

CHAPTER TWO

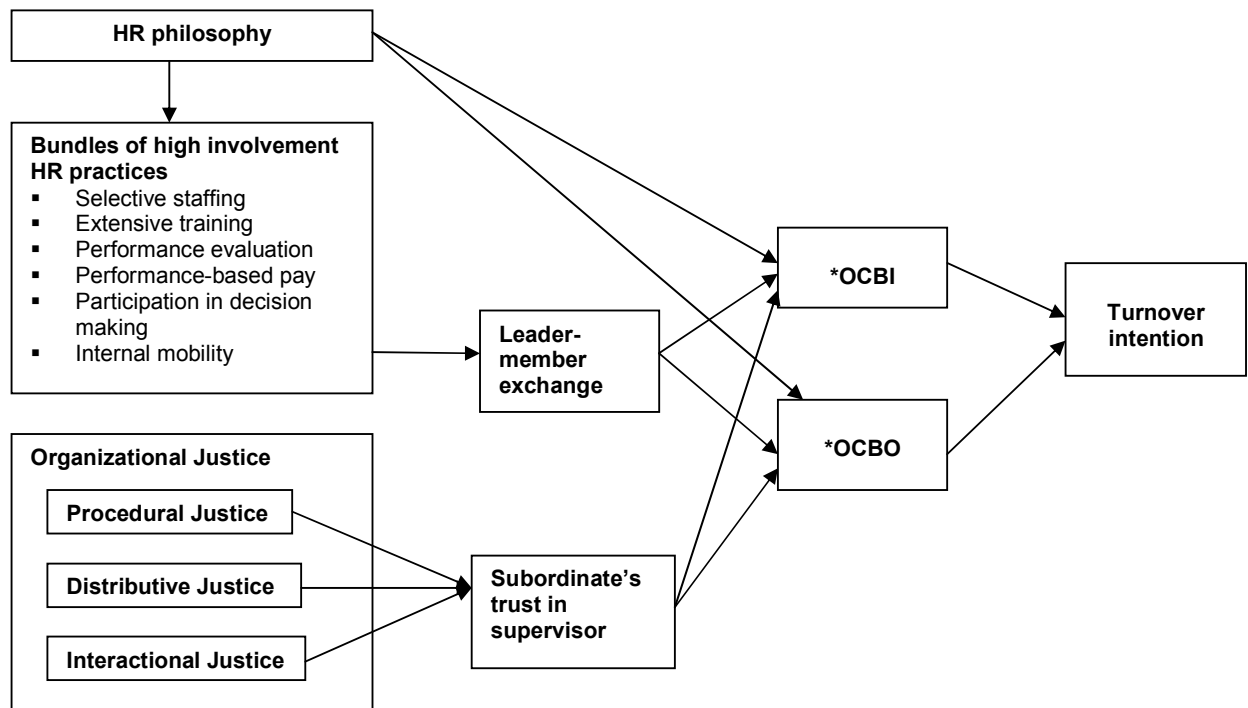
LITERATURE REVIEW

Since OCB and turnover intention are the major variables pivoting around the other constructs, the discussion in the following sections starts with a detailed review of the conceptual foundation of OCB before proposing hypotheses linking to HR philosophy, high involvement HR practices, organizational justice, leader-member exchange and trust in supervisor as antecedents and mediators. The expected end result of OCB is to lower employees' turnover intention. Literature review webbing the relationships among all these constructs is presented based on the sequence of hypotheses formulation, as depicted in Figure 2.1.

2.1 Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

OCB is defined in the present study as discretionary behaviour directed at individuals or at the organization as a whole, which goes beyond existing role expectations and benefits or is intended to benefit the organization (Organ, 1988). This definition stresses three main features of OCB. First, the behaviour must be voluntary; that is, neither role-prescribed nor part of the formal duties. Second, the behaviour benefits the organization from the organizational perspective. The important point here is that OCBs do not simply occur haphazardly within an organization, but are behaviours directed towards, or seen as, benefiting the organization (Van Dyne, Cummings & McLean, 1995). Third, OCB has a multidimensional nature.

Figure 2.1 Proposed Research Framework



*OCBI = Organizational citizenship behaviour benefiting individuals in organization

**OCBO= Organizational citizenship behaviour benefiting organization

The essence of OCB sparked off as early as 1964 when Katz (1964) introduced the importance of a class of discretionary and spontaneous behaviour that are beyond explicit role requirements, that are essential for organizational effectiveness. The term ‘organizational citizenship behaviour’ was officially conceptualized after Smith, Organ & Near (1983) studied the nature and antecedents of such behaviour. Subsequently, Organ (1988:4) defined it as “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization.” Such behaviour are “discretionary” because these extra role performance are not specified in job description or employment contract, thus not formally required from employees and neither can they be enforced, in whatsoever manner. Similarly, withdrawal or omission of such behaviour does not

result in any punishment. Examples of OCB include willingness to help, gestures of goodwill, cooperation among co-workers, prevention of problem, contribution of ideas and so forth. More than 20 years had passed after such definition was coined and concepts of OCB have certainly evolved over decades.

Compared to other constructs such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, leadership and others, one may conclude that OCB has a relatively short history. However, throughout this life span of 20 years, the importance of OCB had seen a rapid increase with a great amount of research done and numerous articles published in this area. Podsakoff et al. (2000) reviewed the literature on OCB and found that in the years of 1983 and 1999, more than 200 studies had been published. This widespread interest in OCB stemmed from the fact that these helping behaviour contributed significantly to organizational effectiveness because such behaviour “lubricate” the social machinery of the organization and reduce conflicts, thus increasing efficiency at the workplace. Podsakoff, Ahearne & Mackenzie (1997) summarized the reasons of why OCB influence organizational effectiveness. Among reasons cited are OCB may enhance co-worker productivity; enhance managerial productivity; free resources up for more than productive purposes; reduce the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions; serve as an effective means of coordinating activities between team members and across work groups; enhance the organization’s ability to attract and retain the best people by making it a more attractive place to work; enhance the stability of organizational performance and enhance an organization’s ability to adapt to environmental change. Specific examples given to illustrate these reasons can be seen in Appendix B.

Many scholars have researched extensively on the antecedents of OCB as well as the consequences of having such behaviour in organizations. Antecedents of OCB

can be placed into four major categories: individual (or employee) characteristics (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983; Organ 1988), task characteristics and organizational characteristics (Podsakoff et al., 1993; Podsakoff and Mackenzie, 1995; Podsakoff, Mackenzie & Bommer, 1996a; Podsakoff, Mackenzie & Bommer, 1996b) and leadership behaviour (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1996b). The majority of the early research focused on antecedents leading to OCB. Recent studies have paid more attention to the consequences of OCB, addressing the two key issues: the effects of OCB on managerial evaluations of performance and judgments regarding pay rises, promotions, etc; and the effects of OCB on organizational performance and success. The empirical evidences provided by this extensive research have led OCB to become one of the important parts in the field of organizational behaviour.

The relevance and significance of OCB are further extended when scholars continue to research this subject matter over diverse disciplines such as human resource management (Borman and Motowild, 1993; Podsakoff et al., 1993; Murphy & Shiarella, 1997; Pare & Tremblay, 2007; Sun et al., 2007), marketing (Mackenzie, Podsakoff & Ahearne, 1998; Bell & Menguc; 2002), hospital and health administration (Bolon, 1997; Organ, 1990b), strategic management (Kim & Mauborgne, 1993, 1996, 1998) and international management (Chen et al., 1988; Farh, Earley & Lin, 1997).

Majority of the research investigating OCB has rooted from and are predominantly based on the social exchange theory (Eisenberger, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994). According to Blau (1964), two types of exchange relationships may arise between social entities, namely economic and social. While the economic exchange is contractual in nature with roles expected from employees clearly specified, rewards as well as benefits offered strictly

on commercial basis; the social exchange, in contrast, is based on mutual trust, attraction and unspecified obligations (Gouldner, 1960). Unlike economic exchanges which are transactional in nature, social exchanges do not occur on a calculated basis. Based on the social exchange theory, when treated in a fair and justified manner, the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) follows, whereby employees will fairly discharge the desired behaviour in a long run (Holmes, 1981). Social exchange theory identifies the conditions under which people feel obligated to reciprocate when they benefit from some person's or some entity's actions (Lambert, 2000). Organ (1988) proved that OCB is one likely avenue for such employee reciprocation.

However, in the early days when organizational behaviour was recognized as a discipline, many theorists and researchers were active explaining variance in individual job performance and job satisfaction, two popular dependent variables under massive investigation in 1980s. These researchers contented that, just like job satisfaction, it is cognitions rather than affect which would lead to OCB. Given that job satisfaction measures reliably correlate with measures of OCB (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Motowidlo, 1984; Puffer, 1987; Smith et al., 1983), and given that a cognitive appraisal component dominates in satisfaction measures, it would seem to follow that cognitions rather than affect drive OCB. Organ & Konovsky (1989) tested the relative importance of subjective appraisals of the job (cognition) versus mood state in accounting for org participated in this study and reported their typical mood state at work and appraisals of their jobs and their pay, and supervisors provided ratings of employee OCB. Subjects' evaluations of the job, notably with respect to pay, account ted for more unique variance in OCB than did the mood measures. This findings concluded that the measures of cognitions, that is, subjective appraisals of job outcomes, surpassed measures of characteristic mood states in the power to predict job-related prosocial behaviours (OCB), at least when measurement of the latter derives from the

supervisor's knowledge or assessments. The implication is that characteristic OCB has a deliberate, controlled character, somewhat akin to conscious decision making rather than expressive emotional behaviour. A practical implication of these findings, then concerns the means by which organizations could influence the extent of OCB among participants. If OCB were mainly a function of affect, and if—as Watson and Clark (1984) have concluded—affect is largely a dispositional variable, then organizations would have to rely on personnel selection as the means of determining OCB. On the other hand, if OCB is more a function of people's subjective appraisal of fairness, then questions of organizational governance become practical issues in their effect on participants' discretionary contributions.

2.1.1 The importance OCB in service industry

Significantly, employee attitudes cannot influence organizational effectiveness on their own; employees are expected to behave appropriately and willingly. Two employee behaviours that are important to many managers are job performance and retention. This study addresses the aspect of performance behaviour in the form of OCB and it aims to address employee's turnover intention. There are several reasons why OCB can determine organizational performance. Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), aggregate citizenship behaviours would improve group performance because they bring people to work together more closely (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1997). Employees who assist each other would not have to seek help from the supervisors, allowing supervisors more time to attend to other work assignments. OCB would also help coordinate activities among team members and across groups (Podsakoff, 1997). For example, courteous people tend to inform each other about

some nonroutine updates, allowing them to be prepared for any problem mitigation. Many empirical evidence supports this theory.

In one cross-sectional study, OCBs were correlated with job satisfaction, perceived fairness, organizational commitment and leader supportiveness (Organ & Ryan, 1995). OCB can also contribute to customer satisfaction (Morrison, 1995). Conscientiousness employees would go beyond customer expectations; altruistic workers would help both internal and external customers; those exhibiting civic virtue would contribute their ideas to improve quality and customer satisfaction. In one cross-sectional study, civic virtue, sportsmanship and altruism were positively correlated with financial results and customer satisfaction (Walz & Niehoff, 1996).

George & Bettenhausen (1990) explored the relationship between the helping behaviour and performance of sales people from 33 retail stores that were part of a national chain. Each store comprised a work group. Helping behaviour was operationalized as customer service and was defined as the degree to which sales people engaged in helpful behaviours toward customers. Objective performance was assessed by calculating total sales per store during a two month period following the completion of questionnaires. Results indicated that customer service was related to sales performance.

Also worth noting are two other broad categories of OCB (Williams & Anderson, 1991): OCBI, behaviours that immediately benefit particular individuals and thus indirectly contribute to the organization; and OCBO, behaviours that benefit the organization as a whole. For example, among teachers, OCBI could be staying after school hours to help a student with learning materials; or helping a colleague who has a heavy workload. OCBO might include volunteering for unpaid tasks, or making innovative suggestions to improve the school. The distinction between the two is

important because it has been suggested that these two forms of OCB may have different antecedents (e.g. Williams & Anderson, 1991; McNeely & Meglino; 1994; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004). Bogler & Somech (2005) tested the relationship between teachers' participation in decision making with OCBI-OCBO and found that teachers who were involved in decision making tend to exhibit OCBs towards their students and colleagues (OCBI) as well as towards the school as a whole (OCBO).

In the context of service industry, Borman & Motowidlo (1993) observed that some types of OCB "are probably more appropriate for certain types of organizations than others. Service companies including hotels have special requirements on dimensions related to dealing with customers and representing the organization to outsiders" (1993: 90). Accordingly, Bettencourt & Brown coined the term "service-oriented OCB" to describe "discretionary behaviours of contact employees in servicing customers that extend beyond formal role requirements" (1997: 41). Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter (2001) developed a typology of service-oriented OCB with three dimensions: loyalty, participation, and service delivery. Through loyalty service oriented OCB, employees act as advocates to outsiders not only of their organization's products and services, but also of its image. In participation service-oriented OCB, employees take individual initiative, especially in communications, to improve their own service delivery and that of their organization and coworkers as well. This form of service oriented OCB is fundamental to an organization's ability to meet the changing needs of its customers. In service delivery which incorporates OCB, employees behave in a conscientious manner in activities surrounding service delivery to customers. Although OCBs are critical to the performance of all organizations (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997), the nature of a service organization makes this class of discretionary behaviours particularly important.

First, the intangibility of service makes customers sensitive to cues indirectly related to service when they are evaluating its quality. Second, customers participate in the service production process in that they provide both information and labor inputs. Lastly, the production and consumption of service occur simultaneously (Bowen & Schneider, 1988; Schneider & Bowen, 1993). The defining attributes of service suggest that “the customer experience is as important as, if not more important than, the consumer good” (Bowen & Waldman, 1999: 164–165). Thus, it becomes important to understand how a service sector organization, particularly hospitality in this study, creates an environment that motivates behaviours that go beyond formal job requirements and are particularly functional for achieving desirable customer outcomes. As a strategy for managing the employment relationship, high involvement human resource practices, such as selective recruitment, extensive skills training, and promotion from within, constitute an organization’s inducements that, by satisfying employee goals, foster the perception of the work environment as being supportive. The positive benefits of a supportive work environment enjoyed by employees obligate them to reciprocate with behaviours that benefit the organization (Blau, 1964).

Thus, based on the above empirical evidence, one can conclude that OCB is definitely an important determinant for organizational effectiveness, more so in the service industry. The target respondents of this study which include frontline employees are definitely the key persons who need to be motivated to work beyond job requirements because only with such willingness, organizational well-being and growth will follow suit.

2.2 High Involvement HR Practices, HR Philosophy, and OCB

2.2.1 HR Practices' Attribution: HR Philosophy

Bowen & Ostroff (2004) argued that the causal chain between HR practices and organizational performance may be more complex than thought. It was suggested that the employees' perception of these HR practices may precede the employees' attitudes and behaviour in the causal chain. For high involvement HR practices to induce the desired behaviour on the part of these employees, such practices must first be perceived and interpreted as fair, unambiguous, supportive and positive. For example, the pay for performance practice will not exert any influence on employees' behaviour if the employees attribute such move as a means of controlling costs by pushing for employee maximum productivity per dollar spent on labour cost (Deckop, Mangel & Cirka, 1999), even though management is sincere in rewarding employees according to their worth (Spreitzer, 1995).

Pare & Tremblay (2007) studied the relationship between high involvement HR practices (characterized by recognition, empowerment, fair rewards, competence development and information sharing) and OCB-helping behaviour but no significant association was found. This finding suggested that the employees' negative attribution to HR practices might be at play, in which they perceive such implementation as benefiting the organization more than the employees. Varying attributions or reasonings made by employees for the HR practices have brought about different implications (Nishii, Lepak & Schneider, 2008). Some employees respond negatively toward HR practices due to the attributions they make about the management's purposes in implementing such practices.

For example, organizations may recognize the need to train and develop employees in all aspects so as to avoid their skills from being confined to only one specific area and subsequently job rotation can follow to prevent boredom at workplace. This, however, may not be perceived by employees. Employees may perceive such intensive training and development programmes to be motivated by a desire from management to cut cost which is associated with a reduction in number of hiring, thus they react negatively and resent such practices. It is, therefore, highly essential for HR practitioners to implement HR practices in a way that leads to the desired employee's attitudes and performance. Rather than focusing solely on managerial assessments of fit among HR practices and evaluation on how HR practices can contribute to employee performance, practitioners should realign employee assessment of fits by creating a "visible" attribution they can rely upon. In view of this, the researcher suggested incorporating "HR philosophy" as the driver of the formulation of high involvement HR practices and examines the possibility of inducing OCB through such values embraced by the organization.

Bae & Lawler (2000) confirmed that HR management values significantly contributed to the formulation of high involvement HR strategy. Employees' perception over high involvement HR practices could be realigned and reaffirmed through the HR philosophy embraced by the organization. An organization's HR philosophy dictates the over-arching beliefs and values with regards to how employees should be treated (Schuler, 1992). For example, if an organization views its employees as a short term resource that is dispensable and easily replaced, the exchange relationship between employee and employer would be economic-based and not social-based. Social exchange relationship arises only when long term commitment is shown by management, valuing employees as an asset (Morrison, 1995).

Therefore, an organization which places a high importance in building long term relationship with its employees is more likely to foster commitment and trust which are the main ingredients for OCB. Eisenberger et al. (1986) and Witt (1991) contended that employees form generalized beliefs about the extent to which their organization appreciates their contribution and cares about them, and such beliefs lead to OCB. This implied that employees who perceived the organization as caring, satisfying most of their needs, will foster a social exchange relationship with employers and thus, reciprocating by performing discretionary behaviour.

Therefore, the formulation of high involvement HR strategy should be driven by HR philosophy and core values that emphasize the significance of employees as a source of competitive advantage. Specifically, Butler, Ferris & Napier (1991), Lado & Wilson (1994), Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright (1997) and Ulrich (1997) investigated the different types of links between HR managers and the firms' top executives. They concluded that when top management values human capital as a source of competitive advantage, this will enhance its link to HR management function, where the stream of practices are more integrative and invites reciprocity, and consequently HR managers will have greater voice in top-level organizational formulation. With the focus on management objectives, HR policies and practices are used to shape employee characteristics, attitudes and behaviour for the effective execution of different types of job tasks (Galbraith, 1977; Drazin & Van de Ven, 1985; Govindarajab, 1988; Jackson, Schuler & Rivero, 1989). To date, very limited studies have been done in examining the importance of HR philosophy. However, six criteria established by Lewin & Yang (1992) can be relied upon in determining whether such management values are espoused by an organization:

1. Top management gives much priority to human resource issues in the firm

2. Top management regards human resource as a less valuable asset than other resources (e.g. financial resources)
3. Top management believes that human resource policies and practices definitely contribute to firm's performance
4. Top management gives more emphasis to profits over employee welfare
5. Top management strongly believes that people and human resource policies and practices are sources of competitive advantage
6. Top management considers the person in charge of human resource as a strategic partner in the formulation and implementation of business strategy

When employees attribute high involvement HR practices to HR philosophy embraced by the organization, they will be more obliged to reciprocate by performing at a level desired by management and even beyond management's in-role requirement, i.e. OCB. Therefore, the researcher posits:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between HR philosophy and bundles of high involvement HR practices.

Hypothesis 2a: There is a significant relationship between HR philosophy and the subordinates' willingness in exhibiting OCBI.

Hypothesis 2b: There is a significant relationship between HR philosophy and the subordinates' willingness in exhibiting OCBO.

2.2.2 High involvement HR Practices: Effects and importance

In response to these longstanding and repeated criticisms that HR does not add value to organizations, the past 20 years has seen numerous research attempting to

demonstrate that progressive HR practices result in higher organizational performance. A substantial body of human resource management (HRM) research has investigated the relationship between HRM and different indicators of organizational performance (e.g. Arthur, 1994; Batt, 2002; Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Guthrie, 2001; Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995; Wood, 1999). Overall, results suggest substantial benefits from effectively managing human resources, although many questions remain unanswered (e.g. Delery, 1998; Wright & Sherman, 1999; Wright & Snell, 1998).

Few questions relevant to this study are addressed here: (1) whether and how HRM practices many enhance or complement each other; (2) should these practices be collectively (bundled) or individually practiced; (3) what makes high involvement HR practices (also called high performance work systems or high commitment practices (Wood, 1999)) different from the generic HR management approaches; and (4) why researcher choose to link high involvement HR practices with the two indicators of organizational effectiveness, namely OCB and turnover intention.

Lawler (1986), following Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills & Walton (1984) investigated four broad HRM policy areas: HR flow (recruitment, selection, training and development), work systems (control, teamwork, job specificity), reward systems (wages and performance assessment), and employee influence (employee participation and ownership). Although conceptually distinct, research suggests that, continuum should be conceptualized as ranging from a “buy-bureaucratic” to “make-organic” type of HRM system (Bae, 1997). The “buy-bureaucratic” type of HRM is roughly equivalent to “cost-reduction” or “control” type of HRM systems, while “make-organic” type of HRM is equivalent to ‘commitment maximizing” or high performance work systems” (Arthur, 1992; Pfeffer, 1994; Walton, 1985). Organizations with a “make” orientation place emphasis on the internal development of human resource

competencies and those with “buy” orientation tend to acquire human resource competencies through the search in external market. This literally explains how the terms “organic” and “bureaucratic” are related to behaviour management of employees (Wright & Snell, 1991). “Bureaucratic” organizations achieve control and coordination via rules and procedures, while “organic” organizations allows development of internal culture and enhances employee commitment. This is consistent with Blau (1964) social exchange theory where “bureaucratic” organizations most likely invite economic exchange relationship from employees where they work according to their job requirements; and social exchange relationship which is more of reciprocal in nature is central to “organic” organizations in which employees tend to perform discretionary behaviour beyond what is required of them.

Delery & Doty (1996) identify three different ways of analysing the link between HR practices and organizational performance, which they label the universalistic, the contingency and the configurational approach. The universalistic approach focuses on the effectiveness of individual HR practices, irrespective of each other or the wider context, whereas the basic premise of the contingency approach is that HR policies need to be in line with the context in which they operate to have beneficial effects. The configurational approach is of interest here and focuses on how ‘patterns’ of HRM practices (rather than single practices) are related to dependent variables. HRM is seen as a coherent system. Unique combinations of HR practices are assumed to enable the organization to achieve its goals. Authors focus on ‘bundles’, ‘systems’, or ‘configurations’ of HRM and their impact on firm performance (Arthur, 1992, 1994; Delery & Doty, 1996; MacDuffie, 1995). According to Ichniowski et al. (1997), such combinations of HRM practices have bigger effects on productivity than the sum of the component effects due to individual practices. The assumption is that synergistic effects take place, resulting in maximal performance. Also, multiple unique

configurations may result in such maximal performance – the assumption of equifinality (Doty & Glick, 1994).

Huselid's (1995) groundbreaking study demonstrated that a set of HR practices he referred to as high performance work systems (HPWS) were related to turnover, accounting profits, and firm market value. Since then, a number of studies have shown similar positive relationships between HR practices and various measures of firm performance. For instance, MacDuffie (1995) found that “bundles” of HR practices were related to productivity and quality in his sample of worldwide auto assembly plants. Delery & Doty (1996) found significant relationships between HR practices and accounting profits among a sample of banks. Youndt, Snell, Dean & Lepak (1996) found that among their sample of manufacturing firms, certain combinations of HR practices were related to operational performance indicators. More recently, Guthrie (2001) surveyed corporations in New Zealand and found that their HR practices were related to turnover and profitability. This vein of research has been summarized by Huselid & Becker who stated “Based on four national surveys and observations on more than 2,000 firms, our judgment is that the *effect* of a one standard deviation *change* in the HR system is 10– 20% of a firm's market value” (Huselid & Becker, 2000, p. 851, emphasis added).

As a result, many organizations acknowledged the need to increase employees' motivation and commitment at work by adopting bundles of human resource management practices. Such a move has been warmly welcomed by employees and top management as the effects of such adoption are reflected in the increase of not only employee job satisfaction but also customer satisfaction. In aggregate, this contributed to greater organizational responsiveness and financial performance. These initiatives have been variously labeled as “high performance” because of their potential to

improve organizational functioning, or “high involvement” as they aimed to increase employee participation, commitment and accountability while leading to higher levels of employee work satisfaction (Lawler, 1986; Pfeffer, 1998; Godard, 2004).

For instance, Arthur (1994) found, in his study of steel minimills, that operating following a commitment-orientation resulted in greater labour efficiency, lower scrap rates, and an average turnover rate 50 percent lower than in minimills operating under a control-orientation. Similarly, a study of publicly-traded companies found that those adopting high performance work systems experienced lower turnover and higher employee sales. High performance work systems were also associated with increased performance in terms of market and accounting-based measures (Huselid, 1995). Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg & Kalleberg (2000) conducted a comprehensive study of high performance work systems in three industries, and found that high performance work systems were related to both beneficial organizational outcomes, such as productivity and financial performance, and employee experiences by improving incentives, trust in management, and perceptions of intrinsic rewards. Similarly, Ramsay et al. (2000) found that high performance work practices positively related to labour productivity, financial performance, and service quality, and negatively related to turnover.

High involvement work systems differ from traditional approaches in deploying human resources because this work systems view employees as an organizational asset rather than simply an expense to be incurred (Wood & Wall, 2002). In order to be considered as high involvement work systems, the workplace has to be characterized by high levels of employee involvement and empowerment in decision making, greater degree of worker trust, strong goal alignment of worker effort with management priorities, more teamwork, greater emphasis on employee training and development,

selective hiring approaches, guarantees of job security, and performance-based reward systems (Pfeffer & Viegas, 1999).

The humanistic values inherent in such approaches are based upon four basic principles: partnership, equity, accountability, and ownership (Porter-O'Grady and Wilson, 1997). This view believed that when treated in a justified and fair manner, employees are willing to perform and even excel at higher levels. Interestingly, most of the management practices included or identified as "high involvement, are driven by people-oriented policy and more humanistic in nature, the important ingredients for inculcation of a good and healthy workplace" (Lowe, 2004). Godard (2004:349) suggested that these practices acted by "enabling and motivating workers to develop, share and apply their knowledge and skills more fully than do traditional [workplace] practices, with positive implications on the quality of jobs as well as on performance."

Nonetheless, due to a number of theoretical and methodological limitations highlighted in recent reviews of literature (Ferris et al., 1999; Batt, 2002; Boselie, Dietz & Boon, 2005), to date there is no consensus on specifying which combinations of practices are most useful (Ichniowski, Shaw & Prennushi, 1997). The nature of interaction between HRM and performance, especially on the lookout for clear evidence showing direct, positive impact of the former on the latter, remains cloudy and invites further research. Boselie et al. (2005) reviewed 104 refereed journal articles of HRM-performance relationship published between 1994 and 2003, attempting to address these questions: what is the theory about HRM; which work practices should be incorporated in a well-designed HRM; what is the theory about performance; which dimensions of performance exactly matter and how should these HRM practices and dimensions of performance be linked. They assessed whether or not commonalities and readable trends exist in the theoretical perspectives, conceptualizations and

methodologies used in the field of HRM and performance. However, no conclusive picture was formed out of this study on what HRM is or even what it is supposed to do but Boselie et al. (2005) confirmed that the “linking mechanism” between HRM and performance could be attributed to mediating variables affecting its relationship.

Many researchers acknowledged the existence of “black- box” whereby they agreed that little is known of what happens at this stage i.e. what HRM does to improve performance, how and why. To ascertain that “black-box” proposition lies true in HRM-performance relationship, previous studies have identified significant mediating factors through the analysis of stepwise regression, structural equation modeling and hierarchical linear modeling. Among the common mediators which proved to have fit into the “black-box” definition bridging the relationship between HR and performance are perceived fairness (Meyer & Allen, 1997), commitment (Meyer & Smith, 2000; Whitener, 2001; Ahmad & Schroeder, 2003), organizational climate (Rogg, Schmidt, Schull & Schmitt, 2001; Gelade & Ivery, 2003), employee morale and employee involvement (Vandenberg, Richardson & Eastman, 1999), increase in employees’ skills and motivation (Park, Mitsuhashi, Fey & Bjorkman, 2003). Similarly, Youndt (2000) reported that HR practices do not directly influence the organizational performance. These practices set the right tone by building motivated, intellectual human capital which eventually leads to value creation in the organization. Thus, HR practices bring about organizational effectiveness indirectly through the enhancement of significant mediators such as the above mentioned. In essence, these “black box” of “unseen stages” have been explained through the conceptualization of employees’ perception and experience.

Consistently, many scholars debated over the requirement for a fit between the strategy of the organization, its operating culture and value system, and the various

practices implemented. This implied that the positive effects brought about by high involvement HR practices can only be reaped if these practices are properly designed, and aligned well with the cultural values among organizational members, business strategy and other organizational support which is deemed necessary to facilitate these mechanisms. Yeung, Brockback & Ulrich (1991) contended that the role of organizational culture and climate may be pivotal in understanding the potential of these practices at work.

Based on the above “mixed” and non-conclusive perspectives, researcher aims to examine the effects of high involvement HR practices on reducing employees’ turnover intention (one of the measures of organizational effectiveness) through OCB, offering a new attempt in explaining “black-box” phenomenon. Although empirical evidence has shown HR practices do increase OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000), none of the studies has tested the influence of bundles of high involvement HR practices on OCB. It would be interesting to ascertain which high involvement practices are applicable to hotel frontline employees in Malaysia and whether turnover intention among these employees can be reduced through inducement and inculcation of OCB.

Pare & Tremblay (2007) examined the impact of high involvement HR systems on OCB which included contemporary HR practices such as recognition, empowerment, fair organizational rewards, competence development, and information-sharing practices and tested on highly skilled information technology professionals but no significant links was found between the two; Sun et al. (2007) studied on a rather comprehensive high involvement HR systems by incorporating selective staffing, extensive training, internal mobility, employment security, clear job description, results-oriented appraisal, incentive reward and participation but this HR systems was linked to the service-oriented citizenship behaviour which differs from OCB as coined

originally by Organ (1988). None of the studies have tested the link between bundles of high involvement HR practices and OCB (as coined by Organ, 1988), even though Morrison (1996) conceptually supported OCB as a critical link between HR practices and service quality. The researcher benchmarked this study against Sun et al. (2007) which focused on service-oriented OCB. It was concluded by Sun et al. (2007) that the service-oriented OCB partially mediated the relationships between high involvement HR practices. In this study however, the researcher focused solely on OCB as how it was coined originally by Organ (1988). While organizations expect frontline employees to willingly display a service-oriented discretionary behaviour toward serving the external customers as this contributes to service quality (Morrison, 1996; Williams & Sanchez, 1998; Yoon, Beatty, & Suh, 2001; Bienstock, DeMoranville & Smith, 2003), and serving internal customers including supervisors, colleagues and co-workers in the organization, at exceptional levels, is highly desired. For example, a receptionist may help a checked-in customer (external customer) to find his or her way to the restroom. Such action, though trivial, creates a sense of goodwill besides enhancing customer's experience. Similarly, if the receptionist assists a concierge (internal customer) who is suddenly overburdened with a high number of customers checking into rooms with lots of luggage to be carried, the kind of help given by the receptionist, which is not specified in his job requirement, amounts to a form of OCB. Such 37behaviour should be encouraged as it not only eases hotel operation but improves the relationship among co-workers.

Underpinned by a social exchange model and relational approach, the application of high involvement HR practices signifies management long-term investment on employees and this engenders a sense of obligation on the part of employees to reciprocate by exhibiting discretionary behaviour which contributes to organizational effectiveness (Blau, 1964). Because high involvement HR practices

reflect management's willingness in fostering shared perceptions of a supportive organizational climate which employees expect, this builds up the relational view of employment relationship that induces employees to reciprocate by engaging in extra role behaviour, working cooperatively with others and spending less time doing things that do not benefit the organization (Leana & Van Buren, 1999). The inducement-contribution model (March & Simon, 1958) dictated that employee and employer relationship is relational when characterized by the conditions of interdependency, mutuality and reciprocity (Hall, 1996). When both employer and employee hold the same expectations regarding their respective goals, management inducements provided by the employer leads to the employee's sense of obligation to reciprocate by exhibiting desirable behaviour which in return, promotes the continuous attainment of the goals of employer (Blau, 1964).

Morrisson (1996) maintained that an organization's approach to HR management is instrumental in inducing OCB. Levels of OCB performed by employees are contingent upon the way an organization managed its HR, which sets the tone and conditions of the employee-employer relationship. The adoption of high-involvement work practice reflects management's effort in promoting humanistic values, cares about their well-being, and enhances mutual trust. On the basis of reciprocity norms, employees will be inclined to increase their personal contribution and efforts and ultimately exhibit extra-role behaviour (Tsui, Pearce, Porter & Tripoli, 1997). The positive association between high-involvement HR practices and OCB is also supported by Organ (1990), who argued that extra-role behaviour are performed by employees only when a social, not an economic, exchange contract characterizes the employee-employer relationship. These extra-role behaviour are highly desired because these behaviour contributed to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and

psychological contexts that supports task performance in the organization (Organ, 1997).

Before proposing the third hypothesis, the next section illustrates the justifications for the researcher's choice of six HR practices, bundled as high involvement HR practices.

2.2.2.1 Selective Staffing

An organization's selection and socialization practices play significant roles in establishing the tone of employee-employer relationship (Shore & Tetrick, 1994). Selective staffing policy requires an organization to spend a great amount of time and money in choosing candidates rigorously on the basis of how well they fit into the organization's overall culture, rather than solely on the basis of how qualified they are for the specific job. This has been referred to as a person-organization fit. Research on strategic selection and staffing (Gerstein & Reisman, 1983; Olian & Rynes, 1984) suggests that organizations whose hiring practices engender a good match (or fit) between the characteristics of employees and the requirements of organizational strategy will likely achieve superior performance compared to firms whose selection practices do not emphasize employee-strategy fit (Gupta & Govindarajan, 1986).

Correspondingly, a holistic approach to personnel selection, emphasizing the alignment of the "whole" person (rather than knowledge, skills and abilities) and the whole organization (rather than the requirements of a specific job) has been suggested (Bowen, Ledford & Nathan, 1991; Chatman, 1989). Such an approach allows for a comprehensive assessment of the organization's work content and context, on the one hand, and the knowledge, skills, abilities, and work related values and beliefs of

prospective employees, on the other. Arguably, such a selection approach may enhance organizational competence formation and utilization as it attracts employees with knowledge, skills and abilities that surpass those required by their immediate jobs (Bowen et al., 1991) and engenders an effective alignment between the values of the focal employee and the pivotal values and cultural norms of the organization (Chatman, 1989; Wiener, 1988).

For example, employees who have gone through an intensive selection process and passed various selection tests before getting hired, would have been proud to be selected and share the same organizational identity with others who are subsequently recruited. A strong identification with organizational objectives formed in the early stage of a selection fosters the social machinery among employees and elicit helping behaviour which benefit not only co-workers but also the organization as a whole. Furthermore, during the selection process, the employer discusses the prospect and future which can be guaranteed by the organization, ranging from assurances of reasonable job security, career advancement, to extensive training and development programme. Such promises indirectly form the preliminary social exchange relationship between the employer and employee, thus providing a basis for future OCB.

2.2.2.2 Extensive Training and Development

MacDuffie & Kochan (1991) found that firms with high levels of investment in employee training exhibited higher productivity levels compared to firms with low levels of such investments. As Lee (2001) pointed out, employees must have the knowledge, skills, capability, and opportunity to perform both their prescribed and their extra-role behaviour. Such knowledge, skills and capability can only be attained

through continuous training and development programme. OCB can be elicited when employees are offered various kinds of training and development programme.

In prior literature, researchers have tied motivation for participation in training and development activity to beliefs regarding the outcomes of participation (Fishbein & Stasson, 1990; McEnrue, 1989; Noe & Wilk, 1993). First, Maurer & Tarulli (1994) discussed the idea that a variety of personal benefits (extrinsic, intrinsic, psychosocial) can come from development activity. Second, Maurer & Palmer (1999) expanded the range of beneficiaries in empirical research on employee development by including co-worker outcomes as a potential benefit of personal development. In this study the researchers recognized that recipients other than the employee engaging in the behaviours may benefit from that activity and that the employee's knowledge of that fact may serve as a motivator of his or her development. Third, Katz (1964) identified self-development as one of three behavioural patterns thought to be necessary for effective organizational functioning. Therefore, organizations are the third possible beneficiaries of development by employees. Of course, such perceived benefits by all three entities could be believed to occur immediately or in a delayed fashion; the key defining feature here is that the employee perceives these activities to be beneficial at some level, whether immediate or delayed. While the belief that one will personally benefit is expected to be a consistent and primary motivator of development activity, the perception that the organization or a supervisor will benefit may also serve as an additional or alternate motivator. This means that perceptions of organization and/or supervisor benefit can contribute, along with perceptions of personal benefit, to overall motivation (Maurer & Shore, 2002). Such motivation is consistent with the present study where employees who see themselves as primary beneficiaries of training and development activities are more likely to reciprocate by performing discretionary behaviour, based on Blau's (1964) social exchange theory.

Therefore, the great amount of energy spent in coordinating various kinds of seminars and workshops as well as financial resources invested by management to further improve employees' skills at work, lay foundation for social exchange relationship. Most organizations are reluctant to spend resources in training employees, frontline employees in particular, because of the perception that once trained, they run the risk of losing employees to other organizations. Conversely, organizations who treat their employees as a long term asset and continuously train them in various aspects, convey to employees a message that they are important to the organization and they would be trained, regardless of the amount of time and money spent. Such time and financial resources spent signify their trust that employees do not have the intention to leave and thus, are worth to be trained. This move indefinitely strengthens the social exchange relationship and subsequently promotes OCB among employees.

2.2.2.3 Performance Evaluation

Effective leaders provide regular performance feedback to subordinates (Larson, 1989). Formal performance appraisals can be viewed as one specific form of performance feedback (Pearce & Porter, 1986). Several theories emphasise the importance and positive effects of feedback for employees' task performance (Locke & Latham, 2002). Although feedback is usually linked to task performance, overall job performance—which tends to be the focus of performance appraisals—comprises more. Rotundo & Sackett (2002) suggest that job performance has three components, namely task, citizenship and counterproductive performance. Similarly, Miles, Borman, Spector & Fox (2002) note that performance covers voluntary behaviours going beyond core task requirements, i.e. OCB in this study.

An extensive body of previous research has investigated the effects of managerial feedback interventions on subordinates' task performance. Feedback, in this regard, is defined as actions taken by an employee's supervisor to provide information regarding task performance (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996, p. 255). Hypotheses on the effects of feedback on performance are mainly derived from reinforcement theory or control theory (Podsakoff & Farh, 1989) and focus on cognitive variables such as motivation and learning (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Feedback helps to increase employees' learning and knowledge of results. Employees need such knowledge, especially if their performance is not up to standard, to be able to take corrective action and improve task performance (Ilgen & Davis, 2000). Hence, performance feedback do elicit cognitive reactions (Belschak & Hartog, 2009).

As a matter of fact, a fair performance appraisal conducted in an organization and rewards offered based on the performance of employees signify the highest level of recognition given by management on the employees' work. When employees are evaluated based on objective criteria—according to the goals assigned to him or her—rewards and benefits that follow convey that their great performance are applauded and given credit because they have been responsible for activities that help the organization to reach the stated objectives. A high level of perceived equity signals to employees that the organization supports them and has their well-being at heart (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Lawler, 1986).

In contrast, research has started to investigate employees' destructive acts, hurting their colleagues or organisation when performance appraisal has been mismanaged with negative feedback given to employees. Such acts have been labelled counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) (Miles et al., 2002; Marcus & Schuler, 2004). Research suggests that negative perceptions of the work situation increase CWB

(Lee & Allen, 2002). As Spector & Fox (2002) argue, work events provide stimuli that are perceived and appraised and, as a result, may induce positive or negative emotions. Such emotions, in turn, affect work behaviour such as OCB and CWB. Fitness (2000) studied anger-eliciting events in the workplace and found that the largest category of events, especially for subordinates, was being unjustly treated, for example, being falsely accused of performing poorly. Employees' reactions to such events included withdrawing, quitting, or revenge. Where the events were seen as humiliating, subordinates experienced increased hatred. Such research suggests that conditions under which (negative) performance feedback is given to employees might affect their emotions and CWB. For example, criticising a subordinate in front of colleagues (e.g. by publicly giving them negative performance feedback) may be perceived as degrading or humiliating behaviour and might lead to both negative emotions, increased CWB and further withdrawal from OCB.

2.2.2.4 Performance-based Pay

There has been extensive research on how to design organizational control systems to accomplish the objective of ensuring predictable and reliable role performance (Eisenhardt, 1989; Govindarajan & Fisher, 1990; Johnson & Gill, 1993). A pay-for-performance plan is one form of organizational control, as it motivates employees to devote effort to in-role performance by controlling their behaviours, outputs, or both (Oliver & Anderson, 1995). In this research, researcher suggests that the degree to which the interests of employees and their organizations are aligned, is a key factor in understanding the impact of control systems on OCB.

Agency theory, for example, addresses the issues that arise in an agency relationship, in which one party (the principal) delegates work to another (the agent). Most agency theory models rest on the assumption that the principal and the agent have diverging goals and that it is often expensive for the principal to monitor the behaviour of the agent, given the information asymmetries between the two (Eisenhardt, 1989; Fama, 1980). In an agency situation, the principal basically can choose to provide some form of output-based contingent reward to align the agent's interests with its own or to invest in mechanisms to monitor the behaviour of the agent (Eisenhardt, 1989). The relative efficiency of each control option is dependent upon levels of outcome uncertainty, risk aversion, the costs of monitoring behaviour, and other related variables.

Other research on control theory, however, has not been based on the assumption that the goals of employer and employee diverge. Ouchi (1980) drew on the transactional cost economics framework but relaxed the assumption of goal incongruence. He argued that the degree of goal incongruence varied from cases of total divergence to cases of little or no deviation between the goals of an organization and an employee. Ouchi's perspective suggests that firms can proactively manage their selection and socialization practices so that employee interests are aligned with the firms'. These so-called clan forms of organization thus have little need for formal mechanisms to mediate the exchange between individual and organization, because the employee's natural (or socialized) inclination is to behave in ways that are consistent with the organization's objectives. Other theoretical perspectives are consistent with and extend the clan control perspective. Blau (1964) distinguished social from economic exchange relationships in organizations. Economic exchange relationships involve tangible, often short-term, contractual relations with a clear quid pro quo component, much akin to an output control system. Social exchange is based on trust

between the parties and does not require an immediate quid pro quo. In a social exchange relationship, trust allows for temporary or perceived asymmetries between inducements and contributions, and the relationship itself has value. This valuing of the relationship allows one party to put the interests of the other party ahead of his or her own.

The notion that the relationship between employer and employee can be far more than a traditional economic exchange has been developed further in related lines of research. Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch suggested that when the relationship between an employee and an organization is characterized by a system of shared values, organizational identification, and trust, it may become a covenantal relationship that lies outside the exchange framework and involves “intrinsically motivated effort rather than earning something or getting somewhere” (1994: 768). Similarly, Fox & Hamilton (1994), Davis et al. (1997) have conceptualized managers as stewards, as opposed to agents. Stewardship theory, developed in part as a counterpoint to agency theory, defines situations in which employees are motivated by organizational rather than individual goals because their interests are aligned with those of the owners (principals) of the organization (Davis et al., 1997). To the extent that goals are aligned, employees may feel that they are helping themselves as they engage in OCB, even though they do not expect direct, organizational rewards for this behaviour. To the extent that these perspectives apply, researcher would not expect support for an agency/transactional cost economics prediction that the stronger the link between pay and performance, the less an employee is likely to engage in OCB.

A few studies have shown that citizenship correlates positively with perceptions of pay equity or fairness (Scholl, Cooper & McKenna, 1987; Puffer, 1987). This findings is provocative because it assigns a cognitive basis to citizenship. Perceptions

of pay equity produce beliefs about distributive justice (Deutsch, 1986; Brickman, 1975), which then affect behaviour (Adams, 1965; Leventhal, 1976). Unlike mood states, these beliefs are less vulnerable to arbitrary events that can alter mood and, consequently, reduce the performance of citizenship. This has several implications for research and practice. Certainly, if an employee has been performing well but has not been appraised fairly causing him or her to lose the opportunity in gaining rewards and benefits expected, such disappointment will lead the employee to form *quid pro quo* mindset inherent in economic exchange. Thus, under such a condition, withdrawal from or omission of OCB will follow suit.

2.2.2.5 Participation in Decision Making

Recent literature (e.g. Podsakoff et al., 2000; Tepper & Taylor, 2003) suggests that employees perform OCBs with greater frequency when they perceive as fair the means by which organizations and their representatives make allocation decisions (i.e. procedural justice). According to Organ (1988), employees interpret procedural fairness to mean that their employer can be trusted to protect their interests; this in turn, engenders an obligation to repay their employer through OCBs.

One of the most important conditions that shape employees' views about procedural fairness is participation in decision making (Porter et al., 1996; VanYperen et al., 1999), sometimes referred to as the process control effect (Thibaut & Walker, 1975) or the voice effect (Tyler & Lind, 1992). In general, participation in decision making is defined as joint decision making or at least shared influence in decision making by a superior and his or her employee (Koopman & Wierdsma, 1998). Theoretically, participation in decision making is linked to OCB in a number of ways.

First, employees' participation can enhance a sense of fairness and trust in the organization both because employees can defend their own interests and because they get information on the shaping of decisions to which they would not otherwise be privy. This sense of fairness enhances employees' willingness to engage in OCBs. Second, because frontline employees understand work processes and challenges better than administrators or policymakers, their participation ensures that better information will be available for making decisions to facilitate successful administration (Conley & Bacharach, 1990). Similarly in the context of school, teachers who view their school as behaving in their interest should not only experience greater job satisfaction, but also act to return the favor by exhibiting more OCBs (McNeely & Meglino, 1994).

Consistently, several scholars had found that the high-performance organizations persistently seek to recognize and reinforce valuable contributions made by employees (Agarwal & Ferratt, 1999). For highly skilled professionals, much of their motivation ensues from the recognition they get from managers for a job well done and the feeling that they are a pivotal part of the organization (Agarwal & Ferratt, 1999; Gomolski, 2000). Similarly, by providing an opportunity for employees to suggest any improvement and allowing them to make decisions related to their work, the social exchange relationship is laid.

Such allowance given to employees reflects the organization's appreciation towards the employees' contribution in further improving the work environment. More often, frontline employees are the closest entities in serving customers. Their inputs and ideas could be highly relevant in solving any organizational problem and countering any opportunity posed in the work environment. Feeling appreciated as their ideas are considered by the top management and implemented, these employees will be more likely to engage in OCB.

2.2.2.6 Internal mobility

The creation of an internal labour market is accomplished by hiring employees from the external labour market to fill lower level jobs, or “ports of entry” (Doeringer & Piore, 1971; Williamson et al., 1975). If the firm hires employees at ports of entry and then upgrades the competency of their workers through on-the-job training, “teaching-by-doing,” and socialization, an internal labour market may protect the firm against misrepresentation of competency levels by job applicants (Williamson et al., 1975:274).

Thus, in the context of hospitality, frontline employees who are normally hired at a lower entry would not interpret this industry as offering low-wage-low-investment career path if organizations constantly offer trainings and development programme besides promising opportunity for promotion within. Strategy researchers argue that achieving sustained competitive advantage depends upon the firm’s ability to utilize existing stocks of resources and its ability to accumulate new resource stocks more efficiently and effectively relative to competitors (Mahoney & Pandian, 1992; Penrose, 1959; Prahalad & Hamel, 1990; Wernerfelt, 1984)

Internal labour markets emerge to facilitate the exchange and utilization of human resources that are firm specific (human asset specificity) and that are difficult to evaluate or monitor (Williamson, 1981; Williamson, Wachter & Harris, 1975). Human asset specificity refers to the unique knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) learned on the job. Because such competencies entail nontrivial replacement costs, there exists an economic rationale for their continued utilization in current employment. When the economic contribution of these firm-specific KSAs cannot be readily assessed quantitatively, internal (hierarchical) mechanisms are presumably superior to the external or “spot” market in facilitating the efficient allocation and utilization of such

resources. Williamson & colleagues (1975) maintained that internal labour markets (ILMs), by engendering collective bargaining (which places emphasis on objective task characteristics rather than on the subjective, idiosyncratic knowledge, skills, and abilities of workers as the basis for determining wage structure), serve to reduce workers' proclivity to behave opportunistically (i.e., to seek self-interest with guile).

Also, by permitting the renegotiation of employment contracts and enabling the resolution of employment-related disputes via arbitration, internal labour markets can economize on the bounded rationality of the managers and workers. Furthermore, by emphasizing a system of internal promotion to fill higher level positions, ILMs can create imitation barriers and, thus, can inhibit duplication of human resource-based advantages, leaving current employees feeling more appreciative.

Significantly, internal mobility refers to the possibility of employees getting promoted within and enjoying good career advancement. Promotion based on seniority has been commonly practiced, at the expense of rewarding employees based on performance. Employees who do not perceive themselves as getting promoted or having a bright future in the organization might resort to forming an economic exchange relationship which is purely transactional in nature. Mutual trust and interdependence will never be possibly established under such condition. Thus, an organizational climate which offers high internal mobility is essential for not only eliciting OCB but also forming sustainable competitive advantage.

In summary, the researcher posits that:

Hypothesis 3a: There is a significant relationship between bundles of high involvement HR practices (selective staffing, extensive training, performance evaluation, performance-based pay, participation

in decision making and internal mobility) and subordinates' willingness in exhibiting OCBI.

Hypothesis 3b: There is a significant relationship between bundles of high involvement HR practices (selective staffing, extensive training, performance evaluation, performance-based pay, participation in decision making and internal mobility) and a subordinates' willingness in exhibiting OCBO.

2.3 Organizational Justice

Principally and theoretically justified, regardless of whether generic or high involvement HR practices are administered in the organizations, these practices should be conducted in a fair and just manner. Hence, nowhere is the interest of organizational justice more prevalent than in the area of HR management. As Sheppard and his colleagues (1992) noted, to ignore fairness “potentially entails costs that organizations do not wish to incur, while to act justly produces direct and indirect benefits in terms of organizational efficiency, effectiveness and quality of life” (p.202). Cropanzano (1993) and Folger & Cropanzano (1998) reported organizational justice as a significant stream in HR inquiry and many management researchers have explored the nature of justice in relation to a variety of HR concerns (Ball et al., 1994; Barclay & Harland, 1995; Reiley & Singer, 1996; Gilliland & Steiner, 2001; Grandey, 2001).

Consistent with the research objective, Organ (1988) proposed supervisor fairness leads to employee citizenship because social exchange theory develops between the supervisor and the employee. When supervisors treat employees fairly, social exchange and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) dictate that employees reciprocate, and Organ (1988) suggested that OCB is one likely avenue for employee

reciprocation. However, there is often a misalignment between what employees perceive as fair and what managers assume as just. Organizational justice addresses the issues related to “the ways in which employees determine if they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which those determinations influence other work related variables” (Moorman, 1991, p. 845). This notion of justice was initially studied in terms of two components – distributive and procedural (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991a, b); later a third dimension of interactional justice was added (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998).

Distributive, procedural, and interactional justice tend to be correlated. They can be meaningfully treated as three components of overall fairness (Ambrose & Arnaud, 2005; Ambrose & Schminke, 2007), and the three components can work together. However, if one’s goal is to promote workplace justice, it is useful to consider them separately and in detail. This is because each component is engendered in distinct ways, arising from different managerial actions. In this study, to examine the effects of these three components individually on OCB, the subsequent section discusses these various forms of justice separately.

2.3.1 Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is concerned with the perceived fairness of the outcomes and has been understood predominantly through equity in social exchange (Adams, 1965), wherein people compare their contributions and rewards with comparison others. It is operationalized in terms of pay and rewards received. Distributive justice is concerned with the reality that not all employees are treated alike; the allocation of outcomes is differentiated in the workplace. Individuals are concerned with whether or

not they received their “just share.” Sometimes things are distributively just, as when the most qualified person gets promoted. Other times they are not, as when advancement goes to corporate “insiders” with a political relationship to upper management. The earliest theory of distributive justice can be attributed to Aristotle. In his *Nicomachean Ethics*, the philosopher maintained that just distribution involved “something proportionate,” which he defined as “equality of ratios.” Adams (1965) represented his influential equity theory of distributive justice with the following equation:

$$\frac{O_1}{I_1} = \frac{O_2}{I_2}$$

According to equity theory, employees are interested in how much they get (outcomes or O_1) relative to how much they contribute (inputs or I_1). Such a ratio is meaningless, however, unless anchored against some standard. To accomplish this, employees examine the outcomes (O_2) and inputs (I_2) of some referent. Usually, though not necessarily, this is another person who is similar to them. Things are “equitable” when the ratios, not the individual terms, are in agreement. When the ratios are out of alignment, employees may feel uneasy. They are motivated to “balance” the equation by modifying the terms. For example, one who is underpaid might reduce inputs by a corresponding amount.

Tests of OCB from a social exchange perspective have generally focused on equity, which is just one element of social exchange (e.g. Farh et al., 1990; Moorman, 1991). Based on equity theory (Adam, 1965), employees are most satisfied when the ratio between the benefits received and the contributions made is comparable to the perceived ratio of their co-workers. Perceived fairness and reciprocity are central to this

theory (Messick & Cook, 1983). That is, if employees perceive that they are being treated fairly by their supervisors, they will be more likely to reciprocate by holding positive attitudes about their work, their work outcomes, and their supervisors. Organ (1988) suggested that OCB might be “an input to one’s equity ratio” and that employees respond to inequity by increasing or decreasing their levels of OCB. It is possible that decreasing OCBs in reaction to inequity is safer than not performing the prescribed formal role requirements.

Nonetheless, many studies have reported that distributive justice is not related to citizenship behaviour (Williams et al., 2002; Zellers et al., 2003). Konovsky & Pugh (1994) tested a social exchange model of OCB on 475 hospital employees and found no significant relationship between distributive justice and OCB. Watt & Shaffer (2004) developed and tested an expanded social exchange model of organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) that includes characteristics of the social context (i.e. perceived fairness and leader-member exchange (LMX)) as well as the capacity (i.e. trust in the supervisor and psychological empowerment) to engage in citizenship behaviour. All three dimensions of perceived fairness including distributive justice were significant predictors of trust in supervisor but offered no direct relationship influencing OCB. All dimensions of perceived fairness were involved in at least one significant mediation test involving trust in supervisor and all forms of OCB. Similarly, Bhal (2005) reported responses of 306 professionals from 30 software organizations operating in different parts of India. Data were collected on a structured questionnaire containing standard scales of LMX, citizenship behaviour, distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Results indicate that procedural and interactional justices fully mediated the relationship of perceived contribution with citizenship behaviour. However, distributive justice did not mediate this relationship.

Since some studies have shown that distributive justice is related strongly to reactions to specific outcomes (pay and promotion) than to reactions to the organization as a whole (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993) and there is no conclusive evidence from Malaysian context that distributive justice invites no discretionary behaviour, research incorporates this element of perceived fairness into the research framework and postulates that:

Hypothesis 4a: (i) Distributive justice is significantly related to OCBI;

(ii) Distributive justice is significantly related to OCBO.

2.3.2 Procedural Justice

Procedural justice relates to the perception of the processes followed in the allocation and distribution of rewards (Greenberg, 1987; Lind & Tyler, 1988). This refers to decision-making processes both at the level of the organization as well as the leader. Procedural justice refers to the means by which outcomes are allocated, but not specifically to the outcomes themselves. Procedural justice establishes certain principles specifying and governing the roles of participants within the decision-making processes. A just process is one that is applied consistently to all, free of bias, accurate, representative of relevant stakeholders, correctable, and consistent with ethical norms.

Research has shown that just procedures can mitigate the ill effects of unfavourable outcomes. Researchers have named this the “fair process effect.” Kim and Mauborgne (1991, 1993) reported that when managers believed that their headquarters used a fair planning process, they were more supportive of the plan, trusted their leaders more, and were more committed to their employers. Besides, procedural justice seems to be essential to maintaining institutional legitimacy. When personnel decisions

are made, individuals are likely to receive certain outcomes. For instance, one may or may not be promoted. According to Tyler & Blader (2000), outcome favourability tends to affect satisfaction with the particular decision. This is not surprising. What is more interesting is that procedural justice affects what workers believe about the organization as a whole. If the process is perceived as just, employees show greater loyalty and more willingness to behave in an organization's best interests. They are also less likely to betray the institution and its leaders.

Research on organizational justice suggests that when an organization treats its employees fairly, employees are likely to reciprocate by adopting behaviours beneficial to the organization (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Kernan & Hanges, 2002; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Organ, 1988). Some scholars have proposed that the use of fair procedures and systems may enhance employee commitment because fairness suggests that employees are respected members of the organization (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Fair procedures enhance the feeling of being treated as a full member of the organization, which in turn reinforces the emotional bond to the group and/or the organization (Tyler & Lind, 1992).

Ansari et al. (2007) examined 224 managers from nine multinational companies in northern Malaysia and demonstrated that procedural justice climate determines organizational commitment (affective, normative and continuance), LMX and turnover intentions. Specifically, it was found that procedural justice climate had a strong positive impact on all three components of commitment and a negative impact on turnover intentions. Moorman & Niehoff (1993) argued that procedural justice communicates the extent to which the organizations value individuals but distributive justice does not do so explicitly. Pare & Temblay (2007) studied helping behaviour of information technology professionals and consistent with previous research (Simons &

Roberson, 2003), their findings reveal that the paths that link procedural justice to OCB-helping behaviours and to turnover intentions are significant.

Organ & Konovsky (1989) proposed that when treated fairly, the employee's perception of the organization may change, thus giving way to OCB. In another study, Williams et al. (2002) found that organizational justice components had strong positive effects on OCB. Specifically, procedural justice was found to have influenced OCB in general (Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler & Purcell, 2003; Zellers, Tepper, Giacalone, Lockhart & Jurkeiwicz, 2003). Also, procedural justice was significantly related to the different dimensions of OCB like conscientiousness, civic virtue, courtesy, sportsmanship (Moorman, 1991) and extra-role behaviour (Zellers, Tepper & Duffy, 2002). Since procedural justice seems essential in inducing OCB, researcher postulates that:

Hypothesis 4b: (i) Procedural justice is significantly related to OCBI;

(ii) Procedural justice is significantly related to OCBO.

2.3.3 Interactional Justice

In the literature of organizational justice, interactional justice is another dimension of justice that is perceived by employees during the interaction with their supervisors that accompanies an organization's formal procedures. Interactional justice relates to the manner in which procedures regarding relevant outcomes are implemented (Bies & Moag, 1986; Bies, 1987). Researchers have demonstrated that judgments of justice are also influenced by the interpersonal treatment people receive from decision makers (Bies & Moag, 1986; Moorman, 1991; Tyler & Bies, 1990). The interpersonal treatment received from a supervisor is termed as interactional justice (Bies, 1987).

In a sense, interactional justice may be the simplest of the three components. It refers to how one person treats another. A person is interactionally just if he or she appropriately shares information and avoids rude or cruel remarks. In other words, there are two aspects of interactional justice (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001). The first part, sometimes called informational justice refers to whether one is truthful and provides adequate justifications when things go badly. The second part, sometimes called interpersonal justice, refers to the respect and dignity with which one treats another. Both are important. Because interactional justice emphasizes one-on-one transactions, employees often seek it from their supervisors. This presents an opportunity for organizations. In a quasi-experimental study, Skarlicki & Latham (1996) trained union leaders to behave more justly. Among other things, these leaders were taught to provide explanations and apologies (informational justice) and to treat their reports with courtesy and respect (interpersonal justice). When work groups were examined three months later, individuals who reported to trained leaders exhibited more helpful citizenship behaviours than individuals who reported to untrained leaders.

Brockner & Wiesenfeld (1996) argued that poor interpersonal treatment toward an employee signals that he or she is neither valued or respected by the organization. As a result, the employee is likely to experience a stronger sense of violation for any perceived breach of his or her psychological contract, which may lead to negative outcomes for the organization that are more severe (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Kickul (2001) examined the effect of perceived contract breach accompanied by poor interpersonal treatment had on employees' behaviour at work without considering causal attributions. The results indicated that employees who received poor interpersonal treatment (for example, insensitivity, inadequate explanations, dishonesty, etc) were more likely to engage in deviant work behaviours (for example, talking during working and taking extra long breaks to avoid responsibilities) far below OCB,

than employees who received good interpersonal treatment. In relation to this, in a study conducted by Moorman (1991), it was found that employees who felt their organization treated them fairly were more likely to engage in OCB than employees who were deprived of fair explanations when required. Some studies supported the relationship between interactional justice and OCB (Moorman, 1991; Moorman & Niehoff, 1993; Williams et al., 2002; Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2003). Thus, research posits that:

Hypothesis 4c: (i) Interactional justice is significantly related to OCBI;

(ii) Interactional justice is significantly related to OCBO.

2.4 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

2.4.1 LMX and OCB

OCB refers to those organizationally beneficial acts that are rooted neither in the formal roles nor in any contract of compensation (Organ, 1988). These acts are purposeful and determined and need not be treated as random acts of goodwill and kindness. Understanding the determining conditions, situations and motives that lead to such behaviours, is likely to yield an insight into when and how these acts occur.

The immediate leader for the subordinate is the representation of the organization and plays a key role in influencing citizenship behaviours (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Lepine et al. (2002) in a meta-analysis of literature on citizenship behaviour reported leader support as its strongest predictor. LMX relationships are rooted in social exchange (Graen & Scandura, 1987) and there is a perceived obligation on the part of subordinates to reciprocate high-quality relationships (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). This quality of interaction has been shown to predict subordinate outcomes like

use of upward influence tactics (Krishnan, 2004) and absenteeism (Van Dierendonck et al., 2002) amongst other affective outcomes like satisfaction and commitment.

Dansereau et al. (1984) discussed the role of equity perceptions and exchanges in a dyad. They used the terms investments and returns to explain the exchanges between the exchange partners. Equity is thus maintained by changing either investments or returns. One way in which subordinates can reciprocate these relationships is by either enlarging or limiting their roles so that they either follow only the contract or extend their behaviours beyond normal role requirements (i.e. engage in citizenship behaviours). Essentially, this implies that subordinates having high quality interactions with their leaders pay back in terms of extra role behaviour (Liden et al., 1997; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997).

Rooted from the social exchange theory, research exploring LMX suggested that leaders may develop varying relationships with different members working in the same unit (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975). Since its first introduction in 1975, LMX theory has been frequently revised and it remains a subject of interest among researchers who study the encounters between subordinate and supervisor. LMX posits that leaders do not use the same style in dealing with all subordinates. Due to these differing styles, varying relationships or exchanges with subordinates are developed. In the context of LMX, high quality exchanges between a subordinate and a supervisor, characterized by trust, respect and mutual liking, often lead to the emergence of extra-role behaviour or OCB (Settoon et al., 1996; Liden et al., 1997; Wayne et al., 1997) whereas low quality exchanges, characterized by formal and impersonal interactions, often result in subordinate displaying only contractual behaviour. Certainly, LMX has been linked to many subordinate outcomes (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Antecedents and Outcomes of High Quality LMX

Antecedents	Outcomes
<p>Leader Trustworthiness (Brower et al., 2000; Gomez & Rosen, 2001) Positive expectation of subordinate (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997) Power (Cogliser & Schriesheim, 2000) Transformational leadership (Wang et al., 2005; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999) Rapport management (Campbell et al., 2003)</p> <p>Follower Goal orientation (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004; Chiaburu, 2005) Performance (Gehani, 2002; Wayne & Ferris, 1990) Effort (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001) Impression management (Wayne & Liden, 1995)</p> <p>Interpersonal Liking (Engle & Lord, 1997; Wayne et al., 1997) Similarity (Deluga, 1998; Murphy & Ensher, 1999) Positive expectation (Liden et al., 1993; Wayne et al., 1997) Interactional justice (Masterson et al., 2000; Murphy et al., 2003)</p>	<p>Attitudes Job satisfaction (Graen et al., 1982; Green et al., 1996) Job dedication (Michael et al., 2005) Communication satisfaction (Mueller & Lee, 2002) Organizational commitment (Duchon et al., 1986; Liden et al., 2000) Perceived empowerment (Gomez & Rosen, 2001; Liden et al., 2000)</p> <p>Behaviour OCB (Hui et al., 1999; Scandura et al., 1986) Subordinate turnover (Bauer & Green, 1996; Liden et al., 1997) Innovative behaviour (Basu & Green, 1997) Cooperative communication among peers (Lee, 1997)</p>

Source: Kang & Stewart (2007)

Moreover, Podsakoff & MacKenzie (1993) argued and found that higher LMX quality may enhance employee job satisfaction, which may then prompt the employee to reciprocate by demonstrating OCB. While researcher do not refute this common view of OCB as a means by which employees reciprocate positive work experiences (Bolino, Turnley & Bloodgood, 2002), researcher contribute to the extant OCB literature by formally testing whether LMX may also enhance the relationship between high involvement HR practices and OCB. As such, researcher proposes that:

Hypothesis 5a: There is a significant relationship between LMX and subordinate's willingness in exhibiting OCBI.

Hypothesis 5b: There is a significant relationship between LMX and subordinate's willingness in exhibiting OCB.

2.4.2 High Involvement HR Practices, LMX and OCB

One of the expected contributions of this study is to demonstrate LMX as a potential mediator which may strengthen or weaken the relationship between high involvement HR practices and OCB. None of the studies has related how important quality exchanges between the subordinate and the supervisor in the execution of high involvement HR practices.

Based on the role-making model of leader-member exchange (LMX) (Scandura & Graen, 1984) and complemented by research suggesting one's relationship with the supervisor forms the foundation of their work perceptions and organizational experience (Gertsner & Day, 1997; Wayne et al., 1997), it is proposed that LMX could be a pivotal mediator of the relationship between high involvement HR practices and employees' willingness in performing OCB. One may expect a subordinate's perception on high involvement HR practices to be significantly related to his or her relationship with the supervisor because almost all decisions related to HR activities lie with supervisor. The positive outcome of high involvement HR practices can only be felt when the exchanges between subordinate and supervisor are considerably high. If high involvement HR practices are implemented but no quality exchanges exist between a subordinate and a supervisor where no frequent communication is given by the supervisor as to why the subordinate is trained, appraised against which criteria and paid in which manner, the subordinate will most likely withdraw from exhibiting discretionary behaviour i.e. OCB.

In this study, the role theory by Graen & Scandura (1987) forms the basis of how LMX could be a potential mediator over the relationship between high involvement HR practices and OCB. Role theory makes a significant contribution to understanding the role of leaders and members. The role expectations of a supervisor and the extent to which a subordinate meets these expectations make up the relational context of the exchange process. Graen & Scandura (1987) suggested a three-phase model of LMX development, namely role taking, role making, and role routinization.

In the first phase – role taking, the supervisor executes a ‘sent role’ (request, demand and assign) and upon receiving the role allocated to him or her, the subordinate responds by carrying out the specified duties. Gradually, the supervisor may allocate additional roles depending on how receptive the subordinate is in accepting and performing the tasks. In the next stage – role making – roles become more clearly defined. Tasks completed by the subordinate will be reviewed and discussed, thus a high-quality LMX relationships begin to unfold in which each part contributes to the growth of the relationship. In perfecting the role making process, the supervisor may release tangible and intangible resources to the subordinate, in exchange for their successful collaboration on task accomplishment. Increased influence, task opportunities and autonomy in task completion may be provided by the supervisor, a sign of support towards the subordinate’s work. In the final stage of role routinization – the behaviour between the supervisor and the subordinate becomes interlocked. A dyadic understanding evolves in which role expectations become more routinized and supervisors and subordinates continue to collaborate closely on tasks.

Based on this perspective, the researcher posits that the effectiveness of high involvement HR practices in eliciting OCB is contingent upon leader-member exchanges. One may infer that high involvement HR practices are associated with

quality exchanges between leader and member. The role taking process is often facilitated by the selection process in the hands of HRM. During the selection stage, the supervisor exchanges information on the role and duties the subordinate has to play. Such information could only be delivered if high quality exchanges exist between the leader and the member. Similarly, in the role making process, in order to assign other tasks, allow more autonomy in making decision at work and facilitate the employee with more resources (including rewards and benefits), supervisor needs to conduct a fair performance evaluation. Only on the platform of high quality exchanges that effects of high involvement HR practices can be felt. And finally, when role becomes stable in the last stage, internal mobility which discusses the future prospect of the employee in the organization, becomes an issue to be addressed.

Hence, social exchange relationship mooted out from employees' satisfaction over the implementation of high involvement HR practices is contingent upon the exchanges they have with supervisors. For example, a subordinate who is well trained and performs consistently at work, builds a relationship with his or her supervisor on a social exchange basis and thus, exhibits high levels of OCB. However, if the exchanges which he or she has with supervisor is low, characterized by formal and impersonal socialization, he or she is more likely to withdraw from such behaviour. In other words, if the reception of an exchange behaviour is positive and the party initiating an exchange is satisfied with the response, the individuals will continue the exchanges. If the response to an exchange is not positive or if the exchange never occurs, opportunities to develop high quality exchanges are limited and the relationships will likely remain at lower levels of LMX development (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Uhl-Bien et al., 2000). Thus, the researcher proposes:

Hypothesis 6a: Leader-member exchange significantly mediates the relationship

between bundles of high involvement HR practices and OCBI.

Hypothesis 6b: Leader-member exchange significantly mediates the relationship

between bundles of high involvement HR practices and OCBO.

2.5 Trust in Supervisor

2.5.1 Trust in Supervisor and OCB

Trust in supervisor refers to the employee's faith in his or her supervisor and in his or her expectation that the supervisor will act to his or her benefit (Podsakoff, et al., 2000). Numerous scholars have attempted to define 'trust' and the working definition of trust by Robinson (1996:576) can be relevant here whereby trust is defined as "one's expectations, assumptions, or beliefs about the likelihood that another's future actions will be beneficial, favourable, or at least not detrimental to one's interests."

The degree to which trust exists can determine much of an organisation's character, influencing factors such as organisational structure, control mechanisms, job design, communication, job satisfaction, commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (Zeffane & Connell, 2003). Currently, environmental and competitive pressures are pushing organisations towards flat, team-oriented structures where employees perform multidimensional work with the autonomy to make decisions. Such arrangements require trust between employees and their managers in order to be successful (Whitener et al., 1998). As a result, the influence of trust in organisational settings has attracted increasing interest in recent years (Clark & Payne, 1997; Kramer & Tyler, 1996; Hosmer, 1995; Mayer & Davis, 1999; Mayer et al., 1995), indicating that researchers and practitioners continue to recognise trust as an important factor in

determining organisational success, organisational stability and the well-being of employees (Cook & Wall, 1980; Shaw, 1997; Kramer & Tyler, 1996).

The growth of literature on trust has generated much debate and divergent opinion focusing on what trust is, what it is not, and how trusting relationships might be created. Trust is a multi-component construct with several dimensions that vary in nature and importance according to the context, relationship, tasks, situations and people concerned (Hardy & McGrath, 1989). Although there is no ubiquitous definition of trust, a frequently cited conceptualisation emphasises interpersonal relationships and a “willingness to be vulnerable” (Mayer et al., 1995) based on the conviction that the latter party is competent, concerned and reliable. Thus, when trust declines, a reversal occurs and people become reluctant to take risks, demanding greater protections against the possibility of betrayal “and increasingly insist on costly sanctioning mechanisms to defend their interests” (Kramer & Tyler, 1996, p.4).

Within organizations, interpersonal trust between supervisors and subordinates has been shown to significantly influence perceptions of accurate performance appraisals (Fulk, Brief & Barr, 1985); performance and productivity (Argyris, 1964; Earley, 1986; Moore, Shaffer, Pollak & Taylor-Lemcke, 1987; Savage, 1982); and organizational commitment, morale, turnover, absenteeism, and cost in untapped potential (Diffie-Couch, 1984). In addition, interpersonal trust between supervisors and subordinates improves the quality of communication (Muchinsky, 1977; Roberts & O'Reilly, 1974; Yeager, 1978), citizenship behaviour (McAllister, 1995), and problem solving and decision making (Barnes, 1981; Boss, 1978; Hollon & Gemmill, 1977; Hurst, 1984; Ouchi, 1981; Scott, 1983; Zand, 1972). Trust among top managers may also be necessary for delegation of decision making to take place (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993).

Significantly, the link between trust in organization and OCB has been examined in many works (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 1990). According to Konovsky & Pugh (1994), trust is a manifestation of social exchange, where social exchange refers to relationships that entail unspecified future obligations and generate an expectation of some future return for contributions (Blau, 1964). Social exchange accounts for OCB by encouraging employees to behave in ways that are not strictly mandated by their employers (Rousseau & Parks, 1993). Organ (1990) argued that social exchange is necessary for OCB, because the mutual trust that underlies social exchange relationships ensures that OCB will be reciprocated in the long run (Menguc, 2000; Organ, 1990). Using meta-analyses, Dirks & Ferrin (2002) reported that trust in organization has a positive relationship with altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy, and sportsmanship. It may therefore be expected that Malaysian employees who have a higher level of trust in organization will display more OCB, regardless of the type of organization for which they work. Significantly, trust has been linked to OCB in many ways (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Rahim et al., 2001; Aryee et al., 2002; Wong et al., 2006). As such, researcher posits that:

Hypothesis 7a: There is a significant relationship between subordinates' trust in supervisor and their willingness in exhibiting OCBI.

Hypothesis 7b: There is a significant relationship between subordinates' trust in supervisor and their willingness in exhibiting OCBO.

2.5.2 Organizational justice, trust in supervisor and OCB

As indicated earlier, organizational justice may be perceived to be administered in the workplace whereby procedural, distributive and interactional justice act to

complement HRM strategy. However, if the level of trust the subordinate has in supervisor is minimal, it is impossible to expect performance of OCB from these employees. It is the human and social capital held by an organization's workforce that really matters. Trust and organizational justice are therefore important foci of management research.

Trust enables cooperative behaviour, reduces conflict, and decreases transaction costs at work (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998). Trust has been demonstrated to be an important predictor of certain organizational outcomes, such as organizational commitment (Cook & Wall, 1980) and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994, Van Dyne, Vandewalle, Kostova, Latham & Cummings, 2000). Organizational justice has also been found to be positively related to the commitment to and trust in an organization among employees (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Cropanzano & Folger, 1991; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). These two constructs are closely related. Most previous studies on trust and organizational justice have been conducted in Western countries, and the generalizability of these findings to other parts of the world is questionable.

For example, some researchers have reported that distributive justice does not affect trust in organization in Western societies (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). Wong et al. (2002), however, found that distributive justice has a positive effect on trust in organization in a Chinese setting. Aryee, Budhwar & Chen (2002) also found that trust in organization partially mediates the relationship between distributive justice and work attitudes (job satisfaction and turnover intention) in India. Such mixed findings warrant further investigation.

To recap, distributive justice refers to the fairness of work outcomes. than to

reactions to the organization as a whole (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). Secondly, procedural justice refers to the fairness of the process by which decisions are made (Konovsky, 2000), such as the level of employee voice (Folger & Lewis, 1993). Procedural justice tends to be a better predictor of reactions to upper management and the organization as a whole (Folger & Konovsky, 1989), but previous research on the effects of distributive and procedural justice on employees' trust has given mixed results. Although some studies have demonstrated that distributive justice does not significantly affect trust in organization (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994), more evidence has shown that both distributive justice and procedural justice are related to trust in organization (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Tyler & Lind, 1992).

In Malaysia, individuals tend to relate to one another, rather than to the organization directly due to its culture of collectivism (Abdullah, 1996). Hence, subordinates are more inclined to relate their relationship with the supervisors and not the organization directly. Supervisors instruct and decide on the work of subordinates, operate strategic plans and lead subordinates to achieving the organizational goals. With such bridging of relational contracts, the subordinates' trust will be increased if they perceive supervisors' decision in any matter as justified.

It is, therefore, not surprising that organizational justice is found to be positively related to the commitment and trust in an organization (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Cropanzo & Folger, 1991a; Sweeney & MacFarlin, 1993). Alexander & Ruderman (1987) discovered a positive relationship between perceptions of both procedural justice and distributive justice and trust in upper management. Also, in some other studies, organizational justice was found to be an important component in building trust between subordinate and supervisor (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Folger & Konovsky, 1989;

Pillai et al., 2001; Aryee et al., 2002). In addition, past studies have found that interactional justice is a significant predictor of the reactions of employees to their supervisors (Malatesta & Byrne, 1997; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000). Konovsky & Pugh (1994), for example, showed a very high correlation between the judgment of subordinates of the interactional justice of their supervisors and their trust in their supervisors.

Thus, based on the above empirical evidence demonstrating trust in the supervisor as playing a pivotal role in ensuring organizational justice before leading to OCB, the researcher contends that:

Hypothesis 8: Subordinates' trust in supervisor significantly mediates the relationship between organizational justice and OCB.

2.6 Turnover Intention

Employee turnover has received much theoretical and empirical attention in organizational behaviour and human resource management studies for several decades (Dalton & Todor, 1987; Horn & Griffeth, 1995; March & Simon, 1958; McEvoy & Cascio, 1987; Mobley, 1977; Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). Early research on turnover focused on the identification of different antecedents to turnover (Mobley, 1977; Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980; Steers & Mowday, 1981), and many conceptual models have been proposed to describe the employee termination-decision process.

For example, some models emphasize the central role of job affects such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment in determining turnover intention and turnover (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Price & Mueller, 1986); some models

emphasize the importance of cognitive processes, that is, comparing the value of costs and benefits of the current job to one's aspiration level in determining both job affect and termination decisions (Hulin, Roznowski & Hachiya, 1985; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). At the same time, much of the empirical research on turnover has focused on self-report of turnover intention as a predictor of turnover (Horn & Griffeth, 1995).

The relationship between OCB and turnover intention has not been well researched and properly documented empirically. Empirical studies have explored the relationship between OCB, quit intention, and actual turnover. Chen et al. (1998) and MacKenzie et al. (1998) reported that there is a negative link between OCB and quit intention. Similarly, both studies confirmed an even stronger negative association between OCB and the actual turnover. Specifically, Chen et al. (1998) conceptualized levels of organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) performance as a behavioural predictor of employee turnover and empirically examined the strength of this relationship. Data were collected from 205 supervisor-subordinate dyads across 11 companies in the People's Republic of China. The results considerably supported that supervisor-rated OCB was a predictor of subordinates' actual turnover. In particular, subordinates who were rated as exhibiting low levels of OCB were found to be more likely to leave an organization than those who were rated as exhibiting high levels of OCB. Such findings affirmed that such helping behaviour enhance the group's attractiveness, cohesiveness and support, thus subsequently decreasing voluntary turnover (George & Bettenhausen, 1990; MacKenzie et al., 1998).

While a great deal of research is available to examine the link between LMX and organizational commitment, relatively fewer research has examined the relationship between LMX and turnover intentions (Liden et al., 1997). According to

Scandura (1999), inconsistency in the published literature concerning the LMX-organizational outcomes relationships could be attributed to the neglect of one or more moderator or mediator variables in the study design. Based on LMX theory, a leader treats subordinates differently based on the quality of the dyadic relationship. It is worth noting that a good quality relationship has been found to promote a higher performance rating (Linden, Wayne & Stilwell, 1993), stronger organizational commitment (Nystrom, 1990), higher overall satisfaction (Scandura & Graen, 1984), and lower turnover intentions (Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984).

Relatively few studies linked trust in supervisor to turnover intentions. However, Tan & Tan (2000) found that turnover intention was a salient outcome of trust, and Mishra & Morrissey (1990) also found that reduced turnover was a considerable advantage of trust.

The degree of fair treatment some employees received relative to others has been postulated to influence their motivation and performance (Adams, 1965) which may include their intention to leave or stay with the organization. In line with Adam's equity theory, the contemporary studies on organizational justice have reported that people tend to be less satisfied with outcomes they perceive to be unfair than those they perceive to be fair (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Several studies have demonstrated the importance of fairness in allocation decisions in promoting positive work outcomes. For instance, Lawler (1977) notes that the distribution of organizational rewards such as pay, promotion, status, performance evaluations, and job tenure can have powerful effects on job satisfaction, quality of work life, and organizational effectiveness. Hassan (2002) conducts a study in Malaysia on the relationship of employees' equity and justice perception with organizational commitment and turnover intentions. The results confirmed the hypothesis that

perceived equity and fairness was, indeed, positively related to organizational commitment and negatively related to turnover intentions. Like distributive justice, procedural justice is an equally important determinant of employees' attitudinal and behavioural outcomes such as satisfaction, commitment and turnover intentions (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993; Hassan, 2002; Tyler & Lind, 1992).

Similarly, high involvement HR practices have been reported to be related to turnover and/or employee retention (Arthur, 1994; Batt, 2002, Guthrie, 2001; Huselid, 1995), even though the underlying mechanisms are still speculative. For example, Batt (2002) argued that human resource incentives that build trust, such as training, employment security, and high relative pay, are likely to induce employee attachment and commitment, thereby reducing turnover. In this study, researcher expects high involvement human resource practices to be negatively related to turnover in view of social exchange theory, particularly the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), according to which one does not harm a partner from whom one has received benefits. Since turnover (dysfunctional) can undermine organizational performance (Guthrie, 2001), researcher expect employees to reciprocate an organization's inducements with reduced turnover. Additionally, mutuality creates a degree of trust and a willingness to engage in cooperative behaviour (Malhotra & Murnighan, 2002), which precludes organizational exit.

The above empirical evidence suggests the antecedents designed to induce OCBI and OCBO in this study, ranging from high involvement HR practices, organizational justice, LMX to trust in the supervisor were all found to be related to turnover intention. Thus, the researcher posits:

Hypothesis 9a: There is a significant relationship between OCBI and the subordinates' turnover intention.

Hypothesis 9b: There is a significant relationship between OCBO and the subordinates' turnover intention.

2.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter explains the conceptual models and theories that support the research framework. The discussion in this section includes a detailed review of literature which leads to the formulation of eleven hypotheses. The next chapter discusses the methods used in testing the proposed research model with its associated hypotheses.