagements. Furthermore, Guest and Conway (2011) divided high performance HR practices into nine groups: (1) recruitment and selection, (2) training and development, (3) performance appraisal, (4) compensation and financial flexibility, (5) job design, (6) collaborative communication, (7) employment security and the internal labor market, (8) single status and harmonization, and (9) participation.

Moreover, in a study to determine the effect of high performance HR practices on job satisfaction, Jeanine (2014) identified six HPWPs: (1) rewards and benefits, (2) performance management, (3) information sharing, (4) working in teams, (5) work-life policies, and training and development. Schmidt et al. (2018) developed two categories of HR practices, namely: (1) inducement HR practices (e.g., internal promotion, involvement in the business, fairness, flexible scheduling, health and insurance, professional development, perquisites, and supplementary compensation) and (2) performance expectation HR practices (e.g., performance-based incentives and performance feedback). Tremblay et al. (2010) selected four HRM practices to evaluate their effect in in-role and extra-role performance: (1) information sharing HRM practices (top-down and bottom-up), (2) skills enhancement HRM practices, 3) nonmonetary reward HRM practices, and 4) performance evaluation HRM practices. De Cieri and Kramar (2008) constructed six groups of HR practices, which they termed as six set of choices from which organizations could choose the most appropriate ones: (1) job analysis and design, (2) recruitment and selection, (3) training and development, (4) performance management, (5) pay structure and incentives, and (6) employee relations. Furthermore, Kehoe and Wright (2013) constructed three groups of HR practices that represented a high performance HR approach. They categorized these practices in three groups, including (1) skills-enhancing practices (e.g., official selection tests, selection interviews, hiring decisions, high salary, and training and development opportunities); (2) motivation-enhancing practices (e.g., rewards based on individual and group performance results, formal performance evaluation systems, and promotion based on merit); and (3) opportunity-enhancing practices (e.g., formal involvement procedures, proper communication and information-sharing modes, and autonomy in decision making relating to employment).

Although there are a variety of specific items of HR practices across the studies reviewed above, there is a strong cohesion across HRM practices in any high performance approach, since their focus is promotion of workforce ability, motivation, and opportunity (Combs et al., 2006) and promotion of performing behaviors that are consistent with organizational objectives (Kehoe & Wright, 2013). Given this cohesion in HR practices observed in previous research, five groups of HR practices were constructed that will be examined and further broken down throughout this study. In particular, the following HR practices were selected: (1) job analysis and design, (2) recruitment and selection, (3) training and development, (4) performance management, and (5) reward management. The following sections discuss relevant aspects of the literature for each of these HR practices.

### **2.1.3. Job Analysis and Design**

The term “job analysis” became prevalent in the management literature in the beginning of the 20th century. In 1916, Frederick Taylor classified job analysis as one of the four principles of scientific management (Ash, 1988). According to Taylor's principles, the procedure of job analysis indirectly addressed efficiency goals in the processes of selection, motivation, and training of employees (Primoff & Fine, 1988). Likewise, job analysis was also shaped by industrial engineering through the work of Frank and Lillian Gilbreth, who advanced methods to study worker motions and analyzed jobs from the perspective of the fundamental parts (Jeanneret, 1991). The methods of job analysis have developed significantly since the early theoretical frameworks, especially during the last few decades. During the 1950s, job analysis became an influential management tool in the service and manufacturing industries, whereas during the 1970s, increased academic attention was paid to it because job analysis provided current and accurate job data. Furthermore, during the 1980s, it became apparent that job analysis was a useful HRM practice that could advance communication, smooth organizational changes, contribute to improved HR function, and improve cost effectiveness (Sing, 2008).

Today, job analysis is a standout amongst the most essential practices of HRM and can be applied and implemented in multiple functions. It stands at the core of all HR

activities, making it a fundamentally imperative management activity in each organization (Siddique, 2004; Singh, 2008). Thus, job analysis is a precondition activity for managing HR in an effective manner. Organizations that consistently perform work analysis, possess a greatly improved understanding of their strengths and weaknesses, and they can take auspicious preventive and corrective activities to enhance any lack in their abilities and employment behaviors (Suthar et al., 2014).

The existing literature recognizes two approaches to job analysis: the conventional approach and the strategic approach. Singh (2008) outlined the difference between conventional and strategic approaches to job analysis and suggested that the techniques utilized by conventional job analysis were simply not pertinent to numerous new and developing jobs and that it might even be a deterrent to organizational success. Furthermore, he suggested that strategic job analysis was a fundamental step in the development of conventional job analysis because it could definitively handle the rising needs of contemporary organizations. In this context, Sanchez and Levine (2009) compared competency modeling and traditional job analysis along six dimensions: purpose (job description vs behavior effect), job vision (object description vs role endorsement), focus (job vs organization), time alignment (previous vs forthcoming), level of performance (normal vs maximal), and measurement method (latent trait vs clinical judgment). Their results revealed that whereas traditional job analysis concentrated on portraying and estimating the necessities of work, competency modeling generated an instrument to impact every day work performance along strategic positions. Furthermore, Sanchez and Levine (2012) debated the issues related to job-analytic requirements of present organizations that request further research on the three essential categories of job analysis data, namely: work activities, worker characteristics, and work settings. Their findings suggested that the cross-preparation of job analysis in alignment with research from different areas (e.g., the significance of work, work design, work shaping, strategic change, and collaborative psychology) should be methods for reacting to the requests of present organizations through new types of job analysis.

Moreover, Hackman and Oldham (1976, 1980) developed the job characteristics model (JCM), which was the product of contemporary studies on job design. Their findings

revealed that core job attributes of the JCM model were the following: skill diversity, task uniqueness, tasks implications, autonomy, and job feedback—attributes that effectively contributed to work motivation. Building on JCM, Parker et al. (2001) examined the linkage between rousing job attributes and work performance and results, such as employee turnover and absenteeism. Their results reinforced the assumed linkage between rousing job attributes and job satisfaction.

Additionally, Suthar et al., (2014) examined the correlation between organizational performance and job analysis, and their results revealed that job analysis could be an influential mechanism to improve organizational performance through the mediating role of job design, job description, job specification, job evaluation, and organizational policies and practices. In addition, they revealed that job analysis lay at the heart of HR activities and a fundamental strategic HR practice to attain sustained competitive advantage for organizations (Suthar et al., 2014). Similarly, Siddique (2004) analyzed the impact of job analysis on organizational performance among 148 companies that operated in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Their findings uncovered a strong positive correlation between a proactive approach to job analysis and organizational performance. A proactive approach to job analysis resulted in a viable HR strategy to accomplish desired organizational objectives, such as improved efficiency in administration, healthy organizational environment, improved financial and operational performance, and stronger comparative performance in industries (Siddique, 2004).

Hence, it can be concluded that overall the organizational strategy of job analysis is an extremely useful management tool and a vital source of competitive advantage, and it deserves due consideration from HR professionals, supervisors, and managers. It is therefore clearly evident that consistent and proactive job analysis practices help to distinguish factors that shape employee motivation and satisfaction.

#### **2.1.4. Employee Recruitment and Selection**

The evidence provided in the previous sections suggests that the main purpose of HR function is to ensure that organizations are able to succeed through people. Armstrong (2009) argued that organizations existed to accomplish the joined endeavors of the people who worked and cooperated inside the organization. People are the key resources for most organizations, regardless of size, scope, or structure. Thus, it is crucial for all organizations to recruit and select people, who can be well incorporated and who can provide the most competent contributions (Marchington & Wilkinson, 2008; Noe et al., 2010). It is the responsibility of HR function to recruit skilled individuals from the labor market and afterward determine approaches for training, developing, compensating, motivating, and retaining those talented individuals in order to attain competitive advantage (Byars & Rue, 2008). According to Du Plessis et al. (2013), people are a crucial factor to organizational achievement, novelty, and productivity; therefore, recruiting individuals and maintaining business relationships are viewed as a pivotal step in defining organizational structure and organizational destiny.

Recruitment represents the procedure that incorporates those actions and practices executed by the organization, and its principal role is finding and pulling in potential employees (Barber, 1998). De Cieri and Kramar (2008) defined recruitment as a process where organizations hunted for applicants and attracted potential workers, whereas selection was a process by which organizations identified those candidates who possessed knowledge, skills, abilities, and other attributes that would help organizations accomplish their objectives. By contrast, Bratton and Gold (2007) suggested that selection was the process by which employers utilized particular mechanisms to select from a group of candidates who were bound to prosper in the job, considering management objectives and legislative requirements. The recruitment process comprises of identifying appropriate applicants who possess required qualifications and abilities to meet the necessary needs of the vacant position in the organization. When determining the recruitment process through the job analysis system, organizations need to decide for which position they require a worker and the necessities of that position (Vardarlier et al., 2014). Subsequently, after the

analysis of vacant position is done, they need to outline the attributes and the characteristics of the worker.

Extant literature recognizes various recruitment and selection methodologies that may differ based on the organization size or structure. For example, Kwan and Walker (2009) argued that filling a key position comprised of seven specific phases: (1) preparing the position, (2) defining the position, (3) conducting the recruitment process, (4) selecting the right candidate, (5) appointing the selected candidate, (6) training and developing, and (7) reviewing the candidate's performance. According to Cuellari et al. (2014), a successful recruitment process was comprised of the following phases: (1) classifying the vacancy, (2) conducting a job analysis, (3) preparing a job description, (4) preparing a job specification, and (5) advertising the job. By contrast, they suggested that an appropriate selection process comprised of the following: (1) recruiting, (2) collecting information regarding qualified applicants, and (3) assessing applicant's qualifications and making the right decisions. Furthermore, Vardarlier et al., (2014) recognized the accompanying phases of the recruitment process: (1) defining the empty position, (2) defining the personnel resources, (3) advertising the empty position, (4) preparing the forms, (5) developing the recruitment tests, (6) creating the applicant pool, (7) generating the short lists, (8) inviting the candidates for interview, (9) conducting the interviews, (10) evaluating references, (11) selecting the candidate, (12) preparing the job offer, and (13) filling the position.

A significant number of studies have focused on recruitment because of its importance in conveying human capital into associations (Barber, 1998). In particular, recruitment scholars have considered the impacts of recruitment and selection in different organizational settings. Ma and Allen (2009) analyzed the usefulness of recruitment activities throughout cultures and proposed a hypothetical framework for recruitment that investigated how cultural values impacted the usefulness of recruitment activities in various cultural settings. Their findings revealed that cultural values may play a mediating role between recruitment activities and recruitment outcomes throughout all stages of the recruitment process. Furthermore, Plessis et al. (2013) conducted research to identify the significance of recruitment in the retention of senior managers in the Laos banking sector. Their research involved interviews with the HR managers from the banks and also

questionnaire surveys with employees. Their findings identified recruitment and retention as the key challenges faced by the banks in Laos and suggested that HRM practices played a crucial role in attaining their competitive advantage.

Recently, the outsourcing of HR practices, particularly recruitment and selection, has become a rapidly increasing phenomenon. Substantial evidence suggests that the outsourcing of HR activities has increased significantly (Woodall et al., 2002). In this context, Ordanini and Silvestri (2008) investigated the outsourcing of recruiting and selection process by developing an analytical model based on competence drivers. They tested this model in a sample of 276 medium and large organizations in two specific settings: (1) the outsourcing of administrative recruitment and selection activities (e.g., advertisement and screening) and (2) strategic recruitment and selection activities (e.g., colloquia and selection). Their results demonstrated that effectiveness motivations were more critical for the choice to outsource administrative recruitment and selection activities, whereas competitive matters were more related to the strategic component of recruitment and selection practices.

Furthermore, in today's rapidly changing environment, social media and technologies are extensively used in various organizational functions, including HRM. To investigate this phenomenon, El Ouiriet al. (2016) conducted research on social media application in the recruitment and selection process of employees in Central and Eastern Europe, using the theoretical framework of the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology. Their results revealed a positive impact of performance probability, effort probability, and societal influence on behavioral intention. Furthermore, they recommended that it was particularly advisable for companies to introduce new technologies to their HR departments, especially for the purposes of recruitment and selection activities.

Based on the literature provided above, it is clearly evident that recruitment and selection is a major strategic HRM practice that contributes to overall organizational performance and that provides conditions by which organizations can improve their HR metrics, including the reduction of employee turnover intention.

### **2.1.5. Employee Training and Development**

During the 20th century, training and development in organizations underwent significant alteration. Due to changes in work environment, training objectives have broadened beyond enhancing efficiency on basic manual activities to providing employees aptitudes required to perform complex and dynamic jobs (Bell et al., 2017). The role of training and development has likewise extended to include an approach that upgrades individual competences, and it represents a crucial switch for enhancing team efficiency and attaining organizational competitive advantage (Noe et al., 2014). According to Aguinis and Kaiger (2009), training refers to a methodical approach to deal with learning and advancement to enhance individual, group, and organizational efficiency, whereas development refers to actions that lead to the attainment of new knowhow or capabilities for reasons of personal improvement.

There is substantial evidence in the literature that suggests that training activities have a positive effect on the performance of individuals, teams, organizations, and society (Barber, 2004; Davis & Yi, 2004; Lievens et al., 2003; Mabey & Ramirez, 2005; Satterfield & Hughes, 2007). Training activities are also valuable with respect to different results at both the individual and group levels; for example, attitudes, motivation, and empowerment (Aguinis & Kaiger, 2009). Benefits of training are also acknowledged for the development of the technical skills of employees. For example, Davis and Yi (2004) conducted two experiments with 288 participants, using behavior-modeling training. Their findings revealed that behavior-modeling training could improve computer skills significantly by incorporating symbolic mental rehearsal (SMR). Furthermore, Barber (2004) established that on-the-job training could influence greater novelty and tacit capabilities. Noe et al. (2014) analyzed the research on learning that happened in various structures and at the individual, group, and organizational dimensions. They structured an article around five subjects: thinking in a different way about learning, reassessing the method and design of learning, enabling learning in the workplace, extending the scope of learning results, and refining methodology in learning studies. Their results offered a solid background for

understanding how learning could add value to the advancement of human resources and organizational competitive position.

There are also acknowledged benefits of training and development for managers and leaders. In this context, Clarke (2012) developed a multidimensional assessment model to direct leadership training and development at five dimensions of analysis: individual, leader-follower dyad, team, organizational, and community. This model defeats critical constraints in past assessment models by advancing clearer hypothetical methods of reasoning to clarify leadership training and development effects at each of these five dimensions. Furthermore, several studies conducted in European countries have documented the benefits of training on organizational performance. In this context, Mabey and Ramirez (2005) conducted research on training practices with HR managers and line managers in 179 firms in the United Kingdom, Denmark, France, Germany, Norway, and Spain. Their results indicated that the manner in which the development of management was perceived and executed led to substantive discrepancy in financial performance measures. In particular, organizations with line managers acknowledging that management development programs were appreciated were bound to demonstrate positive correlation between management development and financial performance.

Multicultural training represents another method of portraying training benefits related to performance (Lievens et al., 2003). In this approach, employees are trained to perform their jobs in a multicultural environment and adjust their behaviors to living in that culture. In this context, Lievens et al. (2003) analyzed the validity of an extensive set of indicators for selecting European managers for a multicultural training program in Japan. The selection procedure evaluated psychological capacity, personality, and dimensions measured by assessment center exercises and a behavior description interview. Their findings revealed that the factor openness was correlated significantly with multicultural training performance, whereas cognitive ability was correlated significantly with linguistic acquisition. Likewise, the elements of adaptability, teamwork, and communication, as estimated by a group discussion exercise, provided gradual difference in the two criteria beyond psychological capacity and personality.

Moreover, many organizations are investing considerable efforts to develop employee knowledge and skills in order to increase job satisfaction and decrease employee turnover. In this regard, Benson et al. (2004) conducted a study to investigate whether investment in employee development reduced turnover. Their study used ideas from human capital theory to discover how general ability development and promotion were related to voluntary turnover. They collected data from 9,439 workers of a large high-tech industrial firm to evaluate the impact of the firm investment in employee development program on employee turnover. Their results showed that contribution in tuition reimbursement diminished turnover while employees are in school; however, voluntary turnover increments when employees earned graduate degrees were significantly lowered if they were subsequently promoted.

Aguinis and Kaiger (2009) suggested that in order for organizations to make the most of the benefits of training, they needed to ensure that trainees were ready and motivated for training. This could be made possible by reducing trainee tension about training, exhibiting the benefits of training before training starts, and ensuring that employees are exceptionally involved and betrothed with their jobs (Aguinis and Kaiger, 2009). Furthermore, the utilization of adequate training design and delivery techniques could help amplify the benefits of training. In this context, Cox (2016) suggested a strong link between the method and palace that knowledge was acquired from and how that knowledge was applied. This was true particularly for knowledge that was related directly to performance. In an attempt to shed light on smart learning and development approaches, Cox (2016) described how to combine the learning strategies (i.e., competency documentation, maximum utilization of the workplace for learning, and self-coordinated learning exercises alongside a contracting structure that permits self-pacing, dominance, individualization, and different response options), so as to optimize the cost and time of training and development activities and to enhance the positive results for employee performance and retention.

Companies devote huge efforts to training and development programs; therefore, they expect positive results from these programs. These results are usually measured through the assessment of training programs. For example, in a qualitative case study on

the evaluation of management training, Berg and Karlsen (2012) assessed how training could be applied to learn about leadership techniques and the consequence this had on management behavior and development. Their results revealed that coaching was a useful training method to comprehend the manager's toolkit and to improve management performance. Furthermore, their results showed that management training should be founded on the explicit work challenges that the participants experienced in their working environments.

In summary, the evidence from the empirical studies and meta-analytic reviews cited above outlines the benefits of training for individuals, teams, and organizations. These benefits include the following: enhancement of innovation and tacit skills, technical skills and communication skills; improvement of employee empowerment (Aguinis & Kaiger, 2009); enhancement in team profitability, organizational effectiveness, and productivity (Tharenou et al., 2007); and reduction in employee turnover (Benson et al., 2004).

#### **2.1.6. Performance Management**

The appraisal of employees' performance has been the focus of scholars and practitioners for hundreds of years; however, more recently, growing attention has been paid to the process of managing performance. These two concepts are related, but there are significant differences in their application. Performance appraisal refers to the official evaluation and rating of employees by their managers, who evaluate the employee's performance along a given set of predefined criteria, assign a score to that evaluation and then usually inform the employee for his or her official rating (DeNisi & Murphy, 2017). Conversely, performance management is persistent and more extensive; it is a more comprehensive and more normal management procedure that elucidates common expectations and that underscores the support role of managers, who are likely to act as coaches rather than judges; furthermore, it focuses on the future (Armstrong, 2009).

Performance management emerged as a term more than 60 years ago with Anthony (1956), who described it as "the process by which managers assure that resources are

obtained and used effectively and efficiently in the accomplishment of the organization's objectives" (p. 27). This definition has been advanced through the years by many scholars and business practitioners, and one relatively recent description was offered by Anthony and Govindarajan (2007) who described performance management as the progression by which managers inspired their subordinates to implement the organization's strategy. More recently, Armstrong (2009) defined performance management as "a process for establishing a shared understanding about what is to be achieved and how it is to be achieved, and an approach to managing people that increases the probability of achieving success" (p. 618). Furthermore, Aguinis (2013) defined performance management as the "continuous process of identifying, measuring and developing the performance of organization members and aligning performance with the strategic goals of the organization" (p. 2). By contrast, Otley (1999) argued that performance management systems (PMS) represented the arrangement of organizational activities utilized by supervisors to focus employee devotion and motivate their behavior for the decisive purpose of executing organizational strategy. In that capacity, PMS are envisioned as enabling organizational plans and coordinating what they should do, providing exact and convenient input on their performance, and inspiring remedial behavior when needed. According to DeNisi and Murphy (2017), performance management referred to the wide assortment of undertakings, strategies, procedures, and interventions intended to assist employees in improving their performance. These projects started with performance evaluations; however, they also incorporated feedback, objective setting, training, and compensation schemes. In this manner, PMS start with performance evaluation as a shooting off point, and then it focuses on enhancing individual performance in a way that is in synchrony with strategic objectives and with the definitive goal of enhancing firm performance (Aguinis & Pierce, 2008).

Based on the definitions provided above, it is evident that there is widespread agreement among scholars regarding PMS; however, because performance management and management control systems are usually multifaceted and interlaced, increased uncertainty and conflicting outcomes from different studies exist. For this reason, Ferreira and Otley (2009) published a report that shed light on the PMS framework as an examination tool for depicting the structure and process of PMS in a more comprehensive

way. Their research utilized material from two field of studies to demonstrate how context could be used to provide a synopsis of the major performance management issues inside organizations. Their analysis described performance management as a framework that incorporated the setting of organizational mission and vision, the improvement of key performance criteria and targets, and the utilization of performance assessment and reward structures (Ferreira & Otley, 2009).

Buncher (2007) identified the following three theories supporting performance management: (1) goal theory (established by Latham & Locke, 1979), which supports the prominence in performance management on defining and harmonizing objectives against which performance can be assessed and managed, and (2) control theory (established by Carver & Scheier, 1981, 1998), which centers its consideration on feedback as a method of determining behavior; and (3) social cognitive theory (established by Bandura, 1986, 1994, 1997), which is grounded on the principal idea of self-efficacy and proposes that what individuals trust they should or should not do considerably impacts on their performance.

The performance management procedure starts with clearly defined expectations on the managers' side and the workers they manage, and these expectations for performance are communicated as objectives and goals. Aman (1996) argued that goals and objectives of performance management offered the framework from which transparent communication, forecasting, problem solving, appraisal, feedback, and appreciation emerge. He added further that objectives should be based on the specific, measurable, agreed on, realistic, and time bound (SMART) criteria Furthermore, de Lancer Julnes and Holzer (2001) emphasized the importance of performance measurement and management by outlining the following performance measurement objectives: accountability, assessment and understanding, control and inaccuracy, motivation and organizing, and improvement. According to Armstrong (2009), the general goal of performance management was to advance the capacity of people to go beyond their expectations and to accomplish their maximum capacity to the advantage of themselves and the organization.

PMS are widely used within various organizational contexts and yet they provide considerable differences of meaning. For instance, PMS is frequently utilized in the setting of HRM systems with the purpose of controlling the behavior of employees. In this context, Broadbent and Laughlin (2009) suggested that PMS included the following: forecasting work and defining expectations, constantly monitoring performance, increasing the capacity to perform, periodically assessing performance in a summary manner, and rewarding good performers. There has been a considerable body of research on performance management examining ways to improve individual performance and productivity. A good example of this is the research conducted by Pritchard et al. (2008) on productivity measurement and enhancement system (ProMES), a system that combines feedback, goal setting, and incentives in attempt to improve productivity. Their findings revealed that ProMES results in large improvements in efficiency in various types of scenarios (i.e., type of organization, type of job, type of worker, country, etc.). Furthermore, Brown and Warren (2011) incorporated the domains of HRM and business relations by investigating performance management in unionized workplaces. In their research, they examined the literature regarding performance evaluation, objective setting, and organizational performance management to advance understanding how these domains performed in unionized scenarios. Their findings revealed that the union functions of employee voice played a crucial role in HRM practices, primarily in regard to performance evaluation and objective setting.

As mentioned in the beginning of this section, performance evaluation has been studied for nearly a century. Notwithstanding, performance evaluation research turned out to be too concerned with estimation issues and not concerned enough with approaches to enhance performance, albeit some ongoing trends in this domain have started moving the field in the right direction. Interestingly, as research started to concentrate on performance management, the fundamental theoretical models changed from estimation-oriented models to motivational models (DeNisi & Pritchard, 2006). In this context, Buchner (2007) argued that applied models of performance management should take more advantage of existing theories of work motivation. Another variable that has received increasing consideration as a key factor of performance management is employee engagement (Gruman & Saks, 2011). For example, Mone and London (2010) suggested that planning

the performance management process to enhance employee engagement would improve performance. In this context, Gruman and Saks (2011) contended that the performance management process could be improved by concentrating on employee engagement as a proximal result and fundamental determinant of job execution. Their paper represented a noteworthy advancement in the literature on performance management and employee engagement by introducing a rational model and process for advancing the engagement of employees.

### **2.1.7. Reward Management - Pay Structure, Incentives, and Benefits**

Reward management is the process of devising and executing strategies to compensate employees equitably, with the ultimate goal of attracting, motivating, and retaining those individuals that are perceived as facilitators in the realization of organizational objectives (Dulebohn & Werling, 2007). Rewarding employees is one of the key components of organizational HRM. For example, focusing on dominant motivation theories, theories such as Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, Adams's (1965) equity theory, and Lawler's (1971) discrepancy theory confirmed that compensation and reward, and especially satisfaction with these compensation and reward, encouraged appropriate employee behaviors and attitudes, such as desirable performance and commitment, while discouraging negative ones, such as turnover and absenteeism (Williams et al., 2006). Therefore, organizations invest tremendous financial resources in compensation schemes and practices to attract, retain, and motivate their workforce and thereby enhance individual, team, and organizational efficiency (Antoni et al., 2017).

The extant literature on reward management recognizes several categories of organizational reward (De Gieter et al., 2008). De Gieter and Hofmans (2015) distinguished between three reward types: financial rewards (e.g., basic pay and bonuses); material rewards or benefits (e.g., training opportunities and health insurance); and psychological rewards (e.g., appreciation or compliments from managers). Among other forms of direct financial rewards, such as pay, cost-of-living regulations, short-term and long-term inducements (Aguinis et al., 2013) are also indirect financial rewards, such as

benefits (pensions or health programs) and perquisites (e.g., fitness centers or health facilities at the work place, and company cars) (Milkovich et al., 2016).

Monetary compensations and rewards can be a great incentive for increasing employee performance and also can help to acquire and retain high performing employees because it enables them to improve the well-being of their families, as well as intensify their leisure activities with friends and colleagues (Long & Shields, 2010). Besides its role as a motivator, monetary compensations and rewards enable organizations to attract and retain employees who demonstrate the utmost levels of performance, desire for achievement, and leadership attributes (Rynes et al., 2004). Furthermore, higher levels of monetary reward and better alignment between payment and performance are particularly appreciated by top performers (O'Boyle & Aguinis, 2012). Therefore, organizations that offer higher levels of monetary rewards and relate individual performance to pay enjoy higher levels of return on investment (Brown et al., 2003).

Among the various forms of direct and indirect financial rewards, empirical evidence indicates that performance-related pay schemes had a positive effect on employee job performance (e.g., Gerhart & Fang, 2014; Park & Sturman, 2016; Weibel et al., 2010). According to Park and Sturman (2016), application of performance-related pay schemes can increase employee motivation, which in turn can enhance employee performance. However, there is a widespread debate among researchers on whether performance-related pay can actually enhance effectiveness and efficiency (Moynihan, 2008). On the one hand, researchers from economics and the behavioral sciences argue that performance-related pay schemes increase individual performance if it is appropriately managed (Burgess & Ratto, 2003). On the other hand, researchers that come from the psychological sciences argue that performance-related pay schemes harm individual performance for occasions where tasks are challenging (Deci & Ryan, 2002). These researchers argue that task type is an important moderating factor when analyzing the impact of performance-related pay schemes on employee performance (Perry et al., 2006). In this regard, Weibel et al. (2010) investigated whether performance-related pay schemes positively or negatively impacted employee performance and if so, under which circumstances. Their results confirmed that motivation was probably a key impact factor for the effect of performance-related pay

schemes on employee performance and that performance-related pay was generally more expensive because it often resulted in some hidden costs.

Beside the extensive studies on monetary rewards, behavioral studies that focus on nonmonetary rewards has increased significantly. In this context, Hammermann and Mohnen (2014) analyzed the impacts of nonmonetary and monetary rewards on the work performance of managers with comparative performance appraisals. Their results revealed contradictory effects of monetary and nonmonetary rewards on work performance. In particular, monetary rewards considerably outperformed those that were under nonmonetary rewards heterogeneity. Similarly, Kvaloy et al. (2015) conducted a study to examine the interaction between monetary rewards and the motivational conversation (conversations that potentially induce the workers' intrinsic motivation and encourage them to apply additional effort). Their findings suggested that motivational conversation enhanced performance only when supplemented by performance-related pay, whereas performance-related pay diminished performance, except if it was supplemented by motivational conversation. Furthermore, Kvaloy and Schöttner (2015) analyzed the interaction between monetary and nonmonetary rewards by distinguishing between two cases; namely, incentive responsiveness and motivation responsiveness. In the first case, they revealed that higher incentives reduce worker responsiveness to motivation, whereas in the second case, they revealed that monetary incentives supplemented and increased the impact of motivation.

Another crucial aspect in the reward management literature that has drawn the attention of many scholars is the allocation of rewards. Allocating rewards in an organized fashion is essential to guarantee that employee perceptions regarding pay decisions are fair and equitable (Stone et al., 2007). However, what establishes a fair pay decision may depend on several aspects. According to van Dijke et al. (2009), the definition of fairness can be linked to procedural justice since it shows that employee perceptions of the rewards they get are fairer when the procedures underlying these decisions are perceived as fair, which in turn impact higher levels of job performance. This is further supported by Day et al. (2014), who investigated the relationship between employee need for rewards and employee perceptions of fairness, using performance-related pay schemes. Their findings

revealed the positive correlation between both employee needs and reward allocation and employee perceptions of fairness regarding compensation.

Moreover, researchers have moved their interest to exploring the predictive impact of pay schemes, which includes the distribution of pay rates for various positions within a particular organization (Milkovich et al., 2011). Reward distribution is less negative to individual and group consequences when it is directly related to legitimate employee contributions such as work performance. In this context, Trevor et al. (2012) examined the impact of reward distribution by distinguishing it into two separate concepts based on different reward bases. They adopted a categorization approach to differentiate between reward distribution that is utilized to enable valued employee contributions' and reward distribution that is not so utilized. Their findings revealed that the utilized reward distribution was positively related to interdependent team performance, whereas the latter had no impact or could be destructive.

Another aspect which has drawn the attention of many organizational scholars is the impact of reward management in employee turnover intention (e.g., Williams et al., 2008; He et al., 2014; Nazir et al., 2016). He et al. (2014) examined the cross-level correlation between workgroup pay distribution and employee intention to quit in the Chinese context by developing and measuring a multiple level model concerning the relationship between workgroup pay distribution and employee intention to quit. Their findings indicated that there was a positive correlation between workgroup pay distribution and intention to quit among employees with lower rather than higher salary levels. In a similar setting, Langove and Isha (2017) analyzed the core issues in the context of employee rewards and recognition and employee well-being and turnover intention of IT executives in Malaysia. In their study, they developed and proposed a theoretical framework that clarified the impact of reward and recognition on employee intention to quit, where employee well-being intervened as a mediator. Their findings revealed that rewards and recognition were motivational mechanisms that increased psychological well-being and decreased the intention to quit. Likewise, Nazir et al. (2016) analyzed the impact of different intrinsic, social, and extrinsic rewards on the two segments of commitment factors, considering the multidimensional commitment point of view in Chinese

organizations. Their findings demonstrated that extrinsic, social, and intrinsic rewards were positively related to affective and normative commitment; however, affective and normative commitment was negatively related to employee intention to quit. Furthermore, Williams et al. (2008) developed a comprehensive theoretical model and measure of reward satisfaction in seven dimensions: four for pay (level, structure, raises, and variable pay procedures satisfaction) and three dimensions for benefits (level, determination, and administration satisfaction). Their results revealed that satisfaction with respect to procedures of compensation were related to perceived organizational support, and perceived organizational support played the mediating role between these compensation satisfaction procedures and affective commitment and intention to quit.

Moreover, empirical research has shown that appropriate performance appraisals procedure and reward schemes, such as compensation and employee recognition programs, can encourage employee OCBs (Becton et al., 2008). Podsakoff et al. (2000) argued that whether or not managers conduct performance evaluation and reward allocation of their employees through formal or informal means, they actually factor OCBs into their evaluations. They further suggest, however, that care must be taken of how formal performance appraisal and compensation might influence employees and their exhibition of OCBs because the effects of performance appraisal and compensation of OCBs can vary depending on the motivation of the employees' exhibiting OCB. For instance, if an individual who is intrinsically motivated to achieve OCBs is rewarded for this behavior, it may have the unintentional impact of hindering this behavior in the future, whereas an individual who is extrinsically motivated to perform OCBs (i.e., for impression-management purposes) and is rewarded for this behavior through the performance evaluations and reward systems is more likely to continue to engage in OCBs (Becton et al., 2008).

The evidence from the extant literature on reward management and related constructs suggests that management must consider cautiously the effective methods of encouraging employee commitment. These include offering more attractive benefits and managerial support, creating satisfactory coworker relationships, giving autonomy to employees, and enabling them to contribute in the decision-making process.

## **2.2 Organizational Justice**

### **2.2.1. Introduction**

The term justice has an idiomatic connotation that is closely related to its philosophical roots. Judgement about justice has been acknowledged as an important perception that impacts individual attitudes and behaviors. Social scholars and philosophers commonly agree that cognitions about a *just* act are associated with good or rightness (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Beside its idiomatic connotation, it is also widely acknowledged among scholars that the word justice implies a moral correctness or ethical appropriateness. Justice is the application and use of a set of moral principles for guiding the manner in which one behaves toward other people, at least with respect to outcome distributions, decision processes, and interpersonal treatment (Fortin & Fellenz, 2008). More precisely, justice is prevalent when people attain what they deserve or are treated in the way they deserve to be treated. Justice implies that standard-based right results are distributed in a way that is morally appropriate and acceptable (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015).

In organizational contexts, justice can be portrayed as focusing on the determinants and outcomes of three categories of subjective views: (a) the way in which outcomes are distributed and rewards are allocated, (b) what procedures are followed to determine how outcomes are distributed or rewards are allocated, and (c) how people manage relations among themselves. These categories of justice are usually referred to as distributive justice (Adams, 1965; Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1976), procedural justice (Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal et al., 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975) and interactional justice (Bies, 1987; Bies & Moag, 1986), which will be reviewed and discussed thoroughly in the following subsections of this chapter.

Thoughts on organizational justice have often been associated with various organizational outcomes. For instance, the fairness of decisions about outcome distributions as well as the fairness of procedures adopted in the distribution process have

been found to impact individual's attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, job commitment, and organizational trust) and behaviors (e.g., OCB, intention to quit, and unproductive conducts) (e.g., Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Therefore, in an attempt to provide a theoretical and empirical background for this study, this section reviews the most relevant literature in organizational justice. First, this section explores the historical development of organizational justice. Then, different dimensions and theoretical developments in organizational justice research are reviewed. Finally, this section discusses the antecedents and consequences of organizational justice.

### **2.2.2. The origins of Organizational Justice**

Throughout the second half of the last century, justice scholars have been keen to study justice aspects, such as the characteristics of justice that relate to the fairness of the distribution of outcomes, the methods by which the outcomes are distributed, and the impartiality of the treatment that people obtain during performing procedures. Certainly, as research on justice has advanced, it has been described by distinguishing and featuring refinements between various kinds of fairness (Colquitt et al., 2005). From the middle of 1950s until the middle of the 1980s, organizational justice was mainly based on two kinds of justice; namely, distributive and procedural justice. Initially, researchers were concerned mainly with the impartiality of distribution of outcomes or distributive justice. The best examples explaining this framework include social exchange theory (Homans, 1958), equity theory (Adams, 1965), and relative deprivation theory (Crosby, 1984; Martin, 1981; Stouffer et al., 1949).

However, an increasing number of empirical studies started to generate inconsistencies that could not be addressed by distributive justice alone. Therefore, researchers began to expand the paradigm of organizational justice and began to establish that besides outcomes, people were also concerned with the procedures adopted to distribute these outcomes. This framework was referred to as procedural justice. The pioneering contribution and research on procedural justice was attributed to Thibaut and Walker (1975), who developed the theory of procedure. This theory recognizes process

control and decision control as two crucial components that impact individual's thoughts on procedural justice (Bies, 2015). Following the work of Thibaut and Walker, Leventhal (1980) developed a justice judgment model of procedural justice. In this model, Leventhal argued that consistency, bias suppression, accuracy, correctability, representativeness, and ethicality were the main rules that people used to evaluate the fairness of procedures. Building on these two predecessor models, Lind and Tyler (1988) developed a new theory of procedural justice, which they termed as the group values model. Four years later they advanced and refined this theory and referred to it as the relational model of authority (Tyler & Lind, 1992). Lind and Tyler maintained that procedures were valued to a limited extent, since they conveyed status and consideration in groups, which present social inspirations in evaluating procedural justice (Bies, 2015).

Following the theoretical developments on distributive and procedural justice, Bies and Moag (1986) contended that besides outcomes and procedures, people were also worried about the nature of relational treatment they received from coworkers in their organizations. Under this assumption, they developed the proposition that provided the groundwork for the investigation of relational treatment as a key part of organizational justice. Their results indicated that individuals were quite worried about the fairness of the relational treatment they received from their employers, which they referred to as interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986).

### **2.2.3. Dimensions of Organizational Justice**

As mentioned in the previous section, scholars in the field of organizational justice have identified and explored three dimensions of organizational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (e.g., Adams, 1965; Bies, 1987; Bies & Moag, 1986; Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1976; Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal et al., 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). In the following section, each dimension of organizational justice and their relationships will be reviewed.

### **2.2.3.1. Distributive Justice**

In the period before 1975, studies on justice were mainly focused on distributive justice. Most of the studies of that time were derived from preliminary work conducted by Adams (1965), who made use of relative deprivation and relative gratification theory (Stouffer et al., 1949) and social exchange theory (Homans, 1958) to assess fairness. According to Adams, people were not primarily concerned about the level of outcomes itself but about whether those outcomes were fair. Adams suggested that people assessed fairness by comparing the ratio of their contributions or inputs (e.g., education, ability, loyalty, commitment, and experience) to their outcomes (e.g., promotion, recognition, security, and training opportunities) and then compared that ratio with that of others. According to equity theory, if one's ratio of inputs to outcomes is equal to the ratio of inputs to outcomes compared to others, the individual will perceive fairness and satisfaction. On the other hand, if one's ratio of inputs to outcomes is unequal compared to others, the individual will perceive unfairness and dissatisfaction. Therefore, distributive justice can be described as the individuals' cognitions of fairness regarding the allocation of results or outcomes (Deutsch, 1975). In spite of the fact that the comparison of the ratios of inputs and outcomes provided an objective component to equity theory, Adams was certain that this process was entirely subjective.

While equity theory encouraged the utilization of equity standards to regulate fairness, a few other allocation standards have been further distinguished. For example, Leventhal's (1976) justice judgement model discussed distributive justice from the perspective of the individuals who make the allocation. That is, the justice judgment theory demonstrated a more proactive strategy compared to equity theory. As per the justice judgment theory, individuals utilized different standards of distributive justice, depending on circumstances. According to Leventhal's (1976) justice judgement, there are three essential norms: equity, equality, and need. The equity norm of distributive justice recommends that outcomes or allocation of resources ought to be distributed equally among individuals, whereas the need norm proposes that individuals ought to attain outcomes according to their needs. Leventhal (1980) advocated that the norms applied for assessing distributive justice may vary in different circumstances. For example, in the event

that managers were seeking to increase employee work performance and maximize productivity, they ought to apply equity as the norm of distributive justice. However, if the priority of managers was to encourage a state of coherence and solidarity among individuals in the organization, they ought to apply the equality norm. Yet, if the managers are more concerned about the well-being of their employees, they should apply the need norm in the distribution of outcomes and allocation of resources.

Researches have revealed that different settings (e.g., work vs family), diverse organizational objectives (e.g., group coherence vs efficiency), and diverse individual intentions (e.g., personal-interest intentions vs altruistic intentions) can enact the utilization or supremacy of certain allocation rules (Deutsch, 1975). The idea of allocation rule is frequently associated with principle of distributive justice. Leventhal (1976a) defined allocation rule as “a social rule which specifies criteria that define certain distributions of rewards and resources as fair and just” (p. 94). Apparently, the majority of allocation rules have as their objective the attainment of distributive justice; they simply endeavor to do so through the utilization of different rules (Colquitt et al., 2001). In this context, unfair distribution of outcomes or allocation rules could cause employees to lower their job performance (Greenberg, 1988), increase their turnover intention (Pfeffer & Davis-Blake, 1992), lower cooperation with associates (Pfeffer & Langton, 1993), reduce work quality (Cowherd & Levine, 1992), and experience anxiety (Zohar, 1995).

When people make judgements about distributive justice, they usually assess the outcome of this judgement in terms of appropriateness, morality, and ethics. However, in order to assess if outcomes are fair, individuals should make a point of reference or ‘referent’ standard (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Among the wide range of referents, researchers have mostly focused on benchmarking from the social aspect (Kulik & Ambrose, 1992). For instance, if an individual wants to determine whether his or her salary is fair in comparison to other employees in a similar position (referent salary), he or she can compare the salary levels within a similar job position. If there are significant variations between two salaries, the individual’s perception about equity will be positive. If an individual notices that his or her salary was higher than a referent salary, the individual’s perception of equity would be negative, and he or she was likely to feel uncomfortable

(Greenberg, 1988), although evidence suggests that individuals were likely to be less disappointed when unfairness was in their interest (Hegtvedt, 1993). On the other hand, if an individual noticed that he or she is being paid less than a referent salary, the individual tended to display negative reactions, especially when his or her salary was considerably less than the referent salary (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998).

Individuals' perceptions of unfair distribution of outcomes can lead to every negative impact and unfair condition ever recorded by researchers. Individuals in unfair conditions are likely to display negative psychological or behavioral attitudes (Walster et al., 1978) and tend to change their behavioral, cognitive, and emotional reactions (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991). In an attempt to change these conditions, individuals may pursue the following strategies: (1) They may try to adjust their inputs to outcomes; (2) they may rationally adjust their own or others' inputs or outcomes; (3) they may decide to pull out physically or psychologically from that state; (4) they may attempt to adjust their inputs or outcomes compared to others; and (5) they may change the object of the benchmark. Moreover, the appearance of these individuals' reactions can be described through social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which suggests that social relations encompasses the process of negotiating exchanges between parties. This is particularly evident when organizations act justly in terms of distribution of outcomes and allocation of resources. In alignment with social exchange theory, individuals respond in a reciprocal way with positive attitudes and behaviors (Galens et al., 2013). This is further supported by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) who analyzed the impact of perceived distributive justice on employee outcomes. Their empirical findings revealed that perceived distributive justice had a positive impact on employee satisfaction, affective commitment, OCB, turnover intentions, and employee performance.

#### **2.2.3.2. Procedural Justice**

Whereas the initial research on justice focused on the question of the individual's judgement on the impartiality of the outcomes of a social exchange, after the 1970s, it became apparent to many researchers that individuals were concerned not only with the

outcomes of a social exchange but also with the impartiality of the procedures by which allocation decisions are made. Hence, in the 1980s, social scientists (e.g., Folger & Greenberg, 1985; Greenberg & Folger, 1983; Lind & Tyler, 1988) introduced the concept of procedural justice to the organizational sciences. These scientists studied the thinking on procedural justice in other social sciences and advocated for the significance of the idea in understanding numerous vital organizational phenomena. Albeit numerous scientists have contributed to the rise of the procedural justice concept in the social sciences, three streams of research are viewed as revolutionary (Bobocel & Gosse, 2015). As a result, it is vital to outline how each group of scientists characterized and theorized procedural justice.

Thibaut and Walker's (1975, 1978) are attributed as key contributors who offered the initial systematic research on procedural justice. The key impact of their empirical research was the validation that disagreements in legal dispute resolution procedures influenced disputants' emotional impressions of the justice of those procedures, as well as their satisfaction with the subsequent decisions. Thibaut and Walker (1978) made a distinction between legal dispute resolutions procedures relative to the extent to which they assigned control in disputants compared to the arbitrator. According to Thibaut and Walker, control could be disseminated among disputants and arbitrators in two phases: a process phase, during which the proof is exhibited, and the outcome phase, during which a decision is made. A standout amongst their most important findings was that disputants favored procedures that enabled them to exhibit proof for their case, thus holding power over the procedure (process control), notwithstanding when they did not possess control over the last decision (outcome control). Fundamentally, Thibaut and Walker demonstrated that dispute resolution procedures that met the expectations of disputants for process control were perceived as more just compared to other procedures. In other words, Thibaut and Walker suggested that disputants preferred process control because it provided them with indirect control over the outcome, through which they may realize impartial outcomes (Bobocel & Gosse, 2015).

Following the work of Thibaut and Walker, scientists continually simulated the findings that enabled individuals to contribute to decisions that influenced them to enrich their view of procedural justice and expand outcome acknowledgment, notwithstanding

that outcomes were unwanted. In this context Folger (1977) marked process control as “voice” in his developmental research on reward allocation, and later Folger et al. (1979) invented the term “fair process effect” alluding to cases in which more gratification derives from giving individuals a voice in judgements. (Folger et al., 1979).

In addition, an increasing number of scientists recognized that individuals’ perception of justice comes not only from treatment of the distribution of outcomes and that emphasis should also be placed on the allocation of resources. In this regard, social psychologist Gerald Leventhal conducted a number of studies that emphasized the construct of procedural justice in resource allocation (Leventhal, 1976, 1980; Leventhal et al., 1980). Leventhal (1980) introduced his conceptualization of the subjective procedure by which individuals structure fairness judgements. He termed this conceptualization as a “justice judgment model” (Leventhal, 1980). One component of the justice judgment model that has had an enduring effect on procedural justice literature is Leventhal's (1980) determination of the procedural guidelines, by which he supposed that individuals may assess whether an allocation process was just or out unjust. Leventhal hypothesized that individuals would perceive allocation procedures as more rational in the following circumstances: (1) if the allocation procedures were applied in a consistent and timely manner crosswise over individuals (consistency norm), (2) if individual’s selfishness and conformism were avoided (bias suppression norm), (3) if individuals were assured that that choices relied on the best reliable data and evidence-based judgements (accuracy norm), (4) if individuals were offered the opportunity to alter and reject unfair decisions (correctability norm), (5) if the decisions represented the concerns of all individuals who might be impacted (representativeness norm), and (6) if the decision was in compliance with individual’s perception of fundamental moral and ethical norms (ethicality norm).

Furthermore, evidence from other studies has supported the validity of Leventhal’s justice judgment model criteria in allocation procedures in general and in decision-making in organizational context in particular. For instance, in his qualitative study, Greenberg (1986) analyzed middle managers’ perceptions of the determinants of fair or unfair performance evaluations. His results revealed evidence for various determinants of fair procedures; however, in particular, two of the factors identified by managers (i.e., ability

to challenge evaluations and consistent application of standards) matched closely with Leventhal et al., (1980) consistency of allocation procedures as determinants of just procedures for the distribution of resources.

In addition, several other models on procedural justice have been introduced by social scientists. In this context, Lind and Tyler (1988) introduced the group-value model, which originated from social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1986). Following from their rationale of the psychological function of fair procedures, Lind and Tyler (1988) contended that procedural justice cognitions should be the most important in the development of individuals' general behaviors toward the groups or associations to which they belonged, whereas distributive justice decisions should be more applicable predictors of individuals' responses to a particular outcome.

Four years later, Tyler and Lynd (1992) analyzed and expounded the group-value model, and as a result, they introduced their relational model of authority. Whereas the group-value model concentrated mainly on exhibiting the role of non-instrumental variables associated with procedural justice decisions, the relational model advanced the initial work with an intention to see how authorities gained legitimacy in groups. The relational model argued that procedures in organizations were understood as reflecting fundamental principles of the group; along these lines, procedures transmitted data to individuals in regard to their association with the group and the authority establishing the procedure, which in turn encourages authority legitimacy (Bobocel & Gosse, 2015).

Another reason why procedural justice received the attention of scientists is because it helps individuals decrease uncertainty. In the period after 2000, various researchers have observed the implications of uncertainty theory and fairness heuristic theory for comprehending a variety of organizational circumstances. In an original theory, Van den Bos (2001) and Lind (2002) argued that individuals were driven to make impartial decisions rapidly in social collaborations to lessen uncertainty about whether their counterparty could be trusted not to abuse or disregard them. For instance, both Lind and Van den Bos contended that commonly in social circumstances, individuals lacked the information to decide if their outcomes were impartial; therefore they utilized procedural

justice as a heuristic method to evaluate the impartiality of outcomes. Furthermore, scientists have discovered that psychology-based trust (Colquitt et al., 2012) played a mediating role between procedural justice and work performance. In particular, enhanced procedural justice was related to improved psychology-based trust and diminished uncertainty, which led to enhanced work performance. Other studies have observed relevant factors that increased uncertainty in organizational circumstances and which accordingly should direct the impacts of procedural justice. For instance, Hakonen, and Lipponen (2008) contended that absence of personal contact and geographical distance between virtual work groups caused greater uncertainty. They considered that these factors should direct the impacts of procedural justice. Their findings revealed that the association between procedural justice and group identity was stronger when there were few direct contacts and when groups were more dispersed geographically.

Another significant model of procedural justice was introduced by Folger and Cropanzano (2001), and it aimed to clarify how individuals made judgements about agent's responsibility for occasions that hurt one's material or mental prosperity. This model of procedural justice was termed the fairness theory. Fairness theory contends that when individuals experience a negative occasion, counterfactual reasoning around three matters increases: (1) alternative conditions of prosperity (i.e., what individuals would have experienced if the circumstances had been different), (2) concerns of causal responsibility regarding the occasion (i.e., whether the occasion could have been different, and (3) concerns of the ethical responsibility of involved parties (i.e., whether the occasion should have been different. Although the fairness theory was not initially intended to clarify the joint impacts of procedures, exchanges, and results on self-evaluations, it might be conceivable to comprehend these impacts utilizing this model (Bobocel & Gosse, 2015).

It is worthy to mention that scientists have featured other procedural justice norms that are relevant in explicit organizational settings. For instance, Gilliland (1993) identified numerous procedural rules in recruitment and selection situations that should improve candidate reactions to employment selection systems, such as job kinship, the possibility to improve performance, correctness of questions, trustworthiness, and responsiveness. Furthermore, numerous researchers have demonstrated that procedural justice impacted

other employee attitudes and behaviors, such as emotions (Barclay et al., 2005), self-appraisals (Schroth & Shah, 2000), stress (Vermunt & Steensma, 2005), job commitment (Korsgaard et al., 1995), organizational trust (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011), OCBs (Moorman, 1991), job performance (Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009), turnover intention (Posthuma et al., 2007), and counterproductive job attitudes (Hershcovis et al., 2007).

### **2.2.3.3. Interactional Justice**

Building on the earlier conceptualization of distributive and procedural justice, Bies and Moag (1986) suggested that cognitions of organizational justice were affected by factors that overcame the distribution of outcomes and formal procedures used to achieve the outcomes. In this context, Bies and Moag presented the latest development in organizational justice literature by concentrating on the significance of the quality of the relational treatment individuals obtained when procedures were executed. Under this assumption, they developed the proposition that eventually became the groundwork for the investigation of relational treatment as a key part of organizational justice. Bies and Moag considered interactional justice to include individual uncertainties about the quality of relational treatment displayed by leaders during the execution of decision procedures.

In their initial study, while analyzing the job experiences of MBA students through content analysis, Bies and Moag (1986) concentrated on the impartiality of the communication part of relational treatment, and they distinguished four criteria that individuals used to assess justice. These four criteria included the following: honesty, respect, legitimacy of questions, and justification. According to Bies and Moag (1986), relational treatment that people receive during the execution of procedures influences their impression of organizational justice in general. In particular, people's view of organizational justice can be improved when the reasons behind the judgements are clarified in an honest, and adequate manner (Bies et al., 1988). Moreover, positive organizational justice cognitions could likewise be promoted when people were treated with politeness, dignity, and regard (Bies, 1987; Bies & Moag, 1986). These aspects of justice were termed by Bies and Moag (1986) as interactional justice.

According to Bies and Moag (1986), interactional justice describes the quality of the relational treatment individuals obtain by each other. Some types of treatment would likely be seen as impartial, whereas others would be viewed as partial (Bies and Moag, 1986). It is therefore acceptable to conceptualize interactional justice as a part of decision-making procedures that are conceptualized to incorporate processes of execution and communication, particularly during the explanation of decisions (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). This is also supported by Konovsky and Cropanzano, (1991) who confirmed that there is a strong correlation between the rankings of procedural and interactional justice.

Building on Bies and Moag's research, Greenberg (1993b) offered another model. Greenberg contended that the distinction among social and nonsocial components of the procedures can equally be applicable to judgement outcomes. In this context, Greenberg argued that individuals were worried about impartial relational treatment during the execution of decision procedures as well as during the dispersion of an allocation procedure. In this manner, Greenberg proposed that social and nonsocial components of both procedures and distributions may be conceptualized into a four-component model of justice cognitions. Greenberg utilized the terms procedural and distributive justice to allude to the nonsocial systems by which decisions were taken and outcomes were allotted. More specifically, he utilized the terms informational and interpersonal justice to allude to the interpersonal behaviors of those executing procedures and distribution of outcomes.

Regardless of whether it is considered separately or as an aspect of procedures, interactional justice per se can be thought of as consisting of two components (e.g., Greenberg, 1990a, 1993b). The first component labeled interpersonal justice deals with interpersonal sensitivity and reflects the politeness, dignity, and respect during fair treatment in order to avoid poor performance, conflicts and counterproductive attitudes (Bies & Moag, 1986). The second component labeled informational justice of interactional justice pertains to the rationality of explanations and adequate justifications provided to individuals during the decision-making process. Individuals are more likely to tolerate a decision with negative consequence if rational explanations and adequate justifications are provided (Shapiro et al., 1994).

In the organizational context, interactional justice has been associated with numerous individual effects, judgements, and behaviors. For example, Greenberg (2006) analyzed the buffering effect of interactional justice on insomniac reactions to underpayment inequity among 467 nurses employed at hospitals. Representing the unpleasant perception of underpayment, insomnia was considerably larger among nurses whose compensation was decreased than among those whose compensation stayed unaltered. However, the level of insomnia was essentially lower among nurses whose managers attended trainings in interactional fairness. His findings revealed that the application of interactional justice practices had a buffering effect on dissatisfactory reactions from payment inequity. Likewise, Laschinger (2004) examined the exploratory model of the antecedents and consequences of nurses' cognitions of respect in teaching hospitals in Ontario. Although a large number of nurses felt that supervisors did not show respect in an honest manner, the strongest predictor of cognitions of respect was interactional justice within the organization. Finally, his results demonstrated that nurses' perceptions of respect included more job satisfaction, trust in supervisors, and lower emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, Williams et al. (2002) analyzed the impact of interactional justice on OCB in a sample of 114 workers from different industries and organizations. Their findings revealed that the probability of OCB increased when workers' cognitions of impartial treatment by managers were more positive. In other words, interactional justice cognitions were significantly associated with the willingness to perform extra OCBs.

#### **2.2.4. Antecedents of Organizational Justice**

In spite of the fact that the literature about the consequences of organizational justice is quite rich, there is a dearth of research on the antecedents of organizational justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Among the modest number of studies in this domain, voice is presumably one of the antecedents that has received the most consideration. Lind et al. (1990) examined the impact of voice on impression of justice and revealed that only allowing individuals to raise their voice openly made them feel that the procedure was impartial although their voice had no contribution to an absolute judgement. They

recommended that having freedom of expression in management processes could improve individuals' view of procedural justice, even when their voices did not impact results. These findings were in line with Lind and Tyler (1988) who argued that voice not only had an influential capacity on basic management results but also figuratively carried respect and dignity.

Additional research on the antecedents of organizational justice have concentrated mostly on particular settings; for example, new payment schemes and fair treatment during the performance evaluation process. Dulebohn and Martocchio (1998) examined 368 employees in terms of their cognitions of the impartiality of work group incentive pay plans. They found that antecedent variables, such as comprehension of the compensation plan, confidence in the compensation plan adequacy, and organizational commitment, displayed a positive relationship with cognitions of procedural justice. In addition, besides these antecedent variables, pay satisfaction related positively to employees' cognitions of distributive justice.

In light of the legitimate concept of fair treatment, Folger et al. (1992) developed an alternative performance appraisal model called "a due process" model that addressed issues associated with the test and political metaphors. Characteristics of due process model include the following antecedent variables: adequate notice, fair hearing, and judgement based on evidence. Adequate notice pertains to the appropriateness of distribution, explanation and timely feedback about performance appraisal standards to employees. Fair hearing pertains to a formal appraisal meeting to advise employees about the outcomes of performance evaluation and allowing them to challenge the evaluation process. Judgment based on evidence pertains to the organizations' duty to apply performance appraisal standards consistently, fairly, and unbiasedly. Interestingly, while examining the effect of the due process performance appraisal model on workers' perceptions in a field study, Tylor et al. (1995) found that there was a positive relationship between the due process performance appraisal model and workers' perceptions of justice.

Moreover, in an attempt to recognize the antecedents of organizational justice, Tyler (1989) examined and compared Lind and Tyler's (1988) group value model and

Thibaut and Walker's (1975) control model of procedural justice. As stated by Tyler (1989), the control model of procedural justice recommends that individuals favor impartial procedures in light of the fact that controlling the procedure in the long run prompts satisfactory results. Alternatively, the group value model proposes that individuals appreciate participation in social groups and are worried about three noncontrol matters: (1) impartiality of management, (2) trust of management, and (3) respect for their social status in the group. Tyler examined whether decisions about neutrality, trust, and social status impacted the decisions of procedural justice. His results revealed that the group value factors, such as trust and social status were observed to be the best antecedents of organizational justice perceptions, whereas neutrality had less impact. Similarly, Tyler found that outcome favorability appeared to be another antecedent of organizational justice and that control had minor impact.

Building on Fairness Heuristic Theory, Beugre and Baron (2001) contended that due to the fact that employees faced challenges in gathering evidence on organizational justice, they simply depended on their cognitions of the three conventional features of justice: distributive, procedural, and interactional. Beugre and Baron conducted a field study on a sample of 232 employees from different organizations and found that procedural and interactional justice were critical antecedents of overall organizational justice; however, they could not confirm that distributive justice was an independent antecedent of overall organizational justice.

Driven by the dearth of empirical research on the rules used in establishing justice judgements, Hollensbe et al. (2008) conducted a qualitative research that sought to analyze employee perceptions of the fairness of their supervisors and organization and to elaborate on the rationale underlying their judgements. Analyzing interview data from 33 new employees, they found that besides the four conventional justice dimensions, in general, organizational justice decisions were impacted by antecedents, such as organizational support, organizational flexibility, organizational diversity, substitution of supervisor fairness, individual affective state, and social information.

More recently, Barclay and Kiefer (2014) examined a model from which they anticipated that procedural and interactional fairness would be more influential on overall fairness than distributive fairness. Building on Lind and Tyler's (1988, 1992) theory (i.e., the group values model and the relational model of authority), they contended that the relational model of authority suggested that people were especially sensitive to impartial procedures and relational treatment due to the communication of value and remaining as a part of the group. In fact, Barclay and Kiefer established that both procedural and interactional justice were stronger antecedents of overall justice over distributive justice. However, they additionally established that procedural justice was a considerably stronger antecedent of overall justice than interactional justice.

#### **2.2.5. Outcomes of Organizational Justice**

In an attempt to shed light on the significance of identifying and clarifying the outcomes of organizational justice, numerous studies have concentrated on the impact of organizational justice on employee attitudes and behaviors. Cognitions of organizational justice have been observed as significant predictors of various organizational outcomes, such as pay satisfaction, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational trust, OCB, turnover intentions, and nonproductive behaviors (e.g., Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Mcfarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Masterson et al., 2000).

In order to examine the impact of distributive and procedural justice on the reactions of employees to salary increase decisions, Folger and Konovsky (1989) analyzed the reactions of 217 front-line employees in a manufacturing plant in the U.S. Their results revealed that cognitions of distributive justice were uniquely associated with pay satisfaction, whereas the cognitions of procedures adopted in defining the salary increases made an exceptional impact on organizational commitment and organizational trust. Indeed, Folger and Konovsky found that procedural justice also made an exceptional impact to pay satisfaction. This was further supported by Mcfarlin and Sweeney (1992), who conducted a survey study with 1,100 employees of a midwestern bank in the U.S.A. and found that distributive justice was a significant predictor of pay satisfaction and job

satisfaction. McFarlin and Sweeney also found that procedural justice was a strong predictor of organizational commitment and employee evaluation of managers.

Tansky (1993) conducted the first empirical analysis of the outcomes of organizational justice, where he examined the correlation between employees' cognitions of organizational justice, OCB, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Relying on social exchange theory, Tansky anticipated a positive correlation between organizational justice, OCB, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. After analyzing combined data from 75 managers and employees, his results revealed that employee cognitions of organizational justice were significant predictors of OCB, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Törnblom and Vermunt (1999) analyzed the correlation between distributive fairness, procedural fairness, and overall fairness decisions, with the objective of developing a combined methodology to fairness, in which the distribution of outcomes and procedures would fit as two crucial relations representing individuals' views and understandings about fairness and unfairness. This model was known as the total fairness model, which considered justice dimensions as well as the beneficiality of outcomes. In particular, Törnblom and Vermunt theorized overall fairness evaluations as a component of people's perceptions about distributive and procedural dimensions strengthened by the emotional force of the outcome. Their results demonstrated that an outcome of the total fairness model could be fair and unbeneficial (e.g., qualified candidate gets promoted), unfair and beneficial (e.g., getting an unmerited promotion), fair and beneficial (e.g., getting a merited promotion), or unfair and unbeneficial (e.g., lesser qualified candidate gets promoted).

In addition, Masterson et al. (2000) examined the impact of procedural and interactional justice on work-related outcomes (i.e., supervisor-related outcomes and organization-related outcomes) through various social-exchange relationships (i.e., leader-member exchange and perceived organizational support). Their findings revealed that (1) cognitions about interactional justice impacted supervisor-related outcomes (i.e., performance and OCB-supervisor) through the mediating role of leader-member exchange,

and (2) cognitions about procedural justice impact organization-related outcomes (i.e., organizational commitment, turnover intention, and OCB-O) through the mediating role of perceived organizational support.

In addition, Barclay et al. (2005) directed an investigation into people affected by downsizing to analyze the role of emotions in unfairness cognitions and retaliation. They anticipated and discovered that outcome favorability interrelated independently with both procedural and interactional fairness on emotions, such as guilt and anger. Their findings revealed that individuals who perceived less outcome favorability about the downsizing experienced more anger, and this impact was weakened either by procedural fairness or interactional fairness. Likewise, individuals who perceived less outcome favorability experienced more guilt, and this impact was worsened either by procedural fairness or interactional fairness.

Johnson et al. (2009) analyzed the correlation between overall organizational justice and departmental justice on workers' OCB, with a focus on OCB-O and OCB-I and task performance. Since justice serves as a substitution for trust (in alignment with fairness heuristic theory), Johnson et al. suggested that the correlation between overall justice and outcomes would be most pronounced when information about trust was deficient. However, if workers possessed information about the trustworthiness of their managers, the information about justice would be less important. They made use of the nature of the employees' relationship with their leaders known as leader-member exchange (LMX) as an indicator of trust. Their findings uncovered that employee cognitions of departmental justice were an important indicator of task performance and OCB-O. This study was consistent with Johnson et al. (2010) who analyzed the impact of justice on people's identity.

Bobocel (2013) examined the correlation between overall organizational justice, self and other direction, and outcomes. Drawing on the fairness heuristic theory, Bobocel recommended that correlation between overall organizational justice and reactions to an unjust event was directed by people's permanent direction toward self or others. Bobocel anticipated that overall organizational justice would be positively related with forgiveness

and negatively related to revenge. In alignment with this prediction, Bobocel found that there was a positive correlation between overall organizational justice and forgiveness and negative correlation between overall organizational justice and revenge.

More recently, Barclay and Kiefer (2014) analyzed the correlation between overall fairness, positive and negative feelings, job performance, turnover intention, and helping others. Barclay and Kiefer employed an inactive variable methodology utilizing Colquitt's (2001) measurement scales of procedural, distributive, and interactional fairness as indicators of overall organizational fairness. They discovered that overall fairness anticipated both positive and negative feelings. In addition, on the one hand, both positive and negative feelings mediated the correlation between overall fairness and job performance. On the other hand, negative feelings mediated the correlation between overall fairness and turnover intention, whereas positive feelings mediated the correlation between overall fairness and helping others.

## **2.3 Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

### **2.3.1. The Origins of Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

The earliest indication of the OCB was found more than eight decades ago with the work of Barnard (1938), who asserted that the nonformal compliant system of an organization enabled the performance of the formal system. He put emphasis on “willingness to cooperate” because he considered this conduct as a critical factor of the formal functioning of the organizations. Twenty-six years later, Katz (1964) observed that firms required collaboration for efficient and effective functioning and theorized that an organization that relied exclusively on plans for prearranged conduct represents a breakable social structure that is likely to break down (Katz, 1964). In this light, Katz valued the significance of actions beyond the in-role responsibilities before OCB was theorized by Bateman and Organ (1983).

Following these conceptualizations, Katz and Kahn (1966) proposed some novel and unplanned conducts that went outside the in-role responsibilities and which enhanced the effective functioning of organizations. They highlighted three forms of conduct with which organizations were concerned: (1) Organizations should attract and retain workforce in the system; (2) organizations should make sure that the workforce carry out responsibilities for meeting specific minimum requirements; and (3) the workforce should demonstrate novel and unplanned conducts that went outside the in-role responsibilities and enhanced effective functioning of the organizations (Katz & Kahn, 1966).

In the following decade, Katz and Kahn (1978) presented a more comprehensible differentiation between prearranged explicit responsibilities (in-role conducts) and unplanned conducts (extra-role conducts). Katz and Kahn described unplanned conducts as helpful practices that improved organizations' image. Drawing from Bernard's (1938) concept of "willingness to cooperate" and Katz's (1964) idea of "innovative and spontaneous behaviors", Smith et al. (1983) and Bateman and Organ (1983) theorized the term "organizational citizenship behavior". Smith et al. (1983) acknowledged that OCBs were particularly valuable for organizations because they grace up the social mechanism of the organization by conveying the adaptability expected to work through numerous unforeseen possibilities and allowing individuals to manage the generally exceptional state of reliance on one another. They illustrated OCB with numerous conducts by stating that that every manufacturing plant, office, or agency relied constantly on numerous actions of collaboration, usefulness, ideas, motions of generosity, altruism, and different examples that may be called citizenship behavior (Smith et al., 1983). According to Smith et al. (1983), these conducts were essential since they shaped the foundation of the organization and enabled a flexible climate for the workforce. Furthermore, they compared OCB with the social order and claimed that the social order functions for good or for bad as an outcome of the recurrence of numerous actions of citizenship that are either not legally necessary or are basically ineffective from typical motivating forces or sanctions (Smith et al., 1983).

### **2.3.2. Definitions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

Building on these early conceptualizations, Bateman and Organ (1983) published the first empirical study that examined the projected association between job satisfaction and OCB. Moreover, Smith et al. (1983) established the earliest measurement instrument for OCB, which included subscales of help and compliance. In the development of the concept, Organ (1988) came up with the earliest definition of OCB. He described OCB as “Individual behavior that is discretionary, not explicitly recognized by the formal system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p.4). According to Organ (1988), the term discretionary meant that the conduct was not a binding prerequisite of working responsibilities; that is, the obviously explicit terms of the individual's work contract. The conduct was somewhat a matter of individual decision to the extent that its oversight was not commonly comprehended as disciplinary. Organ argued that OCB was not formally defined by the compensation system, and even if participation in those activities may contribute to salary increase or employee advancement, it could not be guaranteed by contractual provisions.

The definition provided by Organ (1988) triggered a discussion in the OCB literature. Morrison (1994) contended that OCB should be comprehended as part of in-role responsibilities. In addition, she argued that in order to understand the OCB phenomenon, scientists must realize how organizations have defined the responsibilities of their employees and whether in-role or ERBs were clearly defined.

Considering relevant studies on contextual performance and in reaction to criticisms that OCB was not compulsorily extra-role and optional, Organ updated the definition to “performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place” (Organ, 1997, p. 95). This updated definition was in alignment with the empirical findings for the distinction between task performance and OCBs (MacKenzie et al., 1991). Moreover, this definition made it possible to view OCBs as optional conduct for which employees might not obtain official compensation. More recently, Organ et al. (2006) underlined the optional context of OCB by describing it as optional contributions that exceeded the formal job description and that did not challenge

the contractual compensation besides the official compensation system. Nonetheless, regardless of the distinctions one may find in these definitions, one of the common points of agreement is that OCBs are likely to be positively associated to measures of organizational efficiency and effectiveness.

### **2.3.3. Related Constructs**

Since the early prevalence of the term OCB by Organ and his associates (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983), the realm of OCB has developed at a remarkable level, with the introduction of an extensive number of related constructs. The most common related constructs prevalent in the literature include prosocial behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1991; George & Bettenhausen, 1990), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997), ERB (Van Dyne et al., 1995) and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). These constructs will be reviewed in the following sections.

#### **2.3.3.1. Pro-social Organizational Behavior**

Prosocial organizational behavior (POB) is one of the earliest constructs of OCB, and it was introduced by Brief & Motowidlo (1986). It is described as a conduct that is performed by a person directed toward a person, team, or organization with whom the person collaborates while performing his or her job duties and that is performed with the purpose of supporting the welfare of the person, team, or organization (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). According to Brief and Motowidlo (1986), POB characterized various kind of conduct that supported the wellbeing of other coworkers and that maintained social integrity.

Albeit the POB definition of Brief and Mottowidlo was motivated by the work of Katz (1964), they characterized POB as being a more systematic than creative and unplanned conduct. They built up a general framework for distinguishing 13 explicit

categories of POB based on three major qualifications. First, despite the fact that the awareness lying behind POB was to help coworkers and the organization, the outcomes of POB could be functional or dysfunctional to the organization. Whistleblowing and voicing conducts were POBs that represented both functional and dysfunctional sides. For example, a worker may blow the whistle so as to report some unacceptable conduct by his or her supervisor. Whereas such an activity might be viewed as functional from the perspective of the shareholders, this supervisor will be viewed as dysfunctional by the management. This is the key distinction between OCB and POB: OCBs are supposed to improve organizational efficiency. A second difference between OCB and POB is that some employees within organization are in-role performers and some are extra-role performers (Katz, 1964). The third difference includes the objectives of POB activities; for example, whether or not they are directed toward the person or the organization (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986).

Another issue with POB is that it embraces numerous conducts, and it does not confine itself with conducts that have immediate or explicit significance to organizations (Organ et al., 2006). Therefore, it is difficult to find an exact interpretation of POB in the literature since it is challenging to distinguish such conducts from different types of extra-role conducts, and it corresponds with different conceptions (Baruch et al., 2004). By contrast, OCB is more explicit, and it also includes the conducts that are integrated in POB.

### **2.3.3.2. Organizational Spontaneity**

Organizational spontaneity has roots in the research of Katz (1964), who described five conducts which were not indicated in job description; however, those conducts enabled the achievement of organizational objectives. Based on Katz's work, George and Brief (1992) described organizational spontaneity as ERBs that were accomplished willingly and that contributed to enhancing the effectiveness of organizations (George & Brief, 1992). According to George and Brief, organizational spontaneity could have the following five forms: (1) helping co-workers (e.g., identifying a potential mistake, sharing supplies with coworkers, and helping coworkers who are behind in their work); (2) protecting the

organization (e.g., reporting theft or fire hazard and reducing the risks of loss or damage); (3) making constructive suggestions (e.g., making innovative suggestions for improving organizational performance); (4) developing one's self (e.g., an individual attending a learning program at his/her expense and an individual having trained himself or herself for promotion to a managerial position); and (5) distributing goodwill (e.g., employees communicating with their friends about how satisfied they are to be part of their company and how good the product or service their company offers).

The dimensions of organizational spontaneity are linked to the dimensions of OCB and POB. The similarities and differences between these three constructs can be explained along four dimensions (George & Brief, 1992). The first dimension has to do with the usefulness of the conduct for the organization. While both organizational spontaneity and OCB consist of only functional conducts, POB also consists of some dysfunctional conducts (e.g., offering products or services to customers in an unreliable manner). The second dimension is concerned with whether the conduct is categorized as part of in-role or extra-role responsibilities. Whereas organizational spontaneity mainly involves only extra-role conducts, both POB and OCB involve conducts that are considered as in-role responsibilities (e.g., offering products or services to customers in a reliable manner). The third dimension is concerned with whether the conduct can be acknowledged by the formal compensation system. Whereas both POB and organizational spontaneity includes formal financial compensation for employees, OCB excludes any conducts that are acknowledged by the official compensation system. The fourth dimension is concerned with the degree to which these related constructs comprise active and passive conducts. POB and OCB have a tendency to contain both active and passive conducts. By contrast, organizational spontaneity contains only active conducts (e.g., remaining with the organization regardless of temporary adversities).

### **2.3.3.3. Extra-Role Behavior**

Another related construct that several scholars have recognized as a form of OCB is called ERB. This type of OCB is considered as ERB because it encompasses employee

engagement in task-related conducts to an extent that exceeds minimally mandatory or generally projected outcomes. Such conducts include employees' voluntary actions of creativity and novelty intended to enhance organizational performance, continuing with extra passion and energy to achieve their objectives, undertaking extra-role responsibilities, and encouraging their colleagues to perform the same. These conducts have in common the notion that the employees are taking their responsibilities "an extra mile" (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Early research about this construct was conducted by Van Dyne et al. (1995), who defended the practicality of ERB as a construct and argued that both in-role and ERBs are valuable theoretical underpinnings. Van Dyne and colleagues described ERB as a conduct that aimed to provide benefit for the organization. It was optional and it exceeded in-role expectations (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Furthermore, Van Dyne et al. (1995) emphasized three outcomes of ERB: (1) The conduct shall be purposeful; (2) the purpose shall be positive; and (3) the conduct shall be impartial from the employee's perspective, meaning that ERB should not end in formal compensation or penalty.

Whereas Van Dyne et al. (1995) argued that OCB was one form of ERB, Organ (1988) specified that this type of conduct was one of the most challenging to differentiate from in-role behavior because it varied more in extent than in type. For this reason, Organ (1997) avoided referring to OCB as ERB, because he was not sure whether his conceptualization of OCB in terms of role fitted into the prerequisites of ERB.

#### **2.3.3.4. Contextual Performance**

The concept of contextual performance was initially mentioned by Borman and Motowidlo (1993), who recognized the difference between task and contextual performance. They described task performance as the helpfulness by which employees undertake actions that benefited key technical organizational aspects either in a direct manner by partial execution of its technological processes or in an indirect way by offering the required resources (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). In a subsequent study, Borman and

Motowidlo (1997) argued that there were three methods that differentiated contextual performance from task performance. First, task activities differed significantly between occupations, whereas contextual activities were normally consistent between occupations. Second, task activities were defined in the role description, whereas contextual activities usually were not. Third, most of the task performance antecedents were related to cognitive ability, whereas contextual performance antecedents were more related to personality variables. Moreover, Borman and Motowidlo (1997) highlighted the importance of contextual performance because contextual activities improved organizational performance in a manner that shaped the organizational, social, and psychological background that functioned as the facilitator for activities and processes. Activities of contextual performance included volunteering actions in assisting and collaborating with coworkers to accomplish the tasks that were not officially part of the job description.

Borman and Motowidlo's (1997) categorization of contextual performance was strongly based on three former concepts; namely, the concept of OCB (Smith et al., 1983); the concept of prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986); and the model of soldier effectiveness (Borman et al., 1985). This categorization summarized OCB, POB, along with other concepts into a five-category system: (1) continuing with passion and extra effort as required to complete own tasks effectively; (2) undertaking to complete tasks that do not officially belong to one's own job description; (3) helping others and collaborating with coworkers; (4) obeying organizational norms and procedures; and (5) exerting effort in supporting, endorsing, and meeting organizational objectives.

Although Organ (1997) acknowledged similarity between the OCB and contextual performance sub dimensions, there was a significant distinction between these two concepts. Organ (1997) justified this distinction by indicating that the definition of contextual performance did not specify that the conduct should be extra-role (optional) or that this conduct was not rewarded. Nevertheless, regardless of the vagueness in the definition of contextual performance, Organ modified his definition of OCB in accordance with contextual performance without mentioning the formal compensation method and job requirements (Organ, 1997).

Other researchers used OCB as the most ideal approach to theorize and gauge contextual performance. For instance, Hui et al. (2000) utilized OCB measures to anticipate promotion. In a field quasi-experiment study, they examined the association between promotion, perception of OCB as an instrument for promotion, and employees' OCB prior and after promotion. Their findings revealed that employees who viewed OCB as contributing to their promotion and who were subsequently promoted were more likely to perform OCB before the promotion; however, after their promotion, their OCB declined. Likewise, Lee and Allen (2002) examined the role of job affect and job cognitions in determining OCB and workplace nonconformity behavior. Their results revealed that job affect was more significantly correlated with OCB focused on individuals, whereas job cognitions were more significantly correlated with OCB focused on the organization.

#### **2.3.4. Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

There are various methods by which OCBs have been conceptualized throughout the years. Initially, Smith et al. (1983) suggested two types of OCB: altruism (helping others) and generalized compliance (obeying the norms and standards of the organization). Altruism has been recognized as a crucial factor of OCB by most researchers studying in this field. Altruism includes conducts that are directly and purposefully intended for helping an individual in face-to-face situations, such as familiarizing new personnel and supporting colleagues with a considerable amount of work (Smith et al., 1983). General compliance refers to a more objective form of meticulousness that does not provide immediate support to any specific individual; however, it provides support to others involved in the organization. In essence, general compliance attributes to obedience with adopted standards that shape the conducts of a good employee such as being punctual and not wasting company time (Smith et al., 1983). This conduct was later identified by Organ (1988) as conscientiousness.

Despite numerous debates in the literature about the dimensions of OCB, the two most prevalent conceptualizations are those established by Organ (1988) and Williams and Anderson (1991). Based on the preliminary research of Bateman and Organ (1983) and

Smith et al. (1983), Organ (1988) recommended a five-factor OCB model comprising of *altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship*.

Altruism refers to intentional conducts planned for helping someone else with an organizationally related assignment or issue; for example, demonstrating to a colleague how to use a specific device, even it is not required. It includes coaching new entrants on how to use devices, helping colleagues to overcome the bottlenecks of work, sharing supplies that a colleague needs and cannot obtain on his own (Organ, 1990b).

Courtesy refers to proactive conducts intended to avoid possible problems that may occur in the organization; for example, giving prior notice before taking important actions, distributing relevant information and addressing to people who might be impacted by those actions or judgments, and offering prior information to colleagues for scheduling work (Organ, 1990b).

Sportsmanship refers to conducts that tolerate the awkwardness and problems of work by not complaining and making problems bigger than they are. For example, not consuming time for complaining about trivial matters and concentrating on positive aspects of a situation, rather than negative aspects. Organ (1990b) described sportsmanship as a readiness to tolerate the unavoidable awkwardness and burdens of work without complaining. However, this definition was broadened by Podsakoff et al. (2000), who suggested that sportsmanship referred to individuals who not only avoided complaining when disrupted by others but who also maintained a constructive behavior even when things did not go right, who did not feel upset when others did not obey their suggestions, who were ready to forfeit their own interest for the benefit of the team, and who did not take personally the refusal of their thoughts.

Conscientiousness refers to conducts that surpass the least requirements of the organization in terms of punctuality, looking after organizational resources, and obeying organizational rules, regulations, and procedures (Organ, 1988).

Civic virtue refers to conducts that comprise productive contribution in the political process of the organization and supporting this process by conveying opinions,

participating in meetings, following organizational developments, and attending events that are not required but which contribute to the organization's reputation (Organ, 1988).

Following the categorization of Organ (1988), the second significant conceptualization of OCBs was formulated by Williams and Anderson (1991), who organized OCBs into groups based on the objective or direction of the conduct. More specifically, conducts focused on benefiting other individuals were termed as OCB-I, whereas conducts focused on benefiting the organization was termed OCB-O. Initially, they recognized Organ's (1988, 1990) altruism dimension as only a dimension of OCB-I. However, taking into consideration that courtesy, peacekeeping, and cheerleading conducts were intended to help coworkers, they found it suitable to incorporate them in the OCB-I group. Similarly, in spite of the fact that Williams and Anderson initially utilized Organ's conscientiousness dimension as a model of OCB-O, other authors (e.g., Coleman & Borman, 2000; Hoffman et al., 2007; LePine et al., 2002) have likewise incorporated civic virtue and sportsmanship in this group. In this way, the entirety of Organ's (1988, 1990) OCB measurements can be captured by Williams and Anderson's theoretical model. Moreover, Williams and Anderson's (1991) classification structure integrated most other OCB-related constructs. For instance, OCB-I incorporated not only altruism, courtesy, peacekeeping, and cheerleading dimensions but also interpersonal helping, interpersonal facilitation, and helping co-workers and interpersonal harmony constructs. Similarly, OCB-O incorporated not only compliance, civic virtue, and sportsmanship dimensions but also organizational loyalty, job dedication, voice behavior, taking individual initiative, and promoting the company's reputation constructs.

Although numerous conceptualizations and OCB frameworks have been developed by various authors throughout the years, the mostly applied conceptualization is Organ's (1988) five-dimension structure of OCB because other structures did not provide sufficient empirical support in the literature (Organ et al., 2006; Schnake & Dumler, 2003). Organ's five-dimension structure was first operationalized by Podsakoff et al. (1990), who developed a measure for OCB containing subscales for all five dimensions and which became the basis for assessing OCB in numerous subsequent studies (Hoffman et al., 2007; LePine et al., 2002). Subsequently, it served as the ground for numerous researches in the

organizational behavior literature (MacKenzie et al., 1991; Moorman, 1991; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1996). Therefore, Organ's (1988) five-dimension structure will be applied in this study.

### **2.3.5. Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

Many researchers in the domain of organizational behavior have endeavored to determine the antecedents of OCB since OCB has a positive effect on organizational performance. The literature recognizes four main classifications of the antecedents of OCBs. These categories can be grouped into the following categories: individual characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics, and leadership behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This classification of OCB antecedents are discussed in the following sections.

#### **2.3.5.1. Individual Characteristics**

One of the most commonly studied classifications of OCB antecedents are individual (employee) characteristics (Organ et al., 2006). The literature suggests that previous work on individual characteristics has been concentrated on two main causes of OCBs; namely, employee attitudes and dispositions.

Employee attitudes refers to fundamental employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, fairness perceptions, and leader supportiveness perceptions (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Literature indicates that these variables have been the most commonly observed antecedents of OCB, and all of them have strong relationship with OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Job satisfaction has constantly been recognized as one of the most significant determinants of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Furthermore, organizational commitment (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000), justice perceptions (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000), and state positive affect (Ilies et al., 2006) are other affective and cognitive attitudes related to OCB. Remarkably, organizational commitment and

procedural justice perceptions were more significantly related with OCB-O (Colquitt et al., 2001; Organ & Ryan, 1995), whereas interpersonal justice perceptions were more significantly related to OCB-I (Colquitt et al., 2001). Thus, variables that include employee attitudes seem to be the main causes of OCB. This is further supported by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982), who suggested that satisfied and committed employees were more likely to engage in discretionary conducts that were valuable to the organization compared to those who were not.

Furthermore, in addition to attitudinal factors, several dispositional factors, such as agreeableness, conscientiousness, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity, influenced individuals to specific orientations in relation to colleagues and managers, which in turn might raise the probability of receiving satisfying, supportive, and fair treatment (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Thus, these dispositional factors can be viewed as unforeseen causes of OCBs, rather than immediate determinants. Literature recognizes conscientiousness, agreeableness, and positive affectivity as the dispositional variables that have the strongest impact on OCB (Comeau & Griffit, 2005; Konovsky & Organ, 1996). Moreover, conscientiousness and agreeableness are dispositional personality factors that determine OCB in various contexts (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000). For instance, LePine and Van Dyne (2001) validated interactions between agreeableness and conscientiousness and helping and voice citizenship. Interestingly, conscientiousness was more significantly associated with voice than with helping, whereas agreeableness showed a positive relationship with helping but a negative relationship with voice. In line with these findings, evidence from meta-analytic studies revealed that agreeableness was a more significant determinant of OCB-I, whereas conscientiousness was a more significant determinant of OCB-O (Ilies et al., 2006a; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Other researchers have concentrated on behaviors that predicted prosocial conducts in general. For instance, Penner et al. (2005) recognized dispositional empathy and helpfulness as two dimensions that encompassed prosocial personality. Likewise, Kamdar et al. (2006) confirmed that the dispositional attribute of perspective taking was a stronger determinant of OCB-I than OCB-O. Finally, Podsakoff et al. (2000) identified positive and negative affectivity as personality determinants of OCB, where positive affectivity was a strong determinant of OCB-I and negative affectivity was a strong determinant of OCB-O.

### **2.3.5.2. Task Characteristics**

Task characteristics can be described as job attributes in the sense of their capacity to generate intrinsic satisfaction based on the capacity to provide feedback, autonomy, and accomplishment of tasks with visible outcomes, utilization of an extensive variety of skills, and the intention of undertaking significant work that impacts others' lives.

Existing literature has a dearth of research on task characteristics, which has mainly developed within the substitute of leadership literature. This research revealed that some types of task characteristics (task feedback, task routinization, and intrinsically satisfying tasks) had a consistent relationship with OCB (Podsakoff et al., 1996b; Podsakoff et al., 1993; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995). In fact, the three types of task characteristics included in the substitute literature displayed a significant relationship with OCB sub dimensions (i.e., altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue).

In a study that included 195 Taiwanese Ministry of Communications employees, Farh et al. (1990) examined the impact of task characteristics on OCB. Their results revealed that scope of task explained more unique variance in two sub dimensions of OCB, namely, altruism and compliance. The impact of job attributes was significant in determining compliance, even though they anticipated the impact to be more significant in altruism. A study conducted by Kerr and Jermier (1978) found that routine tasks and intrinsically satisfying tasks were related to OCB in the form of altruism. They suggested that task feedback and worker competence to execute their duties was crucial since it enabled immediate and precise feedback about their work performance and enhanced their actual performance through engaging in OCBs. Moreover, Podsakoff et al. (1996b) found out that task feedback that described employee abilities in performing their duties had a positive association with civic virtue. They suggested that the value of the task-provided feedback offered to the employees strengthened this relationship. Task-provided feedback was more self-rewarding and provided greater chances for enhancing performance.

By contrast, Podsakoff and colleagues suggested that routing tasks that had repetition was likely to prevent employees helping their colleagues and the organization; therefore, these tasks were negatively related to OCB. Furthermore, they suggested that intrinsically satisfying tasks were positively related to OCB because employees that were satisfied with their tasks at work were more motivated to exhibit OCB (Podsakoff et al., 1996b). Consistent with this, Organ et al. (2006) demonstrated that employees that implemented intrinsically satisfying tasks found work activities to be more satisfying, and consequently, they consumed more effort to accomplish their goals.

#### **2.3.5.3. Organizational Characteristics**

Organizational characteristics consists of organizational formalization, organizational inflexibility, advisory or staff support, team cohesiveness, rewards beyond the leader's control, spatial distance from leader, and perceived organizational support (Moorman et al., 1998; Podsakoff et al., 1996a ; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Out of these, group cohesiveness and perceived organizational support demonstrated a significant positive correlation with OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Group cohesiveness showed a positive association with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue, whereas perceived organizational support displayed positive association only with altruism. By contrast, rewards beyond the leader's control showed a negative association with altruism, courtesy, and conscientiousness, whereas spatial distance from the leader showed a negative association only with altruism. Other organizational characteristics did not show a consistent association to OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

#### **2.3.5.4. Leadership Behaviors**

The final classification of OCB antecedents is leadership behaviors, which are examined under three main leadership theories: transformational leadership theory, transactional leadership theory, and behaviors identified either with path-goal theory or the "leader-member exchange (LMX)" theory.

Transformational leadership behaviors include vision articulation, providing an appropriate model, promoting the acceptance of team objectives, high performing expectations, and intellectual incentive (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Based on the meta-analysis conducted by Podsakoff et al. (2000), transformational leadership behaviors displayed a strong and consistent positive correlation with all OCB sub dimensions, that is, altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue.

Transactional leadership behaviors include contingent reward conduct, contingent punishment conduct, noncontingent reward conduct, and noncontingent punishment conduct (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Contingent reward conduct displayed a strong positive association with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue, whereas noncontingent punishment behavior displayed a strong negative association with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Podsakoff et al., 1996a). This relationship was based on the impact of fairness of rewards on OCB.

The path-goal theory of leadership includes clarification of the leader role, procedures of leader specification, and conducts of supportive leader (Podsakoff et al., 2000). From the path-goal leadership categories, supportive leader behavior demonstrated a positive association with all dimensions of OCB, whereas clarification of leader role demonstrated a positive association with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship (Podsakoff et al., 1996a; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

With regards to leader-member exchange, Settoon et al. (1996) suggested that individuals who exhibited greater quality LMX and who received exceptional treatments from their leaders, such as confidence, support, advancements, and preferred tasks were more predisposed to respond with high OCB performance. This was consistent with the findings of the meta-analysis study conducted by Podsakoff et al. (2000), where LMX exhibited a strong positive association with altruism and overall OCB.

### **2.3.6. Consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

Although the majority of previous research efforts has concentrated on the antecedents of OCB, a modest volume of recent research has dedicated attention to the consequences of OCBs. This attention has increased because of evidence that shows a direct association between OCB and organizational effectiveness, performance appraisals, and other managerial decisions. The research on the consequences of citizenship behaviors has focused on two primary areas: (1) the impact of OCBs on supervisor performance appraisals and decisions regarding compensation and promotions and (2) the impact of OCBs on organizational performance and success.

#### **2.3.6.1. The impact of OCBs on supervisors' performance appraisals and decisions regarding compensation and promotions**

MacKenzie et al. (1991) and Podsakoff et al. (1993) proposed several explanations for the importance of OCBs and why they should be considered when supervisors evaluate employee performance. They contended that some explanations were related to standards of reciprocity and justice, others to the way supervisors performed their appraisals, and others to the informational uniqueness and approachability of OCB information. However, notwithstanding causal factors, their empirical findings revealed that OCBs had an impact on supervisor performance appraisals and other related managerial decisions. Podsakoff et al. (2000) provided the following six reasons as to why OCBs might impact supervisors' performance appraisals:

- ***Standards of reciprocity and justice.*** OCBs had positive impact on employees, managers, and organization because individuals tried to pay back those who helped them, did them a favor, or treated them impartially (Podsakoff et al., 2000).
- ***Implicit Performance Theories:*** Managers often possessed implicit theories that OCB and individual's performance were interrelated; therefore, they considered that employees who were engaged in OCB were high performers (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

- ***Schema-Triggered Affect.*** Individuals who demonstrated OCBs would trigger positive affect and were appraised more positively than individuals who did not demonstrate OCBs (Podsakoff et al., 2000).
- ***Behavioral Distinctiveness and Accessibility.*** OCBs were commonly not considered as a formal requirement of the organization; however, managers may seek or expect distinctive forms of behaviors during the performance appraisal process (Podsakoff et al., 2000).
- ***Attributional Processes (Stable/Internal) and Accessibility.*** OCBs had lesser chance to be viewed as a formal requirement of an employee's job; however, managers were more likely to attribute OCBs to stable and internal characteristics of the employee, which would exert a greater effect on managers' performance appraisals (Podsakoff et al., 2000).
- ***Illusory Correlations.*** During performance evaluations, managers may have the tendency to give higher weight to the OCBs because of the following reasons: (1) Managers may have an inadequate sample of OCBs (under-sampling); (2) managers may be overwhelmed by a particular instance of behavior (engulfing); (3) performance appraisal scales may be inadequately defined (deficient concreteness); (4) managers may not have sufficient knowledge or motivation to perform a good job; and (5) managers memory of the employee's performance may be distorted (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

### **2.3.6.2. The impact of OCBs on Organizational Performance and Success**

A key principle of Organ's initial definition of OCBs (Organ, 1988) is that when accumulated over time and people, OCB increased organizational performance. This hypothesis was unproven for many years, and its approval was based more on its theoretical credibility than direct empirical indication (Podsakoff et al. 2000). Theoretically, there are numerous reasons why OCBs might impact organizational performance. In this context,

Podsakoff et al. (2000) provide the following summary of eight reasons why OCBs might impact the overall organizational performance and success:

- ***OCBs increase coworker efficiency.*** Employees who help their colleagues to perform a particular task may help enhance co-worker productivity and extend “best practices” all over the organization (Podsakoff et al. 2000).
- ***OCBs improve managerial efficiency.*** When employees are involved in civic virtue behavior, the supervisor may get valuable ideas as well as input on their thoughts for improving unit success. Additionally, employees who exhibit courteous behaviors enable their supervisors to circumvent the events of “crisis” management (Podsakoff et al., 2000).
- ***OCBs release resources for more useful purposes.*** When employees collaborate in work-related issues and exhibit conscientiousness behaviors, the supervisors can delegate more responsibility to employees and spend their time on more productive activities. Furthermore, when employees exhibit sportsmanship behavior, supervisors spend less time dealing with unimportant complaints (Podsakoff et al., 2000).
- ***OCBs lessen the need to allocate scarce resources to basic maintenance activities.*** Employees who exhibit courtesy behaviors decrease the probability of intergroup conflict and consequently reduce time spent by the supervisor dealing with conflict resolution activities (Podsakoff et al., 2000).
- ***OCBs help as an effective mechanism to coordinate both within and across team member activities.*** Employees who exhibit civic virtue by willingly attending team meetings would increase the coordination of effort between team members and overall team efficiency and effectiveness (Podsakoff et al., 2000).
- ***OCBs enhance organizational capability to attract and retain the most talented people.*** Employees who exhibit helping conducts may increase team morale and cohesiveness, which in turn may improve organizational performance and help the organization attract and retain talented employees. Likewise, employees who exhibit sportsmanship conducts may create an example of loyalty and commitment

to the organization, which in turn may improve the retention of talented employees (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

- ***OCBs improve the stability of organizational performance.*** Employees who exhibit conscientious behaviors by taking over the responsibilities of co-workers who are absent or who are overloaded are more likely to improve stability and maintain a high level productivity (Podsakoff et al., 2000).
- ***OCBs improve organizational capability to adapt to environmental changes.*** Employees who demonstrate sportsmanship behaviors by showing readiness to take on new responsibilities or learn new skills may improve the organization's capability to adapt to environmental changes (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

More recently, researchers in the field of OCB have investigated the impact of OCB on employee and organizational outcome variables. The review of the literature suggests that increasing attention being paid to examining the interactions between OCBs and their potential outcomes at the individual level (i.e., performance appraisals, managers decisions about reward allocations, and employee turnover intentions) and at the organizational level (i.e., productivity, efficiency, costs, and profitability) (Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004; Koys, 2001; MacKenzie et al., 1991; MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2009).

## 2.4 Employee Turnover

### 2.4.1. Historical Development of Turnover Concept

Before identifying and discussing the types and forms of employee turnover, it is important to outline the main definitions of turnover and to identify the turnover antecedents that have emerged throughout the historical development of the turnover concept. One of the earliest definitions of turnover was introduced by Price (1977), who described employee turnover as the movement of members across the boundary of an organization. Few years later, Mobley (1982) defined the employee turnover act as a “time specific event marked by physical separation from the organization” (p. 111). In addition, Hom and Griffeth (1995) defined employee turnover as voluntary cessations of members from organizations. Furthermore, Burgess (1998) defined employee turnover as “the *movement* of workers around the labor market, between firms, and among the states of employment, unemployment, and inactivity” (p. 55).

Although the earlier articles referencing turnover appeared in the beginning of the 20th century, the first empirical turnover study was published by Bills (1925), who examined 59 administrative employees who were employed in 1922 in a medium-sized life insurance firm. His investigation was conducted to see how many workers from those entered in 1922 had continued to work in the firm through their second anniversary. His findings confirmed that administrative employees were more eager to quit if their parents were experts or entrepreneurs than those whose parents worked unqualified or semi qualified jobs. Although his study excluded statistical tests of the relationship between the professional status of workers’ parents and turnover, Bills presented an analytical research design for evaluating whether application questions could forecast turnover (Hom et al., 2017).

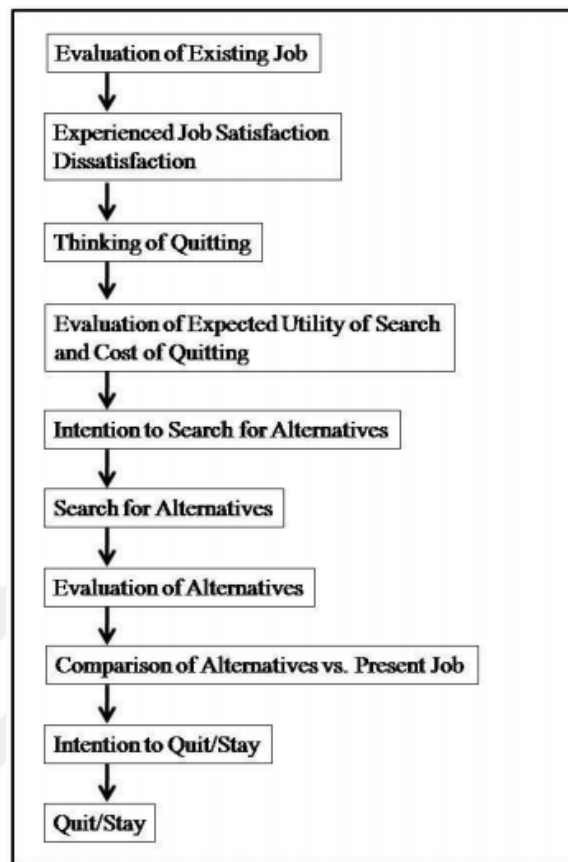
This methodology progressed into the “standard research design” for validating and testing the theory for most of the 20th century (Steel, 2002). Subsequently, during the 1930s the first descriptive reports of occupational turnover patterns emerged, whereas during the 1940s, researchers started to examine turnover’s demographic and psychological correlations. In the following decade, March and Simon (1958) presented

the earliest official model of departure based on easiness of movement and desirability. Their *organizational equilibrium model* proposed two factors that determined voluntary employee turnover; namely, the perceived desire for movement, which was reflected in job satisfaction and the perceived easiness of movement, which was reflected by other employment alternatives (Mitchell et al., 2001). March and Simon's organizational equilibrium model proposed that employees would remain and contribute to the organization, given that the incentives provided by the organization were higher or equivalent to the contributions demanded by the organization (Allen et al., 2010).

During the 1960s and the 1970s, scholars commenced the exploration of attitudinal reactions to office and factory conditions, which resulted in a number of employee turnover models. In 1966, Hulin (1966) introduced new methodological features that subsequently became symbols of the "standard research design" (Steel, 2002). Using a quasi-experiment, Hulin (1968) established that an organization program originated in his primary research increased job satisfaction, which in turn led to a decrease in turnover (Hom et al., 2017). In 1973, Porter and Steers (1973) presented their *met expectation model*, where they concluded that a negative consistent correlation between job satisfaction and employee turnover existed. According to Porter and Steers (1973), met expectation is "the discrepancy between what a person encounters on his job in the way of positive and negative experiences and what he expected to encounter" (p. 152). Following the work of Porter and Steers, Mobley (1977) introduced a more detailed model of employee turnover, which is called *intermediate linkage model*. He suggested ten possible intermediate steps (Figure 2) after experienced dissatisfaction in the withdrawal process.

Figure 2

*Mobley's intermediate linkage model*



*Note.* Mobley's intermediate linkage model (Mobley, 1977).

The withdrawal decision process introduced by Mobley (1977) proposed that thinking of quitting was the next rational step after experienced job dissatisfaction and that intention to quit, in addition to a few other steps, may be the final step before real quitting. According to Mobley (1977), the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover was significant and consistent but not very strong. However, the intermediate linkage model was grounded on the assumption that employee turnover was an individual choice behaviour (Mobley et al., 1979).

Whereas Mobley (1977) considered elaborate instruments linking affect to turnover, Price (1977) anticipated a wide variety of organizational and environmental antecedents, the greater part of which influenced leaving by means of job attitudes (Hom et al., 2012). Influenced by several scholarly writings, Price (1977) developed an extensive range taxonomy of turnover antecedents. Taking advantage of his background in sociology, his ideas covered not only the drivers related to workplace conditions and employment market but also the drivers related to community responsibility and professionalism (Hom et al., 2017). Furthermore, building on the *intermediate linkage model*, Mobley et al. (1979) modified the earlier model by further explaining the main elements in that model, such as intentions, satisfaction, and attractions of the anticipated usefulness of the present job and of alternative jobs. They also added controlling variables, such as nonworking values and interests, nonworking consequences of quitting, and contractual constraints in addition to job perceptions and labor market perceptions. Mobley et al. (1979) introduced a revolutionary *content* model that identified a great selection of distal causes to clarify why people left. They introduced subjective expected utilities (SEUs) of the current employment and substitutes, which, alongside job satisfaction, constituted proximal antecedents of intentions to quit and mediated the effect of distal causes (Hom et al., 2017).

During the 1980s, informed by a widespread review of the literature beyond management and psychology, researchers introduced an extensive number of turnover determinants, such as workplace, labor market, community, and occupational determinants (Price & Mueller, 1981) and addressed the role of job opportunities in standard turnover models (Hulin et al., 1985). Whereas early turnover models examined different dimension variables, such as organization and work-unit dimensions, from 1985 to 1995, there was a move towards increasingly complex organizational and group level ideas, such as organizational culture, group unity, organizational compensation systems, gender structure, and demography (Hom et al., 2017). Thus, this period has been characterized as a theory testing and refinement period of the turnover concept.

The period between the 1990s and the 2000s was characterized as a counter revolution period, during which the unfolding models of turnover emerged (Hom et al., 2017). In 1994, Lee and Mitchell proposed the unfolding model theory, a model that

incorporated more kinds of turnover than traditional turnover models (Morell et al., 2008). Based on image theory, Lee and Mitchell (1994) suggested that turnover results were not generally the consequence of accrued job dissatisfaction and may occasionally take place as a consequence of insufficient planning. Overall, their model underlined the intricacy and elements of the turnover process and proposed that future turnover studies needed to consider how individuals quit their jobs (Holtom et al., 2008). Four years later, Shaw et al. (1998) formally theorized and investigated organizational level turnover causal factors (e.g., HRM practices, employment market place circumstances, and group behaviors), consequences (e.g., job satisfaction and organizational performance), and the boundary states of those impacts (e.g., division size and percentage of new entrants) (Hom et al, 2017).

The period after the new millennium was characterized by considerable theoretical expansion of turnover research. Specifically, 2000 to 2008 was marked by seven remarkable movements: (1) new individual distinction forecasts of turnover; (2) an ongoing emphasis on stress and change related behaviors (e.g., change acknowledgment); (3) experiential examination on the unfolding model; (4) an expanded spotlight on relevant factors with an accentuation on interpersonal relations (e.g., interpersonal citizenship behaviors); (5) an increased emphasis on aspects considered explicitly for staying (e.g., work commitment and embeddedness); (6) a dynamic displaying of turnover forms with in respect to time (e.g., modifications in job satisfaction); and (7) increase in comprehension of previously recognized relationships (Holtom et al., 2008). Furthermore, this period was included more meta-analysis investigations. In that regard, Griffeth et al. (2000) conducted a wide-ranging meta-analysis of turnover antecedents, which characterized the most comprehensive quantitative examination of the predictive power of various antecedents of turnover, and identified several mediators in the relationship between those antecedents and turnover. Likewise, Mitchell et al. (2001) presented an integrated job embeddedness theoretical framework that analyzed the explicit effect of proactivity, career satisfaction, and work embeddedness on career turnover and, therefore, contributed to the enhancement of imminent recruitment and retention strategies. They established a measure of work embeddedness with two samples. Their outcomes demonstrated that work embeddedness predicted the key results of both intention to quit and actual turnover and clarified critical

incremental discrepancy in addition to job satisfaction, work commitment, employment options, and pursuit of employment. In addition, Steel (2002) introduced the *dynamic research methods model* in order to find a better fit between concepts and empirical research in employee turnover. He argued that standard research practice tended to repudiate the impacts of a critical supporter to inter-individual variance (i.e., evolutionary phases of employment search). He also addressed the importance of using dynamic research methods model to evaluate the job search stage, which would better explain employee evaluation of job alternatives.

Building upon Lee and Mitchell's (1994) theory on how individuals leave, Maertz and Champion (2004) analyzed whether there was a relationship between motives and decisions for quitting. Based on the literature review, they recognized eight motivational factors that represented "why" individuals leave or stay. To incorporate these methodologies and test whether intentions relate deliberately to decision procedures, they grouped 159 leavers by means of four process types and measured these procedure types with eight content intentions for leaving. Beside affective (e.g., job satisfaction) and alternative (e.g., job opportunities) forces, they distinguished normative (e.g., pressures to stay or leave an organization resulting from the beliefs of others), constituent (e.g., commitment to individuals or groups in an organization), contractual (e.g., psychological contract obligations and violations), behavioral (e.g., commitment to an organization and desire to avoid turnover cost), calculative (e.g., future expected satisfaction related to continuous organization membership), and moral (moral or ethical values about quitting or staying). They also outlined four judgment types based on distinctive alignments of those forces; for example, impulsive quitters (e.g., those leaving without having a job offer as they feel strong negative affect); comparison quitters (e.g., those leaving for another job); preplanned quitters (e.g., those leaving with a definite advance plan are commonly pressured by spouses to relocate or take care of children); and conditional quitters (e.g., those leaving with a conditional plan). Their findings indicated that various turnover intention forces were deliberately identified with the four decision process types. However, one important finding was that the individuals who left with no alternative of job (e.g., impulsive quitters) were impacted more negatively than the individuals of other decision types.

In addition, Shaw et al. (2005) theorized and tested alternative turnover performance relationships. They proposed four alternative estimates concerning the correlation between voluntary turnover and employee performance and developed the hypothesis that mediated that relationship of safety and productivity outcomes. Their findings revealed a negative correlation between voluntary turnover and employee performance; however, this negative correlation was reduced as turnover increased. Moreover, Shaw et al. (2009) established and verified an exchange theory-based extension of the relationship between HRM practices and employee turnover rates in a two-wave trucking industry study and undertook a similar investigation in a two-wave study of grocery stores. Their findings revealed that HRM incentives and investments related negatively to both high and low performer turnover rates, whereas expectation-improving practices related negatively to high performer turnover rates and positively to low performer turnover rates.

Until lately, researchers quite often thought of turnover as the end point and considered turnover as a central dependent variable (Hom et al., 2017). However, Hom et al. (2012) in a creative switch conducted investigations into “turnover destinations” to realize what drives choices to seek after another employment versus other destinations, such as stay-at-home parenting or pursuits of further education. They suggested proximal withdrawal states theory (PWST) that contended for more prominent thoughtfulness regarding proximal antecedents. By intersecting two key antecedents (individual’s perceived control and inclination for quitting or staying), they categorized employees into the following categories: (a) those who wanted to quit and quit (“enthusiastic leavers”), (b) those who wanted to quit but could not quit (“reluctant stayers”), (c) those who wanted to stay and staid (“enthusiastic stayers”), and (d) those who wanted to stay but could not stay (“reluctant leavers”). Likewise, Shipp et al. (2014) stretched out the expanding model to hypothesize and test variances between individuals who left and who were later rehired (boomerangs) and individuals who left and who did not return (alumni). Their findings revealed that *boomerangs* and *alumni* provided dissimilar purposes for having left, which implied they were bound to be categorized in differing ways in the unfurling model of turnover. Their findings further revealed that boomerangs were more likely than alumni to encounter a negative *personal* shock and leave; however, there was the probability that

they may return in the future. Conversely, alumni were more likely than boomerangs to encounter a negative *work* shock and job dissatisfaction and leave to not return in the future as a result.

Finally, in one of the most recent empirical assessments of turnover, Rubenstein et al. (2017) conducted one of the most comprehensive meta-analyses of the individual level turnover predictors by bringing up to date current impact sizes and investigating various new antecedents. To provide this evaluation, they conducted a three-step research. In the first step, they shed new light on dominant predictors, such as engagement, justice, and job characteristics, but they also examined possible variations in impact sizes in comparison to earlier studies. Subsequently, directed by existing literature, they established and measured a set of essential mediators to represent inconsistency in predictor turnover impacts. Finally, in the third step, they incorporated the after effects of the initial two stages to consider patterns, such as factors that provided an impression of being predictive over a variety of settings, factors that were not predictive crosswise over settings, factors that performed significantly context driven, and factors that still required more research. Their findings revealed various newer predictors and updated impact sizes of more traditional predictors. It also provided understanding into the setting-dependent nature of numerous relationships between antecedents and turnover.

#### **2.4.2. The Types of Turnover**

The extant turnover literature recognizes the following three main categorizations of turnover: (1) involuntary and voluntary turnover, (2) functional and dysfunctional turnover, and (3) unavoidable and avoidable turnover (Griffeth & Hom, 2001). All of these categories of turnover will be discussed in the following subsections.

### **2.4.2.1. Involuntary and Voluntary Turnover**

A standout amongst the most widely recognized approaches to classify forms and categories of quitting is differentiating between voluntary and involuntary turnover. Voluntary turnover is usually triggered by employees, whereas involuntary turnover is triggered by the organization, frequently as a result of poor work performance or change in organizational structures (Allen et al., 2010). The distinction between voluntary and involuntary turnover is that voluntary turnover reveals an individual's judgment to quit his or her job, whereas involuntary turnover reveals an organization's choice to terminate the contractual relationship with its employees (Shaw et al., 1998). Involuntary turnover acts are often viewed by the employers as dismissals, layoffs, retirements, disabilities, and deaths, whereas voluntary turnover acts are implicitly treated as erosion outside those categories (Hom et al., 2017; Salamin & Hom, 2005). To put it simply, voluntary turnover is best explained as a continuum from almost no employee authority over remain or leave choices to high employee authority over such choices, and it is most precisely analyzed by querying leavers (Hom et al., 2012).

An early definition of voluntary turnover was presented by Hom and Griffeth (1995), who described voluntary turnover as “voluntary cessation of membership in an organization by an individual who receives monetary compensation for participation in that organization” (p. 5). Likewise, Maertz and Campion (1998) provided an additional definition which described the voluntary turnover act as “instances wherein management agrees that the employee had the physical opportunity to continue employment with the company, at the time of termination” (p. 50). Conversely, Price (1977) provided an early definition of involuntary turnover and described this phenomenon as “movement across the membership boundary of an organization, which is not initiated by the employees” (p. 9).

Turnover experts mainly examined the “voluntary leavers” who were commonly nominated by their organizations as quitters who were not dismissed, fired, or retired (Hom et al., 2012). Voluntary leavers eagerly quit their organizations because of individual and professional issues (Lee et al., 2008; Shaw et al., 2005), and their behavior was often

associated with negative work attitudes, search for a new job, diminished OCBs, and lower performance (Harrison et al., 2006; Hom & Kinicki, 2001; Hom et al., 2012). There can be numerous motives influencing these behaviors: disappointment with different aspects of compensation, inappropriate working atmosphere, lack of professional advancements or lack of opportunities for promotion, work uncertainty, and individual or family issues (Llorens & Stazyk, 2010; Price, 1977). Contrasted with involuntary turnover, voluntary turnover presents numerous unwanted and thoughtful impacts on organisational performance (e.g., low efficiency, low productivity, and higher expenses for substitutions) (Hom et al., 2012; Shaw et al., 1998).

By contrast, involuntary turnover has originative elements, antecedents, outcomes, and costs that are entirely dissimilar from those of voluntary turnover and reflects an inappropriate hiring decision (Shaw et al., 1998). Simply, involuntary turnover is a purposeful decrease in the quantity of employees by an organization in order to improve its performance (Felps et al., 2009). Some of the causal factors of involuntary turnover could be employees' inability in meeting organisational targets, not conforming to managerial norms and procedures, not fulfilling performance criteria, and/or organization's decisions on cost cutting or redundancy (McElroy et al., 2001). Involuntary turnover can also be due to lack of job protections, such as unions and tenure; for example, employees who are forced by their employers to leave will certainly become involuntary quitters regardless of their wishes or those of their family (Hom et al., 2012). Another causal factor is that some individuals may feel coerced into leaving because their spouses are relocating or they are pursuing further education (Hom et al., 2012).

Based on the categorization made by Hom et al. (2012), involuntary leavers are associated with those employees who want to stay but cannot stay (reluctant quitters). In this respect, Hom et al. (2012) argued that numerous individuals resorted to reluctant leaving when they understood or suspected that they might be jobless or retired soon with some financial security. Thus, they had clear indication of when they should leave, even in circumstances where they would preferably remain. Since they did not leave immediately, they became potential candidates who expressed work avoidance behaviors, counterproductive work behaviors, left, or even postponed or revoked quitting decisions

(Hom et al., 2012). By contrast, voluntary leavers were more associated with enthusiastic quitters who were willing to quit but could not, and as a result, they expressed work avoidance behaviors, such as absenteeism and delays, and counterproductive workplace behaviors, such as unionization or disruption (Hom et al., 2012). Therefore, it is important to manage involuntary turnover in effective manner, because dismissal of these employees was commonly observed as being to the greatest advantage of the organization (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010). Based on macro level turnover research, Hom et al. (2012) suggested that HRM practices, such as past redundancies or work observation, could significantly impact the reduction of voluntary and involuntary turnover.

#### **2.4.2.2. Functional and Dysfunctional Turnover**

Employee turnover can be further categorized into functional and dysfunctional turnover. The idea of turnover functionality was pioneered by Dalton, Todor, and Krackhardt (1982), who disputed traditional assumptions that voluntary turnover invariably was detrimental to organizations. They argued that turnover functionality was a categorization based on quitters' quality made by organizations after departures (Dalton et al., 1982). In one of their early studies, Dalton, Krackhardt, and Porter (1981) classified functional turnover as the loss of excess unproductive or costly workforce that can improve organizational efficiency, for which organization is unconcerned. On the other hand, they classified dysfunctional turnover as an employee who wanted to quit but who the organization wished to retain. This conceptualization challenged the supposition that turnover was always dysfunctional and inspired enduring investigation into the spatiality and form of relationship between turnover and performance (McEvoy & Cascio, 1987). This taxonomic differentiation of turnover into functional and dysfunctional categories acquired profoundly importance in illuminating hypothetical assumptions and research regarding employee turnover.

The deliberation on functional and dysfunctional turnover proposes that intentional departure from an organization might possibly be or not be advantageous, contingent upon the performance of the employee being referred to (Becker & Cropanzano, 2011). Turnover

is commonly considered dysfunctional when talented employees leave the organization and take with them their intellectual and social capital, and this can be detrimental to the organization (Baron et al., 2001; Allen et al., 2010). This is because the departure of talented employees may deprive the organization of its future leaders and innovators (Becker & Cropanzano, 2011). In this context, Abelson and Baysinger (1984) considered dysfunctional turnover as profoundly unfavorable to organisational growth, as it forced greater direct and indirect expenses than functional turnover, and it had a negative effect on the fulfillment of the organization's performance objectives. Taken into consideration these costs, turnover researchers have long been keen on anticipating and ideally avoiding valued and talented employees from quitting their jobs. Shaw et al. (2005) scrutinized an alternate type of dysfunctional turnover and uncovered how turnover separated collegial relations, which in turn interrupted communication channels, weakened social capital, and eventually diminished efficiency.

Although it is true that turnover traditionally has been thought of as dysfunctional to the organization, there is some evidence in the literature that suggests otherwise (Dalton et al., 1982). This is the situation of an individual departing from the organization when the organization has a negative assessment of that individual. This type of turnover is considered as functional turnover, which is characterized by the departure of lower performers (employees who are easily replaceable) and is beneficial to the organization (Allen et al., 2010). It is commonly acknowledged that functional turnover occurs when the poorest performers depart from the organization and create opportunity for new and potentially more talented employees (Abelson & Baysinger, 1984; Becker & Cropanzano, 2011; Dalton et al., 1981).

#### **2.4.2.3. Unavoidable and Avoidable Turnover**

Although organizations strive to implement HRM policies and practices to reduce voluntary turnover and retain talented employees, some of their employees still search for alternative jobs. Thus, it is well recognized among researchers that while some turnover is avoidable, some turnover will remain permanently unavoidable (Abelson, 1987; Allen et

al., 2010). Therefore, within voluntary turnover, researchers have distinguished between organizationally avoidable and organizationally unavoidable turnover (Abelson, 1987; Barrick & Zimmerman, 2005; Dalton et al., 1981). The first taxonomy that distinguished avoidable turnover from unavoidable voluntary turnover was presented by Dalton et al. (1981). They suggested that this expanded taxonomy may improve the understanding and prediction of turnover. They further argued that comprehension of the way in which actual quitting decisions were made may provide an incomplete clarification to the predictably low relationship between voluntary turnover and its speculated antecedents and causal factors (Dalton et al., 1981). Likewise, Hom and Griffeth (1995) asserted that distinction between avoidable and unavoidable turnover was an important benchmark for analyzing existing turnover models.

According to Allen et al. (2010), avoidable turnover happens for reasons that may be influenced by the organization, such as higher pay at a perceived alternative job, job dissatisfaction and deprived supervision, whereas unavoidable turnover happens for reasons that may not be influenced by the organization, such as health or family issues. In this context, Barrick and Zimmerman (2005) argued that in unavoidable turnover, the reason lies outside the compelling space of the organization. This infers that organizations have limited impact over employee turnover decisions because of occasions that are outside the influence of the organization. Presumably, employers should concentrate and take preventive measures on turnover that they can manage instead of those they cannot. Furthermore, Dalton et al. (1981) argued that the individuals who quit for reasons that could be avoided by organizations differed from both stayers and those who quit for reasons that could not be avoided by organizations. Moreover, Abelson (1987) found that individuals who quit for unavoidable reasons were more comparable attitudinally to individuals who remained than to the individuals who quit for reasons that were unavoidable by organizations. In this manner, individual psychological differences of employees cannot have a significant impact on organizationally unavoidable turnover (Barrick & Zimmerman, 2005).

Abelson (1987) declared that turnover avoidability is the degree to which an individual believes that organization have prevented his or her withdrawal and therefore

shows how vulnerable the turnover is to management intervention. However, the extent to which it is feasible for employers to influence turnover ought to be assessed in conjunction with any measures of turnover, such as functionality (Morel et al., 2001). In this context, Morel et al. suggest that if all occasions of turnover happen to be avoidable, the emphasis of organizations and managers should be on application preventive measures to avoid turnover. If, however, all occasions of turnover happen to be unavoidable, the emphasis of organizations and managers should be minimizing the distraction and inconvenience of this unavoidable phenomenon (Morel et al., 2001). This is the case of preplanned quitters (Maertz & Campion, 2004), who may be driven to quit due to family reasons or profession-change activities (e.g. establishing a new business, returning to graduate school, or relocation of spouses), thus making it impossible for organizations and managers to prevent this turnover. In the study of process (*how*) and content (*why*) models of turnover, Maertz and Campion (2004) hypothesized that impulsive, conditional, and comparison quitting are bound to be seen as under control of the organization's management, whereas intentional quitting was less avoidable in comparison with the other three types. Their results fully supported this hypothesis and revealed that in contrast to intentional quitters, impulsive, comparison, and conditional quitters rated their withdrawal as more avoidable for their organizations.

#### **2.4.3. Employees' Turnover Intention**

Turnover goal refers to an employee's expectation to leave his or her current organization. This concept is considered compatible with the terms "intention to leave" or "intention to quit"; however, turnover intention is distinct from the act of actual turnover. One of the early definitions of turnover intention was presented by Mobley et al. (1978), who described it as the last step of progression in the turnover decision process and as the most immediate antecedent of actual turnover. Subsequently, Mobley (1982) described turnover intentions as a biased estimation of an employee with respect to the likelihood of leaving the organization in the near future. Similarly, Cotton and Turtle (1996) defined the turnover intentions as an employee's perceived likelihood of staying or leaving. By

contrast, Tett and Meyer (1993) defined it as a meaningful and purposeful willfulness to quit from the organization.

Until the 1970s, most of the models of employee turnover suggested straightforward relations between employee attitudes, such as job satisfaction and the actual quitting (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Vroom, 1964). However, academics and researchers of organizational and psychological studies usually find only weak relationships between these attitudinal variables and voluntary turnover. In 1973, in their examination of the literature in turnover and absenteeism, Porter and Steers (1973) proposed that more accentuation should be placed on understanding the process of the turnover decision. In particular, they proposed that “intention to quit” could be a possible mediator for the relationships between attitude and behavior and characterized the last step preceding quitting. In 1975, Fishbein and Ajzen presented a hypothetical premise that concentrated on behavioral intentions. Their theory of attitudes recommended that “the best single predictor on an individual’s behavior will be a measure of his intention to perform that behavior” (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 369). In addition, Mobley (1977) estimated a model of the transitional association between job satisfaction and voluntary turnover, which delineated a few cognitive decisions made by an individual between encountering job dissatisfaction and quitting the organization. These cognitive decisions included thinking of quitting, assessment of the expected utility of looking for a new job and the expenses associated with quitting, intent to search for a new job, looking for other options, assessment of other options, comparing other options with the present job, and intention to quit.

Mobley (1977) concluded that ‘thinking of quitting’ is the subsequent rational step after perceived dissatisfaction and that intention to quit, following a few other steps, might be the final step before actual quitting. This is the motivation behind organizations generally referring to turnover intention as a more critical measure than actual turnover. In this regard, Carmeli and Weisberg (2006) contemplated three components in the withdrawal cognition process, specifically thinking of quitting, the intention to search for alternatives, and the intention to leave; however, they did not include the component of actual turnover. Likewise, earlier research lends support to turnover intention as the most

grounded indicator of actual turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993). A meta-analysis by Steel and Ovalle (1984) not only demonstrated a solid positive correlation between intention to quit and actual turnover but also demonstrated that intention to quit was a superior indicator of actual turnover behavior than emotional variables, including job satisfaction and satisfaction with the work content itself. Indeed, in view of the existing meta-analysis information, turnover intentions have a more grounded correlation with work-related attitudes than turnover intention has with actual turnover itself (Griffeth et al., 2000). In this regard, assessment of employee intentions to quit provides a chance to organizations to take proactive measures so as to decrease the rate of turnover (Lambert et al., 2001).

Like real turnover, the nature of turnover intention can be either voluntary or involuntary. Most of the time, turnover intention alludes to the deliberate aim of a person to leave an organization for any reason; in any case, at times, it very well may be involuntary in nature (Shaw et al., 1998). Extensive evidence in the literature suggests that voluntary intention to quit occurs when employees see better alternatives in the market over compared to what is obtainable in their present job, position, or organization (Lee et al., 2008; Shaw et al., 2005) and their behavior is often associated with negative job attitudes, search for a new job, and fewer OCBs (Harrison et al., 2006; Hom & Kinicki, 2001; Hom et al., 2012). Furthermore, there may be personal and environmental factors that trigger voluntary turnover intention, including transfer of spouses, redefinition of positions in the family, early retirement due to disease or inability, individual concerns regarding their organizations, and leadership related issues (Maertz & Campion, 2004).

## **Chapter III - Hypothesis Development**

This research attempts to explain the impact of HRM practices, perceived organizational justice and OCB on the turnover intentions of bank employees in Kosovo. An integrative model was developed to evaluate the direct and indirect impact of HRM practices, organizational justice, and OCB on turnover intention. The following sections in this chapter provide findings related to the interrelationship between variables from the most recent literature in this field. Moreover, this chapter highlights and justifies the potential research gaps in the literature and emphasizes the research hypotheses and research questions.

### **3.1 Hypothesis Regarding HRM Practices and Turnover Intention**

The existence of possible relationships between HRM practices and employee turnover intentions was initially mentioned by Mobley et al. (1979), who extended their previous turnover model (discussed in the previous chapter) to include different intermediate linkages between the variables that were external to the individuals and that had the ability to impact employee turnover intentions. The research on the relationship between HRM practices and turnover intentions started to expand after the 1990s and became more prevalent after the new millennium. Since then, extensive research has been conducted to investigate this relationship in various settings; however, for the purposes of this study, only the most recent literature will be reviewed.

Gardner et al. (2011) examined the association between HRM (empowerment and skill-enhancing) practices and collective voluntary turnover through the mediating role of collective commitment. Analyzing data from 20 top HR managers and 1,748 employees in a food distribution company in the US, their findings revealed that collective affective commitment independently mediated the negative associations between motivation and empowerment-enhancing practices and collective voluntary turnover. Human resource

management practices aiming to develop the employee KSAs were positively related with voluntary turnover but were not mediated by collective affective commitment.

Bambacas and Kulik (2013) explored how HRM practices (performance appraisal, organizational rewards, supervisory rewards, professional growth, and professional interaction) embedded employees in their organizations and reduced their withdrawal cognitions. Specifically, their study examined the association between HRM practices and employee turnover intentions through the mediating role of the organizational job embeddedness dimensions (links, fit, and sacrifice). Analyzing data from 308 managerial employees in the steel industry in China, their findings indicated that performance appraisal and organizational rewards enhanced fit and reduced withdrawal cognitions. Moreover, employee development activities improved employee perceptions of sacrifice, but enhanced consciousness of sacrifice was related with increased withdrawal cognitions.

Peretz and Fried (2013) examined the impact of social and cultural practices on the characteristics of performance appraisal, as well as the impact of the level of similarity between social cultural practices and the characteristics of performance appraisal on absenteeism and turnover. Analyzing a large data set of 10,869 organizations across 37 countries, their results revealed that societal cultural practices were associated with organizational performance appraisal practices and that similarity among social cultures and performance appraisal characteristics tended to deter turnover and absenteeism, whereas differences between these societal cultures and performance appraisal characteristics tended to raise the level of turnover and absenteeism.

Erturk (2014) examined the role of HRM practices (involvement in decision making, information distribution, recognition practices, and impartial rewards) on turnover intentions of information technology (IT) professionals through the mediating role of perceived organizational support (POS), LMX, and organizational trust. Analyzing data from 197 IT professionals of public organizations in Turkey, his results indicated that the relationship between HRM practices and turnover intentions was mediated by POS. In addition, it was found that the relationship between information sharing, recognition practices, and turnover intentions was mediated by LMX, whereas the relationship between trust in organization, trust in supervisor, and turnover intentions was mediated by LMX.

De Gieter and Hofmans (2015) examined the effect of HRM practices (fulfillment with financial, material, and psychological rewards, financial security, recognition and interpersonal contact) on intention to quit and task performance. Analyzing survey data from 179 employees of financial institutions in Belgium, their results indicated that there were significant relationships between fulfillment with financial, material, and psychological rewards and intention to quit. Moreover, employees who had higher fulfillment with financial rewards were happier with material rewards and vice versa. Likewise, employees who had higher fulfillment with material rewards exhibited high work value acknowledgments and interpersonal contact.

He et al. (2016) examined the associations between salary dispersion and employee intentions to quit through the mediating role of Chinese traditionalism and salary level. Analyzing survey data from 370 employees in 51 organizations in China, their results revealed that Chinese traditionalism moderated the positive association between workgroup salary dispersion and employee intentions to quit only for employees with high traditionalism. Moreover, the salary level moderated the association among workgroup salary dispersion and employee intentions to quit only for employees with low salary levels.

Lee et al. (2018) studied the impact of perceived HRM practices (training, internal mobility, employment security, performance appraisal, rewards, and job description) on employee affective commitment and intentions to quit through the moderating role of employee positive affect. Analyzing survey data from 317 respondents in South Korea and 302 respondents in the United States, their results showed that within perceived HR practices, internal mobility had the strongest relationship with intention to quit in both South Korea and the U.S. Internal mobility was the most significant variable for predicting affective commitment in the US sample, whereas training was the strongest predictor of affective commitment in South Korea. Moreover, positive affect moderated the association between perceived HRM practices and affective commitment and intention to quit in the U.S., whereas these associations were not significant in South Korea.

The review of the literature above indicates that the relationship between HRM practices and turnover intention is a sufficiently explored area of knowledge, and it is

evident that in most of the previous studies, a direct or indirect relationship between HRM practices and turnover intentions exist; however, there are numerous directions for further research in this field that can be considered as research gaps in the existing literature.

First, although there has been a long debate on the impact of HRM practices on turnover intentions in various industries and study contexts, no previous studies have examined this relationship in the banking sector in a national context. Second, while most of the previous studies have only focused on the direct relationship between HRMPs and turnover intentions (Dyer & Reeves, 1995; Huselid, 1995), this study considers organizational justice and OCBs as mediators of this relationship. Third, the literature review indicates that most of the previous studies examining the impact of HRM practices on turnover intentions were mainly conducted in developed western countries (e.g., U.S.A., Canada, and Belgium) and some Asian and Pacific countries (e.g., China, South Korea, Malaysia, and New Zealand), and none of the previous studies have established the predictors of turnover intention in the cultural work contexts of developing countries such as Kosovo. Fourth, the dearth of research on this subject in Kosovo constitutes a serious gap in the literature for various industries and organizational contexts, including the Kosovo banking sector.

In order to address these gaps, the H1 hypothesis was developed to empirically test the relationship between HRM practices and turnover in Kosovo context and to understand the eventual differences and similarities with previous studies in various organizational, cultural, and industrial contexts.

*H1: There is a negative relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and turnover intentions.*

### **3.2 Hypothesis Regarding HRM Practices and OCB**

The existence of possible relationships between HRM practices and OCBs has been mentioned by several researchers (Guest, 1999; Morrison, 1996; Snape & Redman, 2010;

Sun et al., 2007); however, more recently Yang (2012) tested the effect of high-involvement HRM practices on employee OCBs in service contexts through the mediating effect of affective commitment. Yang proposed a theoretical model and developed the hypotheses that HRM practices (i.e., recognition, empowerment, competence development, fair rewards, and information sharing) enabled the growth of workers' affective commitment, which in turn provided a positive impact on employee OCBs (i.e., loyalty, participation, and service delivery). Analyzing survey data from 172 restaurant personnel in Taiwan, his findings revealed that five dimensions of HRM practices played an important role in the growth of workers' affective commitment. Additionally, it was revealed that affective commitment played an effective role between high-involvement HRM practices and employee OCBs.

In a similar setting, relying on social exchange theory and impression management theory, Zheng et al. (2012) examined the relationship between performance appraisal process and OCB through the mediating role of affective commitment and the moderating role of rating-reward linkages. They analyzed survey data from 777 respondents in China and found out that affective commitment partly mediated the association between the performance appraisal process and OCB, whereas this association was supported by the moderating effect of perceived rating-reward linkages.

Tang and Tang (2012) integrated the social exchange theory and the information processing theory to examine the crucial impact of social environments on the association between HRM practices and employee service-oriented OCB. They tested the impact of high performance HRM practices on service-oriented OCB through the mediating effect of the social environment of fairness and service. Analyzing survey data from 1,133 hotel employees and 119 HR managers from different hotels in Taiwan. Their findings indicated that both fairness and service environment mediated the effect of high performance HRM practices on employee service-oriented OCB. Moreover, their findings showed that high performance HRM practices influenced employees' perception about justice and service environment in the organization, which consequently had a positive effect on collective service-oriented OCB.

Fu (2013) tested the direct impact of organizational commitment (affective and continuance commitment) on OCB (OCB-I and OCB-O) through the moderating effect of high performance HRM practices. The findings derived from a cross-level analysis of 346 airline personnel in Taiwan revealed a strong positive association between flight attendants' affective commitment and OCB-I and OCB-O, whereas the associations between continuance commitment and OCB were not significant. Moreover, the findings revealed that high performance HRM practices had a positive influence on both OCB-I and OCB-O. Finally, high performance HRM practices displayed a strong moderating effect on the positive association between flight attendants' organizational commitment and their OCBs.

Relying on social exchange theory, Alfes et al. (2013) established and tested a model associating HRM practices and two behavioral outcomes, OCB and intention to quit. In their model, Alfes et al. proposed that the impact of HRM practices on OCB and intention to quit was mediated by employee engagement, whereas the association between employee engagement and OCB intention to quit was moderated by POS and LMX. Analyzing data from 297 personnel in a service industry in the UK, their findings revealed a positive association between HRM practices and OCB. Furthermore, it was found that employee engagement mediated the association between HRM practices and OCB.

Watty-Benjamin and Udechukwu (2014) examined the impact of HRM practices (employee skills, organizational structures, and employee motivation) on OCBs and intentions to quit. Analyzing survey data from 500 employees working for government agencies in the Virgin Islands, their results revealed no significant association between HRM practices and OCB. Likewise, HRM practices did not successfully predict employee intentions to quit.

Drawing on social exchange and process theories, Mostafa et al. (2015) tested a model through which high performance HRM practices impacted employee affective commitment and OCBs through the mediating role of public service motivation. Analyzing survey data from 671 professionals in health and higher education sectors in Egypt, his findings revealed that public service motivation partly mediated the

association between high performance HRM practices and affective commitment and OCBs.

The review of the literature above indicates that the relationship between HRM practices and OCB is a sufficiently explored area of knowledge; however, most previous research examining this relationship mainly occurred in developed countries, such as the U.S.A., U.K., Taiwan, China, and Egypt, whereas none of them have established the mediating or moderating effect of OCB in the relationship between HRM practices and turnover intention in cultural work contexts of developing countries such as Kosovo. In order to address these gaps, the following hypotheses were developed to empirically test the relationship between HRM practices and OCB in the Kosovo context.

*H2: There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, compensation) and OCB.*

*H2a: There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and OCB-I.*

*H2b: There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and OCB-O.*

### **3.3 Hypothesis Regarding HRM Practices and Organizational Justice**

The existence of possible relationships between HRM practices and organizational justice was initially mentioned by Folger et al. (1992), who developed a performance appraisal model to test employee perception of fairness during the performance appraisal process. Following this study, an extensive body of research has examined the relationship between these two variables; however, very few were focused on the relationship between

HRM practices and turnover intention where organizational justice served as a mediating or moderating variable. For the purpose of this research, the most recent studies concerning this relationship are emphasized.

Relying on social identity and organizational justice research, Frenkel et al. (2012) developed a model in which they examined the effect of HRM practices on organizational identity through the mediating role of procedural and distributive justice. Analyzing data from 618 workers in two Australian companies, their results indicated a positive association between HRM practices and procedural and distributive justice.

De Gieter et al. (2012) examined the mediating impact of two HRM practices (satisfaction with salary level and fulfillment with emotional rewards) on the relationship between organizational justice and intention to quit. Analyzing data from 322 teachers in secondary schools in Belgium, their results revealed that satisfaction with salary level did not have any mediating effect on the association between organizational justice and intention to quit; however, fulfillment with emotional rewards did.

Farndale and Kelliher (2013) examined the moderating role of employee trust in management on the association between employee perception of fairness during the performance evaluation and their level of organizational commitment. Performing multilevel analysis with 4,422 employees from 22 companies in the UK, their findings revealed that trust in management played a moderating effect on the association between perception of fairness during the performance evaluation and their level of organizational commitment.

Day et al. (2014) investigated the mediating effect of HRM practices (communication, performance evaluation, and reward allocation) on the association between employee need and employee perception of justice. Results from data analysis of 292 employees from an academic medical center in the US revealed that communication, performance evaluation, and reward allocation mediated the association between employee need and employee perception of justice.

Chen et al. (2016) tested the effect of HRM practice consistency on in-role and ERBs through the mediating role of procedural justice environment and psychological contract breach. Analyzing data from 355 employees of 42 firms in Taiwan, their results showed that consistent HRM practices had a strong positive impact on procedural justice and psychological contract. Furthermore, procedural justice environment and psychological contract mediated the association between HRM practice consistency and in-role and ERBs.

The literature indicates that the relationship between HRM practices and organizational justice is an insufficiently explored area of knowledge, particularly in contexts where organizational justice plays a mediating effect between HRM practices and turnover intentions. Moreover, previous studies examining this relationship were mainly conducted in developed countries, such as Australia, UK, Belgium, U.S.A., and Taiwan, whereas none of these previous studies have established the mediating or moderating effect of organizational justice in the relationship between HRM practices and turnover intention in the cultural work context of a developing country such as Kosovo. In order to address these gaps, the following hypotheses were developed to empirically test the relationship between HRM practices and organizational justice in the Kosovo context.

*H3: There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational justice.*

*H3a: There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational distributive justice perceptions.*

*H3b: There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational procedural justice perceptions.*

*H3c: There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational interactional justice perceptions.*

### **3.4 Hypothesis Regarding Organizational Justice and Turnover Intention**

Despite an extensive body of literature on organizational justice and turnover intention in various organizational and cultural contexts, few studies have examined their relationships and their impacts on each other. The existence of possible associations between organizational justice and turnover intentions was mentioned by Hausknecht, Sturman, and Roberson (2011), who examined the levels and development of employee justice perceptions during different time periods in an attempt to provide empirical findings to emphasize the importance of justice perceptions within a dynamic setting. Analyzing survey data from 523 employees, their findings revealed that employee justice perceptions affected work outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Interestingly, these findings were more evident when there was a change in procedural justice perceptions.

In addition, Kim, Solomon, and Jang (2012) examined the moderating role of organizational justice on the association between stress and turnover intention among social service employees in Korea. Using a linear mixed model to analyze survey data from 218 social employees, their results indicated that higher level of stress led to higher turnover intentions. However, a high level of organizational justice reduced employees' turnover intentions. Furthermore, their results revealed that organizational justice moderated the effect of stress on employee turnover intentions.

Herda and Lavelle (2012) examined the relationship between perceptions of justice, stress, and intention to quit, through the mediating role of social exchange relations between employees and their organization. Analyzing survey data of 204 auditors in two accounting companies in the U.S., their results revealed that perceptions of justice by the

organization predicted perceived organizational support, which in turn predicted employee commitment. Moreover, their results indicated that auditors' commitment had a negative relationship to auditors' stress and intention to quit. Furthermore, their findings indicated that organizational justice perceptions had a direct negative relationship with auditors' stress and their intention to quit.

Relying on social exchange theory, Flint et al. (2012) examined the impact of procedural fairness on intention to quit through the mediating effect of organizational commitment and the impact of interactional fairness on intention to quit through the mediating effect of supervisory commitment. Using Baron and Kenny's (1986) methodology, Flint et al. analyzed survey data from 212 employees of call centers in Canada and revealed that organizational commitment partly mediated the association between procedural fairness and intention to quit, whereas supervisory commitment entirely mediated the association between interactional fairness and intention to quit.

In a similar setting, Karatepe and Shahriari (2014) examined the direct impact of procedural and interactional fairness on intention to quit, and also the moderating effect of job embeddedness on the association between the above-mentioned fairness dimensions and intention to quit. Analyzing survey data from 214 hotel employees in Iran, their results showed that organizational fairness sub dimensions (distributive, procedural, and interactional) had a direct negative association with intention to quit and that job embeddedness displayed a strong negative effect between these organizational fairness sub dimensions and the intention to quit.

More recently, Moon (2017) examined the influence of four organizational fairness sub dimensions (distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal fairness) on aggregate turnover rates and organizational performance. Analyzing a large data set from the U.S. government, his findings demonstrated a negative relationship between distributive and interpersonal fairness and intention to quit and a positive relationship between distributive, procedural, and interpersonal fairness and organizational performance.

The literature indicates that the relationship between organizational justice and turnover intentions is an insufficiently explored area of knowledge, considering that previous studies examining this relationship were mainly conducted in developed countries, such as the U.S., Korea, Canada and Iran, whereas none of these previous studies have established the mediating or moderating effect of organizational justice in the relationship between HRM practices and turnover intention in cultural work contexts of a developing country such as Kosovo. In order to address these gaps, the following hypotheses were developed to empirically test the relationship between organizational justice and turnover intention in the Kosovo context.

*H4: There is a negative relationship between organizational justice (sub dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and turnover intentions.*

*H4a: There is a negative relationship between distributive justice perceptions and turnover intentions.*

*H4b: There is a negative relationship between procedural justice perceptions and turnover intentions.*

*H4c: There is a negative relationship between interactional justice perceptions and turnover intentions.*

### **3.5 Hypothesis Regarding Organizational Justice and OCB**

The relationship between organizational justice and OCB was initially observed by Moorman (1991), who tested the link between justice cognitions and OCB among 225 employees in two companies in the U.S. Drawing on the theoretical foundations of equity theory and social exchange theory, Moorman found a positive association between justice cognitions and OCB. More recently, this relationship was examined by various authors in different organizational and cultural settings. For example, Chueng (2013) tested the association between two dimensions of organizational justice (informational and interpersonal justice) and OCB through the mediating effect of perceived organizational

support. Analyzing survey data from 159 managers and employees in an engineering company in Hong Kong, her results demonstrated that perceived organizational support fully mediated the impact of organizational justice sub dimensions on OCB.

In addition, Chou et al. (2013) examined the influence of organizational justice dimensions (distributive, procedural, and interactional) on OCB through the mediating effect of job commitment. Analyzing data from 298 information system project members in Taiwan, their results demonstrated that the direct link between justice perceptions and OCB was not very significant; however, this relationship was significant when mediated by job commitment.

Elamin and Tlaiss (2015) investigated the link between the perceptions of organizational justice dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and OCB within the context of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Analyzing survey data from 250 managers in various industries, their findings revealed that among other organizational justice sub dimensions, interactional justice had the strongest relationship with OCB. This was justified by the fact that Islamic culture promoted respect and courtesy when interacting with others.

Chan and Lai (2017) examined the association between communication satisfaction and OCB through the mediating effect of justice perception. Furthermore, they examined the relationship between justice perception and OCB through the mediating role of communication satisfaction. Analyzing quantitative data from 294 employees in Macau, their findings demonstrated that OCB was impacted by communication satisfaction and justice perception. Moreover, communication satisfaction displayed a mediating effect in the relationship between justice perception and OCB, whereas justice perception did not show any mediating effect in the relationship between communication satisfaction and OCB.

Özduran and Tanova (2017) investigated the impact of managerial coaching behavior on two sub dimensions of OCB (conscientiousness and altruism) through the moderating effect of procedural justice climate. Analyzing survey data from 176 hotel employees in Northern Cyprus, their findings revealed that procedural justice climate

moderated the effect of managerial coaching behaviour on employee conscientiousness and altruism, and this effect was more significant when there was a smaller degree of procedural justice climates.

Lim and Loosemore (2017) examined the impact of interpersonal justice perception on OCB among 135 members across the construction project supply chain in Australia. Analyzing data through the structural equation modeling technique, their findings indicated that OCBs of project members under investigation were impacted by their perceptions of interpersonal justice in business relations. Furthermore, their results indicated that interpersonal justice was a key component in enhancing employee OCBs and improving project performance.

Sharma (2018) examined the direct impact of corporate ethical values on OCB and alienation from work and the moderating effect of justice perception in this relationship. Analyzing survey data from 202 sales employees of furniture stores in the U.S., his findings revealed a strong impact of corporate ethical values on OCB and alienation from work; however, the moderating effect of justice perception was weak in this relationship.

Although the literature indicates that the relationship between organizational justice and OCB is an extensively explored area of knowledge, no previous studies have examined this relationship in the cultural work contexts of a developing country such as Kosovo. In order to address these gaps, the following hypotheses were developed to empirically test the relationship between organizational justice and OCB in the Kosovo context.

*H5: There is a positive relationship between organizational justice perceptions (sub dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice) and OCB.*

*H5a: There is a positive relationship between distributive justice perceptions and OCB-I.*

*H5b: There is a positive relationship between procedural justice perceptions and OCB-I.*

*H5c: There is a positive relationship between interactional justice perceptions and OCB-I.*

*H5d: There is a positive relationship between distributive justice perceptions and OCB-O.*

*H5e: There is a positive relationship between procedural justice perceptions and OCB-O.*

*H5f: There is a positive relationship between interactional justice perceptions and OCB-O.*

### **3.6 Hypothesis Regarding OCB and Turnover Intention**

The relationship between OCB and turnover intentions has been scrutinized by various researchers, who have examined this relationship in various organizational and cultural contexts (Campbell & Im, 2016; Cho & Ryu, 2009; Dalal et al., 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Sharoni et al., 2012; Tsai & Wu 2010). For example, Cho and Ryu (2009) examined the mediating effect of OCB in the association between job embeddedness, job performance, and intention to quit in the context of Korean workers. They analyzed data from 255 questionnaires and found that OCB played a mediating effect in the association between job embeddedness, job performance, and intention to quit. More specifically, their findings revealed that OCB (sub dimensions: altruism, courtesy, and civic virtue) were negatively associated with intention to quit, whereas only conscientiousness did not predict the intention to quit.

Podsakoff et al. (2009) conducted a meta-analytic study to examine the relationship between OCB and several individual and organizational outcomes. Analyzing data from 51,235 individuals from 168 independent samples, their results showed that OCB was associated with numerous individual outcomes, such as managerial assessments of worker performance, reward distribution judgements, and withdrawal decisions, such as

absenteeism, intention to quit, and actual turnover. More specifically, their results indicated that OCB was negatively related to absenteeism, intention to quit, and actual turnover.

Tsai and Wu (2010) examined the association between OCB, job satisfaction, and intention to quit among hospital nurses in Taiwan. Analyzing survey data from 327 nurses in Taiwan, their results indicated that job satisfaction among nurses had a significant positive relationship with OCB and job satisfaction and that OCB had a negative association with intention to quit.

Sharoni et al. (2012) examined the association between OCB and intention to quit through the moderating effect of organizational justice and organizational culture. Analyzing data from 102 employees, their results revealed that organizational justice and organizational culture moderated the association between OCB and intention to quit.

Campbell and Im (2016) examined the association between public service motivation, change-oriented OCB, and intention to quit. They analyzed survey data from 480 employees in 16 ministries in South Korea and demonstrated that change-oriented OCB mediated the association between public service motivation and intention to quit, providing conditions for motivated workers that in turn enhanced their OCBs.

The evidence provided above suggests that the relationship between OCB and turnover intention has been explored to some extent; however, none of the previous studies have established the mediating or moderating effect of OCB in the relationship between HRM practices and turnover intention in the cultural work contexts of an emerging economy such as Kosovo. In order to address these gaps, the following hypotheses were developed to empirically test the relationship between OCB and turnover intention in the Kosovo context.

*H6: OCB has negative effects on turnover intention.*

*H6a: Altruism has a negative effect on turnover intention.*

*H6b: Courtesy has a negative effect on turnover intention.*

*H6c: Sportsmanship has a negative effect on turnover intention.*

*H6d: Consciousness has a negative effect on turnover intention.*

*H6e: Civic virtue has a negative effect on turnover intention.*



## **Chapter IV – A Research on the Effects of HRM Practices, Perceived Organizational Justice, and Citizenship Behavior on Turnover Intention**

This chapter describes the methods and procedures that are used to investigate the inter-relationships between HRM practices, organizational justice, OCB, and turnover intentions. The chapter includes an overview of the banking sector in Kosovo, discussions of the study population and sampling, data collection procedures, measurement instruments, and research design.

### **4.1 An Overview of the Banking Sector in Kosovo**

The banking sector is considered the most vital sector in a society because it contributes significantly to economic development by facilitating business financial performance; therefore, it has a key role in maintaining the stability of a financial system (KBA, 2019). Banks are important institutions in an economy because they serve as the main source of loans to individuals, families, institutions, and various enterprises. Banks, amongst other things, also facilitate the development of savings plans, are recognized as strategic monetary instruments of governments, facilitate the employability of a considerable number of people in a national context, and have a direct impact on economic growth and global GDP through employment and loans.

The banking sector in Kosovo is a relatively new system; however, since 1999, it has seen a rapid development. It is one of the best performing sectors in Kosovo, with a wide range of financial services and increase in deposits and loans (IMF, 2013). The Central Bank of the Republic of Kosovo holds the authority to license, regulate, and supervise financial institutions, especially banks in Kosovo. Although the banking sector in Kosovo is concentrated, the sector is still open to new players, both domestic and

international. There are ten banks operating in Kosovo, with foreign banks holding the largest market share, representing 67.5% of the total assets in the financial sector (CBK, 2019). The following banks are registered or licensed by the Central Bank of Kosovo to operate in the territory of Kosovo: (1) NLB Banka, (2) Banka për Biznes, (3) Turkiye Cumhuriyeti Ziraat bankasi, (4) Banka Ekonomike, (5) Raiffeisen Bank Kosovo, (6) ProCredit Bank, (7) Türk Ekonomi Bankasi (TEB) SH.A, (8) Banka Kombëtare Tregtare, (9) Turkiye Is Bankasi, and (10) Komercijalna Banka ad Beograd. Their products and services include banking accounts, loans, domestic and international payments, banking cards, banking guarantees, letters of credit, and e-banking. Access to these services is enabled through 233 branches and sub-branches, 500 ATM's, 12,303 POS, and 228,745 e-banking accounts (KBA, 2019).

Based on the data provided by the Central Bank of Kosovo (CBK, 2019), the entire banking system in Kosovo is privatized, and most of the capital is owned by foreign entities (8 out of 10 banks). The number of foreign banks has increased, especially since 2008 when three new banks were added. Furthermore, foreign-owned banks have the largest share of the system assets (approximately 90%), whereas local-owned banks account for only 10% of assets. Banks in Kosovo have a special role not only in the economic development of the country through the provision of loans in various sectors but also through employment that also affects GDP growth. Ten commercial banks operate in the country and employ approximately 3,322 employees (CBK, 2019).

One of the problems of the banking system in Kosovo until 2008, was the concentration of activity in two main banks: Procredit Bank and Raiffeisen Bank Kosovo, which together accounted for approximately 66.5% of activities, including employment, which adversely affected the competitiveness of the banking system (CBK, 2019). However, with the entry of Turkish Economic Bank (TEB) into the market, this has changed in favor of customers as well as employees. Increased competition in the banking system has also affected the rate of employee turnover, where with the opening of new jobs, employees switch from one bank to another.

Evidence from the literature in various organizational contexts suggests that

employee turnover intention is influenced by various factors, such as social and cultural practices (Peretz & Fried, 2013), HRM practices, including training and development, internal mobility, employment security, performance appraisal, rewards, and job description (Lee et al., 2018); perception of organizational justice (Flint et al., 2012; Hausknecht et al., 2011; Herda & Lavelle, 2012; Kim et al., 2012); and OCBs (Campbell & Im, 2016; Cho & Ryu, 2009; Dalal et al., 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Sharoni et al., 2012; Tsai & Wu 2010). However, there is a dearth of literature that identifies the factors that influence employee turnover intention in the Kosovo banking sector.

Due to the absence of previous studies in this field relating to the Kosovo banking sector and based on the informal discussions and interviews with bank employees and managers, it was assumed that the causes influencing employee turnover intentions in the banking sector in Kosovo may be multiple. It may be personal factors, such as employee demographics; individual factors, such as employee psychological processes and behaviour; and organizational factors, such as HRM practices and organizational justice within bank institutions. Furthermore, this phenomenon is observed by bank employees and managers as dissatisfaction with existing conventional HRM practices, which are usually inflexible in nature with no provision of training and development and which lack recognition, performance-based pay, and promotions. Therefore, in order to fill this gap in the literature, an empirical research was conducted for examining the impact of HRM practices, organizational justice, and OCB on employee turnover intentions in the Kosovo banking sector.

The following chapter provides the methods and empirical procedures that were used to investigate the impact of HRM practices, organizational justice, and OCBs on employee turnover intentions in the Kosovo banking sector.

## **4.2 Research Population and Sampling Frame**

The research population is one of the most significant aspects of the research design, as it represents the entire population of the research that responds to the research

problem (Bryman, 2004). Generally, in social research, samples can be described as a cautiously selected segment from the research population that could be used to draw conclusions that are generalizable to the total population (Saunders et al., 2012). In other words, sampling is a method of choosing individuals from a research population so as to draw exact conclusions on how the research population acts or on their true beliefs (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Researchers preferably begin their studies by recognizing and characterizing the population to which they plan to examine and subsequently proceed to frame a sample that represents the targeted population (Saunders et al., 2012). A sampling frame is a broad list of all cases in the research population from which a research sample can be drawn (Saunders et al., 2012). Sampling frame is particularly important for studies conducted in social sciences, because researchers hardly have direct access to the whole population; therefore, they simply depend on sampling frame to signify all elements of the targeted population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

For this study, the research population represented all employees in the banking sector in Kosovo. The sampling frame was defined from the list of employees who were employed in 10 commercial banks in Kosovo. The data were collected from the responding bank headquarters in collaboration with the general management and the HR departments of each bank after getting required permissions from the managers. The list of participating banks is presented in Table 1; however, due to confidentiality reasons, their names were coded.

**Table 1*****Sampling frame of the study***

No	Bank Code	Study Population	Questionnaires Distributed	Valid Questionnaires Obtained	Response Rate
1	FZERJG	3,328	100	52	52.00%
2	SBQQBM		100	68	68.00%
3	FAVRAR		100	51	51.00%
4	DACVGA		100	70	70.00%
5	TKDBMD		100	32	32.00%
6	NXNFLY		100	36	36.00%
7	MKHNNT		100	38	38.00%
8	BJWSUV		100	33	33.00%
9	IAXOJX		100	54	54.00%
10	KNVULC		100	25	25.00%
Total		<b>3,328</b>	<b>1,000</b>	<b>459</b>	<b>45.9%</b>

**4.2.1. Sampling Size**

Determining sample size is a rather critical and diverse task (Kalleberg et al., 1990). If the size of the sample is less than the planned size, it may lead to less convergence, inappropriate results, and less exact constructs (Hair et al., 2003). Alternatively, if the sample is too large, it might be time consuming and expensive to obtain the data (Bryman

& Bell, 2011; Hair et al., 2003; Zikmund, 2002). Therefore, it is critical to determine the sample size that could provide generalized and reliable results for the entire population.

For the purposes of this study, the sample size was determined by following the guidelines of Krejcie and Morgan (1970), who published an article for determining the representative sample size of a given population. According to Krejcie and Morgan, if the total population is 3,500, the sample size should be at minimum 346. As the population of this study was 3,328, 1,000 questionnaires were distributed through the HR departments of the respective banks and 459 valid questionnaires were collected. Convenience sampling method was used to collect data. For each of the 10 banks that represented a study population, 100 questionnaires were randomly distributed. The return rate from the targeted population was 45.9%.

#### **4.2.2. Access to Respondents**

As discussed earlier, the data were collected from respondents in cooperation with the HR managers of the respective banks. In this regard, initial contact was made with the CEOs of Kosovo commercial banks to inform them of the purpose of the study and the manifold positive impact of this study to various stakeholders. The Bank CEOs and HR managers were informed that beside scientific contributions, this study could provide benefits for the banking sector in general and for management and employees in particular. Subsequently, communication was maintained with the HR managers of the respective banks, who contacted respondents and managed the distribution and collection of questionnaires. The questionnaires were collected in closed envelopes filled by employees, who responded anonymously without disclosing their identity to management.

### **4.3 Research Model and Hypothesis**

A model was created to reveal the impact of HRM practices on turnover intention through the roles of organizational justice and OCBs. Based on the model presented in

Chapter I (Figure 1), HRM practices is the independent variable, organizational justice and OCBs are both independent and dependent variables based on the related hypotheses, and turnover intention is the dependent variable. Moreover, the research hypotheses are broken down to sub hypotheses to investigate the relationship of sub dimensions of the main variables. The hypotheses and sub hypotheses of the study are as follows:

**H1:** *There is a negative relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and turnover intentions.*

**H2:** *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and OCB.*

**H2a:** *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and OCB-I.*

**H2b:** *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and OCB-O.*

**H3:** *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational justice.*

**H3a:** *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational distributive justice perceptions*

**H3b:** *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development,*

*performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational procedural justice perceptions.*

*H3c: There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational interactional justice perceptions.*

**H4:** *There is a negative relationship between organizational justice (sub dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and turnover intentions.*

*H4a: There is a negative relationship between distributive justice perceptions and turnover intentions.*

*H4b: There is a negative relationship between procedural justice perceptions and turnover intentions.*

*H4c: There is a negative relationship between interactional justice perceptions and turnover intentions.*

**H5:** *There is a positive relationship between organizational justice perceptions (sub dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and OCB.*

*H5a: There is a positive relationship between distributive justice perceptions and OCB-I.*

*H5b: There is a positive relationship between procedural justice perceptions and OCB-I.*

*H5c: There is a positive relationship between interactional justice perceptions and OCB-I.*

*H5d: There is a positive relationship between distributive justice perceptions and OCB-O.*

*H5e: There is a positive relationship between procedural justice perceptions and OCB-O.*

*H5f: There is a positive relationship between interactional justice perceptions and OCB-O.*

**H6:** *There is a negative relationship between OCB (sub dimensions: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, consciousness, and civic virtue) and turnover intentions.*

*H6a: There is a negative relationship between altruism and turnover intentions.*

*H6b: There is a negative relationship between courtesy and turnover intentions.*

*H6c: There is a negative relationship between sportsmanship and turnover intentions.*

*H6d: There is a negative relationship between consciousness and turnover intentions.*

*H6e: There is a negative relationship between civic virtue and turnover intentions.*

In addition, in order to understand whether demographic variables influenced turnover intentions, the following research question has been developed:

**RQ1:** *Are there any differences in turnover intentions according to demographic variables, such as gender, marital status, education, organization, and job position?*

## **4.4 Instruments and Operationalization**

### **4.4.1. Demographics Information**

The first section in the questionnaire was designed to assess certain demographic variables, as shown in Appendix 1. Specifically, the respondents were asked about their age, gender, marital status, educational background, name of the organization they worked in, current tenure in the organization, and job position in their current organization. Demographic variables were explored because they were possible control variables for this study, and they needed to be considered in the analysis. According to the extant literature, demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, education, organization, and job position were correlated with the dependent variables, such as organizational justice (Adams, 1965; Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003; Bies & Moag, 1986; Laurin et al., 2010; Parker et al., 1997;), OCB (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Diekmann & Clark, 2015; Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004), and turnover intention (Akgunduz & Bardakoglu, 2015; Blomme et al., 2010; Callister, 2006; Chen, 2006; Chin & Hung, 2013; Dion; 2006; Hundera, 2014; Hwang & Chang, 2009; Khan et al., 2013; Kismono, 2011; Lai & Kapstad, 2009; Lu et al., 2016; Moynihan & Landuyt, 2008; Mynatt et al., 1997; Masum et al., 2016; Takase et al., 2014; Takase et al., 2016; Valentine et al., 2010; Weisberg & Kirschenbaum, 1993). Furthermore, these demographic variables were included in this research with the intention of answering the following research question: Are there any differences in turnover intentions according to demographic variables, such as gender, marital status, education, organization, tenure, and position?

### **4.4.2. HRM Practices Scale**

To measure HRM practices, a scale based on De Cieri and Kramar's (2008) study was adopted. In their study, De Cieri and Kramar constructed HR practices into six functions: (1) job analysis and design; (2) recruitment and selection; (3) training and development; (4) performance management; (5) pay structure, incentive, or benefits; and

(6) employee relations. For the purposes of this study, five of these practices were selected, excluding employee relations, which shows a general HR function as opposed to a specific HRM application. Following these dimensions for HRM main practices, the items were developed for measuring whether these practices are being implemented or to what extent they are being implemented in the organization or in the job. During this process, the main activities in the relevant practices were determined. Four items for each sub dimension were developed, inferring twenty items in total for the HRM practices scale. After developing the items, two experts with research interest in HRM practices were requested to determine whether the content of these items represented the main activities in HRM practices. After some corrections, the last version of items and their relevant dimensions were developed, which are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2** HRM Practices Scale

***HRM Practices Scale***

<b>Multidimensional Human Resource Management Scale</b>		
1	My particular job duties and requirements were determined in detail.	Job Analysis
	Detyrat dhe kërkesat për vendin tim të punës kanë qenë të përcaktuara në detaje.	
2	My job responsibilities were clearly written.	
	Përgjegjësitë e punës time kanë qenë të përshkruara qartë.	
3	The knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA's) required to perform the job were clearly specified.	
	Njohuritë, aftësitë dhe shkathhtësitë e kërkuara për të kryer këtë punë, kanë qenë të përshkruara qartë.	
4	The social and psychical conditions to perform a job were identified.	
	Kushtet fizike dhe sociale për të kryer këtë punë kanë qenë të identifikuara.	
5	My job position was advertised in appropriate sources with clear and attractive job specification.	Recruitment and Selection
	Pozita ime e punës ka qenë e shpallur në mënyrë adekuate me specifika të punës të qarta dhe atraktive.	

6	My selection process was done based on clear assessment criteria.		
	Procesi i përzgjedhjes time ka qenë i bazuar në kritere vlerësuese të qarta.		
7	The decision for hiring me was taken based on a best match between the organization's requirements and my skills and qualifications.		
	Vendimi për pranimin tim në punë është marrë bazuar në përputhje me kërkesat e organizatës dhe aftësive dhe kualifikimeve të mia.		
8	My appointment was done based on the critical and fair evaluation after the interview process.		
	Emërimi im është bërë bazuar në një vlerësim të dretjë pas një procesi intervistues.		
9	In my organization, there are formal training programs for being able to do the job better.		Training and Development
	Në organizatën time, ka programe formale të trajnimit për të mundësuar që të bëjmë punën më mirë.		
10	In my organization, there are training programs for enhancing employee's knowledge, skills, and abilities.		
	Në organizatën time, ka programe të trajnimit të cilat mundësojnë përmirësimin e njohurive, aftësive dhe shkathtësive të punonjësve.		
11	In my organization, there are clear career path plans.		
	Në organizatën time, ka plane të qarta për zhvillim të karrierës.		
12	In my organization, employee's career aspirations are known by their immediate supervisor.		
	Në organizatën time, aspiratat e punonjësve për avancim në karrierë janë të njohura nga mbikqyrësi i tyre i drejtpërdrejtë.		
13	In my organization, there is a formal evaluation system for measuring employee performance.	Performance Appraisal	
	Në organizatën time, ekziston një sistem formal për vlerësimin e performancës së punonjësve.		
14	My job results based on my job responsibilities are measured with some standards.		
	Reultatet e punës time maten sipas disa standardeve, duke u bazuar në përgjegjësitë e punës time.		
15	My immediate supervisor provides periodic feedback to me about my performance.		

	Mbikëqyrësi im i drejtëpërdrejtë më jep vlerësime periodike në lidhje me performancën time.	
16	The performance appraisal process is used for salary determination, career advancement, or training needs.	
	Procesi i vlerësimit të performancës përdoret për qëllime të përcaktimit të pagës, avancimit në karrierë, ose nevojave për trajnim.	
17	In my organization, there is a formal compensation management system for employee salary or benefits in exchange of their work.	Reward Management
	Në organizatën time, ka sistem formal të menaxhimit të kompensimit për pagën / përfitimet e punonjësve në këmbim të punës së tyre.	
18	Monetary and nonmonetary rewards are defined in my job.	
	Shpërblimet monetare dhe jo monetare janë të përcaktuara në punën time.	
19	In my organization, there is a compensation management system for fairly equating my job to those of others.	
	Në organizatën time, përdoret një sistem i menaxhimit të kompensimit për të vlerësuar drejtë punën time në raport me të tjerët.	
20	I get paid for the work I do based on a formal compensation system.	
	Unë paguhem për punën që bëj, bazuar në një sistem formal të kompensimit.	

After developing, the scale was translated from English to Albanian using the method developed by Brislin et al. (1973). The translation method used in this process included a first translation of the target language, evaluation of the first translation, re-translation to the source language, re-evaluation of the translation, and referral to expert opinions (Brislin, 1980). In the first step, the scale was translated from English to Albanian independently by two experts, whose mother tongue was the target language. In the second step, independent translations were incorporated into a single text by examining the combined theoretical meaning and understandability by a university lecturer in the field of HRM. In the third step, the translation scale was translated back into the source language independently by two experts who had a professional proficient English level. The translations obtained in the fourth step were checked and compared to the original scale

with the scale obtained from the translation process, and the necessary corrections were made. In the last step, an HRM researcher with a PhD was asked to make a general evaluation of the scale in terms of the items' convenience, theoretical content, and adequacy of meaning. The evaluation of the scale resulted in positive feedback.

The scale questions were prepared to obtain data, and the participants were asked to circle the number that best fitted their opinion, regarding the application of HRM practices in their organization. All items used a five-point rating scale labeled with (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) somewhat agree, (4) agree, and (5) absolutely agree. The design of the questionnaire is shown in Appendix 1.

For determining the factorial structure of the HR practices scale, explanatory factor analysis was employed. Firstly, the results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin ( $KMO = .882$ ) and Bartlett's Test (Chi-Square (190) = 61,  $p < .001$ ) presented in Table 3 revealed that the data was adequate to proceed with factor analysis.

**Table 3** KMO Value Table of the HRM Practices Scale

***KMO Value Table of the HRM Practices Scale***

<b>KMO and Bartlett's Test</b>	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.882
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square
	6215.961
	df
	190
	Sig.
	.000

Furthermore, Table 4 depicts the results from the factor analysis, using principle component analysis. It shows that there are five components with initial eigenvalues that ranged from 1.17 to 8.55, indicating five factors. These five factors explained 73.6% of the total variance of the scale.

**Table 4*****Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the HRM practices Scale***

<b>Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the HRM practices Scale</b>						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.555	42.774	42.774	8.555	42.774	42.774
2	2.001	10.004	52.778	2.001	10.004	52.778
3	1.575	7.876	60.654	1.575	7.876	60.654
4	1.418	7.090	67.744	1.418	7.090	67.744
5	1.169	5.847	73.591	1.169	5.847	73.591
6	.802	4.012	77.603			
7	.582	2.909	80.512			
8	.506	2.528	83.040			
9	.466	2.331	85.371			
10	.434	2.168	87.539			
11	.398	1.990	89.528			
12	.366	1.830	91.358			
13	.320	1.601	92.960			
14	.284	1.418	94.377			
15	.259	1.295	95.673			
16	.227	1.133	96.805			
17	.201	1.004	97.810			
18	.166	.829	98.639			
19	.144	.722	99.361			
20	.128	.639	100.000			

This conclusion is supported by the scree plot graph in Figure 5, which displays eigenvalues against all the factors. In Figure 5, the point of interest is where the curve starts to flatten. It can be seen that the curve begins to flatten between Factors 5 and 6. It has to be noted that Factor 6 onwards has an eigenvalue of less than 1, so only five factors were retained. Therefore, it was concluded that the five-factor structure of the scale would be appropriate.

**Figure 3*****PCA scree plot of the HRM practices Scale***

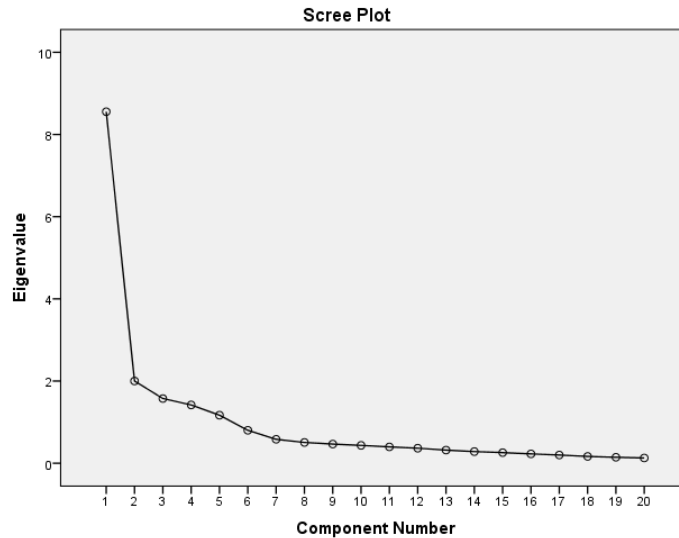


Table 5 depicts the data from the rotated component matrix using varimax rotation, which maximizes the sum of the variance of the squared loadings. The idea of rotation is to reduce the number factors for which the variables under investigation have high loadings. It can be seen that there are some cross-load problems between the items and that not all the items are loaded to the expected components after the rotation process.

The first component is labeled performance appraisal, and three factors from this component have the highest loadings (Performance4 = .74, Performance2 = .74, Performance3 = .73). The second component represents the items from reward management practices and is labeled Compensation. All the items of this component are loaded to the expected components after the rotation process (Compensation4 = .84, Compensation1 = .81, Compensation2 = .80, and Compensation3 = .61). The third component has been labeled Job Analysis and three factors from this component have the highest loadings (Job1 = .86, Job2 = .83, Job3 = .65). The fourth component is labeled Recruitment and Selection, and three factors from this component have the highest loadings (Recruitment4 = .82, Recruitment3 = .81, Recruitment2 = .78). Finally, the fifth component is labeled Training and Development and only two factors from this component have loadings above .57 (career2 = .87 and career1 = .86).

**Table 5**

***Rotated Component Matrix for the HRM Scale***

<b>Rotated Component Matrix<sup>a</sup></b>						
		<b>Component</b>				
		<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
Performance Appraisal	Performance4: The performance appraisal process is used for salary determination, carrier advancement, or training needs.	.745				
	Performance2: My job results based on my job responsibilities are measured with some standards.	.743				
	Performance3: My immediate supervisor provides periodic feedback to me about my performance.	.730				
Reward Management	Compensation4: I get paid for the work I do based on a formal compensation system.		.842			
	Compensation1: In my organization, there is formal compensation management system for employees' salary/benefits in exchange for their work.		.815			
	Compensation2: Monetary and also nonmonetary rewards are defined in my job.		.805			
	Compensation3: In my organization, a compensation management system for equating fairly my job to that of others is used.		.611			
Job Analysis	Job1: My particular job duties and requirements were determined in detail.			.863		
	Job2: My job responsibilities were clearly written.			.835		
	Job3: The knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA's) required to perform the job were clearly specified.			.649		
Recruitment and Selection	Recruitment4: My appointment was done based on critical and fair evaluation after the interview process.				.820	
	Recruitment3: The decision for hiring me was taken based on a best match between the organization's requirements and my skills and qualifications.				.815	

	Recruitment2: My selection process was done based on clear assessment criteria.				.778	
Training & Development	Career2: In my organization, there are training programs for enhancing employee knowledge, skills and abilities.					.876
	Career1: In my organization, there are formal training programs for being able to do the job better.					.861
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.						
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.						

As a result of exploratory factor analysis, a five-dimensional structure was obtained by separating the HRM practices items from each other. Thus, the items taken from different sources are separated from each other. To verify this structure, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was also performed using the AMOS 23 statistics program to validate the multidimensional HRM practices scale.

For CFA, maximum likelihood estimation method was employed following the results of the explanatory factor analysis. The fit indices used for the interpretation of the values obtained from the analysis are shown in Table 6 (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003; Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). According to Hu and Bentler (1998), the referent indexes for the goodness of fit model are as follows: ratio of chi-square to degree of freedom ( $\chi^2/df$ ), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), and comparative fit index (CFI).

**Table 6*****Fit Indices of Confirmatory Factor Analysis***

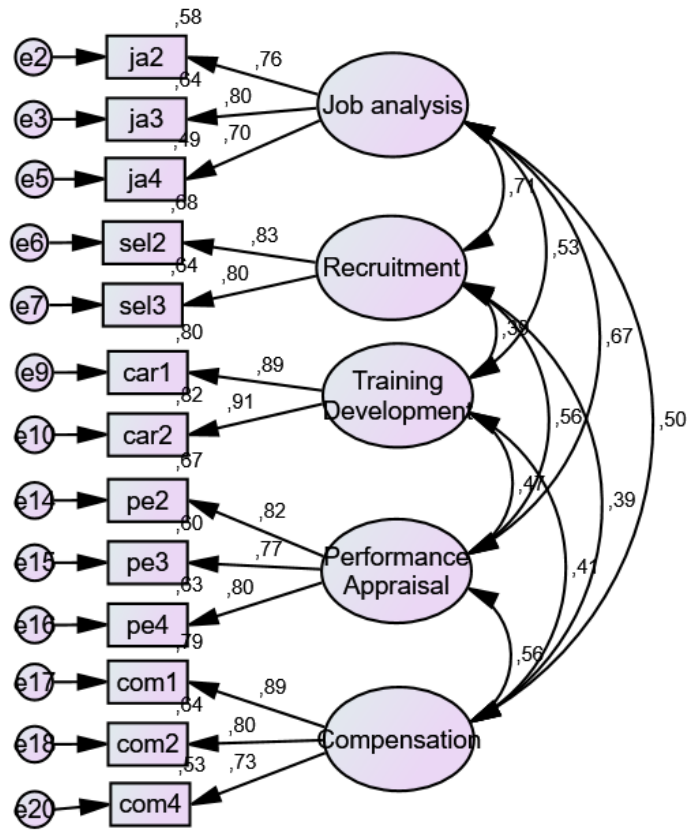
<b>Statistics</b>	<b>Perfect fit</b>	<b>Acceptable fit</b>
$\chi^2/df$	$0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2$	$2 < \chi^2/df \leq 5^*$
<i>RMSEA</i>	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq .05$	$.05 < RMSEA \leq .08$
<i>TLI</i>	$95 \leq TLI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq TLI \leq .95$
<i>CFI</i>	$.95 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq CFI \leq .95$

$\chi^2$  = Chi-Square; df = Degree of Freedom, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index, According to Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., & Müller, H. (2003), \*Marsh & Hocevar, (1985), \*\* Hu & Bentler (1998).

In the first step, the original 20-item structure of the scale was examined. The results of the first CFA analysis of the original scale (from Table 7,  $\chi^2 = 1450.285$ ,  $p < .000$ ,  $df = 160$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 9.064$ ,  $RMSEA = .133$ ,  $TLI = .750$ ,  $CFI = .789$ ) show that the values are not acceptable for confirming the proposed structure based on fit limits in Table 6. Therefore, the modification suggestions recommended by the program were examined and applied. In this process, the explanatory factor analysis results were followed in order to harmonize both findings. After some required modifications, which include deleting some inconsistent items, the last version of the factorial structure of the scale is presented in Figure 6.

**Figure 4**

*Five-Factor Modified Structure for the HRM Practices Scale*



*Note.* The values near to the two-headed arrows show the correlations. The values near to the one-headed arrows show the factor loadings, and the values near the rectangles show the proportion of the variances explained by the items.

In light of these values, it is revealed that Items 1, 5, 8, 11, 12, 13, and 19 were not understood adequately by the respondents. In the interpretation of the results from the modified model in the second row in Table 7, the ratio of chi-square statistics to degrees of freedom ( $\chi^2/df$ ) was 3.861. The RMSEA was .079. The TLI value was .928, and the CFI was within the acceptable range at .949. As a result of the values obtained after these

improvements, the fit indices of the factorial model reached acceptable levels for confirming the fit of the five sub dimensions.

**Table 7**

***CFA results of the HRM Practices Scale***

	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Original structure results	1450.285	160	9.064	.133	.750	.789
Modified model	212.364	55	3.861	.079	.928	.949

$\chi^2$  =Chi-Square; *df*=Degree of Freedom, RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index.

Moreover, the second order factorial structure of the scale was tested for confirming whether all the HR applications showed a higher order latent construct. For testing this structure, residuals to each sub dimension were added to construct a reflective latent structure in the model. The second order factorial structure results in Table 8 confirmed the fit of a higher level factor such as HR practices ( $\chi^2 = 233.046$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $df = 60$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 3.884$ , RMSEA = .079, TLI = .927 and CFI = .944).

**Table 8**

***Second order CFA results of the HRM Practices Scale***

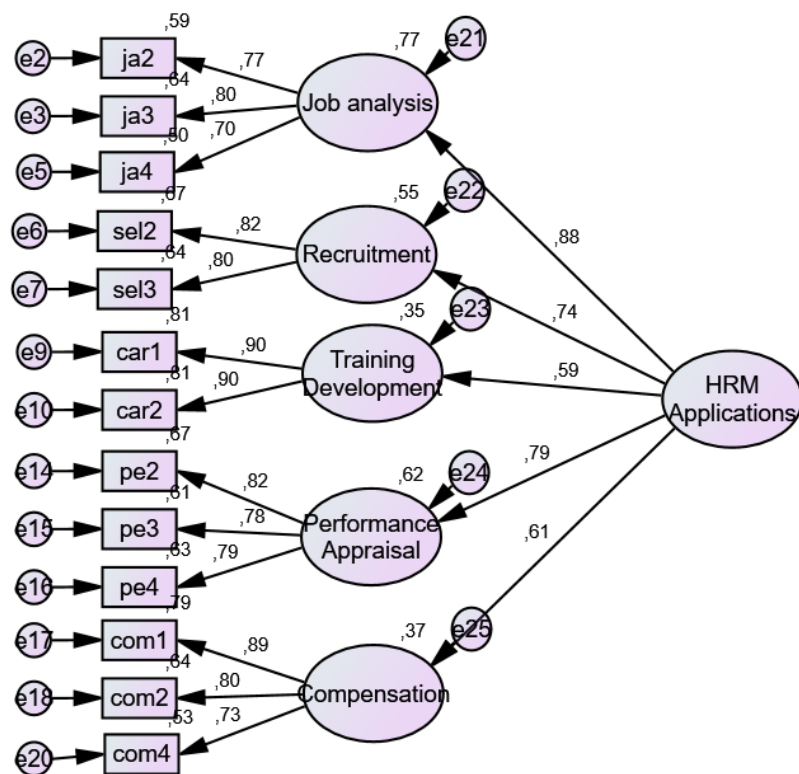
	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Second order model	233.046	60	3.884	.079	.927	.944

$\chi^2$  =Chi-Square; *df*= Degree of Freedom, RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index.

Factor loadings of the dimensions representing the HRM practices varied between .59 and .88. Figure 7 shows the sub dimensions of job analysis, performance appraisal, and recruitment were the highest loadings explaining the HR practices.

**Figure 5**

*Five Factor Remodified Structure for the HRM Practices Scale*



*Note.* The values near the two-headed arrows show the correlations. The values near the one-headed arrows show the factor loadings, and the values near the rectangles show the proportion of the variances explained by the items.

For reliability of the whole scale and the sub dimensions, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated using the SPSS program. The results revealed that the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .79 for job analysis, .79 for recruitment and selection, .89 for training and development, .83 for performance appraisal, and .84 for compensation

(Table 9). The total scale coefficient for the HRM Practices scale was .88, and these values showed that the scale was reliable.

**Table 9**

***Reliability test for the HRM Practices scale***

Sub dimension	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
<b>Job analysis</b>	.793	3
<b>Recruitment and Selection</b>	.793	2
<b>Training and Development</b>	.894	2
<b>Performance Appraisal</b>	.836	3
<b>Reward Management</b>	.849	3
Total scale	<b>.888</b>	<b>13</b>

**4.4.3. Organizational Justice Scale**

The multidimensional organizational justice scale was developed by Moorman (1991). This 19-item scale consists of three sub dimensions that measure perceptions of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Employee perceptions about distributive justice were measured using five items evaluating the fairness of various work outcomes, including compensation level, work schedule, work load, and job responsibilities. The procedural justice scale (five items) measured the degree to which work judgments included mechanisms that insured the gathering of accurate and unbiased information, employee voice, and an appeals process. Interactional justice (nine items) measured the degree to which employees felt their needs were considered in job decisions and the degree to which they felt adequate explanations were made. This scale was based on the one used by Moorman (1991), which had reported reliabilities above .90 for all three dimensions. The distribution of items to dimensions is shown in Table 10.

**Table 10**

***Multidimensional Organizational Justice Scale***

<b>Multidimensional Organizational Justice Scale</b>		
1	I think that my level of pay is fair.	Distributive Justice
	Unë mendoj se niveli i pagës time është i drejtë.	
2	I consider my work load to be quite fair.	
	Unë e konsideroj që ngarkesa e punës time është mjaft e drejtë.	
3	Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	
	Në përgjithësi, shpërblimet që marr në punë janë mjaft të drejta.	
4	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.	
	Unë mendoj se përgjegjësitë e mia të punës janë të drejta.	
5	Job decisions are made by my manager in an unbiased manner.	
	Vendimet e punës mirren nga menaxheri im në mënyrë të paanshme.	
6	My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	Procedural Justice
	Menaxheri im sigurohet që të gjitha shqetësimet e punonjësve të dëgjoohen para se të merren vendimet rreth punës.	
7	To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information.	
	Para se të marrë vendime që kanë të bëjnë me punën, menaxheri im mbledh informacione të sakta dhe të plota.	
8	My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	
	Menaxheri im sqaron vendimet dhe ofron informacione shtesë kur kërkohet nga punonjësit.	
9	All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.	
	Të gjitha vendimet e punës aplikohen vazhdimisht për të gjithë punonjësit.	
10	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their manager.	
	Punonjësit kanë të drejtë të kundërshtojnë ose të ankohen në vendimet e punës të cilat i merr menaxheri i tyre.	

11	When decisions are made about my job, my manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	Interactional Justice
	Kur merren vendime për punën time, menaxheri im më trajton me dashamirësi dhe konsideratë.	
12	When decisions are made about my job, my manager treats me with respect and dignity.	
	Kur merren vendime për punën time, menaxheri im më trajton me respekt dhe dinjitet.	
13	When decisions are made about my job, my manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	
	Kur merren vendime për punën time, menaxheri im është i ndjeshëm ndaj nevojave të mia personale.	
14	When decisions are made about my job, my manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	
	Kur merren vendime për punën time, menaxheri im më trajton mua me sinqeritet.	
15	When decisions are made about my job, my manager shows concern for my rights as an employee.	
	Kur merren vendime për punën time, menaxheri im tregon kujdes për të drejtat e mia.	
16	Concerning decisions made about my job, my manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	
	Sa i përket vendimeve për punën time, menaxheri im diskuton me mua rreth implikimeve të këtyre vendimeve.	
17	My manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	
	Menaxheri im më ofron arsyetime adekuate për vendimet e marra që lidhen me punën time.	
18	When making decisions about my job, my manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	
	Kur merren vendime për punën time, menaxheri im më ofron shpjegime që kanë kuptim për mua.	
19	My manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job.	
	Menaxheri im më shpjegon shumë qartë çdo vendim që merr në lidhje me punën time.	

This scale was translated from English to Albanian using the method developed by Brislin et al. (1973). The translation method used in this process consisted of the first translation of the target language, evaluation of the first translation, retranslation to the source language, re-evaluation of the translation, and referral to expert opinions (Brislin, 1980). In the first step, the scale was translated from English to Albanian independently by two experts whose mother tongue was the target language. In the second step, independent translations were incorporated into a single text by examining the combined theoretical meaning and understandability by a university lecturer in the field of organizational behavior. In the third step, the translation scale was translated back into the source language independently by two experts, who had professional proficient English. The translations obtained in the fourth step were checked and compared to the original scale and the scale obtained from the translation process, and the necessary corrections were made. In the last step, the HR managers of the banks were asked to make a general evaluation of the scale by presenting their opinions as experts in the field with professional proficiency in English. The evaluation of the scale resulted in positive feedback.

The scale questions were prepared for obtaining the data, and the participants were asked to circle the number that best fitted their perception regarding the application of justice in their organization. All items used a five-point rating scale labeled as (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) somewhat agree, (4) agree, and (5) absolutely agree. The design of the questionnaire is shown in Appendix 1.

For the validity of the scale, CFA was conducted using the Amos 23 program. Maximum likelihood estimation method was employed for the estimation. The CFA results of the original scale ( $\chi^2 = 1085.067$ ,  $p < .000$ ,  $df = 149$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 7.282$ , RMSEA = .117, TLI = .898, CFI = .911) showed that they were not within the acceptable compliance value range (Table 6). Therefore the modification values recommended by the program were examined. These values revealed that the error variances of Items 1 and 4, 7 and 8, 11 and 12 were related to each other. This indicated that there were similar structures between the content of these items. For example, Item 1 (*I think that my level of pay is fair*) and item 4 (*I feel that my job responsibilities are fair*) had a correlation error value of .44. This result demonstrated that they carried the same meaning when studied together and that they

resembled each other. Furthermore, the respondents' responses in terms of meaning between Item 7 (*To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information*) and Item 8 (*My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees*) showed that bank employees could have similar meaning in comparison with other bank employees and can be perceived as being close to each other. Finally, Item 11 (*When decisions are made about my job, my manager treats me with kindness and consideration*) and Item 12 (*When decisions are made about my job, my manager treats me with respect and dignity*) were perceived as similar items by bank employees. After these modifications, the model fit statistics attained acceptable levels for confirmation (Table 11).

**Table 11** CFA results of the organizational justice Scale

***CFA results of the organizational justice Scale***

	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Original model	1085.067	149	7.282	.117	.898	.911
Modified model	276.320	71	3.892	.079	.961	.970

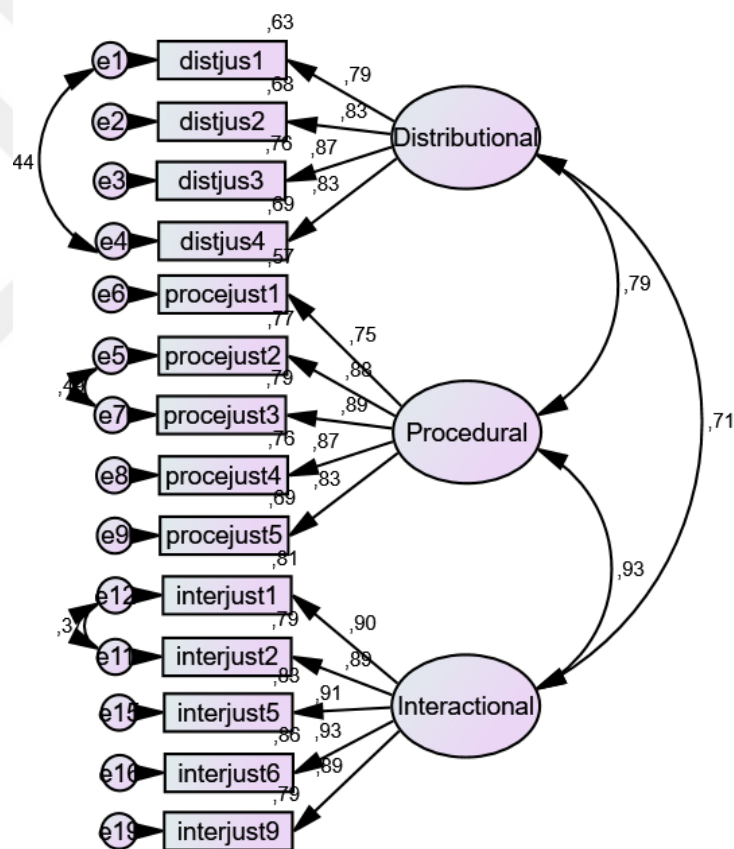
$\chi^2$  = Chi-Square; *df* = Degree of Freedom, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index.

Table 11 represents results from the modified model, and it shows that the ratio of chi-square statistics to degrees of freedom ( $\chi^2/df$ ) was 3.892. In the case of the goodness model (Hoe, 2008, p. 78), especially in cases where the sample exceeds 200, other compliance values are examined considering the lack of a healthy reference. The RMSEA was .079. The TLI value was .961, and the CFI value was .970, which was within the acceptable range. Based on values of the modified model, the model attained the desired fit index values.

The correlation coefficients between the factor loadings and the factors obtained by incorporating the factor structure from the analysis are shown in Figure 8. An examination of the shape reveals that the factor loadings of the dimensions formed as a result of CFA varied between .75 and .93. These results indicated that the data obtained in the study confirmed the three-factor structure of the multidimensional organizational justice scale. Thus, sufficient evidence was provided for the structural validity of the scale.

**Figure 6**

*Factor Structure of the organizational justice Scale*



*Note.* The values near the two-headed arrows show the correlations. The values near to the one-headed arrows show the factor loadings, and the values near the rectangles show the proportion of the variances explained by the items.

Table 12 shows the results of the reliability of the scale. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .88 for distributive justice, .93 for procedural justice, and .96 for interactional justice sub dimensions. The total scale coefficient for the organizational justice scale was .96, and these values confirmed the reliability of the scale.

**Table 12**

***Reliability test for the organizational justice scale***

Sub dimension	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
<b>Distributive Justice</b>	.887	4
<b>Procedural Justice</b>	.929	5
<b>Interactional Justice</b>	.958	5
Total scale	<b>.963</b>	<b>14</b>

**4.4.4. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) Scale**

To measure employee OCBs, the multidimensional OCB scale developed by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1989) was used. This scale consists of 20 items grouped in five dimensions, including altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. The items in this scale measured the specific behaviors of bank employees who indicated their agreement on each item using a five-point Likert type format (1= strongly disagree to 5= absolutely agree). The psychometric properties of this scale have been reported in Podsakoff et al. (1990) and in Moorman (1991). Both studies found support for a five-dimension model of citizenship and reported reliabilities of over .70 for each dimension. The distribution of items to dimensions is shown in Table 13.

**Table 13**

***Multidimensional OCB Scale***

<b>Multidimensional Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale</b>			
1	I help my co-workers who have heavy work-loads.	Altruism	
	Unë ndihmoj kolegët e mi të cilët kanë ngarkesa të rënda në punë.		
2	I help my coworkers who have been absent.		
	Unë ndihmoj kolegët e mi të cilët kanë munguar në punë.		
3	I willingly give of my time to help my co-workers who have work related problems.		
	Unë me dëshirë ndihmoj kolegët e mi të cilët kanë probleme që lidhen me punën.		
4	I help orient my new co-workers even though it is not required.		
	Unë ndihmoj kolegët e mi të rinj që të orientohen në punë edhe kur një gjë e tillë nuk kërkohet nga unë.		
5	I consult with my coworkers who might be affected by my actions or decisions.		Courtesy
	Unë konsultohem me kolegët e tjerë të cilët mund të preken nga veprimet ose vendimet e mia.		
6	I do not abuse the rights of my co-workers		
	Unë nuk abuzoj me të drejtat e kolegët e mi		
7	I take steps to prevent problems with my co-workers.		
	Unë bëj veprime të cilat parandalojnë problemet me kolegët e mi.		
8	I inform my co-workers before taking any important actions.		
	I informoj kolegët e mi para se unë të ndërmarr ndonjë veprim të rëndësishëm.		
9	I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters. (R)	Sportsmanship	

	Unë konsumoj shumë kohë duke u ankuar për gjëra të parëndësishme.	
10	I make problems bigger than they are. (R)	
	Unë i bëj problemet më të mëdha se sa që janë	
11	I constantly talk about wanting to quit my job. (R)	
	Unë vazhdimisht flas që dua të lë punën time	
12	I always focus on what is wrong with my situation, rather than the positive side of it. (R)	
	Unë gjithmonë fokusohem në atë që është negative në punën time, në vend që të fokusohem në anën positive.	
13	I am always punctual.	Conscientiousness
	Unë jam gjithmonë i përpiktë.	
14	I never take long lunches or breaks.	
	Unë kurrë nuk kaloj kohë të gjatë në dreka apo pushime.	
15	I do not take extra breaks.	
	Unë nuk marr pushim shtesë	
16	I obey organization rules, regulations, and procedures even when no one is watching.	
	Unë i përmbahem rregullave, rregulloreve dhe procedurave të organizatës, edhe kur askush nuk është duke më shikuar.	
17	I keep abreast of changes in the organization.	Civic virtue
	Unë i përcjellë nga afër ndryshimet në organizatë.	
18	I attend functions that are not required but that help the organization's image.	
	Unë marr pjesë në aktivitete që nuk kërkohet, por që ndihmojnë imazhin e organizatës.	
19	I attend and participate in meetings regarding the organization.	

	Unë marr pjesë në takime lidhur me organizatën.	
20	“I keep up” with developments in the organization.	
	Unë “eci në hap” me zhvillimet në organizatë.	

As in the case of the previous scales, this scale was translated using the method developed by Brislin et al. (1973). The translation process used in this scale included the first translation to the target language, evaluation of the first translation, retranslation to the source language, re-evaluation of the translation, and referral to expert opinions (Brislin, 1980). In the first step, the scale was translated from English to Albanian independently by two experts whose mother tongue was the target language. In the second step, independent translations were incorporated into a single text by a university lecturer in the field of organizational behavior who examined combined theoretical meaning and understandability. In the third step, the translation scale was translated back into the source language independently by two experts whose English level was at professional proficiency. The translations obtained in the fourth step were checked and compared to the original scale and the scale obtained from the translation process, and the necessary corrections were made. In the last step, the HR managers of the banks were asked to make a general evaluation of the scale by presenting their opinion as experts in the field. The evaluation of the scale resulted in positive feedback.

For validity, CFA was performed using the AMOS 23 statistics program for the multidimensional organizational citizenship scale. After employing maximum likelihood estimation, the CFA results of the original structure of the scale ( $\chi^2 = 930.949, p < .000, df = 160, \chi^2/df = 5,818, RMSEA = .103, TLI = .825, CFI = .852$ ) demonstrated that values did not fall within acceptable compliance value ranges (Table 6) Therefore, the modification values suggested by the program were examined. In light of these values, Items 3, 7, 11, 16 and 19 were excluded from the scale because they caused inconsistency and were not understood adequately by the respondents. After excluding these items from the scale, the fit indices of the model reached acceptable levels. The results obtained in the

analyses ( $\chi^2 = 298.796$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $df = 80$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 3.735$ ,  $RMSEA = .077$ ,  $TLI = .914$  and  $CFI = .934$ ) are presented in Table 14.

Table 14 shows the values of the modified model. The ratio of chi-square statistics to degrees of freedom ( $\chi^2/df$ ) was 3.73, and RMSEA was .07. The TLI value was .91, and the CFI was within the acceptable range of .93. Based on the values from the first modified model, the model attained the desired fit index values.

**Table 14**  
*CFA results of the OCB Scale*

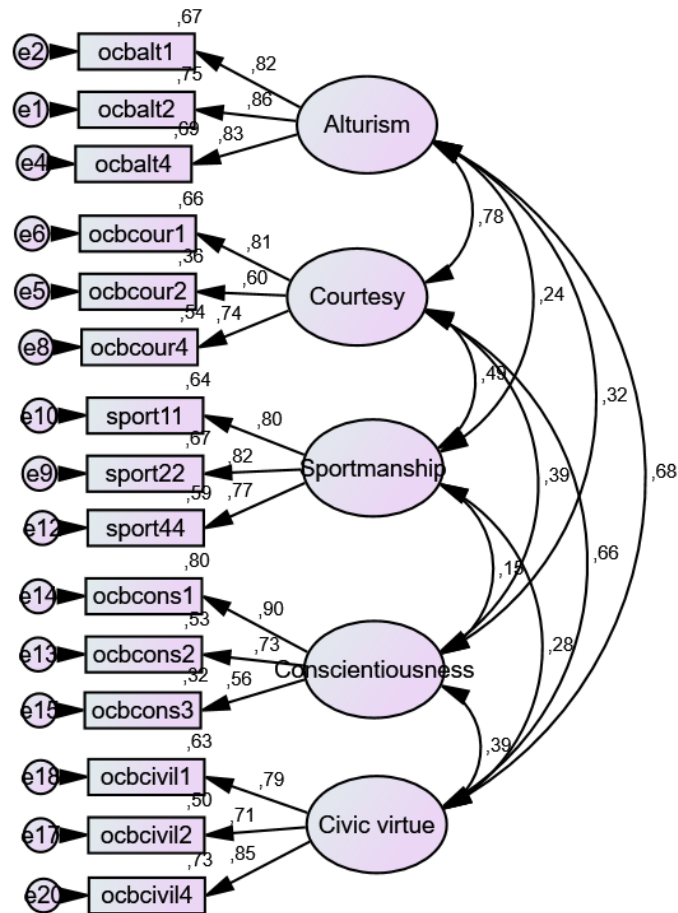
	$\chi^2$	$df$	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Original model	930.949	160	5.818	.103	.825	.852
Modified model	298.796	80	3.735	.077	.914	.934

$\chi^2$  = Chi-Square;  $df$  = Degree of Freedom, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index.

The correlation coefficients values between the factors and the factor loadings obtained by taking the first order factor structure are shown in Figure 9. When the shape is examined, it is seen that the factor loadings of the dimensions formed as a result of CFA varied between .56 and .90. These results indicated that the data obtained in the study confirmed the five-factor structure of the multidimensional OCB scale; however, since the five dimensions of OCB are not being used in this study, the second order CFA was conducted. In particular, the second order CFA was used because it was intended to determine the factor structure of OCB-I and OCB-O.

**Figure 7**

*First Order Modified Factor Structure for the OCB Scale*



*Note.* The values near the two-headed arrows show the correlations. The values near to the one-headed arrows show the factor loadings, and the values near the rectangles show the proportion of the variances explained by the items.

Thus, sufficient evidence was provided for the structural validity of the scale. Therefore, the factor structure was modified for the second time. In this context, as a result of the analysis with the values obtained after these modifications, the model compliance values reached an acceptable level again. The results obtained after the second analysis ( $\chi^2 = 335.33$ ,  $p = .00$ ,  $df = 84$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 3.99$ ,  $RMSEA = .08$ ,  $TLI = .91$  and  $CFI = .93$ ) are presented in Table 15.

**Table 15**

***CFA results of the second order OCB Scale***

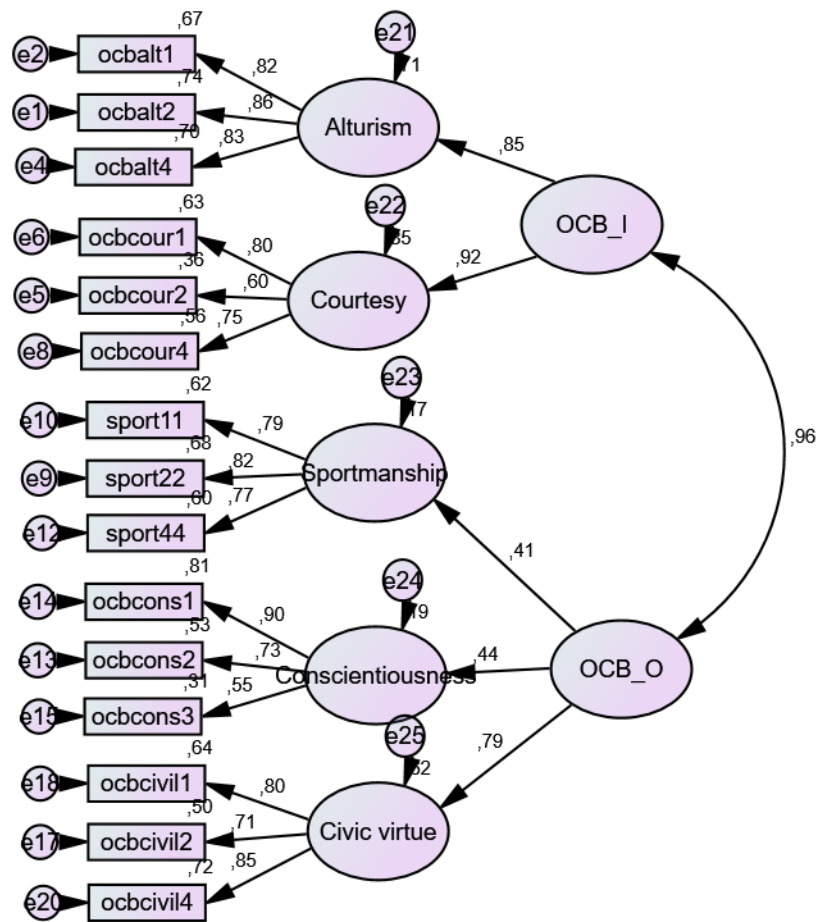
	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Second order model (OCB-I & OCB-O)	335.337	84	3.993	.081	.906	.925

$\chi^2$  =Chi-Square; *df*=Degree of Freedom, RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation;  
TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index

The correlation coefficients between the factors and the factor loadings obtained by taking the second order factor structure are shown in Figure 10. When the shape is examined, it is seen that the factor loadings of the sub dimensions formed as a result of CFA varied between .41 and .92 for OCB-O and OCB-I. These results indicated that the data obtained in the study confirmed the two-factor structure of the multidimensional OCB scale.

**Figure 8**

*Second Order Modified Factor Structure for OCB Scale*



*Note.* The values near the two-headed arrows show the correlations. The values near to the one-headed arrows show the factor loadings, and the values near the rectangles show the proportion of the variances explained by the items.

Table 16 shows the results of the reliability of the scale. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .869 in the Altruism sub dimension, .746 in the courtesy sub dimension, .834 in the sportsmanship sub dimension, .760 in the conscientiousness sub dimension and .814 in the civic virtue sub dimension. The total scale coefficient for the OCB scale was .793, and these values showed that the scale used was reliable.

**Table 16*****Reliability Test for the OCB Scale***

Sub dimension	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
<b>Altruism</b>	.869	3
<b>Courtesy</b>	.746	3
<b>Sportsmanship</b>	.834	3
<b>Conscientiousness</b>	.760	3
<b>Civic virtue</b>	.760	3
Total scale	<b>.793</b>	<b>15</b>

**4.4.5. Turnover Intention Scale**

Employee turnover intentions were measured with a seven-item scale adapted from the turnover subscale of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann et al., 1979), and it was operationalized using Hom and Griffeth's (1991) conceptualization: thinking of quitting, intent to search for a new job, and intent to quit. These scales are widely used instruments, and many researchers have used them in their studies (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Griffeth et al., 2000; Lambert et al., 2001; Chew et al., 2005). Participants were asked to indicate the probability that they would stay in or leave the organization in the near future. This scale measured the degree to which the respondents were thinking of leaving their current organization, intention to search for a new job, and turnover intentions.

Thoughts of quitting were assessed using two items: *Often I have considered quitting my current job* and *I would be reluctant to leave this job*. In addition, two questions were used to assess the certainty of search intentions and chances that the search would occur: *I will most certainly look for a new job in the near future* and *I am likely to be looking for a new job in the coming period*. Finally, three items were used to assess perceived intentions of leaving and conviction of quit or stay decisions: *I plan to work at*

*my present job for as long as possible, I plan to stay in this job for at least two to three years, and As soon as possible I will leave the institution I work for.*

The scale questions were prepared to obtain the data from participants, who were asked to circle the number that best reflected their intentions to stay or leave their organization. A five-point rating scale labeled: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) somewhat agree, (4) agree, and (5) absolutely agree was used. A higher score on the scale indicated a high degree of turnover intention and vice-versa. Table 17 presents the items for this construct.

**Table 17**

***Turnover Intention Scale***

<b>Turnover Intention Scale</b>	
1	I plan to work at my present job for as long as possible.
	Unë planifikoj të punoj këtë punë për aq kohë sa të jetë e mundur.
2	I will most certainly look for a new job in the near future.
	Unë me siguri do të kërkoj një punë të re në të ardhmen e afërt.
3	I plan to stay in this job for at least two to three years.
	Unë kam ndërmend të qëndroj në këtë punë për të paktën dy deri në tre vjetet e ardhshme.
4	I would be reluctant to leave this job.
	Unë do të hezitoja të largohesha nga kjo punë.
5	Often, I have considered quitting my current job.
	Unë shpesh e kam shqyrtuar mundësinë të largohem nga puna ime aktuale.
6	I am likely to be looking for a new job in the coming period.
	Ka gjasa që unë të kërkoj punë të re në një periudhë të ardhshme.
7	As soon as possible, I will leave the institution I work for.
	Unë do të largohem nga institucioni për të cilin punoj sa më shpejt që të jetë e mundur.

Like the previous scales, this scale was translated using the method developed by Brislin et al. (1973). The translation process used in this scale included the first translation to the target language, evaluation of the first translation, retranslation to the source language, re-evaluation of the translation, and referral to expert opinions (Brislin, 1980). In the first step, the scale was translated from English to Albanian independently by two experts whose level of target language was the mother tongue. In the second step, independent translations were incorporated into a single text by having a university lecturer in the field of organizational behavior examine the combined theoretical meaning and understandability. In the third step, the translation scale was translated back into the source language independently by two experts with English at the professional proficiency level. The translations obtained in the fourth step were checked and compared to the original scale and the scale obtained from the translation process, and the necessary corrections were made. In the last step, the HR managers of the banks were asked to make a general evaluation of the scale by presenting their opinion as experts in the field. The evaluation of the scale resulted in positive feedback.

Confirmatory factor analysis was performed using the AMOS 23 statistics program to test the validity of the scale. The results of the CFA analysis ( $\chi^2 = 123.049$ ,  $p < .000$ ,  $df = 14$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 8.789$ , RMSEA = .130, TLI = .925, CFI = .950) showed that values were not within the acceptable compliance value range (Table 6). Therefore, the improvement values recommended by the program were examined. In light of these values, it was revealed that Items 4 and 5 produced inconsistency in the model. After excluding these items from the model, the fit values reached the acceptable levels and confirmed the unidimensional structure of the scale (Table 18).

Table 18 demonstrates the results of the modified model. The ratio of chi-square statistics to degrees of freedom ( $\chi^2/df$ ) was 2.702. In the case of the goodness model (Hoe, 2008, p. 78), especially in cases where the number of samples exceeds 200, other compliance values should be examined in light of the recommendation that this is not a very healthy reference. The RMSEA was .06; the TLI was .99, and the CFI was within the acceptable range at .99. Based on the values from the modified model, the model attained the desired fit index values.

**Table 18**

***Turnover Intention Scale Adaptation Indexes***

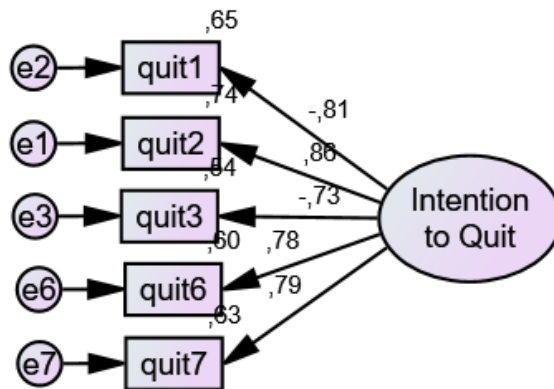
	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Original model	123.049	14	8.789	.130	.925	.950
Modified model	13.510	5	2.702	.061	.987	.993

$\chi^2$  = Chi-Square; *df* = Degree of Freedom, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index.

The factor loadings from the analysis are shown in Figure 11. When the shape is examined, it is seen that the loadings varied between .73 and .86. These results indicated that the data obtained in the study confirmed the factor structure of the turnover intention scale. Thus, sufficient evidence was provided for the structural validity of the scale.

**Figure 9**

***Factor Structure of the Turnover Intention Scale***



*Note.* The values near the two-headed arrows show the correlations. The values near the one-headed arrows show the factor loadings, and the values near the rectangles show the proportion of the variances explained by the items.

Finally, Table 19 presents the results from the analysis conducted in the SPSS program for the reliability of the scale, where Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the turnover intention scale was found to be .896. These values showed that the scale used to measure turnover intention was reliable.

**Table 19**

***Reliability Test for the Turnover Intention Scale***

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	N of items
<b>Turnover Intention</b>	.896	5

## Chapter V – Data Analysis and Results

This chapter presents the results of the thesis. First, the descriptive statistics and the analysis of the sample characteristics are presented. Subsequently, correlation analysis was performed to determine the relationship between the variables. The chapter continues with hierarchical regression analysis to determine the variables that affected the turnover intention. The analysis section is concluded with results of the difference analysis performed to explore any possible demographic differences in turnover intentions. Finally, the results of the hypothesis testing are given and a summary of the results is demonstrated.

### 5.1 Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics for the data are shown in Table 20. The results from the analysis indicated that the mean age of participants was 33.49, with a standard deviation of 6.22 years. Average tenure was 5.28 years, with a standard deviation of 4.08 years.

Before revealing the relationships between variables, it was necessary to reveal the forms of distributions of variables and to see if they were normally distributed. Data distribution results were based on calculations of skewness and kurtosis. The skewness and kurtosis measures should be as close to zero as possible; however, a small departure from zero is acceptable, as long as the measures are not too large compare to their standard error. Table 20 shows the skewness and kurtosis values, respectively, for age (.450 and -.261), gender (.118 and -1.995), marital status (-.891 and -1.212), education (.246 and -.666), organization (.346 and -1.389), tenure (1,122 and .592), and job position (.187 and -1.386). For other variables, the values for skewness ranged between -.806 and 1.131, and the values for kurtosis ranged between -.861 and .446. Table 20 shows that the skewness and kurtosis values of all the variables of the study were within normal distribution values (-1.96 and +1.96.).

#### Table 20

***Descriptive Statistics of Variables: Minimum and Maximum, Mean, Standard Deviation, Skewness, and Kurtosis Values***

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Age	459	21	50	33.49	6.22	.450	-.26
Gender	459	1	2	1.47	.50	.12	-1.95
Marital Status	459	1	2	1.70	.46	-.89	-1.21
Education	459	1	3	2.30	.52	.25	-.67
Organization	459	1	8	3.55	2.45	.35	-1.39
Tenure	459	1	18	5.28	4.08	1.12	.59
Job Position	459	1	5	2.55	1.40	.19	-1.39
Job Analysis	459	2.33	5.00	4.27	.58	-.68	.45
Recruitment and Selection	459	3.00	5.00	4.56	.53	-.81	-.37
Training and Development	459	1.00	5.00	3.67	.82	-.34	-.06
Performance Appraisal	459	2.33	5.00	3.97	.67	-.10	-.86
Compensation	459	2.00	5.00	4.17	.68	-.60	.16
HRM practices 2d Order	459	2.07	3.61	2.99	.34	-.28	-.43
Distributive Justice	459	2.00	5.00	3.36	.71	-.09	-.48
Procedural Justice	459	2.00	5.00	3.86	.76	-.45	-.41
Interactional Justice	459	2.00	5.00	3.96	.81	-.54	-.48
Altruism	459	2.33	5.00	4.31	.59	-.39	-.55
Courtesy	459	3.00	5.00	4.47	.48	-.61	-.43
Sportsmanship	459	1.00	3.00	1.34	.47	1.13	.26
Conscientiousness	459	2.00	5.00	3.84	.61	-.07	-.01
Civic Virtue	459	2.33	5.00	4.03	.64	-.27	-.37
Turnover Intention	459	2.20	4.20	2.89	.34	.67	.69

## **5.2 Correlations**

After the normality test, correlation analysis was performed to determine whether there was a relationship between the variables and the direction and strength of the relationship. Correlation analysis results are shown in Table 21.

Age was positively correlated with gender ( $r = .158, p < .01$ ), marital status ( $r = .584, p < .01$ ), education ( $r = .164, p < .01$ ), tenure ( $r = .523, p < .01$ ) and job position ( $r = .433, p < .01$ ). Gender was negatively correlated with organization ( $r = -.108, p < .05$ ) and

tenure ( $r = -.124, p < .01$ ) and positively correlated with job position ( $r = .129, p < .01$ ). Furthermore, marital status was positively correlated with education ( $r = .102, p < .05$ ), tenure ( $r = .415, p < .01$ ), and job position ( $r = .274, p < .01$ ). Education was positively correlated with tenure ( $r = .188, p < .01$ ) and job position ( $r = .454, p < .01$ ). Finally, tenure was positively correlated with job position ( $r = .324, p < .01$ ).

Moreover, the correlation matrix showed that demographic variables were correlated with other independent and dependent variables. For example, age was negatively correlated with courtesy ( $r = -.092, p < .05$ ), conscientiousness ( $r = -.105, p < .05$ ), and sportsmanship ( $r = -.106, p < .05$ ). Gender was negatively correlated with conscientiousness ( $r = -.103, p < .05$ ). Marital status was negatively correlated with distributive justice ( $r = -.096, p < .05$ ), procedural justice ( $r = -.166, p < .01$ ), interactional justice ( $r = -.147, p < .01$ ), altruism ( $r = -.148, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = -.151, p < .01$ ), conscientiousness ( $r = -.146, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = -.129, p < .01$ ). Education was positively correlated with second order HRM practices ( $r = .134, p < .01$ ), distributive justice ( $r = .190, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = .125, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = .152, p < .01$ ), and it was negatively correlated with sportsmanship ( $r = -.100, p < .05$ ). Organization was negatively correlated with performance appraisal ( $r = -.109, p < .05$ ), procedural justice ( $r = -.096, p < .05$ ), and altruism ( $r = -.135^{**}, p < .01$ ). It was also positively correlated with compensation ( $r = .294, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = .129, p < .01$ ), and sportsmanship ( $r = .273, p < .01$ ). Tenure was positively correlated with second order HRM practices ( $r = .093, p < .05$ ). Furthermore, job position was positively correlated with second order HRM practices ( $r = .182, p < .01$ ), distributive justice ( $r = .276, p < .01$ ), procedural justice ( $r = .144, p < .01$ ), interactional justice ( $r = .144, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = .225, p < .01$ ), and it was negatively correlated with turnover intentions ( $r = -.219, p < .01$ ).

Table 21 presents the results of the relationship between HRM practices and organizational justice sub dimensions. Results revealed that job analysis was positively correlated with distributive justice ( $r = .434, p < .01$ ), procedural justice ( $r = .361, p < .01$ ), and interactional justice ( $r = .370, p < .01$ ). Recruitment and selection was positively correlated with distributive justice ( $r = .366, p < .01$ ), procedural justice ( $r = .342, p < .01$ ) and interactional justice ( $r = .294, p < .01$ ). Furthermore, training and development was positively correlated with distributive justice ( $r = .446, p < .01$ ), procedural justice ( $r =$

.376,  $p < .01$ ), and interactional justice ( $r = .420, p < .01$ ). Performance appraisal was positively correlated with distributive justice ( $r = .623, p < .01$ ), procedural justice ( $r = .606, p < .01$ ), and interactional justice ( $r = .568, p < .01$ ). Compensation was positively correlated with distributive justice ( $r = .461, p < .01$ ), procedural justice ( $r = .355, p < .01$ ), and interactional justice ( $r = .411, p < .01$ ). Finally, when the relationships between second order HRM practices and organizational justice sub dimensions were examined, results revealed that second order HRM practices were positively correlated with distributive justice ( $r = .643, p < .01$ ), procedural justice ( $r = .565, p < .01$ ), and interactional justice ( $r = .571, p < .01$ ).

Results also showed that job analysis was positively correlated with altruism ( $r = .261, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = .375, p < .01$ ), sportsmanship ( $r = .186, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = .257, p < .01$ ). Recruitment and selection were positively correlated with altruism ( $r = .277, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = .392, p < .01$ ), sportsmanship ( $r = .153, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = .383, p < .01$ ). Training and development was positively correlated with altruism ( $r = .286, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = .246, p < .01$ ), conscientiousness ( $r = .127, p < .01$ ), sportsmanship ( $r = .293, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = .310, p < .01$ ). Performance appraisal was positively correlated with altruism ( $r = .495, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = .438, p < .01$ ), conscientiousness ( $r = .162, p < .01$ ), sportsmanship ( $r = .153, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = .507, p < .01$ ). Compensation was positively correlated with altruism ( $r = .250, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = .375, p < .01$ ), sportsmanship ( $r = .304, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = .330, p < .01$ ). Finally, when the relationships between second order HRM practices and OCB sub dimensions were examined, it revealed that second order HRM practices were positively correlated with altruism ( $r = .435, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = .497, p < .01$ ), conscientiousness ( $r = .164, p < .01$ ), sportsmanship ( $r = .262, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = .488, p < .01$ ).

In terms of HRM practices and turnover intentions, results revealed that all sub dimensions of HRM practices were negatively correlated with turnover intention; that is, job analysis ( $r = -.250, p < .01$ ), recruitment and selection ( $r = -.290, p < .01$ ), training and development ( $r = -.290, p < .01$ ), performance appraisal ( $r = -.488, p < .01$ ), and compensation ( $r = -.369, p < .01$ ). This was also the case when the relationship between second order HRM practices and turnover intentions was examined: Second order HRM practices were negatively correlated with turnover intentions ( $r = -.465, p < .01$ ).

When the table is examined for organizational justice and OCB sub dimensions, results revealed that distributive justice was positively correlated with altruism ( $r = .396, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = .375, p < .01$ ), conscientiousness ( $r = .190, p < .01$ ), sportsmanship ( $r = .198, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = .518, p < .01$ ). Procedural justice was positively correlated with altruism ( $r = .522, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = .495, p < .01$ ), conscientiousness ( $r = .208, p < .01$ ), sportsmanship ( $r = .254, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = .599, p < .01$ ). Interactional justice was positively correlated with altruism ( $r = .523, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = .496, p < .01$ ), conscientiousness ( $r = .151, p < .01$ ), sportsmanship ( $r = .293, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = .613, p < .01$ ).

In terms of the relationship between organizational justice and turnover intentions, results revealed that distributive justice was negatively correlated with turnover intentions ( $r = -.632, p < .01$ ), procedural justice was negatively correlated with turnover intentions ( $r = -.639, p < .01$ ), and interactional justice was negatively correlated with turnover intentions ( $\rho = -.638^{**}, p < .01$ ).

Finally, in terms of the relationship between OCB and turnover intentions, results revealed that altruism ( $r = -.449, p < .01$ ), courtesy ( $r = -.391, p < .01$ ), conscientiousness ( $r = -.240, p < .01$ ), sportsmanship ( $r = -.357, p < .01$ ), and civic virtue ( $r = -.532, p < .01$ ) were all negatively correlated with turnover intentions.

**Table 21** Correlation

**Correlation Matrix**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Age	1										
2 Gender	<b>.158**</b>	1									
3 Marital Status	<b>.584**</b>	.074	1								
4 Education	<b>.164**</b>	.047	<b>.102*</b>	1							
5 Organization	.049	<b>-.108*</b>	-.020	.017	1						
6 Tenure	<b>.523**</b>	<b>-.124**</b>	<b>.415**</b>	<b>.188**</b>	.032	1					
7 Position	<b>.433**</b>	<b>.129**</b>	<b>.274**</b>	<b>.454**</b>	-.053	<b>.324**</b>	1				
8 Job Analysis	-.074	-.054	-.010	<b>.092*</b>	.071	<b>.102*</b>	.050	1			
9 Recruitment & Selection	.033	-.010	.059	<b>.159**</b>	.074	.070	<b>.145**</b>	<b>.513**</b>	1		
10 Training & Development	.057	-.071	-.009	.081	-.047	<b>.123**</b>	.086	<b>.452**</b>	<b>.332**</b>	1	
11 Performance Appraisal	-.007	.084	-.072	<b>.104*</b>	<b>-.109*</b>	.020	<b>.251**</b>	<b>.489**</b>	<b>.466**</b>	<b>.404**</b>	1
12 Compensation	.054	.068	.062	.064	<b>.294**</b>	.025	<b>.130**</b>	<b>.393**</b>	<b>.323**</b>	<b>.327**</b>	<b>.484**</b>
13 HRM practices 2 <sup>nd</sup> Order	.013	.004	.001	<b>.134**</b>	.062	<b>.093*</b>	<b>.182**</b>	<b>.790**</b>	<b>.698**</b>	<b>.697**</b>	<b>.792**</b>
14 Distributive Justice	.015	.061	<b>-.096*</b>	<b>.190**</b>	-.010	-.089	<b>.276**</b>	<b>.434**</b>	<b>.366**</b>	<b>.446**</b>	<b>.623**</b>
15 Procedural justice	-.021	.037	<b>-.166**</b>	.079	<b>-.096*</b>	-.056	<b>.144**</b>	<b>.361**</b>	<b>.342**</b>	<b>.376**</b>	<b>.606**</b>
16 Interactional Justice	.000	.065	<b>-.147**</b>	.069	-.049	-.043	<b>.144**</b>	<b>.370**</b>	<b>.294**</b>	<b>.420**</b>	<b>.568**</b>
17 Altruism	-.059	-.002	<b>-.148**</b>	.088	<b>-.135**</b>	.011	.019	<b>.261**</b>	<b>.277**</b>	<b>.286**</b>	<b>.495**</b>
18 Courtesy	<b>-.092*</b>	-.042	<b>-.151**</b>	<b>.125**</b>	<b>.129**</b>	.041	.085	<b>.375**</b>	<b>.392**</b>	<b>.246**</b>	<b>.438**</b>
19 Conscientiousness	<b>-.105*</b>	<b>-.103*</b>	<b>-.146**</b>	-.022	-.085	-.069	-.047	.083	<b>.153**</b>	<b>.127**</b>	<b>.162**</b>
20 Sportsmanship (R)	<b>-.106*</b>	-.089	-.076	<b>-.100*</b>	<b>.273**</b>	-.008	-.021	<b>.186**</b>	.079	<b>.239**</b>	<b>.153**</b>
21 Civic Virtue	.077	.054	<b>-.129**</b>	<b>.152**</b>	-.020	.067	<b>.225**</b>	<b>.257**</b>	<b>.383**</b>	<b>.310**</b>	<b>.507**</b>
22 Turnover Intention	-.110	.031	.037	-.056	-.027	-.011	<b>-.219**</b>	<b>-.250**</b>	<b>-.290**</b>	<b>-.290**</b>	<b>-.488**</b>

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

**Table 21**

***Correlation Matrix (cont'd)***

	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
1 Age											
2 Gender											
3 Marital Status											
4 Education											
5 Organization											
6 Tenure											
7 Position											
8 Job Analysis											
9 Recruitment & Selection											
10 Training & Development											
11 Performance Appraisal											
12 Compensation	1										
13 HRM practices 2 <sup>nd</sup> Order	<b>.675**</b>	1									
14 Distributive Justice	<b>.461**</b>	<b>.643**</b>	1								
15 Procedural justice	<b>.355**</b>	<b>.565**</b>	<b>.735**</b>	1							
16 Interactional Justice	<b>.411**</b>	<b>.571**</b>	<b>.671**</b>	<b>.865**</b>	1						
17 Altruism	<b>.250**</b>	<b>.435**</b>	<b>.396**</b>	<b>.522**</b>	<b>.523**</b>	1					
18 Courtesy	<b>.375**</b>	<b>.497**</b>	<b>.375**</b>	<b>.495**</b>	<b>.496**</b>	<b>.640**</b>	1				
19 Conscientiousness	.074	<b>.164**</b>	<b>.190**</b>	<b>.208**</b>	<b>.151**</b>	<b>.248**</b>	<b>.309**</b>	1			
20 Sportsmanship (R)	<b>.304**</b>	<b>.262**</b>	<b>.198**</b>	<b>.254**</b>	<b>.293**</b>	<b>.215**</b>	<b>.393**</b>	<b>.102*</b>	1		
21 Civic Virtue	<b>.330**</b>	<b>.488**</b>	<b>.518**</b>	<b>.599**</b>	<b>.613**</b>	<b>.566**</b>	<b>.516**</b>	<b>.329**</b>	<b>.234**</b>	1	
22 Turnover Intention	<b>-.369**</b>	<b>-.465**</b>	<b>-.632**</b>	<b>-.639**</b>	<b>-.638**</b>	<b>-.449**</b>	<b>-.391**</b>	<b>-.240**</b>	<b>-.357**</b>	<b>-.532**</b>	1

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

### 5.3 Regression Analysis

Hierarchical regression analysis was performed to determine the variables that affected the turnover intention of bank employees. Hierarchical regression is a statistical method of testing hypotheses and exploring the relationships between a dependent variable and several independent variables. In hierarchical regression, the independent variables are not entered into the regression simultaneously, but sequentially. In this case, in the first step (Model 1), demographic variables, such as age, gender, marital status, education, organization, tenure, and job position were entered into the analysis for controlling their effects on the hypothesized relations. Subsequently, the second step (Model 2), the independent variables (HRM practices, organizational justice, and OCB) were entered into the analysis separately for determining their distinct effects on the dependent variable, turnover intentions.

The results obtained from the hierarchical regression analysis regarding the relationship between the independent variable HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, and performance appraisal, compensation) and the dependent variable turnover intentions are given in Table 22. The hypothesis related to the model was as follows:

- H1: *There is a negative relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and turnover intentions.*

Looking at the results of regression analysis depicted in Table 22, the first step (Model 1) shows that marital status ( $\beta = .139, p < .05$ ) was positively related to turnover intention, whereas age ( $\beta = -.143, p < .05$ ) and job position ( $\beta = -.260, p < .05$ ) were negatively related to turnover intention. This model was significant ( $F = 5,131, p < .01$ ) and explained 7.5% of the total variance of turnover intention. In the second step (Model 2), when the sub dimensions of the independent variable of HRM practices were included in the regression analysis, results revealed that demographic variables, such as gender ( $\beta = .112, p < .05$ ), marital status ( $\beta = .103, p < .05$ ), and tenure ( $\beta = .113, p < .05$ ) were positively related to turnover intentions, whereas job position ( $\beta = .020, p < .05$ ) and age ( $\beta = -.181, p < .05$ ) were negatively related to it. Concerning H1, only

performance appraisal ( $\beta = -.34, p < .01$ ) and compensation ( $\beta = -.16, p < .01$ ) sub dimensions were negatively related to turnover intentions. The second model was also significant ( $F = 29,692, p < .01$ ) and explained 31% of the total variance of turnover intention. These results indicated that H1 was partly supported.

The findings demonstrated that among HRM practices, performance appraisal and compensation decreased turnover intention.

**Table 22**

***The Impact of HRM Practices on Turnover Intentions***

Variables	Model -1-				Model -2-			
	B	S.E.	$\beta$	Sig.	B	S.E.	$\beta$	Sig.
Age	-.020	.009	-.143	<b>.028</b>	-.026	.008	-.181	<b>.002</b>
Gender	.142	.084	.082	.090	.193	.074	.112	<b>.009</b>
Marital Status	.264	.108	.139	<b>.015</b>	.196	.096	.103	<b>.042</b>
Education	.086	.088	.051	.329	.083	.077	.049	.281
Organization	-.009	.016	-.025	.594	-.002	.016	-.005	.914
Tenure	.021	.012	.098	.084	.024	.011	.113	<b>.024</b>
Job Position	-.160	.035	-.260	<b>.000</b>	-.073	.032	-.119	<b>.021</b>
Job Analysis					.030	.078	.020	.701
Recruitment and Selection					-.097	.080	-.059	.227
Training and Development					-.081	.049	-.078	.101
Performance appraisal					-.443	.073	-.344	<b>.000</b>
Compensation					-.201	.065	-.159	<b>.002</b>
R		.274				.556		
R <sup>2</sup>		.075				.309		
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.060				.290		
$\Delta R^2$		.075				.234		
F		5.131				29.692		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.000 <sup>b</sup>				.000 <sup>c</sup>		
<b><i>Dependent Variable Turnover Intention</i></b>								

The results of the regression analysis regarding the relationship between the independent variable HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and

selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and the dependent variable OCB-I are provided in Table 23. The hypothesis related to the model is the following:

- H2a: *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and OCB-I.*

Looking at the results of regression analysis depicted in Table 23, the first step (Model 1) shows that of the demographic variables, only marital status ( $\beta = -.197, p = .01$ ) is negatively related to OCB-I. This model was significant ( $F = 3,543, p < .01$ ) and explained 5.3% of the total variance of OCB-I.

In the second step (Model 2), when the sub dimensions of the independent variable of HRM practices were included in the regression analysis, it was found that demographic variables, such as marital status ( $\beta = -.163, p = .01$ ) was negatively related to OCB-I, whereas education ( $\beta = .090, p < .05$ ) was positively related to OCB-I. Concerning H2a, recruitment and selection ( $\beta = .131, p < .05$ ), performance appraisal ( $\beta = .372, p < .01$ ), and compensation ( $\beta = .124, p < .05$ ) sub dimensions were positively related to OCB-I. The second model was also significant ( $F = 18,234, p < .01$ ) and explained 33.3% of the total variance of OCB-I. These results indicated that H2a is partly supported.

Table 23 shows that among HRM practices, recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, and compensation increased OCB-I.

**Table 23*****The impact of HRM Practices on OCB-I***

Variables	<i>Model -1-</i>				<i>Model -2-</i>			
	B	S.E.	$\beta$	Sig.	B	S.E.	$\beta$	Sig.
Age	-.005	.005	-.059	.374	-.001	.005	-.006	.911
Gender	.005	.048	.005	.924	-.025	.041	-.026	.541
Marital Status	-.211	.062	-.197	<b>.001</b>	-.175	.053	-.163	<b>.001</b>
Education	.092	.050	.096	.069	.086	.043	.090	<b>.044</b>
Organization	-.004	.009	-.022	.644	-.008	.009	-.039	.374
Tenure	.012	.007	.099	.085	.010	.006	.079	.107
Job Position	.019	.020	.055	.343	-.034	.018	-.099	.052
Job Analysis					.014	.044	.016	.755
Recruitment and Selection					.121	.045	.131	<b>.007</b>
Training and Development					.023	.027	.040	.393
Performance appraisal					.271	.040	.372	<b>.000</b>
Compensation					.089	.036	.124	<b>.014</b>
R		.230				.577		
R <sup>2</sup>		.053				.333		
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.038				.315		
$\Delta R^2$		.053				.280		
F		3.543				18.234		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.001 <sup>b</sup>				.000 <sup>c</sup>		
<b><i>Dependent variable OCB-I</i></b>								

The results of the regression analysis regarding the relationship between the independent variable HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and the dependent variable OCB-O are provided in Table 24. The hypothesis related to the model is as follows:

- H2b: *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and OCB-O.*

The results of regression analysis (Table 24) in Model 1 revealed that of the demographic variables, only marital status ( $\beta = -.236$ ,  $p = .01$ ) was negatively related

to OCB-O. This model was significant ( $F = 4,112, p < .01$ ) and explained 6.1% of the total variance of OCB-O.

In the second step (Model 2), when the sub dimensions of the independent variable HRM practices were included in the regression analysis, it was discovered that of the demographic variables, only marital status ( $\beta = -.208, p = .01$ ) was negatively related to OCB-O. Concerning H2b, recruitment and selection ( $\beta = .146, p < .05$ ), training and development ( $\beta = .156, p = .01$ ), performance appraisal ( $\beta = .237, p < .01$ ), and compensation ( $\beta = .151, p < .05$ ) sub dimensions were all positively related to OCB-O. The second model was significant ( $F = 13,304, p < .01$ ) and explained 26.7% of the total variance of OCB-O. These results indicated that H2b is partly supported.

The findings displayed in Table 24 show that HRM practices, such as recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation increased OCB-O.

**Table 24** The Impact of HRM Practices on OCB-O  
*The impact of HRM Practices on OCB-O*

Variables	Model -1-				Model -2-			
	B	S.E.	$\beta$	Sig.	B	S.E.	$\beta$	Sig.
Age	.002	.004	.025	.706	.003	.004	.041	.488
Gender	-.048	.039	-.060	.217	-.060	.035	-.075	.087
Marital Status	-.207	.050	-.236	<b>.000</b>	-.182	.046	-.208	<b>.000</b>
Education	-.036	.041	-.046	.373	-.044	.037	-.056	.230
Organization	.009	.008	.054	.249	.005	.008	.029	.534
Tenure	.003	.006	.034	.547	.002	.005	.023	.655
Job Position	.048	.016	.168	.004	.015	.015	.051	.335
Job Analysis					-.058	.037	-.084	.123
Recruitment and Selection					.110	.038	.146	<b>.004</b>

Training and Development	.076	.024	.156	<b>.001</b>
Performance appraisal	.141	.035	.237	<b>.000</b>
Compensation	.089	.031	.151	<b>.004</b>
R	.247		.517	
R <sup>2</sup>	.061		.267	
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.046		.247	
$\Delta R^2$	.061		.206	
F	4.112		13.304	
ANOVA (Sig.)	.000 <sup>b</sup>		.000 <sup>c</sup>	
<b><i>Dependent variable OCB-O</i></b>				

The results of the regression analysis regarding the relationship between the independent variable HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and the dependent variable organizational justice (sub dimensions: distributive justice) are provided in Table 25. The hypothesis related to the model is as follows:

- H3a: *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational distributive justice perceptions.*

The results of regression analysis depicted in the first step (Model 1, Table 25) showed that the demographic variable marital status ( $\beta = -.142, p = .01$ ) was negatively related to distributive justice perceptions, whereas tenure ( $\beta = .167, p < .05$ ) and job position ( $\beta = .321, p < .01$ ) were positively related to distributive justice perceptions. This model was significant ( $F = 9.557, p < .01$ ) and explained 13.1% of the total variance of organizational distributive justice perceptions.

In the second step (Model 2), when the sub dimensions of the independent variable HRM practices were included in the regression analysis, it was revealed that demographic variables, such as marital status ( $\beta = -.143, p < .05$ ) and tenure ( $\beta = -.038, p < .01$ ) were negatively related to distributive justice perceptions, whereas job position ( $\beta = .086, p < .01$ ) was positively related to distributive justice perceptions.

Concerning H3a, job analysis ( $\beta = .119, p < .05$ ), training and development ( $\beta = .196, p < .01$ ), performance appraisal ( $\beta = .357, p < .01$ ), and compensation ( $\beta = .160, p < .01$ ) were positively related to distributive justice perceptions. The second model was significant ( $F = 40,303, p < .01$ ) and explained 52.5% of the total variance of organizational distributive justice perceptions. These results indicated that H3a was partly supported.

The findings in Table 25 showed that HRM practices, such as job analysis, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation increased organizational distributive justice perceptions.

**Table 25** The impact of HRM Practices on Organizational Distributive Justice  
***The impact of HRM Practices on Organizational Distributive Justice***

Variables	<i>Model -1-</i>				<i>Model -2-</i>			
	B	S.E.	$\beta$	<i>Sig.</i>	B	S.E.	$\beta$	<i>Sig.</i>
Age	.004	.007	.035	.577	.011	.006	.011	.057
Gender	.002	.067	.001	.978	-.027	.050	-.027	.596
Marital Status	-.221	.086	-.142	<b>.010</b>	-.143	.065	-.143	<b>.029</b>
Education	.100	.070	.072	.153	.090	.052	.090	.087
Organization	.002	.013	.006	.896	-.004	.011	-.004	.709
Tenure	-.029	.010	-.167	<b>.002</b>	-.038	.007	-.038	<b>.000</b>
Job Position	.162	.028	.321	<b>.000</b>	.086	.022	.086	<b>.000</b>
Job Analysis					.145	.053	.119	<b>.007</b>
Recruitment and Selection					.005	.054	.004	.923
Training and Development					.168	.034	.196	<b>.000</b>
Performance appraisal					.377	.049	.357	<b>.000</b>
Compensation					.165	.044	.160	<b>.000</b>
R		.362				.724		

R <sup>2</sup>	.131	.525
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.117	.512
$\Delta R^2$	.131	.394
F	9.557	40.303
ANOVA (Sig.)	.000 <sup>b</sup>	.000 <sup>c</sup>
<b><i>Dependent Variable Organizational Distributive Justice</i></b>		

The results of the regression analysis regarding the relationship between the independent variable HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and the dependent variable organizational justice (sub dimension: procedural justice) are provided in Table 26. The hypothesis related to the model is as follows:

- H3b: *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational procedural justice perceptions.*

Looking at the results of regression analysis depicted in Table 26, the first step (Model 1) showed that demographic variables, such as marital status ( $\beta = -.142, p = .01$ ) and organization ( $\beta = -.094, p < .05$ ), were negatively related to procedural justice perceptions, whereas job position ( $\beta = .185, p < .01$ ) was positively related to procedural justice perceptions. This model was also significant ( $F = 5,323, p < .01$ ) and explained 7.8% of the total variance of organizational distributive justice perceptions.

In the second step (Model 2), when the sub dimensions of the independent variable HRM practices were included in the regression analysis, it was revealed that demographic variables, such as age ( $\beta = .109, p < .05$ ), were positively related to procedural justice perceptions, whereas marital status ( $\beta = -.175, p < .01$ ), organization ( $\beta = -.089, p < .05$ ) and tenure ( $\beta = -.093, p < .05$ ) were negatively related to procedural justice perceptions. Concerning H3b, training and development ( $\beta = .125, p < .01$ ), performance appraisal ( $\beta = .436, p < .01$ ), and compensation ( $\beta = .098, p < .05$ ) were positively related to procedural justice perceptions. The second model was significant ( $F = 27,273, p < .01$ ) and explained 42.7% of the total variance of organizational distributive justice perceptions. These results indicated that H3b is partly supported.

The results revealed (Table 26) that HRM practices, such as training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation increased organizational procedural justice perceptions.



**Table 26*****The impact of HRM Practices on Organizational Procedural Justice***

Variables	<i>Model -1-</i>				<i>Model -2-</i>			
	B	S.E.	$\beta$	Sig.	B	S.E.	$\beta$	Sig.
Age	.007	.008	.056	.393	.014	.007	.109	<b>.039</b>
Gender	.011	.074	.007	.885	-.029	.059	-.019	.625
Marital Status	-.383	.095	-.229	<b>.000</b>	-.292	.077	-.175	<b>.000</b>
Education	.028	.077	.019	.720	.022	.062	.015	.723
Organization	-.029	.014	-.094	<b>.043</b>	-.028	.013	-.089	<b>.030</b>
Tenure	-.011	.011	-.057	.313	-.017	.009	-.093	<b>.042</b>
Job Position	.100	.031	.185	<b>.001</b>	.011	.025	.020	.668
Job Analysis					.061	.063	.047	.331
Recruitment and Selection					.081	.064	.056	.210
Training and Development					.115	.040	.125	<b>.004</b>
Performance appraisal					.496	.058	.436	<b>.000</b>
Compensation					.110	.052	.098	<b>.036</b>
R		.279				.654		
R <sup>2</sup>		.078				.427		
Adjusted. R <sup>2</sup>		.063				.412		
$\Delta R^2$		.078				.350		
F		5.323				27.253		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.000 <sup>b</sup>				.000 <sup>c</sup>		
<b><i>Dependent Variable Organizational Procedural Justice</i></b>								

The results of the regression analysis regarding the relationship between the independent variable HRM practices and the dependent variable organizational justice are provided in Table 27. The hypothesis related to the model is the following:

- H3c: *There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational interactional justice perceptions.*

The results of regression analysis depicted in Table 27 in the first step (Model 1) revealed that demographic variables, such as marital status ( $\beta = -.218, p = .01$ ), were negatively related to interactional justice perceptions, whereas job position ( $\beta = .180, p < .01$ ) was positively related to interactional justice perceptions. This model was significant ( $F = 4,346, p < .01$ ) and explained 6.4% of the total variance of organizational interactional justice perceptions.

In the second step (Model 2), when the sub dimensions of the independent variable HRM practices were included in the regression analysis, it was found that of the demographic variables, only marital status ( $\beta = -.168, p < .01$ ) was negatively related to interactional justice perceptions. Concerning H3c, training and development ( $\beta = .195, p < .01$ ), performance appraisal ( $\beta = .349, p < .01$ ), and compensation ( $\beta = .173, p < .01$ ) were positively related to interactional justice perceptions. The second model was significant ( $F = 51,305, p < .01$ ) and explained 41% of the total variance of organizational interactional justice perceptions. These results indicated that H3c is partly supported.

The results (Table 27) showed that HRM practices, such as training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation increased organizational interactional justice perceptions.

**Table 27*****The Impact of HRM Practices on Organizational Interactional Justice***

Variables	<i>Model -1-</i>				<i>Model -2-</i>			
	B	S.E.	$\beta$	<i>Sig.</i>	B	S.E.	$\beta$	<i>Sig.</i>
Age	.008	.009	.057	.384	.014	.007	.102	.054
Gender	.068	.079	.042	.393	.033	.064	.020	.610
Marital Status	-.389	.103	-.218	<b>.000</b>	-.300	.084	-.168	<b>.000</b>
Education	.001	.083	.001	.986	-.003	.067	-.002	.969
Organization	-.015	.015	-.044	.349	-.021	.014	-.063	.132
Tenure	-.008	.011	-.039	.493	-.016	.009	-.081	.080
Job Position	.105	.033	.180	<b>.002</b>	.020	.028	.035	.467
Job Analysis					.096	.068	.068	.161
Recruitment and Selection					-.019	.070	-.012	.789
Training and Development					.192	.043	.195	<b>.000</b>
Performance appraisal					.425	.063	.349	<b>.000</b>
Compensation					.207	.057	.173	<b>.000</b>
R			.253 <sup>a</sup>				.640 <sup>b</sup>	
R <sup>2</sup>			.064				.410	
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>			.049				.394	
$\Delta R^2$			.064				.346	
F			4.346				51.305	
ANOVA (Sig.)			.000 <sup>b</sup>				.000 <sup>c</sup>	
<b><i>Dependent Variable Organizational Interactional Justice</i></b>								

The results of the regression analysis regarding the relationship between the independent variable organizational justice and the dependent variable turnover intentions are provided in Table 28. The hypotheses related to the model are as follows:

- *H4: There is a negative relationship between organizational justice (sub dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice) and turnover intentions.*
  - *H4a: There is a negative relationship between distributive justice perceptions and turnover intentions.*
  - *H4b: There is a negative relationship between procedural justice perceptions and turnover intentions.*

- H4c: *There is a negative relationship between interactional justice perceptions and turnover intentions.*

The results of regression analysis depicted in Table 28 in the first step (Model 1) revealed that demographic variables such as age ( $\beta = -.143, p = .05$ ) and job position ( $\beta = -.260, p = .01$ ) were negatively related to turnover intentions, whereas marital status ( $\beta = .139, p < .05$ ) was positively related to turnover intentions. This model was significant ( $F = 5,131, p < .01$ ) and explained 7.5% of the total variance of turnover intention.

In the second step (Model 2), when the sub dimensions of the independent variable organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional justice) were included in the regression analysis, it was found that demographic variables such as age ( $\beta = -.107, p < .05$ ) were negatively related to turnover intentions, whereas gender ( $\beta = .096, p < .01$ ) and education ( $\beta = .077, p < .05$ ) were positively related to turnover intention. Concerning H4a, H4b, and H4c, it was discovered that distributive justice ( $\beta = -.320, p < .01$ ), procedural justice ( $\beta = -.160, p < .05$ ), and interactional justice ( $\beta = -.288, p < .01$ ) were negatively related to turnover intention. The second model was significant ( $F = 46,625, p < .01$ ) and explained 51.4% of the total variance of turnover intention. These results indicated that H4, including H4a, H4b, and H4c, are supported. The findings illustrated in Table 28 indicated that organizational justice decreased employees' turnover intentions.

**Table 28*****The Impact of organizational justice on Turnover Intentions***

Variables	<i>Model -1-</i>				<i>Model -2-</i>			
	B	S.E.	$\beta$	Sig.	B	S.E.	$\beta$	Sig.
Age	-.020	.009	-.143	<b>.028</b>	-.015	.007	-.107	<b>.024</b>
Gender	.142	.084	.082	.090	.166	.061	.096	<b>.007</b>
Marital Status	.264	.108	.139	<b>.015</b>	-.011	.080	-.006	.893
Education	.086	.088	.051	.329	.130	.064	.077	<b>.043</b>
Organization	-.009	.016	-.025	.594	-.018	.012	-.050	.140
Tenure	.021	.012	.098	.084	.005	.009	.024	.563
Job Position	-.160	.035	-.260	<b>.000</b>	-.047	.026	-.076	.079
Distributive					-.390	.064	-.320	<b>.000</b>
Procedural					-.181	.085	-.160	<b>.032</b>
Interactional					-.305	.071	-.288	<b>.000</b>
R			.274 <sup>a</sup>				.717 <sup>b</sup>	
R <sup>2</sup>			.075				.514	
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>			.060				.503	
$\Delta R^2$			.053				.315	
F			5.131				46.625	
ANOVA (Sig.)			.000 <sup>b</sup>				.000 <sup>c</sup>	
<b><i>Dependent variable Turnover Intention</i></b>								

The results of the regression analysis regarding the relationship between the independent variable organizational justice and the dependent variable OCB (sub dimension OCB-I) are provided in Table 29. The hypotheses related to the model are as follows:

- *H5a: There is a positive relationship between distributive justice perceptions and OCB-I.*
- *H5b: There is a positive relationship between procedural justice perceptions and OCB-I.*
- *H5c: There is a positive relationship between interactional justice perceptions and OCB-I.*

The results of regression analysis depicted in Table 29 in the first step (Model 1) revealed that of the demographic variables, only marital status ( $\beta = -.197, p = .01$ )

was negatively related to OCB-I. This model was significant ( $F = 3,543, p < .01$ ) and explained 5.3% of the total variance of OCB-I.

In the second step (Model 2), when the sub dimensions of organizational justice were included in the regression analysis, it was found that demographic variables, such as education ( $\beta = .041, p < .05$ ) and tenure ( $\beta = .131, p < .01$ ), were positively related to OCB-I. Concerning H5a, it was revealed that only procedural justice ( $\beta = .278, p < .01$ ) and interactional justice ( $\beta = .307, p < .01$ ) were positively related to OCB-I. The second model was significant ( $F = 25,258, p < .01$ ) and explained 36.8% of the total variance of OCB-I. These results indicated that H5a is partly supported.

The findings in Table 29 showed that organizational justice (sub dimensions: procedural and interactional justice perceptions) increased OCB-I.

**Table 29** The impact of organizational justice on OCB-I  
***The impact of organizational justice on OCB-I***

Variables	<i>Model -1-</i>				<i>Model -2-</i>			
	B	S.E.	$\beta$	<i>Sig.</i>	B	S.E.	$\beta$	<i>Sig.</i>
Age	-.005	.005	-.059	.374	-.007	.004	-.092	.088
Gender	.005	.048	.005	.924	-.010	.039	-.010	.802
Marital Status	-.211	.062	-.197	<b>.001</b>	-.067	.052	-.063	.195
Education	.092	.050	.096	.069	.085	.041	.088	<b>.041</b>
Organization	-.004	.009	-.022	.644	.004	.008	.018	.651
Tenure	.012	.007	.099	.085	.016	.006	.131	<b>.006</b>
Job Position	.019	.020	.055	.343	-.021	.017	-.060	.220
Distributive					.018	.041	.026	.668
Procedural					.178	.055	.278	<b>.001</b>
Interactional					.184	.046	.307	<b>.000</b>
R		.230 <sup>a</sup>				.606 <sup>b</sup>		
R <sup>2</sup>		.053				.368		
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.038				.353		
$\Delta R^2$		.075				.439		
F		3.543				25.582		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.001 <sup>b</sup>				.000 <sup>c</sup>		
<b><i>Dependent Variable OCB-I</i></b>								

The results of the regression analysis regarding the relationship between the independent variable organizational justice and the dependent variable OCB-O are provided in Table 30. The hypotheses related to the model are as follows:

- *H5d: There is a positive relationship between distributive justice perceptions and OCB-O.*
- *H5e: There is a positive relationship between procedural justice perceptions and OCB-O.*
- *H5f: There is a positive relationship between interactional justice perceptions and OCB-O.*

Looking at the results of regression analysis depicted in Table 30 in the first step (Model 1) revealed that demographic variables such as marital status ( $\beta = -.236, p = .01$ ) was negatively related to OCB-O, whereas job position ( $\beta = .168, p < .01$ ) was positively related to OCB-O. This model was significant ( $F = 4,112, p < .01$ ) and explained 6.1% of the total variance of OCB-O.

In the second step (Model 2) when the sub dimensions of the independent variable organizational justice were included in the regression analysis, it was revealed that the demographic variable marital status ( $\beta = -.115, p < .05$ ) was negatively related to OCB-O, whereas organization ( $\beta = .086, p < .05$ ) was positively related to OCB-O. Concerning H5b, it was found that only procedural justice ( $\beta = .241, p < .01$ ) and interactional justice ( $\beta = .228, p < .01$ ) were positively related to OCB-O. The second model was significant ( $F = 21,540, p < .01$ ) and explained 32.9% of the total variance of OCB-O. These results indicated that H5b is partly supported. The findings depicted in Table 30 showed that organizational justice (sub dimensions: procedural and interactional justice perceptions) increased OCB-O.

**Table 30*****The Impact of Organizational Justice on OCB-O***

Variables	<i>Model -1-</i>				<i>Model -2-</i>			
	B	S.E.	$\beta$	Sig.	B	S.E.	$\beta$	Sig.
Age	.002	.004	.025	.706	.000	.004	-.006	.919
Gender	-.048	.039	-.060	.217	-.057	.033	-.072	.085
Marital Status	-.207	.050	-.236	<b>.000</b>	-.101	.044	-.115	<b>.021</b>
Education	-.036	.041	-.046	.373	-.047	.035	-.059	.183
Organization	.009	.008	.054	.249	.014	.007	.086	<b>.033</b>
Tenure	.003	.006	.034	.547	.007	.005	.076	.122
Job Position	.048	.016	.168	<b>.004</b>	.013	.014	.046	.369
Distributive					.064	.035	.113	.067
Procedural					.127	.046	.241	<b>.006</b>
Interactional					.112	.039	.228	<b>.004</b>
R			.247 <sup>a</sup>				.573 <sup>b</sup>	
R <sup>2</sup>			.061				.329	
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>			.046				.313	
$\Delta R^2$			.061				.268	
F			4.112				21.540	
ANOVA (Sig.)			.000 <sup>b</sup>				.000 <sup>c</sup>	
<b><i>Dependent Variable OCB-O</i></b>								

The results of the regression analysis regarding the relationship between the independent variable *OCB* (sub dimensions: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue) and the dependent variable turnover intention are provided in the Table 31. The hypotheses related to the model are:

- H6: *There is a negative relationship between OCB (sub dimensions: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, civic virtue) and turnover intention.*
  - H6a: *There is a negative relationship between altruism and turnover intention.*
  - H6b: *There is a negative relationship between courtesy and turnover intention.*

- H6c: *There is a negative relationship between sportsmanship and turnover intention.*
- H6d: *There is a negative relationship between conscientiousness and turnover intention.*
- H6e: *There is a negative relationship between civic virtue and turnover intention.*

The results of regression analysis depicted in Table 31 in Model 1 revealed that age ( $\beta = -.143, p = .05$ ) was negatively related to turnover intentions, whereas marital status ( $\beta = .139, p < .05$ ) was positively related to turnover intention. This model was significant ( $F = 5,131, p < .01$ ) and explained 7.5% of the total variance of turnover intention.

In Model 2, when the sub dimensions of the independent variable OCB (sub dimensions: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue) were included in the regression analysis, it was found that marital status ( $\beta = .139, p < .05$ ) was positively related to turnover intention, whereas age ( $\beta = -.143, p < .05$ ) and job position ( $\beta = -.260, p < .01$ ) were negatively related. Concerning H6, it was discovered that only altruism ( $\beta = -.239, p < .01$ ), sportsmanship ( $\beta = -.249, p < .01$ ), conscientiousness ( $\beta = -.081, p < .05$ ), and civic virtue ( $\beta = -.302, p < .01$ ) were negatively related to turnover intention. The second model was significant ( $F = 25,801, p < .01$ ) and explained 41.4% of the total variance of turnover intention. These results indicated that H6 is partly supported. More specifically, hypotheses H6a, H6c, H6d, and H6e are supported, whereas H6b is not.

The findings depicted in Table 31 showed that OCB (sub dimensions: altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue) decreased employee turnover intentions.

**Table 31*****The Impact of OCB Sub dimensions on Turnover Intention***

Variables	<i>Model -1-</i>				<i>Model -2-</i>			
	B	S.E.	$\beta$	<i>Sig.</i>	B	S.E.	$\beta$	<i>Sig.</i>
Age	-.020	.009	-.143	<b>.028</b>	-.019	.008	-.135	<b>.011</b>
Gender	.142	.084	.082	.090	.126	.068	.073	.064
Marital Status	.264	.108	.139	<b>.015</b>	-.008	.089	-.004	.925
Education	.086	.088	.051	.329	.072	.072	.042	.319
Organization	-.009	.016	-.025	.594	-.002	.014	-.006	.886
Tenure	.021	.012	.098	.084	.029	.010	.138	<b>.003</b>
Job Position	-.160	.035	-.260	<b>.000</b>	-.104	.029	-.170	<b>.000</b>
Altruism					-.347	.078	-.239	<b>.000</b>
Courtesy					.064	.098	.036	.513
Sportsmanship R					-.460	.078	-.249	<b>.000</b>
Consciousness					-.115	.058	-.081	<b>.048</b>
Civic Virtue					-.408	.067	-.302	<b>.000</b>
R		.274 <sup>a</sup>				.644 <sup>b</sup>		
R <sup>2</sup>		.075				.414		
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.060				.398		
$\Delta R^2$		.075				.339		
F		5.131				25.801		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.000 <sup>b</sup>				.000 <sup>c</sup>		
<b><i>Dependent Variable Turnover Intention</i></b>								

**5.4 Difference Analyses**

Based on the research question, the possible demographic differences in turnover intention were explored. Therefore, an independent samples *t*-test and one-way ANOVA were used for the variables that provided normality assumptions and Mann-Whitney *U* and Kruskal Wallis tests were used for the variables that did not provide normality assumptions.

**Research Question:** *Are there any differences in turnover intentions according to demographical variables, such as gender, marital status, education, organization, and job position?*

- *Are there any differences in turnover intentions according to gender?*

For determining any significant differences in turnover intention based on gender, an independent-samples t-test was used. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there is no significant difference between single and married participants, the results from the Independent Samples t-test and One-way ANOVA in Table 32 revealed no significant differences in terms of gender ( $M = 2.29$ ,  $SD = .815$ ,  $F = .436$ ,  $p = .509 > .05$ ), indicating retaining the null hypothesis. Therefore, it can be concluded that there are not significant differences between male and female participants regarding turnover intentions.

**Table 32** Independent Samples t-test and One-way ANOVA for the Differences Based on Gender for Turnover Intentions

***Independent Samples t-test and One-way ANOVA for the Differences Based on Gender for Turnover Intentions***

Variables	Model -1-				Model -2-			
	Mean	S.D.	S.E	N	Mean	S.D.	S.E	N
Gender	2.292	.815	.052	243	2.345	.908	.061	216
F					.436			
ANOVA (Sig.)					.509			

- *Are there any differences in turnover intentions according to marital status?*

For determining any significant differences in turnover intention based on marital status, an independent-samples t-test was used. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there is no significant difference between single and married participants, the results from the Independent Samples t-test and One-way ANOVA in Table 33 revealed no significant differences in terms of marital status ( $M = 2.27$ ,  $SD = .846$ ,  $F = .601$ ,  $p = .439 > .05$ ), indicating retaining the null hypothesis. Therefore, it can be concluded that there are not significant differences in terms of marital status regarding turnover intentions.

**Table 33** Independent Samples T-Test and One-Way ANOVA for the Differences between Marital Status and Turnover Intentions

Variables	Model -1-				Model -2-			
	Mean	S.D.	S.E	N	Mean	S.D.	S.E	N
Marital Status	2.274	.847	.073	134	2.344	.874	.049	317
F					.601			
ANOVA (Sig.)					.439			

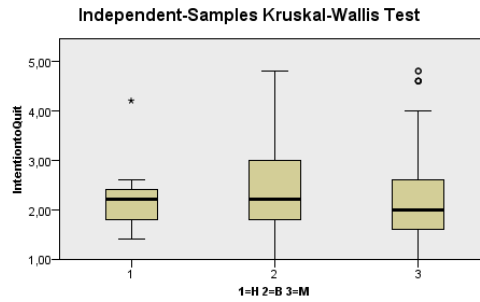
- *Are there any differences in turnover intention according to education?*

For determining any significant differences in turnover intention based on level of education, an independent-samples Mann Whitney U test was used. While the null hypothesis for this test assumes there is no significant difference between participants in terms of level of education, the results in Figure 12 revealed that for level of education  $p = .100$ , which is greater than  $.000$ . Therefore, there are not significant differences between different levels of education regarding turnover intention.

**Figure 10** *Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis tests for the differences between turnover intention and education*

Hypothesis Test Summary				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of IntentiontoQuit is the same across categories of 1=H 2=B 3=M.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.100	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.



Total N	459
Test Statistic	4,612
Degrees of Freedom	2
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,100

1. The test statistic is adjusted for ties.  
 2. Multiple comparisons are not performed because the overall test does not show significant differences across samples.

- *Are there any differences in turnover intention according to organization?*

For determining any significant differences in turnover intention based on organization, an independent-samples Mann Whitney U test was used. The results in Figure 13 revealed that for organization  $p = .000$ , indicating rejecting the null hypothesis. Therefore, it can be concluded that there are significant differences between the participants of different organizations regarding turnover intention.

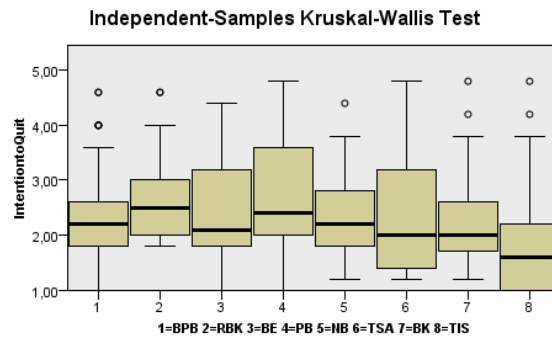
**Figure 11**

***Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis tests for the differences between turnover intention and organization.***

**Hypothesis Test Summary**

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of IntentiontoQuit is the same across categories of 1=BPB 2=RBK 3=BE 4=PB 5=NB 6=TSA 7=BK 8=TIS.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.



Total N	459
Test Statistic	27,946
Degrees of Freedom	7
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,000

1. The test statistic is adjusted for ties.

- *Are there any differences in turnover intention according to job position?*

For determining any significant differences in turnover intention based on job position, an independent-samples Mann Whitney U test was used. The results in Figure 14 revealed that for job position  $p = .000$ , indicating rejecting the null hypothesis. Therefore, it can be concluded that there are significant differences between the participants' job position regarding turnover intention.

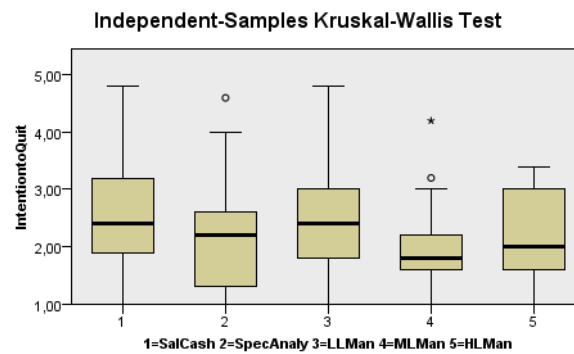
**Figure 12**

*Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis tests for the differences between turnover intention and job position*

### Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of IntentiontoQuit is independent the same across categories of	Independent Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	,000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.



Total N	459
Test Statistic	42,318
Degrees of Freedom	4
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,000

1. The test statistic is adjusted for ties.

## 5.5 Hypothesis Results and Findings for HRM Practices and Turnover Intention Variables

Based on the research model presented in Figure 4, the correlation and regression analyses were performed to reveal the relationship between the sub dimensions of HRM practices and turnover intentions. The correlation analysis is presented in Table 21. Significant negative relationship were found between the HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and turnover intentions. In explaining this relationship, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) in order to reveal their effects on turnover intentions. The results of the regression analysis performed to determine the effect of HRM practices on turnover intentions revealed that performance appraisal and compensation had a negative effect and decreased employee turnover intentions (Table 22).

Acceptance and rejection of the hypotheses established according to the research model are presented in Table 34. Looking at H1, hypotheses related to performance appraisal and compensation sub dimensions were accepted and the other

hypotheses for job analysis, recruitment and selection, and training and development were rejected. Therefore, it can be concluded that the first hypothesis H1 is partly accepted.

**Table 34**

***Acceptance or Rejection of Hypotheses about HRM Practices and Turnover Intentions***

Hypotheses		$\beta$	$p$	Accepted or Rejected	
<b>H1:</b> There is a negative relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, and performance appraisal, compensation) and TI	Job analysis	.020	.701	Rejected	Partly Accepted
	Recruitment and selection	-.059	.227	Rejected	
	Training and development	-.078	.101	Rejected	
	Performance appraisal	-.334	.000	Accepted	
	Compensation	-.159	.002	Accepted	

## **5.6 Hypothesis Results and Findings for HRM Practices and OCB Variables**

Before explaining the relationship between HRM practices and OCB variable, it was necessary to explain the correlation between the sub dimensions of HRM practices (job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and sub dimensions of OCB: OCB-I (altruism and courtesy) and OCB-O (conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue). In the correlation analysis presented in Table 21, significant positive relationship were found between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and OCB-I (sub dimensions: altruism and courtesy). Furthermore, when analyzing the correlation between HRM practices and OCB-O, significant positive relationship was found between recruitment and selection, training and development,

performance appraisal, and conscientiousness. Furthermore, no relationships were found between job analysis, compensation, and conscientiousness. Significant positive relationships were found between job analysis, training and development, performance appraisal, compensation, and conscientiousness. By contrast, no relationship was discovered between recruitment and selection and conscientiousness. Significant positive relationship was found between all HRM sub dimensions (job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and civic virtue.

In explaining this relationship, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) in order to reveal the effects on OCB-I (sub dimensions: altruism and courtesy). Results of regression analyses performed to determine the effect of HRM practices on OCB-I revealed that recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, and compensation positively impacted and increased OCB-I (Table 23). By contrast, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation positively affected and increased OCB-O (Table 24).

Acceptance and rejection of the hypotheses established according to the research model are presented in Table 35. H2a hypothesis related to recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, and compensation sub dimensions were accepted and the other hypotheses for job analysis and training and development were rejected. Similarly, the H2b hypothesis shows that hypotheses related to recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation sub dimensions were accepted, and the only hypothesis for job analysis is rejected. Therefore, it can be concluded that the hypotheses H2a and H2b are partially accepted.

**Table 35*****Acceptance or Rejection of Hypotheses about HRM Practices and OCB***

Hypotheses		$\beta$	p	Accepted or Rejected	
<b>H2a:</b> There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and OCB-I	Job analysis	.016	.755	Rejected	Partly Accepted
	Recruitment and selection	.131	<b>.007</b>	Accepted	
	Training and development	.040	.393	Rejected	
	Performance appraisal	.372	<b>.000</b>	Accepted	
	Compensation	.124	<b>.014</b>	Accepted	
<b>H2b:</b> There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and OCB-O	Job analysis	-.084	.123	Rejected	Partly Accepted
	Recruitment and selection	.146	<b>.004</b>	Accepted	
	Training and development	.156	<b>.001</b>	Accepted	
	Performance appraisal	.237	<b>.000</b>	Accepted	
	Compensation	.151	<b>.004</b>	Accepted	

## **5.7 Hypothesis Results and Findings for HRM Practices and Organizational Justice Variables**

Before explaining the relationship between HRM practices and organizational justice variables, it was necessary to explain the correlation between the sub dimensions of HRM practices (job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and those of organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice). In the correlation analysis presented in Table 21, significant positive relationship were found between HRM practices (job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development,

performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice).

To explain this relationship, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for all HRM practices in order to reveal the effects on organizational justice (sub dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice). As a result of the regression analysis performed to analyze the effect of HRM practices on organizational justice perceptions, it was revealed that job analysis, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation positively affected and increased organizational distributive justice perceptions (Table 25). Furthermore, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation positively affected and increased organizational procedural justice perceptions (Table 26). Training and development, performance appraisal and compensation positively affected and increased organizational interactional justice perceptions (Table 27).

Acceptance and rejection of the hypotheses established according to the research model are presented in Table 36. H3a hypotheses related to job analysis, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation sub dimensions were accepted and only hypothesis related to recruitment and selection is rejected. Similarly, H3b shows that hypotheses related to training and development, performance appraisal and compensation sub dimensions were accepted and that hypotheses related to job analysis and recruitment and selection were rejected. Identically, H3c shows that hypotheses related to training and development, performance appraisal and compensation sub dimensions are accepted, and the hypotheses related to job analysis and recruitment and selection are rejected. Therefore, it can be concluded that H3a, H3b, and H3c are partially accepted.

**Table 36**

***Acceptance or Rejection of Hypotheses about HRM Practices and Organizational Justice***

Hypotheses		$\beta$	$p$	Accepted or Rejected	
<b>H3a:</b> There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, compensation) and organizational distributive justice perceptions.	Job analysis	.119	<b>.007</b>	Accepted	Partly Accepted
	Recruitment and selection	.004	.923	Rejected	
	Training and development	.196	<b>.000</b>	Accepted	
	Performance appraisal	.357	<b>.000</b>	Accepted	
	Compensation	.160	<b>.000</b>	Accepted	
<b>H3b:</b> There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational procedural justice	Job analysis	.047	.331	Rejected	Partly Accepted
	Recruitment and selection	.056	.210	Rejected	
	Training and development	.125	<b>.004</b>	Accepted	
	Performance appraisal	.436	<b>.000</b>	Accepted	
	Compensation	.098	<b>.036</b>	Accepted	
<b>H3c:</b> There is a positive relationship between HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) and organizational interactional justice perceptions.	Job analysis	.068	.061	Rejected	Partly Accepted
	Recruitment and selection	-.012	.798	Rejected	
	Training and development	.195	<b>.000</b>	Accepted	
	Performance appraisal	.349	<b>.000</b>	Accepted	
	Compensation	.173	<b>.000</b>	Accepted	

## 5.8 Hypothesis Results and Findings for Organizational Justice and Turnover Intention

Before explaining the relationship between organizational justice and turnover intention, it was necessary to explain the correlation between all the sub dimensions of organizational justice and turnover intention. In the correlation analysis presented in Table 21, significant negative relationship was found between organizational justice (sub dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and turnover intention. To explain this relationship, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for organizational justice to reveal the effects on turnover intention. As a result of the regression analysis performed to determine the effect of organization justice perceptions on employee turnover intention, it was revealed that organizational justice (sub dimensions: distributive, procedural, and interactional justice perceptions) negatively affected and decreased employee turnover intentions (Table 28).

Acceptance and rejection of the hypotheses established according to the research model are presented in Table 37. Looking at H4 hypotheses, all sub hypotheses (H4a, H4b, and H4c) were accepted.

**Table 37**

### *Acceptance or Rejection of Hypotheses relating to Organizational Justice and Turnover Intention*

Hypotheses		$\beta$	$p$	Accepted or Rejected	
H4: There is a negative relationship between organizational justice (sub dimensions: Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice and Interactional Justice) and turnover intentions.	H4a: There is a negative relationship between distributive justice perceptions and turnover intentions.	-.320	.000	Accepted	Accepted
	H4b: There is a negative relationship between procedural justice perceptions and turnover intentions.	-.160	.032	Accepted	
	H4c: There is a negative relationship between interactional justice perceptions and turnover intentions.	-.228	.000	Accepted	

## **5.9 Hypothesis Results and Findings for Organizational Justice and OCB Variables**

In the correlation analysis presented in Table 21, significant positive relationships were found between organizational justice sub dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and OCB-I sub dimensions (altruism and courtesy). Likewise, significant positive relationships were discovered between organizational justice sub dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and OCB-O sub dimensions (conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue).

To understand this relationship, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for organizational justice sub dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) to reveal their effects on OCB. Results from regression analysis performed to determine the effect of organizational justice perceptions on employee OCBs revealed that procedural justice and interactional justice positively affected and increased OCB-I, whereas distributive justice demonstrated no effect (Table 29). Similarly, procedural justice and interactional justice positively affected and increased OCB-O (Table 30).

Acceptance and rejection of the hypotheses established according to the research model are presented in Table 38. Looking at H5, hypotheses H5b, H5c, H5e, and H5f are accepted and hypothesis H5a and H5d are rejected. Therefore, it can be concluded that the hypothesis H5 is partly accepted.

**Table 38*****Acceptance or Rejection of Hypotheses about Organizational Justice and OCB***

Hypotheses		$\beta$	$p$	Accepted or Rejected	
<b>H5:</b> There is a positive relationship between organizational justice perceptions (sub dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and OCB.	H5a: There is a positive relationship between distributive justice perceptions and OCB-I.	.026	.668	Rejected	Partly Accepted
	H5b: There is a positive relationship between procedural justice perceptions and OCB-I.	.278	<b>.001</b>	Accepted	
	H5c: There is a positive relationship between interactional justice perceptions and OCB-I.	.307	<b>.000</b>	Accepted	
	H5d: There is a positive relationship between distributive justice perceptions and OCB-O.	.113	.067	Rejected	
	H5e: There is a positive relationship between procedural justice perceptions and OCB-O.	.241	<b>.006</b>	Accepted	
	H5f: There is a positive relationship between interactional justice perceptions and OCB-O.	.228	<b>.004</b>	Accepted	

### **5.10 Hypothesis Results and Findings for OCB and Turnover Intention Variables**

In the correlation analysis presented in Table 21, significant negative relationships were discovered between OCB sub dimensions (altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) and turnover intention variables.

To explain this relationship, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for OCB (sub dimensions: altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue) in order to reveal their effects on turnover intention. As a result of the regression analysis performed to determine the effect of OCB on employee turnover intention, it

was revealed that altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue negatively affected and decreased employee turnover intention.

Acceptance and rejection of the hypotheses established according to the research model are presented in Table 39. Looking at H6, hypotheses H6a, H6c, H6d, and H6e are accepted and hypothesis H6b is rejected. Therefore, it can be concluded that the hypothesis H6 is partially accepted.

**Table 39**

*Acceptance or Rejection of Hypotheses Relating to OCB and Turnover Intentions*

Hypotheses		$\beta$	p	Accepted or Rejected	
<b>H6:</b> There is a negative relationship between OCB (sub dimensions: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue) and turnover intentions.	H6a: There is a negative relationship between altruism and turnover intentions.	-.239	.000	Accepted	Partly Accepted
	H6b: There is a negative relationship between courtesy and turnover intentions.	.036	.513	Rejected	
	H6c: There is a negative relationship between sportsmanship and turnover intentions.	-.249	.000	Accepted	
	H6d: There is a negative relationship between conscientiousness and turnover intentions.	-.081	.048	Accepted	
	H6e: There is a negative relationship between civic virtue and turnover intentions.	-.302	.000	Accepted	

## **Chapter VI – Discussion and Conclusion**

This chapter summarizes and discusses the key empirical findings of the quantitative analysis provided in the previous chapter. Specifically, the discussion addresses the research hypotheses and research question and relates the study outcomes to previous empirical findings and theoretical frameworks in relevant research areas. This is followed by an explanation of this study's contributions to the literature, its limitations, and recommendations for future studies.

### **6.1 Discussion**

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the impact of HRM practices, perceived organizational justice, and OCBs on employee turnover intentions. The discussion of the findings is mainly concentrated around the research hypotheses and research question. Specifically, this section addresses the key empirical findings and the gaps identified in the existing literature presented in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 and the findings of this study reported in Chapter 6. The present study includes a number of empirical findings that are of significance. Some findings regarding the variables under investigation and commercial banks in Kosovo are consistent with the existing literature, whereas others differ from the findings of previous empirical studies. Based on the findings of this study, the six research hypotheses and the research question outlined in Section 5.2 are discussed in detail.

#### **6.1.1. Discussion of the Findings on the Relationships between HRM Practices and Turnover Intention Variables**

The results from the hierarchical regression analysis reported in Chapter 6 demonstrate that Hypothesis 1, "There is a negative relationship between HRM practices and turnover intentions," is partially accepted. As a result of the regression analysis performed to calculate the effect of HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal,

and compensation) on turnover intentions, it was revealed that only performance appraisal and compensation negatively affected and decreased employee turnover intentions, whereas the other sub dimensions, such as job analysis, recruitment and selection, and training and development did not demonstrate any significant relationship with turnover intention. These findings indicated that HRM practices had a partial effect on reducing employee turnover intentions in the context of the Kosovo banking sector.

These results are partially consistent with the findings of the previous studies provided in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, which suggested that HRM practices, such as performance appraisal and organizational rewards were significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions (Bambacas & Kulik, 2013; He et al., 2016; Langove & Isha, 2017; Peretz & Fried, 2013; Williams et al., 2008). For example, these results are consistent with the findings of Bambacas and Kulik (2013), who revealed that among HRM practices, performance appraisal and organizational rewards reduced turnover intentions. Likewise, Williams et al. (2008) found that satisfaction with respect to procedures of compensation were negatively related to turnover intentions. In terms of performance appraisal, Peretz and Fried (2013) indicated that similarity among social cultures and performance appraisal characteristics tended to deter turnover and absenteeism. Furthermore, Langove and Isha (2017) identified rewards and recognition as motivational mechanisms that increased psychological well-being and decreased intention to quit. Furthermore, in terms of financial, material, and psychological rewards, De Gieter and Hofmans (2015) discovered a significant negative relationship between financial satisfaction, material and psychological rewards and turnover intentions.

This consistency in the findings can be explained by the fact that a well-structured performance appraisal procedure could contribute to the management of commercial banks in Kosovo to tailor performance objectives to the employees' KSAs, which in turn, could help bank employees to adjust their performance in alignment with banks' performance objectives and strategies. The alignment between organizations' performance objectives and employee's actual performance could lead to reduction of employee turnover intention in the banking sector in Kosovo. Another explanation for this consistency in the findings is that organizational performance appraisal system and

employees' perceptions about performance appraisal compensate for the matching effects of each other, resulting in significant effect of performance appraisal in employee turnover intentions. Moreover, the negative relationship between compensation and turnover intention can be explained by the fact that employees of banking sector in Kosovo expressed more value to the compensation practices in comparison to other HRM practices. This may be due to the fact that employees are more sensitive in reward allocation and fairness procedures in formal compensation systems. This indicates that the management of commercial banks in Kosovo need to pay attention to employees' preferences in reward allocations, and take this into consideration when devising their reward management practices in order to lessen the turnover intention of their employees.

By contrast, inconsistent with the findings of this study, the results of prior investigations suggest that HRM practices, such as employee training and development, internal mobility, and information sharing, were significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions. In this context, Benson et al. (2004) found that investment in employee training and development reduced turnover. Additionally, Gardner et al. (2011) found that collective affective commitment independently mediated the negative associations between motivation and empowerment-enhancing practices and collective voluntary turnover. Moreover, Erturk (2014) determined that information sharing and recognition practices reduced turnover intentions when mediated by LMX. Finally, Lee et al. (2018) studied the impact of perceived HRM practices (training, internal mobility, employment security, performance appraisal, rewards and job description) on employee affective commitment and intentions to quit and revealed that internal mobility had the strongest relationship with intention to quit.

Surprisingly, the results of this study were not consistent with the majority of prior studies that examined the relationship between HRM practices and turnover intentions. This study revealed that job analysis, recruitment and selection, and training and development practices were not significant factor for predicting employee turnover intentions. It can be assumed that these inconsistencies could be due to several reasons, such as the impact of national and organizational culture and industry context. Furthermore, since all HRM practices in this study were adopted from western culture (De Cieri & Kramar, 2008), the incompatibility between western HR practices and

Kosovo national culture may lead to the differing effects of HR practices. For example, the provision of training and development practices by the commercial banks in Kosovo may increase the value of employees in the market, and they can consequently gain more employment opportunities, which in turn can increase their turnover intention. Furthermore, job analysis and recruitment and selection practices take place in the very early phase of the employment life cycle; therefore, they do not show any direct impact in employee turnover intention.

### **6.1.2. Discussion of the Findings on the Relationships between HRM Practices and OCB Variables**

The results from the hierarchical regression analysis reported in Chapter 6 demonstrated that Hypothesis 2, “There is a positive relationship between HRM practices and OCB,” is partially accepted. As a result of the regression analysis performed to determine the effect of HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) on OCB-I, it was revealed that recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, and compensation sub dimensions positively affected and increased OCB-I. However, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation sub dimensions positively affected and increased OCB-O. These findings indicated that HRM practices had a partial effect in enhancing the OCBs of employees in the context of the banking sector in Kosovo.

These results were consistent with the findings of previous empirical findings provided in Chapters 2 and 3, which suggest that HRM practices, such as appropriate performance appraisals procedure and reward schemes (e.g., compensation and employee recognition programs) could encourage employee OCBs (Alfes et al., 2013; Becton et al., 2008; Fu, 2012; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Mostafa et al., 2015; Tang & Tang, 2012; Yang, 2012; Zheng et al., 2012). In this context, Yang (2012) found that high-involvement HRM practices (recognition, empowerment, competence development, fair rewards, and information sharing) played an important role in employee OCBs. Zheng et al. (2012) identified the positive relationship between the performance appraisal process and OCB. Tang and Tang (2012) revealed that high

performance HRM practices influenced employee perception about justice and the service climate in the organization, which in turn had a positive effect on collective service-oriented OCB. Fu (2013) found that high performance HRM practices had a positive effect on both OCB-I and OCB-O. Alfes et al. (2013) identified a positive relationship between HRM practices and OCB through the mediating effect of employee engagement. Mostafa et al. (2015) found that high performance HRM practices partially predicted OCBs. Kehoe and Wright (2013) found that employee perceptions of high performance HR practices were correlated positively to OCBs.

Interestingly, performance appraisal and compensation were identified as the most influential factors to impact OCBs. It can be assumed that this could be due to the fact that managers usually factor OCBs into their evaluations, whether or not they conducted performance evaluation and reward allocation with their employees through formal or informal means. Another reason could be that the effects of performance appraisal and compensation could vary depending on the motivation of the employees' exhibiting OCB, which could significantly influence employees' exhibition of OCBs. This is also explained by Becton, Giles, and Schraeder (2008) who suggested that if an individual who is intrinsically motivated to achieve OCBs and is rewarded for this behavior, it may have the unintentional impact of hindering this behavior in the future. However, an individual who was extrinsically motivated to perform OCBs and who was rewarded for this behavior through the performance evaluations and reward systems was more likely to continue engaging in OCBs.

### **6.1.3. Discussion of the Findings on the Relationships between HRM Practices and Organizational Justice Variables**

The results from the hierarchical regression analysis reported in Chapter 6 demonstrate that Hypothesis 3a, "There is a positive relationship between HRM practices and organizational distributive justice," is partially accepted. As a result of the regression analysis performed to determine the effect of HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) on organizational distributive justice, it was revealed that job analysis, training and development, performance appraisal, and

compensation were positively related to distributive justice perceptions. Likewise, the results from the hierarchical regression analysis demonstrated that Hypothesis 3b, “There is a positive relationship between HRM practices and organizational procedural justice,” is partly accepted. The results of the regression analysis performed to determine the effect of HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) on organizational procedural justice revealed that training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation were positively related to procedural justice perceptions. Finally, the results from the hierarchical regression analysis demonstrate that hypothesis 3c “There is a positive relationship between HRM practices and interactional justice” is partly accepted. As a result of the regression analysis performed to determine the effect of HRM practices (sub dimensions: job analysis, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation) on interactional justice, it was revealed that training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation were positively related to interactional justice perceptions. These findings indicated that HRM practices had a partial effect in strengthening organizational justice in the context of employees in the Kosovo banking sector.

These results were consistent with most of the findings of previous research provided in Chapters 2 and 3, which suggest that HRM practices, such as satisfaction with salary level, satisfaction with emotional rewards, communication, performance evaluation, and reward allocation could strengthen employee perceptions of organizational justice (Chen et al., 2016; Day et al., 2014; De Gieter et al., 2012; Farndale & Kelliher, 2013; Frenkel et al., 2012; Tremblay et al., 2010). Tremblay et al. (2010) indicated that HRM practices could encourage greater in-role and extra-role performance if they were acknowledged as forms of supporting and promoting procedural justice. Frenkel et al. (2012) found a positive association between HRM practices and procedural and distributive justice. De Gieter et al. (2012) revealed that satisfaction with emotional rewards played a mediating role in the association between organizational justice and intention to quit. Farndale and Kelliher (2013) revealed that trust in management had a moderating effect on the relationship between perception of fairness during the performance evaluation and employee level of organizational commitment. Day et al. (2014) discovered that communication, performance evaluation, and reward allocation mediated the relationship between employee need

and employee perception of justice. Finally, Chen et al. (2016) revealed that consistent HRM practices had a significant positive impact on procedural justice and psychological contract.

This consistency between the findings of this study and the findings in previous studies can be explained by the fact that employee perceptions of organizational justice can considerably be influenced by the allocation of training and development opportunities, fairness during the performance appraisal process, and reward allocation practices. This fact appears to be prevalent in most organizational and national cultures, regardless of the research context. The fact that job analysis and recruitment and selection did not show any relationship with organizational justice perceptions can be explained by the fact that employees who are affected by these practices have no chance to evaluate them because usually they are not formal parts of the organization when fairness criteria are set for these two practices. Furthermore, it can be speculated that employees' level of interest to evaluate these two practices is low during their pre-employment period.

#### **6.1.4. Discussion of the Findings on the Relationships between Organizational Justice and Turnover Intention Variables**

The results from the hierarchical regression analysis reported in Chapter 6 demonstrated that Hypothesis 4, "There is a negative relationship between organizational justice and turnover intention," is fully accepted. As a result of the regression analysis performed to determine the relationship between organizational justice (sub dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and turnover intention, it was revealed that distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice were negatively related to turnover intention. These findings indicated that organizational justice had a significant effect in reducing employee turnover intention in the context of the banking sector in Kosovo.

Overall, the evidence provided above is encouraging. These findings are consistent with previous empirical evidence provided in Chapters 2 and 3, which suggest that organizational justice sub dimensions, such as distributive, procedural and interactional justice were negatively related to turnover intentions (Flint et al., 2012;

Hausknecht et al., 2011; Herda & Lavelle, 2012; Karatepe & Shahriari, 2014; Kim et al., 2012; Moon, 2017). In this context, Hausknecht et al. (2011) demonstrated that employees' perceptions of justice affected work outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention, especially when there was a change in procedural justice perceptions. Furthermore, Kim et al. (2012) found that a high level of organizational justice significantly reduced employees' turnover intention. Herda and Lavelle (2012) revealed that organizational justice perception had a direct negative relationship with auditors' stress and their intention to quit. Flint et al. (2012) identified organizational commitment as a partial mediator in the relationship between procedural fairness and intention to quit, whereas supervisory commitment acted as a full mediator in the relationship between interactional fairness and intention to quit. Karatepe and Shahriari (2014) indicated that organizational fairness sub dimension (distributive, procedural, and interactional justice) had a direct negative relationship with intention to quit. Finally, Moon (2017) revealed that there was a negative relationship between distributive and interpersonal fairness and intention to quit.

Generally, the findings appear to validate the concept that employee intention to quit was significantly influenced by the following three factors: (1) the manner in which outcomes are distributed and rewards are allocated, (2) the procedures that are followed to determine how outcomes are distributed or how rewards are allocated, and (3) how people manage relations among themselves. As found in this study, all these three sub dimensions of organizational justice were negatively related to employee turnover intentions in the Kosovo banking sector. Therefore, the managers and policy makers in the commercial banks of Kosovo need to address all aspects of organizational justice, as it serves as a key catalyst to reduce employee turnover intentions.

#### **6.1.5. Discussion of the Findings on the Relationships between Organizational Justice and OCB Variables**

The results from the hierarchical regression analysis reported in Chapter 6 demonstrated that Hypothesis 5, "There is a positive relationship between organizational justice and OCB," is partly accepted. As a result of the regression analysis performed to determine the effect of organizational justice (sub dimensions:

distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) on OCB-I, it was revealed that only procedural justice and interactional justice sub dimensions positively affected and increased OCB-I. By contrast, regression analysis performed to determine the effect of organizational justice (sub dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) on OCB-O revealed that only procedural justice and interactional justice sub dimensions positively affected and increased OCB-O. These findings indicate that organizational justice had a partial effect in enhancing OCBs of employees in the context of the banking sector in Kosovo.

These findings are in line with the findings of Moorman (1991), who identified the positive relationship between organizational justice perceptions and OCB. To some extent, the findings of this study are also consistent with those of Elamin and Tlaiss (2015), who revealed that among organizational justice sub dimensions, interactional justice had the strongest relationship with OCB. Elamin and Tlaiss justified their results by making reference to the fact that Islamic culture promoted respect and courtesy when interacting with others. Similarly, this could be the reason in this study as well, since the national and organizational culture in Kosovo promotes respect and courtesy during interaction with others, and this influences individual's perceptions of interactional justice. However, similar findings were confirmed by Lim and Loosemore (2017), who conducted a survey of the construction supply chain in Australia. They found that interpersonal justice was a key component in enhancing employee OCBs and improving project performance.

By contrast, in terms of procedural justice, the findings of this study were also consistent with the findings of Özduran and Tanova (2017), who revealed that procedural justice climate moderated the effect of managerial coaching behavior on employee conscientiousness and altruism. In the context of the Kosovo banking industry, it can be speculated that this may be because procedural justice is perceived as a set of processes that are fairly applied through formalization and standardization procedures, which maintain a high level of OCB. Therefore, it can be suggested that improvements in formalized and standardized procedures will lead to increased OCB levels among the employees in banking industry in Kosovo.

### **6.1.6. Discussion of the Findings on the Relationships between OCB and Turnover Intention Variables**

The results from the hierarchical regression analysis reported in Chapter 6 demonstrated that Hypothesis 6, “There is a negative relationship between OCB and turnover intention,” is partially accepted. As a result of the regression analysis performed to determine OCB (sub dimensions: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, consciousness, civic virtue) on turnover intention, it was revealed that four out of five OCB sub dimensions (altruism, sportsmanship, consciousness, and civic virtue) were negatively related to turnover intention. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that OCB had a partial negative effect in reducing employee turnover intentions in the context of the Kosovo banking sector.

Generally speaking, at the individual level, it was found that OCBs had a negative but weak relationship with employee turnover intentions, whereas at the organizational level, OCBs had a strong negative relationship with turnover intentions. It can be argued that these findings shed light on a number of important issues in this field. For example, the finding that OCBs are negatively (although partially) related to turnover intentions is important for several reasons. First, these findings are consistent with the empirical findings of several researchers (Campbell & Im, 2016; Cho & Ryu, 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Sharoni et al., 2012; Tsai & Wu, 2010). For example, Cho and Ryu (2009) revealed that OCB (sub dimensions: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) were negatively associated with intention to quit, whereas only conscientiousness did not predict intention to quit. Similarly, Podsakoff et al. (2009) indicated that OCB was negatively related to absenteeism, intention to quit, and actual turnover. Tsai and Wu (2010) found that OCB had a negative relationship with intention to quit. On the other hand, Sharoni et al. (2012) revealed that organizational justice and organizational culture moderated the negative relationship between OCB and intention to quit. Finally, Campbell and Im (2016) revealed that change-oriented OCB mediated the relationship between public service motivation and intention to quit, providing conditions for motivated workers that in turn enhanced their OCB.

The results of this study clearly show that employees who exhibit low levels of OCBs were more likely to leave an organization than those who exhibited high levels of OCB. Therefore, organizations must try to encourage their employees to engage in

OCBs. If bank managers wish to maintain or improve the quality of services delivered to their clients and overall business performance, they should focus on retaining those individuals who are capable of exhibiting positive OCBs. However, OCB is also helpful for improving employees' task performance (Bergeron, 2007; Tsai & Wu, 2010). Therefore, employees should focus on the most proficient method to allocate their constrained time at work. Investing energy in OCBs might be useful in helping employees boost their career results, achieving a proper work-life balance, and reducing turnover intentions.

#### **6.1.7. Discussion on the Effect of Demographic Variables on Turnover Intentions**

The results from the difference analysis reported in Chapter 6 demonstrate that RQ1 (*Are there any differences in TI according to demographical variables such as gender, marital status, education, organization, and job position?*) is addressed and answered.

As a result of the difference analysis performed to explore any possible demographic differences in turnover intentions, it was revealed that there were no significant differences between gender and employee turnover intention in the Kosovo banking sector. These findings were consistent with Chin and Hung (2013), who examined the relationship between psychological contract breach and insurance industry workers' turnover intention. They found no significant differences between gender and turnover intentions. Similarly, Kismono (2011) discovered that gender had no impact on the relationships between males and females working in the Indonesian banking industry in regard to their levels of turnover intention. Interestingly, Weisberg and Kirschenbaum (1993) demonstrated that women had greater rates of actual turnover than man; however, they found no significant differences between men and women regarding turnover intention.

However, contrary to the results of this study, most previous studies indicated a significant difference between men and women regarding turnover intentions. For instance, Blomme et al. (2010) found that promotion opportunities were more related to employee turnover for women, but not for men. Furthermore, Moynihan and Landuyt

(2008) revealed that females were significantly less likely to state an intention to quit compared to males. Similarly, Hundera (2014) found that the effect of role stress on job satisfaction and intention to leave was higher among female academic staff. Callister (2006) indicated that both gender and department climate were related to both job satisfaction and intention to quit. Finally, Lai and Kapstad (2009) revealed that of the demographic variables included, only gender showed significant relationships with turnover intention, whereas no relationship was identified between education level and turnover intention and between tenure and turnover intention.

These differences in the findings may be explained by the fact that in some cultural contexts women often start their careers with much lower expectations than men, and they are ready to take career risks and change jobs. This view may be validated by Hall and Richter's (1990) perspective of the consecutive career style of females, which might be the outcome of a proactive approach of adjusting work and family duties. Furthermore, women often have to take care of home duties, such as child-bearing or child-rearing, which prompts them to quit their jobs. Therefore, it is suggested that family responsibility should be examined as a moderator between gender and turnover intention for future research in order to understand whether men would be affected from family responsibilities.

When the relationship between marital status and turnover intention was examined, it was revealed that there were no significant differences between married and nonmarried employees in terms of turnover intentions. These findings were consistent with the previous study of Allen et al. (2010), who found that demographic variables, such as education, marital status, sex, and race were relatively low predictors of turnover intentions. This was also consistent with the findings of Khan et al. (2013), who found that the role of demographic variables, such as age, gender, marital status, and educational levels did not affect the relationship between organizational commitment and the intention to quit. However, inconsistent with the findings of this study, Chen (2006) revealed that wage and marital status were the main factors impacting employee turnover intention. This was also substantiated by the findings of Masum et al. (2016), who found significant differences for intention to quit based on respondents' marital status. For example, people who were married were more likely to have a higher intention to quit.

When the relationship between education and turnover intention was examined, it was revealed that there were no significant differences between education levels in terms of turnover intentions for employees in the Kosovo banking sector. Interestingly, the findings of this study were inconsistent with those of previous studies that examined this relationship. Contrasting with the findings of this study, Blomme et al. (2010) found that measures of psychological contract explained a significant difference among education levels of employees regarding their turnover intentions. Likewise, Takase et al. (2014) found that the level of nurses' education was negatively related to their turnover intentions. Furthermore, Takase et al. (2016), discovered that nurses' perceptions of demanded competence was not related to turnover intentions; however, the nurses' perceptions of actual competence were negatively related to turnover intentions.

Like gender and marital status, education level was found to be another demographic variable that had no impact on turnover intention. It can be speculated that this could be due to the fact that, in Kosovo context, education level is not a key criteria to create more demand capital in the market; consequently, to have more employment opportunities which in turn can increase their turnover intentions. Another reason may be that employees with higher levels of tenure are usually assigned to higher managerial positions and are well accommodated in the organization and therefore have lesser turnover intentions. Therefore, it is suggested that future research should examine tenure and job position as a moderators between education level and turnover intention.

When the relationship between organization and turnover intentions was examined, it was revealed that statistically there were significant differences between these two variables among employees in the Kosovo banking sector. These findings are consistent with prior studies investigating the relationship between these variables. For example, Hwang and Chang (2009) found that work climate perception among public hospital nurses in Korea impacted their turnover intentions. Similarly, Dion (2006) discovered that the turnover intention of acute care nurses increased when they experienced occupational stress as a result of workplace incivility. Valentine et al. (2010) demonstrated that group creativity and corporate ethical values were negatively related to turnover intention. Akgunduz and Bardakoglu (2015) indicated a strong relationship between organizational prestige and employee turnover intention.

Finally, examination of the relationship between job position and turnover intention revealed that there was significant differences between these two variables among employees in the Kosovo banking sector. The findings of this study were consistent with those of previous studies scrutinizing the relationship between these variables. In this context, Mynatt et al. (1997) found that out of three demographic variables, only job position was found to have a significant relationship with job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Similarly, Lu et al. (2016) found that managers had significantly greater work engagement and lesser turnover intentions than front-line employees.

## **6.2 Potential Contributions and Limitations of the Study**

In addition to the discussion of the study findings, this chapter also sheds light on potential theoretical and practical contributions, limitations, and future research perspectives. In order to determine how commercial banks in Kosovo can implement HR systems that reduce employee turnover intentions, this thesis has developed a model illustrating the direct and indirect relationships between selected HRM practices, perceived organizational justice, OCBs, and turnover intentions.

### **6.2.1. Contributions to the Literature**

The present study makes some contributions to the existing literature in the area of HRM practices and turnover intentions relationships. The most important strength that distinguishes this study from other HRM practices research is that it analyzes HRM practices in five dimensions: job analysis and design, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and compensation. The multidimensional HRM practices scale used in the study was previously suggested by De Cieri and Kramar (2008), who divided HRM practices into six functions: (1) job analysis and design, (2) recruitment and selection, (3) training and development, (4) performance management, (5) compensation, and (6) employee relations. Five practices were selected from this model, excluding employee relations, which show a general HRM function as opposed to a specific HRM application. Using these dimensions as the main

five HRM practices, four items were developed for each sub dimension, inferring twenty items in total for the HRM practices scale for measuring whether these practices are being implemented or to what extent they are being implemented in the organization or in the job. Therefore, developing and translating the scale, applying it in five dimensions with its 20 items, and adapting it to Kosovan culture contributes potentially to the field in terms of preparing the ground for future studies.

Another contribution of this study is the application of a multidimensional organizational justice scale in the context of the banking sector in Kosovo. This scale was initially developed by Moorman (1991) as a 19-item scale and comprises of three sub dimensions that measure perceptions of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Like previous scales, the multidimensional organizational justice scale was translated and adopted to Kosovan culture, and this provides a potential contribution to researchers for future studies.

Employee OCBs were measured with a twenty-item scale, which was initially developed by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1989). This scale was grouped in five dimensions, including altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. Two items of this scale were focused on understanding behaviors directed to benefiting other individuals (OCB-I), and three items were focused on understanding the behaviors directed to benefit organizations (OCB-O). This scale was translated to Albanian and adopted to the context of the banking sector and the organizational culture in Kosovo. Furthermore, no previous studies have developed and translated such a scale for the Kosovan cultural context, and this also provides a potential contribution to researchers for future studies.

Finally, employee turnover intentions were measured with a seven-item scale adapted from the turnover subscale of the Michigan organizational assessment questionnaire (Cammann et al., 1979) and operationalized using Hom and Griffeth's (1991) conceptualization: thinking of quitting, intent to search for a new job, and intent to quit. This scale measured the degree to which the respondents thought of leaving their current organization, intention to search for a new job, and turnover intentions. Like previous scales, the turnover intentions scale was translated into Albanian and adopted to the cultural context of Kosovo, which also provides a potential contribution to future researchers in Kosovo in the domain of organizational behavior.

Furthermore, this study is the first to examine the interaction between HRM practices, perceived organizational justice and OCBs, and employee turnover intentions. Additionally, this study tested six main hypotheses (and 19 sub hypotheses), which were developed based on the hypothesized relationship between the variables. Furthermore, difference analysis was performed to explore any possible demographic differences in turnover intentions. The fact that the sample was selected and data were gathered from a wide range of participants who were employed in 10 commercial banks in various regions of Kosovo increases the generalizability and sampling strength of the findings.

Finally, this study also contributes to the literature regarding the local context as it brings empirical evidence from a relatively new cultural context. As emphasized in Chapters 3 and 4, there is a dearth of literature on HRM practices and turnover intentions relationships in Kosovo, as most of the studies in this domain have been conducted in developed countries (e.g., EU countries, U.S.A., Canada, China, Australia, and Korea). Therefore, the application of the proposed model to a sample of employees from the Kosovo banking sector should be considered as an empirical contribution to existing knowledge.

### **6.2.2. Contributions to Practice**

Regarding practical contributions, this research could provide many benefits to commercial banks in Kosovo. The findings of this study could help bank management review their HRM practices and organizational justice practices, as these are the key promoters for enhancing employee OCBs, which ultimately help commercial banks in reducing employee turnover intentions. The findings of this study could provide in-depth insight to practitioners about the potential impact of combined HRM practices on perceived organizational justice, OCBs, and turnover intentions, which in turn may affect organizational performance.

Another practical contribution is that commercial banks in particular must manage the turnover intentions of their valuable employees as they are core resources for providing quality customer services, improving business processes, and enhancing organizational performance in general. Above all, commercial banks should establish

sustainable relationships with their employees by focusing on their needs, enhancing their job satisfaction, and providing training and development programmes for them in order to retain the most valuable employees.

Furthermore, the findings of the study suggest that the relationship between HRM practices and turnover intention is direct as well as indirect. Hence, commercial banks in Kosovo should consider options for improving the organizational justice practices that further enhance employee OCBs. Since organizational justice is the best predictor of employee OCBs and turnover intentions, the management of Kosovo commercial banks should attempt to offer an environment that promotes equality and fairness procedures when outcomes are distributed and rewards are allocated as well as an environment that promotes healthy relationship among employees within the organization.

### **6.2.3. Limitations and Future Research Perspectives**

When discussing the findings of this study, numerous limitations ought to be considered in evaluating the reported results. Furthermore, the limitations of this study disclose a number of future research perspectives that are briefly discussed here.

Firstly, there is no general consensus among previous researchers on which HRM Practices could be used when examining the interactions among selected HRM practices and employee turnover intentions. Consequently, the five HRM practices selected for this study may not be representative and appropriate practices for employees in the commercial banks in Kosovo. Therefore, future researchers need to be cautious when combining different HRM practices to examine their impact on employee turnover intentions.

Secondly, this study was a cross-sectional study and examined only quantitative data that were collected from survey questionnaires. More specifically, this study did not examine longitudinal data to observe the impact of HRM practices, organizational justice perceptions and OCBs in turnover intentions in a longitudinal timeframe. This implies that cross-sectional studies cannot decisively determine the impact between variables, as in the case of longitudinal studies (Saunders et al, 2009). Moreover, in

addition to quantitative data, this study did not examine in-depth and qualitative data collected from interviews with bank employees. This precluded the study from generating findings from the mixed method, which has the potential to analyze richer data sets and produce more extended analytical outcomes (Molina-Azorin, 2011).

Thirdly, the present study collected the data based on the personal perceptions of bank employees, a process that is predisposed to lead to the common issue of method bias. Instead, turnover intention data could have been obtained as organizational data from HR and senior managers of the responding banks. This would have contributed toward better understanding these relationships and would eventually increase the generalizability of the results.

Finally, this study has only examined commercial banks in Kosovo, which represents a narrow focus. This may limit the ability to generalize the findings not only across other industries in Kosovo, but also within the banking industry in developed countries. This implies that the findings of this study may not be valid for the banking industry in developed countries because of the significant dissimilarities in cultural contexts.

### **6.3 Recommendations for Future Studies**

The limitations discussed above can generate prospects for future researchers to follow, which can eventually help establish the foundations for future studies on the determinants of turnover intentions. The insufficiencies of the research examining the relationship between HRM practices, organizational justice, OCB, and turnover intention in the national literature requires more attention from future researchers of this subject. It is particularly recommended to observe the impact of HRM practices, organizational justice perceptions, and OCBs on turnover intentions in a longitudinal study. Moreover, it is highly recommended for future researchers in this field to examine the relationship between HRM practices, organizational justice perceptions, OCBs, and turnover intentions in a mixed method study, which would provide feedback on how and why questions and eventually produce more extended analytical outcomes.

Finally, it is particularly important to examine this research model across other industries in Kosovo in order to test the validity of the multidimensional scales of HRM practices, organizational justice, OCBs, and turnover intention adopted to the national culture.



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# Appendixes

## Appendix 1

**Subject: A Request to Participate in Research**

Dear Respondent,

As part of my PhD thesis, I am currently conducting an empirical research under the supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Fatih Çetin from Nigde Ömer Halisdemir University in Turkey.

Your participation in this survey is highly appreciated and as such it will form a critical part of this research. Therefore, I would kindly ask you to share some of your valuable time to participate in this survey. Your participation is absolutely voluntary and you can withdraw from this survey at any time. Your individual privacy and confidentiality will be maintained in all published and written data analysis of this study. No reference will be made to any individual and results will be reported only in an aggregated form. No organization will be able to link your answers to your identity.

Should you have any uncertainty or you need additional information about this study, you can contact me at [artanveseli@hotmail.com](mailto:artanveseli@hotmail.com) or, at my phone no. +383 49 158 304. You can also contact my supervisor at [fcetin@ohu.edu.tr](mailto:fcetin@ohu.edu.tr)

You are welcome to contribute to this study by filling out the questionnaire as **you think it is** in your organization and **not how it should be**.

Thank you for your sincere and correct answers!

Sincerely,

Artan Veseli

PhD Candidate

## **Tema: Kërkesë për pjesëmarrje në hulumtim**

Të nderuar Pjesëmarrës,

Në kuadër të studimeve të Doktoratës, unë jam duke zhvilluar një hulumtim empirik nën udhëheqjen e Prof. Assoc. Dr. Fatih Çetin nga Universiteti “Niğde Ömer Halisdemir” në Turqi.

Pjesëmarrja juaj në këtë studim është shumë e çmuar dhe si e tillë do të jetë pjesë kritike e këtij hulumtimi. Prandaj, ju lutem që të shpenzoni disa nga koha juaj e çmuar për të marrë pjesë në këtë studim. Pjesëmarrja juaj është plotësisht vullnetare dhe ju mund të tërhiqeni nga ky studim në çdo kohë. Privatësia dhe konfidencialiteti juaj do të respektohet gjatë gjithë kohës dhe në të gjitha rezultatet dhe shkrimet e botuara të këtij studimi. Asnjë referencë nuk do t'i bëhet asnjë individi dhe rezultatet do të raportohen vetëm në formë të përmbledhur. Asnjë organizatë nuk do të jetë në gjendje të lidhë përgjigjet që ju jepni me identitetin tuaj.

Për cdo paqartësi apo informacion shtesë që dëshironi të keni në lidhje me këtë studim mund të më kontaktoni në adresën [artanveseli@hotmail.com](mailto:artanveseli@hotmail.com), apo në nr. e tel: +383 49 158 304. Gjithashtu ju mund të kontaktoni udhëheqësin tim në [fcetin@ohu.edu.tr](mailto:fcetin@ohu.edu.tr)

Jeni të mirëpritur të jepni kontributin tuaj në këtë studim duke plotësuar pyetësin ashtu **si e mendoni ju që është** në organizatën tuaj dhe **jo si duhet të jetë**.

Ju faleminderit për përgjigjet tuaja të sakta dhe të sinqerta!

Sinqerisht,

Artan Veseli

Kadidat për PhD

<b>Section A: Demographic questions</b>		
The following questions concern your position and other personal information. No individual data will be reported.		
<b>Pjesa A: Pyetje demografike</b>		
Pyetjet e mëposhtme kanë të bëjnë me pozitën tuaj dhe informacione tjera personale. Asnjë nga të dhënat tuaja individuale nuk do të raportohen.		
1	Your Age	_____ (years old)
1	Mosha juaj	_____ (vjeq)
2	Your Gender	<input type="checkbox"/> Female; <input type="checkbox"/> Male.
2	Gjinia juaj	<input type="checkbox"/> Femër; <input type="checkbox"/> Mashkull.
3	Your marital status	<input type="checkbox"/> Single; <input type="checkbox"/> Married; <input type="checkbox"/> Divorced; <input type="checkbox"/> Widowed
3	Statusi juaj martesor	<input type="checkbox"/> Beqar/e; <input type="checkbox"/> I/e martuar; <input type="checkbox"/> I/e divorcuar; <input type="checkbox"/> I/e ve
4	Your education	<input type="checkbox"/> High School; <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor; <input type="checkbox"/> Master; <input type="checkbox"/> PhD; <input type="checkbox"/> Other (if other, please specify) _____
4	Edukimi juaj	<input type="checkbox"/> Shkollimi i Mesem; <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor; <input type="checkbox"/> Master; <input type="checkbox"/> PhD; <input type="checkbox"/> Tjetër (nëse tjetër ju lutem specifikoni) _____
5	Name of your organization	<input type="checkbox"/> BANKA KOMBËTARE TREGTARE <input type="checkbox"/> BANKA KREDITORE E PRISHTINËS <input type="checkbox"/> NLB BANKA <input type="checkbox"/> BANKA PËR BIZNES <input type="checkbox"/> TURKIYE CUMHURIYETI ZIRAAT BANKASI <input type="checkbox"/> BANKA EKONOMIKE <input type="checkbox"/> RAIFFEISEN BANK KOSOVO <input type="checkbox"/> PROCREDIT BANK <input type="checkbox"/> TEB SH.A. <input type="checkbox"/> TURKIYE IS BANKASI
5	Emri i organizatës tuaj	<input type="checkbox"/> BANKA KOMBËTARE TREGTARE <input type="checkbox"/> BANKA KREDITORE E PRISHTINËS <input type="checkbox"/> NLB BANKA <input type="checkbox"/> BANKA PËR BIZNES <input type="checkbox"/> TURKIYE CUMHURIYETI ZIRAAT BANKASI <input type="checkbox"/> BANKA EKONOMIKE <input type="checkbox"/> RAIFFEISEN BANK KOSOVO

		<input type="checkbox"/> PROCREDIT BANK <input type="checkbox"/> TEB SH.A. <input type="checkbox"/> TURKIYE IS BANKASI
6	Your tenure in this organization	_____ (number of years)
6	Qëndrimi juaj në këtë organizatë	_____ (numri i viteve)
7	Your Current position in this organization	<input type="checkbox"/> Cashier; <input type="checkbox"/> Loan analyst; <input type="checkbox"/> Financial analyst; <input type="checkbox"/> Low level manager; <input type="checkbox"/> Medium level manager; <input type="checkbox"/> High level manager; <input type="checkbox"/> Other (if other, please specify) _____
7	Pozita juaj aktuale në këtë organizatë	<input type="checkbox"/> Arkë; <input type="checkbox"/> Analist i kredive; <input type="checkbox"/> Analist financiar; <input type="checkbox"/> Menaxher i ulët; <input type="checkbox"/> Menaxher i mesëm; <input type="checkbox"/> Menaxher i lartë; <input type="checkbox"/> Tjetër (nëse tjetër ju lutem specifikoni) _____

<b>Section B</b>		1. Absolutely disagree	2. Disagree	3. Somewhat agree	4. Agree	5. Absolutely agree
<p>From each of the following sentences, please circle the number that best fits to your opinion, regarding the application of Human Resource Management practices in your organization.</p> <p>1. Absolutely disagree <math>\longleftrightarrow</math> 5. Absolutely agree</p>						
<b>Seksioni B</b>		1. Nuk pajtohem aspak	2. Nuk pajtohem	3. Pajtohem mesatarisht	4. Pajtohem	5. Plotësisht pajtohem
<p>Për secilën nga fjalitë e mëposhtme, ju lutem rrethoni numrin që i përshtatet më së miri mendimit tuaj, lidhur me aplikimin e praktikave të Menaxhimit të Burimeve Njerëzore në organizatën tuaj.</p> <p>1. Nuk pajtohem aspak <math>\longleftrightarrow</math> 5. Plotësisht pajtohem</p>						
1	My particular job duties and requirements were determined in detail.	1	2	3	4	5
1	Detyrat dhe kërkesat për vendin tim të punës kanë qenë të përcaktuara në detaje.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My job responsibilities were clearly written.	1	2	3	4	5

2	Përgjgjësitë e punës time kanë qenë të përshkruara qartë.	1	2	3	4	5
3	The knowledges, skills, and abilities (KSA's) required to perform the job were clearly specified.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Njohuritë, aftësitë dhe shkathtësitë e kërkuara për të kryer këtë punë, kanë qenë të përshkruara qartë.	1	2	3	4	5
4	The social and psychical conditions to perform a job were identified.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Kushtet fizike dhe sociale për të kryer këtë punë kanë qenë të identifikuar.	1	2	3	4	5
5	My job position was advertised in appropriate sources with clear and attractive job specification.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Pozita ime e punës ka qenë e shpallur në mënyrë adekuate me specifika të punës të qarta dhe atraktive.	1	2	3	4	5
6	My selection process was done based on clear assessment criteria.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Procesi i përzgjedhjes time ka qenë i bazuar në kritere vlerësuese të qarta.	1	2	3	4	5
7	The decision for hiring me was taken based on a best match between organization's requirements and my skills and qualifications.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Vendimi për pranimin tim në punë është marrë bazuar në përputhje me kërkesat e organizatës dhe aftësive dhe kualifikimeve të mia	1	2	3	4	5
8	My appointment was done based on the critical and fair evaluation after the interview process	1	2	3	4	5
8	Emërimi im është bërë bazuar në një vlerësim të dretjës pas një procesi intervistues.	1	2	3	4	5
9	In my organization, there are formal training programs for being able to do job better.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Në organizatën time, ka programe formale të trajnimit për të mundësuar që të bëjmë punën më mirë.	1	2	3	4	5
10	In my organization, there are training programs for enhancing employee's knowledge, skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5

10	Në organizatën time, ka programe të trajnimit të cilat mundësojnë përmirësimin e njohurive, aftësive dhe shkathtësive të punonjësve.	1	2	3	4	5
11	In my organization, there are clear career path plans	1	2	3	4	5
11	Në organizatën time, ka plane të qarta për zhvillim të karrierës.	1	2	3	4	5
12	In my organization, employee's career aspirations are known by immediate supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Në organizatën time, aspiratat e punonjësve për avancim në karrierë janë të njohura nga mbikqyrësi i tyre i drejtpërdrejtë.	1	2	3	4	5
13	In my organization, there is formal evaluation system for measuring employee's performance.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Në organizatën time, ekziston një sistem formal për vlerësimin e performancës së punonjësve.	1	2	3	4	5
14	My job results based on my job responsibilities are measured with some standards.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Reultatet e punës time maten sipas disa standardeve, duke u bazuar në përgjegjësitë e punës time.	1	2	3	4	5
15	My immediate supervisor provides periodic feedback to me about my performance.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Mbikqyrësi im i drejtpërdrejtë më jep vlerësime periodike në lidhje me performancën time.	1	2	3	4	5
16	The performance appraisal process is used for salary determination, career advancement, or training needs.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Procesi i vlerësimit të performancës përdoret për qëllime të përcaktimit të pagës, avancimit në karrierë, ose nevojave për trajnim.	1	2	3	4	5
17	In my organization, there is formal compensation management system for employees' salary/benefits in exchange of their work.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Në organizatën time, ka sistem formal të menaxhimit të kompensimit për pagën / përfitimet e punonjësve në këmbim të punës së tyre.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Monetary and also non-monetary rewards are defined in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Shpërblimet monetare dhe jo monetare janë të përcaktuara në punën time.	1	2	3	4	5

19	In my organization, there is used a compensation management system for equating fairly my job to the others.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Në organizatën time, përdoret një sistem i menaxhimit të kompensimit për të vlerësuar drejtë punën time në raport me të tjerët.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I get paid for the work I do based on a formal compensation system.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Unë paguhem për punën që bëj, bazuar në një sistem formal të kompensimit.	1	2	3	4	5

Section C		1. Absolutely disagree	2. Disagree	3. Somewhat agree	4. Agree	5. Absolutely agree
<p>From each of the following sentences, please circle the number that best fits your perception regarding the application of justice in your organization.</p> <p>1. Absolutely disagree <math>\longleftrightarrow</math> 5. Absolutely agree</p>						
Seksioni C		1. Nuk pajtohem aspak	2. Nuk pajtohem	3. Pajtohem mesatarisht	4. Pajtohem	5. Plotësisht pajtohem
<p>Për secilën nga fjalitë e mëposhtme, ju lutem rrethoni numrin që i përshtatet më së miri perceptimit tuaj, lidhur me zbatimin e drejtësisë në organizatën tuaj.</p> <p>1. Nuk pajtohem aspak <math>\longleftrightarrow</math> 5. Plotësisht pajtohem</p>						
1	I think that my level of pay is fair.	1	2	3	4	5
1	Unë mendoj se niveli i pagës time është i drejtë.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I consider my work load to be quite fair.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Unë e konsideroj që ngarkesa e punës time është mjaft e drejtë.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Në përgjithësi, shpërblimet që marr në punë janë mjaft të drejta.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Unë mendoj se përgjegjësitë e mia të punës janë të drejta.	1	2	3	4	5

5	Job decisions are made by my manager in an unbiased manner.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Vendimet e punës mirren nga menaxheri im në mënyrë të paanshme.	1	2	3	4	5
6	My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Menaxheri im sigurohet që të gjitha shqetësimet e punonjësve të dëgjojen para se të merren vendimet rreth punës.	1	2	3	4	5
7	To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Para se të marrë vendime që kanë të bëjnë me punën, menaxheri im mbledh informacione të sakta dhe të plota.	1	2	3	4	5
8	My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Menaxheri im sqaron vendimet dhe ofron informacione shtesë kur kërkohet nga punonjësit.	1	2	3	4	5
9	All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Të gjitha vendimet e punës aplikohen vazhdimisht për të gjithë punonjësit.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their manager.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Punonjësit kanë të drejtë të kundërshtojnë ose të ankohen në vendimet e punës të cilat i merr menaxheri i tyre.	1	2	3	4	5
11	When decisions are made about my job, my manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Kur merren vendime për punën time, menaxheri im më trajton me dashamirësi dhe konsideratë.	1	2	3	4	5
12	When decisions are made about my job, my manager treats me with respect and dignity.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Kur merren vendime për punën time, menaxheri im më trajton me respekt dhe dinjitet.	1	2	3	4	5
13	When decisions are made about my job, my manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	1	2	3	4	5

13	Kur merren vendime për punën time, menaxheri im është i ndjeshëm ndaj nevojave të mia personale.	1	2	3	4	5
14	When decisions are made about my job, my manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Kur merren vendime për punën time, menaxheri im më trajton mua me sinqeritet.	1	2	3	4	5
15	When decisions are made about my job, my manager shows concern for my rights as an employee.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Kur merren vendime për punën time, menaxheri im tregon kujdes për të drejtat e mia.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Concerning decisions made about my job, my manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Sa i përket vendimeve për punën time, menaxheri im diskuton me mua rreth implikimeve të këtyre vendimeve.	1	2	3	4	5
17	My manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Menaxheri im më ofron arsytetime adekuate për vendimet e marra që lidhen me punën time.	1	2	3	4	5
18	When making decisions about my job, my manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Kur merren vendime për punën time, menaxheri im më ofron shpjegime që kanë kuptim për mua.	1	2	3	4	5
19	My manager explains very clearly any decision made about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Menaxheri im më shpjegon shumë qartë çdo vendim që merr në lidhje me punën time.	1	2	3	4	5

<p><b>Section D</b></p> <p>From each of the following sentences, please circle the number that best reflects your behavior in your working place.</p> <p>1. Absolutely disagree   &lt;—————&gt;   5. Absolutely agree</p>	1. Absolutely disagree	2. Disagree	3. Somewhat agree	4. Agree	5. Absolutely agree

<b>Seksioni D</b> Për secilën nga fjalitë e mëposhtme, ju lutem rrethoni numrin që reflekton më së miri sjelljen tuaj, në vendin tënd të punës. 1. Nuk pajtohem aspak ←————→ 5. Plotësisht pajtohem		1. Nuk pajtohem aspak	2. Nuk pajtohem	3. Pajtohem mesatarisht	4. Pajtohem	5. Plotësisht pajtohem
<b>1</b>	I help my coworkers who have heavy work-loads.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>1</b>	Unë ndihmoj kolegët e mi të cilët kanë ngarkesa të rënda në punë.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>2</b>	I help my coworkers who have been absent.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>2</b>	Unë ndihmoj kolegët e mi të cilët kanë munguar në punë.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>3</b>	I willingly give of my time to help my coworkers who have work related problems.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>3</b>	Unë me dëshirë ndihmoj kolegët e mi të cilët kanë probleme që lidhen me punën.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>4</b>	I help orient my new coworkers even though it is not required.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>4</b>	Unë ndihmoj kolegët e mi të rinj që të orientohen në punë edhe kur një gjë e tillë nuk kërkohet nga unë.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>5</b>	I consult with my coworkers who might be affected by my actions or decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>5</b>	Unë konsultohem me kolegët e tjerë të cilët mund të preken nga veprimet ose vendimet e mia.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>6</b>	I do not abuse the rights of my coworkers	1	2	3	4	5
<b>6</b>	Unë nuk abuzoj me të drejtat e kolegët e mi	1	2	3	4	5
<b>7</b>	I take steps to prevent problems with my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>7</b>	Unë bëj veprime të cilat parandalojnë problemet me kolegët e mi.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>8</b>	I inform my coworkers before taking any important actions.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>8</b>	I informoj kolegët e mi para se unë të ndërmarr ndonjë veprim të rëndësishëm.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>9</b>	I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters. (R)	1	2	3	4	5

9	Unë konsumoj shumë kohë duke u ankuar për gjëra të parëndësishme.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I make problems bigger than they are. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
10	Unë i bëj problemet më të mëdha se sa që janë	1	2	3	4	5
11	I constantly talk about wanting to quit my job (R)	1	2	3	4	5
11	Unë vazhdimisht flas që dua të lë punën time	1	2	3	4	5
12	I always focus on what is wrong with my situation, rather than the positive side of it (R)	1	2	3	4	5
12	Unë gjithmonë fokusohem në atë që është negative në punën time, në vend që të fokusohem në anën positive.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I am always punctual.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Unë jam gjithmonë i përpiktë.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I never take long lunches or breaks.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Unë kurrë nuk kaloj kohë të gjatë në dreka apo pushime.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I do not take extra breaks.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Unë nuk marr pushim shtesë	1	2	3	4	5
16	I obey organization's rules, regulations and procedures even when no one is watching.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Unë i përmbahem rregullave, rregulloreve dhe procedurave të organizatës, edhe kur askush nuk është duke më shikuar.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I keep abreast of changes in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Unë i përcjellë nga afër ndryshimet në organizatë.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I attend functions that are not required, but that help the organization's image.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Unë marr pjesë në aktivitete që nuk kërkohet, por që ndihmojnë imazhin e organizatës.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I attend and participate in meetings regarding the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Unë marr pjesë në takime lidhur me organizatën.	1	2	3	4	5
20	"I keep up" with developments in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5

20	Unë “eci në hap” me zhvillimet në organizatë.	1	2	3	4	5
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Section E		1. Absolutely disagree	2. Disagree	3. Somewhat agree	4. Agree	5. Absolutely agree
<p>From each of the following sentences, please circle the number that best reflects your intention to leave / stay in your organization.</p> <p>1. Absolutely disagree <math>\longleftrightarrow</math> 5. Absolutely agree</p>						
Seksioni E		1. Nuk pajtohem aspak	2. Nuk pajtohem	3. Pajtohem mesatarisht	4. Pajtohem	5. Plotësisht pajtohem
<p>Për secilën nga fjalitë e mëposhtme, ju lutem rrethoni numrin që reflekton më së miri tendencën tuaj për t'u larguar / qëndruar në organizatën tuaj.</p> <p>1. Nuk pajtohem aspak <math>\longleftrightarrow</math> 5. Plotësisht pajtohem</p>						
1	I plan to work at my present job for as long as possible	1	2	3	4	5
1	Unë planifikoj të punoj këtë punë për aq kohë sa të jetë e mundur	1	2	3	4	5
2	I will most certainly look for a new job in the near future	1	2	3	4	5
2	Unë me siguri do të kërkoj një punë të re në të ardhmen e afërt	1	2	3	4	5
3	I plan to stay in this job for at least two to three years	1	2	3	4	5
3	Unë kam ndërmend të qëndroj në këtë punë për të paktën dy deri në tre vjetet e ardhshme	1	2	3	4	5
4	I would be reluctant to leave this job	1	2	3	4	5
4	Unë do të hezitoja të largohesha nga kjo punë	1	2	3	4	5
5	Often I have considered quitting my current job	1	2	3	4	5
5	Unë shpesh e kam shqyrtuar mundësinë të largohem nga puna ime aktuale	1	2	3	4	5
6	I'm likely to be looking for a new job in the coming period	1	2	3	4	5
6	Ka gjasa që une të kërkoj punë të re në një periudhë të ardhshme	1	2	3	4	5
7	As soon as possible I will leave the institution I work for	1	2	3	4	5
7	Unë do të largohem nga institucioni për të cilin punoj sa më shpejt që të jetë e mundur	1	2	3	4	5

## Appendix 2

### CURRICULUM VITEA

#### PERSONAL INFORMATION

- Name: **Artan VESELI**
- Academic credentials: Dipl. Ecc., MBA, PhD Candidate
- Professional credentials: PMP<sup>®</sup>, ISO 9001 LA, Prosci Change Manager
- Date and place of birth: 21.09.1975, Gjilan, Kosovo
- Nationality: Kosovo
- E-mail: [artanveseli@hotmail.com](mailto:artanveseli@hotmail.com)
- Phone: +383 49 158 304



#### EDUCATION AND PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

##### EDUCATION:

**April 2020**

**PhD Candidate - in Business Administration**

**Nigde Omer Halisdemir University – Turkey**

- Graduate School of Social Sciences
- Department of Business Administration
- Award: PhD in Business Administration – General
- Thesis: The Effect of Human Resource Management Practices, Perceived Organizational Justice, and Citizenship Behaviors on Turnover Intention: An Investigation of the Kosovo Banking Sector.

**October 2014**

**Master in Business Administration (MBA)**

**Staffordshire University – UK**

- Faculty of Business and Law
- Award: MBA – General - Master in Business Administration with Distinction
- Thesis: Assessment of Critical Success Factors for Strategic Planning in Residential Construction Sector in Kosovo

**October 2010**

**University - Bachelor of Science**

**University of Prishtina – Kosovo**

- Faculty of Economy

- Department: Management and Informatics – University of Prishtina
- Award: Diploma in University Education, Dipl. Ecc.

### **PROFFESIONAL QUALIFICATIONS:**

**Prosci - Change Management Certified Practitioner** - Certified in the Change Management process in accordance with PROSCI methodologies and tools. Tiba Managementberatung GmbH – Munich Germany 11/2019.

**ISO 9001 Lead Auditor** - training courses and certification exam PECB ISO 9001 LA – Professional Evaluation and Certification Board PECB – Canada 04/2016

#### **Project Management Professional (PMP)**

Project Management Institute (PMI) PA-USA PMP Certificate no: 1850591,  
Certification date 09/2015 valid through 09/2021

**Project Management Professional preparatory course** - American University in Kosovo in collaboration with Rochester Institute of Technology NY-USA – Training and Development Institute 03/2015 – 06/2015

### **WORK EXPERIENCE**

#### **01/2020 - Present**

#### **VAMED Management und Services GmbH – Fresenius Group**

**Change Management Lead & Deputy Project Manager** - Implementation of National Health Information System (NHIS) Project in the Kingdom of Tonga

Key responsibilities include:

- Implement Change Management according to Prosci Methodology within the project of National Health Information System in the Kingdom of Tonga.
- Meet project’s objectives on time and on budget by increasing employee adoption and usage, while focusing on the people side of change, including changes to business processes, systems and technology, job roles and organization structures.
- Create and implement change management strategies and plans that maximize employee adoption and usage and minimize resistance.
- Drive faster adoption, higher ultimate utilization and proficiency with the changes that impact employees.
- Act as a coach for senior leaders and executives within MoH in the Kingdom of Tonga in helping them fulfill the role of change sponsor.
- Provide support to all levels of managers and supervisors by providing them with change management tools.
- Monitor and control project baselines such as costs, schedule and scope.
- Regularly report out on project status including risks and issues, variances and mitigation plans.
- Interface with external and internal stakeholders to coordinate project requirements.
- Communicate with the sponsor and key stakeholders on project issues, including executive level and interdepartmental presentations.

- Maintain a good working relationship between the project team, internal resources, vendors and interfacing organizations.

**07/2017 - Present**

**VAMED Services Kosovo LLC – Fresenius Group**

**Managing Director**

**Healthcare Management**

Key responsibilities include:

- Direct and control the work and resources of the Company and ensure the recruitment and retention of the required numbers and types of well-motivated, trained and developed staff to ensure that it achieves its mission and objectives.
- Prepare a plan and annual business plan and monitor progress against these plans to ensure that the Company attains its objectives as cost-effectively and efficiently as possible.
- Establish and maintain effective formal and informal links with major customers, relevant government departments and agencies, local authorities, key decision-makers and other stakeholders generally, to exchange information and views and to ensure that the Company is providing the appropriate range and quality of services.
- Prepare, gain acceptance, and monitor the implementation of the annual budget to ensure that budget targets are met, that revenue flows are maximized and that fixed costs are minimized.
- Oversee the preparation of the Annual Report and Accounts of the Company and ensure their approval by the Board.
- Develop and direct the implementation of policies and procedures to ensure that the Company complies with all health and safety and other statutory regulations.
- Other responsibilities include business development activities such as identifying strategic partners and clients in the region, aiming to further penetrate into the regional markets through value creation.
- Establishing and sustaining effective relationships with various stakeholders in healthcare sector to foster an environment with strong cooperation and to ensure that Company is providing quality of services.

**10/2016 – 07/2017**

**VAMED Services - Kosovo LLC – Fresenius Group**

**Project Manager** – Implementation of Health Information System (HIS) Project in the Republic of Kosovo

Key responsibilities include:

- Working closely with Network Operation Centre (NOC) team in setting up the NOC and its management throughout the life cycle of the project.
- Overseeing the training of health providers of the public health institutions included in the HIS Pilot Phase of its Roll-out.
- Maintaining the relationship with the various stakeholders like, contracting authority, donator, healthcare providers and other local and international partners.
- Developing and implementing change management strategies and plans according to Prosci Methodology that maximize employee adoption and usage and minimize resistance.
- Acting as a coach for senior leaders and executives and helping them fulfill the role of change sponsor.
- Establishing and sustaining effective relationships with various stakeholders in healthcare sector to foster an environment with strong cooperation and to ensure that Company is providing quality of services.

**01/2016 - Present**

**University of Applied Sciences in Ferizaj - KOSOVO**

**Part time Associate Lecturer**

Teaching courses:

- Strategic Management
- Operations Management
- Quality Management

**11/2015-09/2016**

**E&A Engineering L.L.C – WI – USA**

**Senior Consultant for Project Management and ISO 9001 QMS**

Key responsibilities include providing consultancy services, mainly in the fields of Project Management, Business Development and Quality Management System.

- **Project Management** - Responsible to coordinate clients' cross-functional project teams on small to medium-sized projects. Key responsibilities include: participation during initial development of tender documents to understand the system's functional and contract requirements and identify the scope as well as estimate the time, cost and risk; creation of WBS; development of detailed network-based schedules; providing client with instructions on how to use project management tools and techniques and how to generate status memos for key stakeholders.
- **Operational Efficiency** – Responsible to provide trainings and consultancy to our clients for operational efficiency and continuous improvement. The emphasis is given to operations management which includes process design, layout and flow, job design, capacity and inventory management, supply chain management, quality and process improvement management.
- **Quality Management System** – Responsible for analyzing the client's organization current state and accordingly providing them consultancy which enables their team to develop the necessary expertise to support an organization in implementing and managing a QMS based on ISO 9001:2015 standards.

**10/2014 – 6/2016**

**Riinvest College - Department of Staffordshire University Franchise Program - UK**

**Part time Associate Lecturer**

Teaching courses:

- Operations Management

**05/2005 – 09/2015**

**CLASSIQUE L.L.C. – KOSOVO**

**Co-owner / General Manager**

With over 10 years of experience as an entrepreneur I have consistently created sustainable business through strategic planning and strong leadership. The key to my

success in developing businesses relies in three key areas: Business Strategy, Operational Efficiency, and Sales Optimization.

- Business Strategy - As part my business strategy I have built strong strategic partnerships with my suppliers and customers, developed innovative marketing programs and created sustainable distribution networks.
- Operational Efficiency – My consistent contributions to operational efficiency and continuous improvement are a direct result of strong effort given to operations management which includes process design, store layout and flow, job design, capacity and inventory management and supply chain management.
- Sales Optimization – Improving and optimizing revenues can only be achieved in companies with strong leadership with appropriate reward structures for all employees. I've experienced more than a decade of consistent sales growth by identifying, coaching, mentoring and supporting the best talent.
- Responsible for devising and implementing business strategy, quality initiatives, process change initiatives and providing support and guidance to operations manager to achieve operations performance objectives.
- Responsible for developing succession planning strategies which enabled identification, development and retention of talented workforce at all levels of the business. This included training and development, professional growth, health and safety of employees and performance leadership.
- Other responsibilities included all aspects of project management by working closely with international and domestic suppliers, customers and relevant government agencies and other stakeholders generally in different projects that company was involved.

## **SKILLS/LANGUAGES**

**IT skills:** MS Windows, Mac OS, MS Office package, E-learning Platforms, Adobe Pro, HIS, ERP, SPSS.

### **Languages:**

- Albanian (native),
- English (fluent),
- Serbian, Croatian, Bosnian (fluent),
- Turkish (moderate),
- German (basic)