Procedural Justice and Ethical Leadership: The impact each has on employee Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

by

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EMPLOYEE ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS

Abstract

This study explored how procedural justice and ethical leadership blend or combine to influence

organizational citizenship behaviors that impact individual and organizational performance.

From a practical standpoint, this study represents an opportunity to advance the current

understanding of the constructs of organizational citizenship behavior that are positively

influenced by perceptions of procedural justice and ethical leadership. This research design was

cross-sectional and involved the online surveying of a sample of 157 employed adults at all

levels of an organization. Analysis found there is a significant positive relationship between

procedural justice and the organizational citizenship behavior constructs of courtesy, altruism,

civic virtue, and sportsmanship. Analysis also found there is a significant positive relationship

between ethical leadership and the organizational citizenship behavior constructs of courtesy,

altruism, and civic virtue. This research demonstrates that employee perceptions are not solely

based on work conditions, but also on how employees perceive leadership and how they see

leaders act towards them and other employees.

Dedication

A journey like this cannot be fulfilled alone; rather it is a team effort. This study is dedicated to my wife, Dyan. Thank you for taking this journey with me, for being my partner, and my best friend. You have always been my toughest critic and my biggest cheerleader and fan. Of all my accomplishments, my greatest has been and always will be convincing you to be my wife.

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As with everything in my life, I would not have been able to accomplish this dissertation without my faith. "I am the vine, you are the branches. He who abides in Me, and I in him, bears much fruit; for without Me you can do nothing" (Jn 15:4-5).

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Chapter I: Introduction to the Study

The relationship between employees and their leaders has a tremendous impact on the behaviors of employees. This relationship was examined from the perspective of employee/leader relationships and employee organizational citizenship behaviors.

While there are many ways to list and group employee/leader relationships, the focus of this dissertation was on how employees' perceptions of procedural justice and ethical leadership impact and influence their organizational citizenship behaviors. Generally, individuals behave in constructive ways with people with whom they have a positive relationship. In organizations, this positive relationship may be demonstrated by employees through positive organizational citizenship behaviors. Individuals also expect to be treated similarly and reciprocally by individuals to whom they have shown positive behaviors. In organizations, the nature of reciprocal behavior often originates with organizational leaders. Conversely, if individuals are treated in a manner they perceive as unfair, they may exhibit a range of toxic reactions such as employee stealing (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001) and other malicious organizational behaviors (Skarlicki, Ellard, & Kelln, 1998). This study examined procedural justice and ethical leadership and the impact each has on employee organizational citizenship behaviors.

Background of the Problem

This research focused on how employee organizational citizenship behavior is impacted by organizational pressures. Specifically, this research was concerned with how procedural justice impacts the relationship between employee perceptions of justice and employee organizational citizenship behavior and how ethical leadership impacts employee organizational citizenship behavior.

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Problem Statement

Research has shown that employee perceptions of organizational justice do impact employees' commitment to the organization as expressed by employee organizational citizenship behaviors (Moorman, 1991; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). However, past research does not specifically examine how employee organizational citizenship behaviors are influenced when ethical leadership is evaluated. The problem explored in this study was how procedural justice and ethical leadership blend or combine to influence organizational citizenship behaviors that impact individual and organizational performance.

The idea of fairness or justice has become an increasingly important construct in the social sciences (Colquitt, 2001). Research has shown a direct correlation between perceptions of organizational fairness and employee organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Williams, Pitre, & Zainuba, 2002). Employees who engage in organizational citizenship behavior are expressing satisfaction in what they perceive as a positive work environment (Organ, et al., 2006).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of ethical leadership and procedural justice on employee organizational citizenship behavior. It was the goal of this study to provide further insights to organizational leaders about how to promote environments that encourage citizenship behaviors. These positive behaviors included those that have been shown to influence the efficiency, effectiveness, and productivity of organizations.

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Significance of the Study

Organizational citizenship behaviors have been shown to have an important relationship with efficiency, effectiveness, and productivity of organizations (Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980; Organ et al., 2006). This study researched the influence of the relationship between an antecedent of organizational citizenship behaviors, specifically procedural justice, and the impact of ethical leadership upon employee organizational citizenship behaviors. This study posited that an antecedent of organizational citizenship behaviors, specifically procedural justice, is positively related to organizational citizenship behavior and that there is also a positive relationship between ethical leadership and employee organizational citizenship behavior.

The goal of this study was to provide meaningful insights about the relationships between perceptions of procedural justice and ethical leadership and how these influence organizational citizenship behaviors in creating employee behaviors that positively impact organizations (Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Also, this study provided information about how leaders should direct their efforts in developing organizational citizenship behaviors. For example, should a leader attempt to develop organizational citizenship behaviors by focusing on improving perceptions of fairness within the organization or exert more effort in other areas (Moorman, 1991)?

Implications of the study

The most significant implication of this study was that organizational leaders can possibly have a direct influence on employees' organizational citizenship behaviors by increasing their understanding and awareness of the antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors and their corresponding relationship with organizational citizenship behaviors. Fostering environments that encourage and promote employees to engage in positive citizenship

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behaviors can increase the health of the organization (Bies, 1989), the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1997), and increase cooperation and acts of altruism within the organization (Organ et al., 2006).

Furthermore, this study could possibly provide insights for leaders to focus their efforts on improving employees' perception of fairness and justice within the organization. It is necessary that employees perceive they are being treated in a fair and just manner by ethical leaders because employee perceptions are what determine the nature of the relationship they have with the organization. Employee perceptions will lead to employee responses that are consistent with social exchange theory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Homans, 1958; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998).

Finally, this study is relevant to the management community considering the importance of understanding organizational citizenship behaviors and the manner in which these behaviors impact the efficiency, effectiveness, and productivity of organizations.

Research Questions

The following questions were proposed as part of this research:

1. What impact does ethical leadership have on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the research sample of working adults?

2. What impact does procedural justice have on the organizational citizenship behavior of the research sample of working adults?

Summary

Discussions involving organizational citizenship behaviors have been an important topic in the management literature for decades and continue to be so today (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Organizational justice factors, specifically

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procedural justice, have been linked to several measures of employee behavior (Folger &

Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Organ, 1997). Organizational citizenship behavior is

one measure of effectiveness that encompasses many of the more specific measures of employee

behavior (Organ et al., 2006). More specifically, organizational citizenship behavior is described

as individual behavior that is discretionary, not openly or explicitly recognized by the formal

reward system and promotes the overall effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988).

Examples of organizational citizenship behavior dimensions are courtesy, altruism,

conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. These examples are addressed in more detail

in Chapter II Literature Review.

Examining the impact of ethical leadership and procedural justice on employee

organizational citizenship behaviors contributes to our further understanding of management.

Procedural justice, unlike distributive justice which focuses on decision outcomes, is concerned

with decision processes and the perceived fairness of the means used to derive decisions

(Greenberg & Tyler, 1987). Employees evaluate fairness of procedures with respect to the

degree decisions are consistent, based on accurate information, are amendable, represent the

concerns of all involved, and are rooted on established moral and ethical norms (Leventhal,

1980). Employee perceptions are not solely based on work conditions but also on how they

perceive leadership and how they see leaders act towards them and other employees. Perceived

fairness is influenced by leader actions during the process more so than by the outcome obtained.

Chapter II: Literature Review

Introduction

The goal of this dissertation was to expand the current knowledge on the possible influence of ethical leadership and procedural justice on organizational citizenship behaviors. Social exchange theory was used as the theoretical underpinning for this current research study. Presented in this chapter is a review of the literature on social exchange theory, procedural justice, organizational citizenship behaviors, and ethical leadership. This literature review provides the theoretical foundation for the hypotheses developed and also presented in this chapter.

Social Exchange Theory

Although social exchange theory has been enhanced and expanded into a number of variations, it is rooted in sociology and the works of Homans (1958), Blau (1964) and Emerson (1976), as well as the "norm of reciprocity" presented in the research of Gouldner (1960); and it is rooted in psychology and the works of J. W. Thibaut and Kelley (1959). While varied in their fields of study, researchers have agreed that social exchange theory involves a set of interactions that induce obligations (Emerson, 1976). This section examines social exchange theory and discusses the contributions of each researcher.

Homans (1958) conceptualized social exchange theory by proposing that individuals engaged in a social exchange relationship expect the rewards of each involved in the relationship will be proportional to the cost of each involved, and the net rewards or gains will be proportional to their investments. Adams (1965) extended the concept of social exchange theory proposing that individuals are driven to avoid the stress that comes from experiencing situations in which the outcome or reward the individual receives compared to their contribution is unequal

to the input when compared to others. Individuals are interested in how much they receive

compared to the amount of their contribution. They are concerned with their "return on

investment" and receiving their "just share." When this relationship, contribution vs. benefit, is

out of alignment, employees feel a sense of anxiety and seek to balance the relationship. For

example, employees who feel they are underpaid may reduce their input to the organization by a

corresponding amount. Separate from having an impact on performance, an imbalance can also

cause workplace vandalism (Lau, Au, & Ho, 2003), theft (Greenberg, 1987a), and stress

symptoms (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This misalignment also occurs when individuals feel

overpaid. Again, according to social exchange theory, individuals will perceive the need to work

harder and increase their inputs to be equitable.

Along these same lines, Homans (1958) also proposed the idea of status congruence,

which states when individuals are in an exchange relationship, they will expect that the reward of

each for being in the relationship will be proportional to their costs of being in the relationship.

For example, the higher the reward, the higher the costs. Additionally, the profits of each will be

proportional to their investment—the higher the investment, the higher the profit. In other

words, individuals expect there to be a fair and equitable exchange of rewards and costs of the

relationship. An empirical example supporting the idea of status congruence is a study

conducted by Patchen (1961) of workers in an oil refinery. The study found that workers

expected the rewards they received from leaders for services to be proportional to their own

investment. The study also found that workers were not critical if the rewards of others

exceeded their rewards provided that the investments of the others were higher than their

investments. In studying the behaviors of small groups and conducting research about how

groups form relationships, exert control, comply with norms and rules, achieve goals, and

assume roles, Thibaut and Kelley (1959) proposed that, in order for a dyadic relationship to be feasible, it must provide rewards and costs that are more favorable than those of competing relationships.

Blau (1964) expanded on the significance of the "social" aspect of exchange principles and noted that social exchange cannot necessarily be spelled out, but is left to the individual to determine if it exists. He proposed that individuals are alike in agreement of proportionality between investment and reward, which is at the foundation of social exchange theory. Issues arise, according to Blau (1964), in the differences of the perspectives individuals have on classifying what an investment, reward, and cost is and how they are to be ranked. Social exchange is seen as an intervening mechanism that sustains the rule of justice and offers a set of social norms of fairness in exchange. The rate of exchange that a group will accept gives rise to the expectation of a return for the given service. Individuals are disappointed if they do not receive the expected return; however, they have no reason to be disgruntled since the standard expected was not a moral norm, but anticipations that influence behavior (Blau, 1964). Homans (1958) addressed individuals who felt slighted by saying they were more likely to display characteristics of anger toward those who had violated the social exchange agreement and would act in hostility against them. On the other hand, those individuals who met the standard of fairness or even exceeded it, they would be met with appreciation and approval.

Social Exchange and Organizations

In applying social exchange theory to organizations, Blau (1964) found the collective approval of a leader legitimizes the leader. For example, when leaders employ their authority in compliance with accepted standards of justice, employees feel obligated to reciprocate, thereby legitimizing the leader's authority and enforcing compliance with organizational rules (Blau,

1964). A leader's authority, which rests on employees' voluntary compliance, substantially increases the extent of leadership (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005). Organ (1988) posited that employees regard their relationship with the organization in terms of social exchange, and as a result, exchange responses are encouraged to perceptions of fairness.

According to Gouldner (1960), the norm of reciprocity requires two interrelated conditions: (1) individuals should help those who have helped them and (2) individuals should not injure those who have helped them. Repayment of obligations is determined by the perceived value of the benefits received. Additionally, the perceived value of the benefit and, therefore, the debt, is in direct proportion to and is dependent upon, among other things, the needs of the recipient at the time the benefit was given (a needy friend), the resources of the giver (an individual gave although they did not have the resources), and the perceived motives of the giver (with or without thought of benefit) (Gouldner, 1960). Finally, the norm of reciprocity holds that individuals will generally assist those who assist them. Engendering employees with a feeling of reciprocity and creating perceptions of procedural justice, increases a sense of citizenship among employees (Weaver & Trevino, 1999). If a leader is fair, transparent, and understanding, an expectation from the leader to the employee and employee to the leader is created in that the leader will continue the just treatment; and, as a result, the employee will adhere to organizational rules and regulations and not engage in misconduct (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Additionally, a fair, transparent, and understanding leader creates a perception that the organization supports and cares for the employee and this perception creates a feeling of obligation by the employee to in turn support the organization (Weaver & Trevino, 1999).

Finally, Scholl (1981) suggested from an organizational sense, reciprocity is the belief that employees will reimburse favorable outcomes through increased performance. In place of a

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formal obligation for reciprocity, employees often rely on norms of reciprocity to direct interactions and maintain the strength of the social group (Gouldner, 1960). The research of Konovsky and Pugh (1994) and the research of Moorman et al. (1998) used social exchange theory to examine the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors. Both studies found a significant relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Many social scientific views support the fundamental idea that individuals are more fulfilled by and inspired to reciprocate favorable treatment (Deckop, Cirka, & Andersson, 2003). Chief among social scientists, Gouldner (1960) proposed that the strength of social systems rests in part on a norm of reciprocity among the members of the system. Organ (1988) suggested that leader fairness creates a social exchange relationship with employees in which employees reciprocate in increased organizational citizenship behaviors thereby promoting employee citizenship. When leaders deal with employees in a fair manner, social exchange and Gouldner (1960) "rule of reciprocity" requires that employees reciprocate. Along these lines, Organ (1988) proposed that organizational citizenship behavior is the way an employee reciprocates.

As described, the literature demonstrates that social exchange theory provides the theoretical underpinnings for predicting the attitudes and organizational citizenship behaviors of employees based on the quality of the relationship between the employee and the leader. Social exchange within organizations can be found between employees and leaders and can also be found between employees and the organization. Finally, as described, social exchange theory links procedural justice to organizational citizenship behaviors and leadership. Discussed in the following section is organizational justice.

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice research is concerned with fairness perceptions in organizational decisions and decision-making processes. The research on organizational justice has shown that organizational justice can influence employees' organizational commitment, trust in leadership and the organization, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Colquitt et al., 2001).

The concept of justice began with Adams (1965) and his work on equity theory. Adding to Adams, Jerald Greenberg (1987) coined the phrase "organizational justice" when he used it to describe the theories of fairness that are used in understanding behavior in organizations. The field of human resource management is concerned with organizational justice, and the ways employees perceive whether they have been treated justly within their organizations and how those perceptions influence other work-related variables (Moorman et al., 1998). Researchers who support the principles of organizational justice believe that, if employees perceive they are being treated fairly, they will be more inclined to have positive attitudes about their job, their working environment, and their supervisors (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Moorman, 1991).

The vast amount of research on organizational justice theory has found fairness to be one of the most evident predictors of employee performance (Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Research has shown that, to the extent employees perceive they have been treated justly, organizational justice influences employee attitudes, decisions, behaviors within the organization, and their trust in organizational (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). Justice concepts have been applied to various organizational issues, such as performance appraisals (Greenberg, 1986; Greenberg, 1987b), compensation (Scarpello & Jones, 1996), selection and staffing (Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, & Stoffey, 1993) and diversity management (Ryan & Ployhart, 2000). Additionally, perceptions of fairness are also related to

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negative work behaviors (Eitle, D'Alessio, & Stolzenberg, 2014). This research underscores the significant role fairness concerns have in the organizational decision-making process.

In general, the study of organizational justice has centered on two primary concepts, distributive justice, which is concerned with the fairness of the outcomes employees receive, and procedural justice, which is concerned with the fairness of the process that determined the outcome (Folger, 1987). Recently, researchers have focused on the fairness of interpersonal communication during the outcome process and termed this interpersonal justice. Distributive, procedural, and interpersonal justice tend to be correlated and regarded as three elements of overall organizational fairness; however, in considering what actions promote organizational justice, it is necessary to consider each independent of the other as each element is a result of distinct managerial actions (Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007). The organizational constructs of distributive and interpersonal justice are out of the scope of this research. The focus of this study was on the organizational justice construct of procedural justice; therefore, the literature on the construct of procedural justice is the discussed.

Procedural Justice

The concept of procedural justice was first introduced by J. Thibaut and Walker (1975) and focused primarily on disputant reactions to legal procedures. They found that, when individuals were given an opportunity to present information relevant to a decision, perceptions of the fairness of the decision-making process improved. Thibaut and Walker (1975) termed this finding the "process control effect," and Folger (1987) referred to the finding as the "voice effect." Research has shown that the process control effect/voice effect increases perceptions of the fairness of a procedure despite the fact the individual had no direct control over the decision (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Tyler, Rasinski, &

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Spodick, 1985). When individuals are provided an opportunity to express their views and opinions before a decision is made, perceptions of procedural fairness are strengthened.

Leventhal (1980) established six criteria that a procedure should meet if it is to be perceived as fair. These criteria are that a procedure must do the following: (a) be applied consistently across people and across time; (b) be free from bias, the decision maker does not have a stake in the outcome; (c) ensure that accurate information is collected and used in the decision making process; (d) ensure that a mechanism to correct flawed or inaccurate decisions is present; (e) should conform to personal or prevailing standards of ethics or morality; and (f) the values and opinions of individuals involved by the decision should be taken into account. Fair treatment, as it relates to procedures, is an indication to the employee that they are an essential member of the organization and their contributions are valued (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

The following empirical research supports the principles of Leventhal (1980) theory of procedural justice and shows the influence perceptions of fairness have on an individual's behavior. The research of Konovsky and Pugh (1994) found perceptions of fairness are critical determinants of employee behavior, and Folger and Konovsky (1989) found perceptions of job fairness and pay fairness were significantly correlated to organizational citizenship behaviors. Additionally, Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) found support for a relationship between procedural justice and altruism. Finally, Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ (1990) researched the relationship between fairness, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior and found a strong association with procedural justice.

Enhancing perceptions of procedural justice are the perceived motives of the leader making the decisions (Bies & Shapiro, 1987). Specifically, employees feel less dissatisfied with an unfavorable outcome when they perceive the procedure to be fair, have a voice in the process

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(Lind & Tyler, 1988), and perceive the motives of the leader to be pure (Bies & Shapiro, 1987). In a study conducted by Bies (1985) on the reactions of job candidates to recruiting procedures, Bies found that individuals distinguish between different procedural processes to describe the process as fair or unfair. More precisely, employees judged decision outcomes to be fair based on the ability to voice their opinions before a decision was made and judged decisions to be unfair when they were not presented with the opportunity. Bies (1985) found that, in addition to these procedural factors, individuals indicated that the perceived truthfulness of the interviewer and the manner in which they were treated also played a factor in determining the fairness of the recruiting process.

More specifically, Bies (2001) described various actions of a leader that affect the perception of fairness. The actions included leaders displaying social sensitivity, such as treating employees with respect and dignity, listening to their concerns, and demonstrating empathy for their situation. Thus, perceptions of fairness are not made solely on the procedural process. The enactment process, the manner in which the leader communicates to the employee, has an impact on employee perceptions of fairness. Tyler and Degoey (1995) conducted a study that examined individuals' willingness to conserve their consumption of water during a water shortage in California. They found that individuals were more willing to support water authorities who made the water conservation decisions when the authorities used fair decision-making procedures. Moreover, they found that, when the authorities delivered their decisions in a fair manner and with concern to the individual, regardless of the decision, the individuals were willing to empower the authority and viewed the decision as fair. The findings of this study have clear implications in support of the constructs of procedural justice.

Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) found that, when employees are treated justly, they are more likely to comply with organizational policies, be more dedicated, and conduct themselves in a more charitable way toward others. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) found employees tend to modify their citizenship behaviors deliberately, parceling them out to individuals they perceive to have treated them justly and withholding them from individuals that have not treated them justly.

In summary, procedural justice impacts how employees feel about the organization as a whole. When decisions and decision-making processes are perceived as fair, employees show more loyalty and an increased desire to perform in the best interest of the organization; in other words, employees are less likely to betray the organization. Additionally, procedural justice perceptions are enhanced by the leaders' interaction with the employee. Researchers have also found support for possible relationships between procedural justice, perceptions of fairness, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Farh et al., 1990; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Organ, 1997; Organ et al., 2006; Smith et al., 1983). Discussed in the following section is organizational citizenship behavior.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organ (1988) expanded on organizational citizenship behaviors defining them as individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. According to Organ, organizational citizenship behaviors are primarily driven by perceptions of fairness and are continued by employees under a social exchange agreement until such time the employee experiences or observes unfairness within the organization. Organizational citizenship behaviors are voluntary behaviors that go beyond what is expected of the employee and are often

not compensated for by the organization but benefit the organization. Moorman (1991) defined organizational citizenship behaviors as behaviors that exist outside the technical scope of an employees' job yet function to benefit the organization by upholding the psychological and social context of work.

The concept of organizational citizenship behavior has been of tremendous importance to the field of management studies (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Much of the recent research on organizational citizenship behavior has focused on identifying the specific antecedents that contribute to the behavior; such as job satisfaction (Till & Karren, 2011), employee commitment (Veronica & Indradevi, 2014) and organizational justice (Chegini, 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

The research of Katz and Kahn (1966) found that organizations depended on what they termed "supra-role behavior" and described the supra-role behavior as behavior that cannot be prescribed or required of an employee for a given job, which includes any gesture, often taken for granted by the organization. Organ (1988) described supra-role behavior as lubricating the social machinery of the organization and these behaviors are essential but not usually thought of as a part of the performance of a task. These behaviors have also been referred to in the literature as pro-social or extra-role behaviors and examples include helping coworkers with job-related issues, helping to keep work areas clean and uncluttered, tolerating temporary impositions without complaining, promoting a positive work environment that is tolerable and free of personal distractions (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Podsakoff et al., 2000). These behaviors were later referred to as citizenship behaviors by Organ (1988) who posited, based on the concepts of social exchange theory, that these behaviors were influenced by job satisfaction. They found a strong statistical relationship between general job satisfaction and citizenship behaviors. When

employees perform organizational citizenship behaviors consistently, the outcome is not only better communication and interaction between employees but increased organizational performance (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Podsakoff et al. (2000) described the organizational benefits as the following: enhancing coworker and managerial productivity, freeing up resources to be used for more productive means, reducing scarce resources for maintenance functions, assisting in the coordination of activities within and across work groups, enhancing the organization's ability to attract and retain the best employees; increasing organizational stability and performance, and enabling the organization to effectively adapt to environmental changes.

Podsakoff et al. (2000) categorized the antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior into four categories: (1) individual characteristics, (2) task characteristics, (3) organizational characteristics, and (4) leadership behaviors. Of these characteristics, organizational fairness has been found to be the primary antecedent of organizational citizenship behaviors (Moorman, 1991). Researchers have found that employees internalize perceptions of fairness as emotion and interpret the feeling to mean they and their contributions are valued by the organization (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Moorman et al., 1998). This view of fairness encourages pro-social behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behaviors, based on the concepts of social exchange theory and reciprocation (Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012; Deckop et al., 2003; Gouldner, 1960).

Researchers have identified five common themes or dimensions of organizational behavior: courtesy, altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. Each of the identified themes or dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior have been defined by Podsakoff et al. (2000) as follows:

Courtesy. Includes all of those anticipated gestures that assist someone else to prevent a problem (e.g., meeting with individuals before committing to an action).

Altruism. Voluntary actions that help with or prevent the occurrence of work-related problems (e.g., instructing a new hire on how to use equipment, helping a coworker catch up with a backlog of work). Discretionary behaviors that have the effect of helping a specific other person with an organizationally relevant task or problem.

Conscientiousness. A pattern of behaviors on the part of the employee that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization, in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations, taking breaks, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance.

Civic Virtue. This dimension represents a macro-level interest in, or commitment to, the organization as a whole. Civic virtue is demonstrated by a willingness to participate actively in organizational governance, monitor the organization's environment for threats and opportunities, to look out for the best interests of the organization even at significant personal cost. These behaviors are reflective of an employee's recognition of being part of a larger whole in the same way that citizens are members of a country and accept the responsibilities which that entails.

Sportsmanship. Individuals who, not only do not complain when inconvenienced by others, but also who maintain a positive attitude when things do not go their way and are not offended when their suggestions are not taken, willing to sacrifice their needs for the good of the organization, and do not take rejection of their ideas personally.

Employees who engage in organizational citizenship behavior are expressing satisfaction in what they perceive as a positive work environment (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Research has shown a direct correlation between perceptions of organizational fairness and employee

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organizational citizenship behavior (Moorman, 1991; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Saifi & Shahzad,

2017; S. Williams et al., 2002). Research has found that employees bestow human

characteristics on the organization, in that the organization and the employee are in a relationship

and the employee looks to the organization to ensure transactions are equal (Smith et al., 1983).

Employees cognitively evaluate the ratio of inputs compared to outputs. Specifically, employees

look to strike a balance between what they contribute to the organization and what they receive

from the organization. One conceptual basis for believing these behaviors influence job

satisfaction is social exchange theory (Adams, 1965), which predicts that, given certain

conditions, individuals try to reciprocate those who assist them. Adams (1965) also proposed

that perceptions of unfairness will create tension within an individual, which the individual will

attempt to resolve. To the degree that an individual's satisfaction is the result of organizational

leaders and such behavior is perceived to be by preference and not disingenuous, individuals will

search for ways to reciprocate those actions (Bateman & Organ, 1983). The employee views

organizational citizenship behaviors as a means to reimburse the organization that has given to

them (Moorman, 1991). Employees may not have the ability to reciprocate in increased work

output; however, the citizenship behaviors described in this section are more in the control of the

individual and may prove as beneficial, cost-saving measures, to employers. A situation of

economic or social exchange exists when an individual perceives the requirement exists to

reciprocate after a considered benefit (Lambert, 2009). Employees who perceive equity within

the relationship with the organization are more inclined to engage in positive activities that

benefit the organization, such as complying with organizational policies and procedures

(Moorman et al., 1998).

Likewise, employees may view organizational citizenship behaviors as a means to adjust what they perceive as an imbalance in the relationship and withhold behaviors (S. Williams et al., 2002). By adjusting behaviors that would benefit the organization through organizational citizenship behaviors, the employee is empowered and able to safely balance the perceived inequity in the relationship (Moorman et al., 1998).

Ethical Leadership

Presented in this section is a review of the relationship between the organizational leader and subordinates. The construct of ethical leadership is used to describe the leader-subordinate relationship. Ethical leadership focuses on social learning and a moral management process (Brown et al., 2005). Brown et al. (2005) put forward the concept of ethical leadership centered on principles involving social learning (Bandura, 1977). Social learning perspective on ethical leadership proposes that leaders influence followers' ethical conduct by role modeling. Brown et al. (2005) defined ethical leadership as demonstrating normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision making. According to Brown and colleagues, to be considered ethical role models, leaders must be perceived as attractive, credible, and legitimate. Leaders accomplish this by engaging in normatively appropriate and altruistic behavior. Ethical leadership has been related to favorable subordinate outcomes (Brown et al., 2005; Trevino, Hartman & Brown, 2000; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Yukl, Mahsud, Hassan, & Prussia, 2013). Mayer, Kuenzi, and Greenbaum (2010) found a positive relationship between ethical leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors and De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2008) found that employees are empowered when leaders permit them to participate in the decision-making process and listen to their ideas and concerns. Additionally, Trevino et al.

(2000) found a correlation between ethical leadership and ethics related employee outcomes, such as ethical conduct, ethical reporting of misconduct and pro-social behavior.

Trevino, Brown, and Hartman (2003b) posit that integrity, ethical standards, and fair treatment of employees are the cornerstones of ethical leadership. Yukl et al. (2013) described the construct domain of ethical leadership as being and having several different but relevant types of values to include altruism, compassion, honesty, fairness, and justice. Ethical leaders exhibit these values in behaviors such as being very supportive and helpful when individuals have a problem, being fair when distributing rewards and benefits, being open and honest when communicating, making sacrifices to benefit others, discussing the importance of values, establishing clear ethical standards for work, keeping actions consistent with espoused values, and holding individuals accountable for ethical and unethical conduct (Yukl et al., 2013).

Leaders are instrumental in providing an ethical framework for employees (Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, & Chonko, 2009) and developing the overall moral structure of the organization (Yukl et al., 2013). An organization's moral structure indicates and reinforces to employees what behavior is appropriate and acceptable (Trevino et al., 2003b). Ethical leadership influences employees' job satisfaction, job commitment, and desire to bring forward issues to management (Brown et al., 2005). Leaders create work environments that are fair and just by making decisions that are perceived by employees to be done in an honest manner (Brown et al., 2005). Trevino et al. (2000) found a leader's care and concern for employees lead to a perception of ethical leadership. Giving a voice to employees, listening to employees, making fair decisions, and disciplining misconduct are ethical leadership behaviors that are conceptually comparable to the moral behavior of acting justly (Neubert et al., 2009).

Leadership involves influencing others to pursue a common goal (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994).

Walumbwa et al. (2011) used social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to explain the effect ethical leaders have on employee attitudes and behaviors. As explained earlier, the more morally and justly leaders treat their employees the increased indebtedness the employee feels to the leader and the organization. The employee increases levels of organizational citizenship behavior to reciprocate. Empirically, ethical leadership has been shown to predict job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and employee willingness to exert extra effort (Brown et al., 2005; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Mayer et al., 2010; Neubert et al., 2009). The ethical leadership questionnaire developed by Yukl et al. (2013) provides a consistent and straightforward way to measure ethical leadership and will be discussed further in Chapter III Research Method.

Prior Research on the Constructs

This study acknowledged prior research on the constructs of procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior such as the work of Moorman et al. (1998) who conducted research to test the manner in which organizational citizenship behavior is influenced by procedural justice. This study also acknowledged prior research on the constructs of ethical leadership such as the work of Walumbwa et al. (2011), who conducted research to test the manner in which ethical leadership influences employee performance.

The purpose of the study conducted by Moorman et al. (1998) was to test an explanation for the relationship between procedural justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behaviors by examining what may occur within the social exchange process to promote organizational citizenship behaviors. This research first hypothesized that procedural justice

would be positively related to perceived organizational support and second hypothesized that perceived organizational support would mediate the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior.

Moorman et al. (1998) gathered data from civilian subordinates and their supervisors from all departments of a large military hospital located in the Midwest. Surveys were distributed to 450 civilian subordinates and their supervisors. The supervisors were asked to rate their employees' measure of organizational citizenship behavior. Of the 450 distributed surveys to subordinates, 255 or 57 % were returned. Of the 255 returned subordinate surveys, 218 matching supervisor surveys were returned. After removing surveys with missing data, an analytic sample of 157 surveys or effective response rate of 35 %. Of the subordinates in the final sample, thirty percent were men; that average age was 42.5 (SD = 8.7), and the average tenure was 7.6 years (SD = 6.0). The associated supervisor surveys represented 69 supervisors of which 35 were civilian and 72% of the supervisors were women. The research of Moorman et al. (1998) found support for a relationship between procedural justice and perceived organizational support and three of the four organizational citizenship behavior dimensions measured. The research also found a positive relationship between perceptions of justice and organizational citizenship behaviors.

In terms of the other constructs utilized in this study, Walumbwa et al. (2011) investigated the relationship between ethical leadership and employee performance. The researchers examined leader-member exchange, self-efficacy, and organizational identification as mediators of the ethical leadership to performance relationship. Walumbwa et al. (2011) surveyed 72 supervisors and 201 immediate direct subordinates from a major pharmaceutical joint-venture in the People's Republic of China. The average age of the subordinates was 32

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years (SD = 4.9), and the average age of the supervisor was 37 years (SD = 3.9). The supervisors had been with the organization for an average of eight years (SD = 4.7), whereas the subordinates had worked with the supervisor on average for three years (SD = 2.1) and were all full-time employees. Forty-four percent of the subordinates were female, and at least 94% had the equivalent of a United States community college degree. Among the supervisors, 53% were male, and at least 86% had the equivalent of a United States community college degree.

Subordinates were sent a survey packet via email with surveys that evaluated ethical leadership, leader-member exchange, self-efficacy, organizational identification, and procedural fairness. Supervisors evaluated their subordinates' job performance. The research of Walumbwa et al. (2011) found that ethical leadership is positively related to leader-member exchange, self-efficacy, and organizational identification, which, in turn, were all positively related to employee performance.

Hypotheses

Based on the prior research of Moorman et al. (1998) and Walumbwa et al. (2011) the following was hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1

Procedural justice has a significant positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviors.

Hypothesis 2

Ethical leadership has a significant positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviors.

Summary

Presented in this chapter is a review of the literature on social exchange theory, procedural justice, organizational citizenship behaviors, and ethical leadership. In social exchange theory, researchers found that individuals engaged in a social exchange relationship expect the rewards of each involved in the relationship will be proportional to the cost of each involved, and the net rewards or gains will be proportional to their investments. Applied to an organizational setting, when the social exchange relationship, contribution vs. benefit, is out of alignment, employees feel a sense of anxiety and seek to balance the relationship by increasing efforts or withholding efforts until the employee perceives equilibrium in the relationship has been reached. Researchers in procedural justice theory have found that the process more than the end result increased employee perception of fairness, even when the employee had no direct control over the decision (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Lind & Tyler, 1988; J. Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Tyler et al., 1985). Organizational citizenship behavior researchers found the behaviors such as courtesy, conscientiousness, and civic virtue are voluntary behaviors that go beyond what is expected of the employee and are often not compensated for by the organization but benefit the organization (Organ, 1988). Researchers of ethical leadership have found a positive correlation between ethical leadership and pro-social behaviors, which are similar to organizational citizenship behaviors in that the behaviors benefit others as a whole, are demonstrated by assisting, cooperating, and volunteering (Moorman, 1991; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Saifi & Shahzad, 2017; S. Williams et al., 2002). The reviewed literature formed the central constructs of this dissertation. Chapter III presents and describes this study's methodology, which includes the theoretical rationale and model for each corresponding hypothesis, description of the sample, and instrumentation.

Chapter III: Research Method

Introduction

This chapter discusses the approach to the study. It explains the research design, details regarding the sample, the variables that were examined, the measurement instruments that were used, the means of data collection, and data analysis. This chapter concludes with a summary of the research questions and analysis that were used to answer them.

In conducting this study, information was collected about procedural justice, ethical leadership, and organizational citizenship behaviors from employees. Specifically, employees were asked to rate their perceptions of procedural justice and ethical leadership within their workplace and were asked to rate their level of commitment to the organization.

The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship between employee perceptions of their organizational leaders' ethical leadership behaviors, employee perceptions of procedural justice, and employee citizenship behaviors. First, I examined the relationship between employee perceptions of procedural justice and employee organizational citizenship behavior. Second, I examined the relationship between employee perceptions of their organizational leaders' ethical leadership behaviors and employee organizational citizenship behavior. Third, I examined the extent employee perceptions of their organizational leaders' ethical leadership behavior, and perceptions of procedural justice had an interactive effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

This research design was cross-sectional and involved examining the impact of ethical leadership and procedural justice on employee organizational citizenship behaviors. This research involved the online surveying of a sample of employed adults at all levels of an

organization. Additionally, basic demographic data on the study participants to include age, gender, ethnicity, education, race, tenure with the organization, and job title were collected.

Research Method and Design

Figure 1. Proposed Research Model
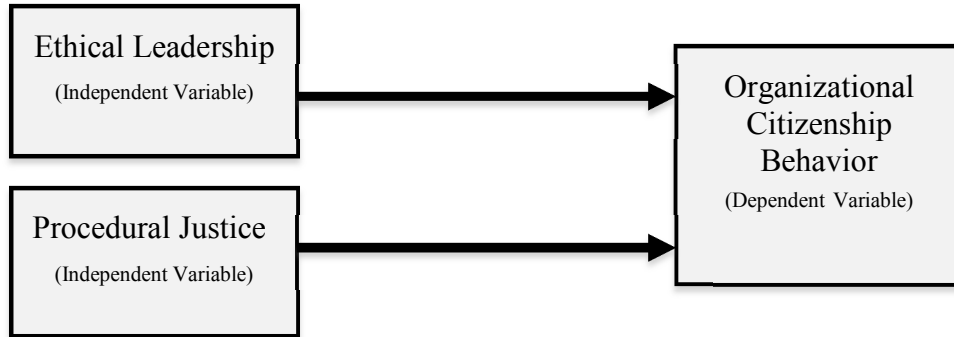
Internal Validity

Internal validity is discussed in the Description of Instrumentation for each of the three instruments used in this study.

External Validity

External validity is discussed in the Description of Instrumentation for each of the three instruments used in this study.

Description of Population and Sample

This research concentrated on how ethical leadership and procedural justice impact working adults and their organizational citizenship behavior. Specifically, the sampling frame of this study was comprised of employed adults, working full time, and under the authority of a supervisor, including entry level to senior employees.

Description of Instrumentation

This research was conducted using three separate survey instruments. The survey instruments were Colquitt (2001) Organizational Justice Scale (Procedural Justice), Khalid et al. (2009) Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale, and Yukl et al. (2013) Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ). The following is an overview of the instruments that were used as part of this research.

Procedural Justice Scale

Colquitt (2001) developed an organizational justice scale that measured distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice. He compared one-factor, two-factor, three-factor, and four-factor models, where the individual structures of the models considered the ways organizational justice has been theorized and measured in the past. Confirmatory factor analysis supported a four-factor structure in which distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice represented distinct dimensions.

In presenting a new justice measure, Colquitt (2001) used a three-phased approached. First, he created items by rigorously following the seminal works in the organizational justice literature and combined those findings with current examinations of those constructs. Second, Colquitt (2001) compared multiple a priori factor structures to include one-factor, two-factor, three-factor, and four-factor conceptualizations of organizational justice. Third, he examined outcomes connected with the justice constructs to place them in a larger nomological network and to establish predictive validity.

In developing his new justice measure, Colquitt (2001) used the seminal works of Thibaut and Walker (1975), Leventhal (1980) and Leventhal et al. (1980), and Lind and Tyler (1988). In the research of Thibaut and Walker (1975), whose work on procedural justice

resulted from observations of courtroom proceedings, where the fairness of the verdict and the process of the verdict are often independent, two criteria of procedural justice were advanced: the ability of an individual to voice their opinion and views during a procedure (process control) and the ability of an individual to influence the outcome of the procedure (decision control). These two criteria have received strong support in the existing literature (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and are presented in the procedural justice measure as the following questions: Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures? and Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?

In the work of Leventhal (1980) and Leventhal et al. (1980), procedural concepts were applied to nonlegal procedures. According to Leventhal and colleagues, procedural justice was assessed by comparing the process an individual experience to several generalizable procedural rules. If the rules were supported, the procedure was found to be valid. The rules consisted of bias suppression (decision makers are neutral), accuracy of information (procedures are not based on inaccurate information), consistency (the process is applied consistently across persons and time), correctability (appeal procedures exist for correcting bad outcomes), representation (all subgroups affected by the outcome have a voice), and ethicality (the process upholds personal standards of ethics and morality). The procedural rules of Leventhal and colleagues are presented in the procedural justice measure as the following questions: Have those procedures been applied consistently?, Have those procedures been free of bias?, Have those procedures been based on accurate information?, Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?, and Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?

Colquitt (2001) used the group-value or relational model of procedural justice in developing his justice measure. The group-value or relational model posits that procedural

justice is important because it signifies that individuals are valued by their supervisors and the organization (Lind & Tyler, 1988). This concept is in contrast to the self-interest or instrumental model which posits that procedural justice is valued because it signifies that long-term outcomes are protected because of the existence of a level playing field (Colquitt, 2001). In the group value or relational view procedural justice is one of the primary determinants of an individuals' perception of legitimate authority and their willingness to comply with the rules and decisions of the organization (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

Colquitt (2001) conducted two independent studies to test the construct validity of the justice measure. The first study examined justice in the context of a university classroom setting. The second study examined justice in a field setting (employees in an automotive parts manufacturing company) context. The two independent studies were also intentionally diverse to demonstrate good construct validity in the samples and to begin to establish a degree of generalizability for the justice measure.

The procedural justice section of the Organizational Justice Scale is a 7- item questionnaire measured using a 5-point Likert scale with anchors labeled: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. The procedural justice section refers to the procedures used and the extent to which employees experienced that they had influences on these procedures met essential criteria (e.g., consistently applied, bias-free, and based on accurate information). The items on the Organizational Justice Scale can be tailored to specific contexts by inserting words or titles according to the instructions given in parentheses, (e.g., the authority figure who enacted procedures) (Enoksen, 2015). Therefore, the Organizational Justice Scale can be easily adjusted to fit the specific organization that is being studied and can be used across diverse contexts.

Enoksen (2015) tested the reliability and validity of the organizational justice scale when she undertook a study of employees from a public health clinic in Norway, situated in five different locations. The author used all the dimensions of the organizational justice scale and found a high overall Cronbach's α, ranging from .99 to .93, for the four organizational justice dimensions that the instrument intended to measure. Additionally, a Cronbach's α for the dimension of procedural justice specifically was .90 with a mean of 3.04 and a standard deviation of 0.91.

Maharee-Lawler, Rodwell, and Noblet (2010) examined dimensions of the Organizational Justice Scale in a public sector context. They tested the measure on Australian uniformed police officers performing departmental jobs in a state-funded police force. The study pertained to the effects of potentially stressful working conditions on performance. Maharee-Lawler et al. (2010) found support for four dimensions of organizational justice with overall Cronbach's α ranging from .78 to .92.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

In developing their organizational citizenship behavior scale, Khalid et al. (2009) utilized a scale developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Hoorman, and Fetter (1990) and included 22 newly developed items that were used to measure the following five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior: courtesy, altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent of organizational citizenship behavior using a 5-point Likert scale with anchors labeled: 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The Cronbach's α for the self-ratings of organizational citizenship dimensions were: .87 (courtesy), .80 (altruism), .78 (conscientiousness), .70 (civic virtue), and .71 (sportsmanship).

The Khalid et al. (2009) questionnaire is a self-rating organizational citizenship behavior

questionnaire. The majority of organizational citizenship behavior research has utilized

supervisor-ratings of employees on the premise that self-ratings of organizational citizenship

behaviors are subject to self-serving bias; individuals are apt to present themselves in more

favorable ways (Khalid et al., 2009). The use of self-rating organizational citizenship behaviors

has increased in recent research such as the research of Carmeli and Freund (2002) and Sharma

and Jain (2014). Additionally, according to Morrison (1994), behavior such as organizational

citizenship behaviors are seen differently by employees and leaders, and although the use of

superior-ratings mitigates the concern of common method variance and self-serving bias, a

significant amount of citizenship behavior may escape the attention of supervisors (Organ &

Konovsky, 1989). Therefore, by utilizing self-ratings, a more rounded and encompassing

perspective of employee organizational citizenship behaviors may be gleaned.

Ethical Leadership

Prior to selection of Yukl et al. (2013) Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ) for this

research, several alternative instruments were considered as possible measurements of ethical

leadership behaviors.

The first instrument considered as a measure of ethical leadership was the Ethical

Leadership Scale (ELS). The Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS) was developed by Brown et al.

(2005) who, building on a study by Trevino, Brown, and Hartman (2003a) that found descriptors

of ethical leaders included honesty, fair treatment, communication of ethical values, role

modeling of ethical behaviors, rewarding ethical behavior, and holding subordinates accountable

for unethical conduct also found that ethical leadership includes these traits but also efforts to

hold subordinates accountable for ethical behavior. The Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS)

developed by Brown et al. (2005) has 10 items, each with a 5-point Likert type response format (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Research examining some relevant characteristics of ethical leadership such as (honest communication, behavior consistent with espoused values, and fair allocation of assignments and rewards) were not explicitly included (Podsakoff et al., 2000). These missing characteristics were relevant to this study and as they were not included in the Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS); therefore, this instrument could not be used in this study.

The second instrument considered as a measure of ethical leadership was the Perceived Leader Integrity Scale (PLIS). This questionnaire was developed by Craig and Gustafson (1998) after reviewing literature on ethical aspects of leadership. The Perceived Leader Integrity Scale (PLIS) has 31 items that describe several types of unethical and unprofessional behavior such as: My supervisor would falsify records if it would help his/her work situation, is vindictive, would blame me for his/her mistakes, avoids coaching me because (s)he wants me to fail, would limit my training opportunities to prevent me from advancing. The four response options indicate how accurately they describe the supervisor (1 = not at all, 2 = somewhat, 3 = very much, 4 = exactly). A limitation to this study was the vague conditional wording ("would falsify", "would blame") for many items, which involves an inference regarding possible rather than observed behavior. Due to this limitation, the Perceived Leader Integrity Scale (PLIS) could not be used in this study.

The third instrument considered as a measure of ethical leadership was the Ethical Leadership Work Questionnaire (ELW). This questionnaire was developed by Kalshoven, Den Hartog, and De Hoogh (2011). The Ethical Leadership Work Questionnaire (ELW) questionnaire has 38 items, each item having a 7-point anchored Likert-type response format (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The Ethical Leadership Work Questionnaire (ELW) has

seven subscales which include fairness, integrity, ethical guidance, people orientation, power sharing, role clarification, and concern for sustainability. Three subscales that are most relevant to measures of ethical leadership are fairness (my leader has clear favorites among subordinates), integrity (includes 5 items; my leader keeps his/her promises), and ethical guidance (my leader clearly explains integrity related codes of conduct). A limitation with the Ethical Leadership Work Questionnaire (ELW) is seen in the subscale for sustainability which involves social issues and is only one of many social issues that leaders may elect to endorse and support (global health, free speech, world peace). The definition of ethical leadership and the instrument used to measure ethical leadership should not be complicated by debates about which social issues deserve inclusion into the definition; therefore, the Ethical Leadership Work Questionnaire (ELW) could not be used in this study.

Two other instruments considered as measures of ethical leadership included Walumbwa et al. (2011) Authentic Leadership Questionnaire and Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) Servant Leadership Questionnaire. While both of these instruments measure qualities of leadership behaviors, their subscales and items do not focus on ethical leadership behaviors. For this reason, neither the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire or the Servant Leadership Questionnaire could be used in this research.

Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ)

In developing items for the Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ), Yukl et al. (2013) used several methods. First, building upon the following previous scales on ethical leadership and whenever possible adapting items from them: the Ethical Leadership Scale (Brown et al., 2005), the Perceived Leader Integrity Scale (Craig & Gustafson, 1998), and the Morality And Fairness Scale developed by De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2008). The Ethical Leadership

Questionnaire (ELQ) is a self-scoring questionnaire. Responses to each of the 15 items are rated using a 6-point Likert-scale. The items describe several different characteristics of ethical leadership including honesty, integrity, fairness, altruism, consistency of behaviors with espoused values, communication of ethical values, and providing ethical guidance.

Leader task relations and change-oriented behaviors were measured with 33 items from the Managerial Practices Survey (MPS) developed by Kim and Yukl (1995) and Yukl, Gordon and Taber (2002). All the items have the same 5-point response format with an anchor for each choice indicating how much the behavior described by the item is used by the focal manager (1 = Not at all, 5 = To a very great extent) and with a "Don't Know or Not Applicable" option. Relations-oriented behaviors (supporting, recognizing, developing, consulting, and delegating) were measured with 13 MPS items (α = .95). Task-oriented behaviors (clarifying roles, short-term planning, and monitoring operations) were measured with 10 MPS items (α = .86). Change-oriented behaviors (envisioning change and encouraging innovative thinking) were measured with 10MPS items (α = .92).

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) was measured with the LMX-7 instrument developed by Scandura and Graen (1984). Each item had five anchored response choices with unique anchors that are appropriate for the item. The wording for the response choices in a few items was slightly changed to reduce ambiguity. Sample items included, How well does your boss understand and appreciate your talents and potential?, How much confidence does your boss have in your ability to do the work?, How willing are you to do extra work to help your boss deal with a difficult problem?, and How would you describe the relationship between you and your boss?. Internal reliability consistency for this scale was high (α = .91).

Overall leader effectiveness was measured with four items ($\alpha = .74$). The first two items asked subordinates to rate the overall effectiveness of their manager in carrying out his or her job responsibilities (1 = The least effective manager I have known and 9 = The most effective manager I have known) and in terms of his or her overall effectiveness as a manager (1 = Ineffective and 9 = Very effective). Each item had a 9-point anchored scale (1 = The least effective manager and 9 = The most effective manager). The other two items asked subordinates to assess their manager's work unit performance relative to past performance (1 = Increased a lot and 7 = Decreased a lot) and comparing it with similar work units (1 = Much better and 7 = Much worse). These two items were recorded such that higher values reflected greater effectiveness. To equalize the influence of items with different score ranges and variances, the scores for each item were standardized before computing a composite score on overall leader effectiveness.

Yukl et al. (2013) performed two hierarchical multiple regression analyses to assess the effect of ethical leadership on LMX and overall leader effectiveness. In the first analysis relations and task-oriented leader behaviors were found to be significant predictors of LMX, and they accounted for 52% of the criterion variance ($F = 60.63$, $p < .05$). In the second analysis, after controlling for the effects of the three leader behaviors, ethical leadership was a significant predictor of LMX ($\beta = .38$, $p < .05$), and it explained an additional 7% criterion variance ($F = 61.40$, $p < .05$).

After performing hierarchical regression analysis for overall leader effectiveness, Yukl et al. (2013) found the three leader behaviors together accounted for 46% variance in leader effectiveness. In the second analysis, after controlling for the effects of the three types of leader behaviors, ethical leadership was found to be a significant predictor of leader effectiveness ($\beta = $

.39, $p < .05$), and it explained an additional 10% variance in leader effectiveness ($F = 41.55$, $p <$ .05). The regression analyses provided evidence for the criterion-related validity of the ELQ.

The Ethical Leadership Questionnaire is thorough as it relates to the principal elements of ethical leadership, including fairness, honesty, integrity, communication of ethical values, consistency of behavior with espoused values, ethical guidance and altruism (Yukl et al., 2013). It has high reliability as well as discriminant and criterion-related validity. The factor analyses confirmed that the items in the Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ) are distinct from task and change-oriented leader behaviors, and there is minimal overlap with relations-oriented leader behaviors such as supportive and empowering leadership.

Final Measurement Scale Selections

This research was conducted using the three instruments described above: Colquitt (2001) Organizational Justice Scale (Procedural Justice); Khalid et al. (2009) Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale; and Yukl et al. (2013) Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ).

Dependent and Independent Variables

Dependent Variable

The dependent/outcome variable in this study was organizational citizenship behavior. Specifically, the dimensions of courtesy, altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship.

Independent Variable

The first independent/predictor variable in this study was organizational justice; specifically, the dimension of procedural justice. The second independent/predictor variable was ethical leadership.

Data Collection Procedures

Data collection was done by a self-administered survey (see Appendices A-D for survey items) administered through a web-based platform. Specifically, the survey was built using the Qualtrics website and sent out on Qualtrics' Survey Platform. Internet surveys have become an effective and valuable resource (Sills & Song, 2002) and an acceptable method of conducting research (Creswell, 2012). The design flexibility, geographic reach, responder anonymity, and Internet survey's ability to minimize interviewer error make them superior to mail and telephone methods (Sheehan & Grubbs-Hoy, 2006).

The target demographic of this study was comprised of employed adults, working full time, working under the authority of a supervisor, and included entry level to senior employees. The survey remained open until a minimum of 150 usable responses were received.

Ethics and Confidentiality

Ethical considerations during evaluation included the following elements:

Informed Consent

Written consent ensures active and explicit consent to participate in research; therefore, respondents were required to give their written consent to participate in this research by completing an informed consent form before being able to access the survey form.

Voluntary Participation

The private research company Qualtrics utilizes a double "opt-in for research" process. Respondents were required to submit an initial registration form requesting to participate in research studies. Respondents were then sent an automated email to confirm their requests to participate in the research. Respondents who did not reconfirm were not contacted to participate in the survey.

Assurance of No Harm

In an effort to protect research participants, prior to any participation, respondents were informed that: their participation in this research was voluntary; they could at any time withdraw their consent to participate in the research; their participation in the research would be kept confidential; their participation in the research was contingent on completing an informed consent form.

Confidentiality

The Qualtrics platform randomly selects participants, requires the informed consent form is properly completed from all chosen participants prior to granting access to the survey, and removes all personal information such as name, address, and IP address before providing coded data to the researcher. To assure confidentiality, data will be stored for five years as per APA guidelines at which point the data will be deleted utilizing a virtual shredder program such as File Shredder, which deletes files using an algorithm and overwrites the content of the file ensuring the data is unrecoverable.

Data Protection

The Qualtrics' database does not maintain sensitive or confidential respondent information; however, all survey responses are maintained in Qualtrics' data centers. The data

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centers utilize many security measures, such as restricted and secure authorization database access, all computer equipment is redundant and located in environmentally controlled data centers with 24/7 monitoring, web traffic does not directly access the database, and all information is secured via firewalls and stringent IT security policies and procedures. Additionally, Qualtrics stores and maintains all collected data in encrypted files that are not released to any external entities with the exception of exportable data released to the researcher.

Analytical Strategy

The applied methodology answered the following research questions as stated in Chapter I and the hypotheses stated in Chapter II:

Research Questions

The following questions were proposed as part of this research:

1. What impact, if any, does ethical leadership have on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the research sample of working adults?

2. What impact, if any, does procedural justice have on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the research sample of working adults?

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Procedural justice has a significant positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviors.

Hypothesis 2: Ethical leadership has a significant positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviors.

Preliminary Analyses

A descriptive statistical analysis was conducted to determine mean, median, mode, and frequencies. Multiple linear regression using SPSS was used as the primary method of analysis of the data.

Data Analysis

The data was analyzed to determine the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors, and the relationship between organizational justice (procedural justice) and organizational citizenship behavior. Specifically, the relationship between ethical leadership and procedural justice and the following dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior: courtesy, altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. All data was exported and downloaded from Qualtrics and put into an MS Excel file. The primary analytical software used to analyze this research data was Microsoft Excel and IBM SPSS Statistics. Multiple techniques have been used by researchers to explore data that qualify relationships among variables. This study used multiple regression to analyze the data.

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Assumptions and Limitations

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Assumptions

The word perception communicates a sense of uniqueness. This study assumed that all employees were equally able to consider the same perception of fairness when placed in the same situation. This study assumed that the fairness perception, perceptions of procedural justice, of employees was accurate. It was expected that employees would consider all information available and make an informed decision on how fairly they have been treated. This research assumed that employees gave accurate and honest responses to survey instruments that

were sufficiently clear, undistorted, and appropriate for measuring the constructs of interest in this study.

Limitations

The following limitations are acknowledged in this research: self-report validity, cross-sectional, sample size, and sample representativeness. Self-report validity is a concern in research as the data is limited by the fact it can rarely be independently verified and can contain biases of the respondent. The data that was collected in this research was cross-sectional, all taken at a specific point in time and does not establish a good foundation for causality. Additionally, sample representativeness and the small sample size are limitations. The sample representativeness of this research was very broad therefore no inferences can be drawn from one career to another. The small sample size affects the ability to generalize the conclusions found in the research.

<div align="center">

Summary

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The research methods described in this chapter offer insights into the relationships of ethical leadership and procedural justice on organizational citizenship behaviors. This research was conducted using three separate survey instruments. The survey instruments were Colquitt (2001) Organizational Justice Scale (Procedural Justice) which measured the extent to which employees experienced they had influence on the procedures used and if the procedures used met essential criteria (e.g., consistently applied, bias-free, and based on accurate information); Khalid et al. (2009) Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale which measured the five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior: courtesy, altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship; and Yukl et al. (2013) Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ) which measured the principal elements of ethical leadership, to include fairness, honesty, integrity,

communication of ethical values, consistency of behavior with espoused values, ethical guidance and altruism. The information from responding employees provides a better understanding of how working adults perceive justice within their organization and how this perception impacts organizational citizenship behaviors. The information from responding employees also provided a better understanding of how ethical leadership impacts working adults and their organizational citizenship behaviors. The results from performing multiple regression analyses using SPSS Statistics, as described in this chapter, allowed evaluation of the overall fit of the described model and the contribution of each predictor to the total variance and helps to increase understanding of these relationships.

Chapter IV: Results

Introduction

Presented in this chapter are the findings regarding the demographics of the study participants, the preliminary analyses of the data, and the statistical analyses used to answer the research questions. This chapter is concluded with a summary of the findings.

Survey Dissemination

The self-administered survey was launched in two stages, a soft launch and a full launch, through the web-based Qualtrics Survey Platform. The soft launch stage collected a subset, approximately 10% of the total sample size or 15 surveys for this research. Once the subset collection was completed, the survey was paused and the data reviewed for discrepancies or issues. The median time to completion of the survey was found to be approximately six minutes. A speeding check, measured as one-third the median soft launch time, was added to the survey which automatically terminated those respondents not responding thoughtfully during the full launch. After a review of the subset of collected responses was complete the survey was fully launched to collect the rest of the data, 157 total responses were collected and used for this research.

Demographic Description of the Participants

Statistics: Study Participants

The total number of participants for this study was N = 157. Participants for this study were primarily between the age of 35 and 44 (35.85%, SD = .98), female (58.49%), married (48.43%), and worked an average of 40 to 44 hours (70.44%, SD = .72) per week. Educational level varied from high school education to doctoral education, with 62.89% of respondents having at least a bachelor's degree. Additionally, 67.92% reported their race/ethnicity as white

and 44.03% characterized their job as being professional. As required to participate in the study, 100% of the respondents confirmed they reported to a manager/supervisor.

Instrumentation

Instrument Validity

SPSS was the statistical software program used to perform all procedures. An examination of the reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of each of the scales used in this study was performed. Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency of a scale and is expressed as a number between 0 and 1. Internal consistency measures the degree to which all the items in a survey measure the same construct and should be determined prior to conducting research to ensure validity (Cortina, 1993). The closer the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1 the higher the internal consistency of the items in the scale. Alpha coefficients higher than .70 are considered acceptable (George & Mallery, 2003). The following tables are the Cronbach's alpha results for each of the scales used in this study.

Table 1.

Cronbach's Alpha Results for Procedural Justice

	Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.659	.862	7

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for procedural justice was .659. A score over .7 is considered to be of high internal consistency. In this case, $\alpha = .659$, showing that the composite of procedural justice did not have high internal consistency.

Table 2.

Cronbach's Alpha Results for Ethical Leadership

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.970	.970	15

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for ethical leadership was .970. A score over .7 is considered to be of high internal consistency. In this case, $\alpha = .970$, which shows that the composite of ethical leadership did have high internal consistency.

Table 3.

Cronbach's Alpha Results for Courtesy

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.812	.827	7

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for courtesy was .812. A score over .7 is considered to be of high internal consistency. In this case, $\alpha = .812$, which shows that the composite of courtesy did have high internal consistency.

Table 4.

Cronbach's Alpha Results for Altruism

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.866	.867	4

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for altruism was .866. A score over .7 is considered to be of high internal consistency. In this case, $\alpha = .866$, which shows that the composite of altruism did have high internal consistency.

Table 5.

Cronbach's Alpha Results for Conscientiousness

	Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.681	.672	3

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for conscientiousness was .681. A score over .7 is considered to be of high internal consistency. In this case, $\alpha = .681$, which shows that the composite of conscientiousness did not have high internal consistency. However, at $\alpha = .681$ it was approaching or close to being reliable.

Table 6.

Cronbach's Alpha Results for Civic Virtue

	Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.741	.756	3

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for civic virtue was .741. A score over .7 is considered to be of high internal consistency. In this case, $\alpha = .741$, which shows that the composite of civic virtue did have high internal consistency.

Table 7.

Cronbach's Alpha Results for Sportsmanship

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.741	.756	3

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for sportsmanship was .741. A score over .7 is considered to be of high internal consistency. In this case, α = .741, which shows that the composite of sportsmanship did have high internal consistency.

The Cronbach's alphas for this study ranged from .659 to .970. The items for procedural justice had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .659 and the items for conscientiousness had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .681, indicating questionable yet close to acceptable reliability (George & Mallery, 2003). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for civic virtue and sportsmanship were both .741, indicating acceptable reliability. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for courtesy was .812 and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for altruism was .866, indicating good reliability. The items for ethical leadership had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .970, indicating excellent reliability (George & Mallery, 2003).

Statistical Results

Regression analysis was performed to test each of the following research questions:

1. What impact, if any, does procedural justice have on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the research sample of working adults?

2. What impact, if any, does ethical leadership have on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the research sample of working adults?

Regression Results for Procedural Justice

The regression analysis for procedural justice was performed to test the research question: What impact, if any, does procedural justice have on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the research sample of working adults? Specifically, what is the relationship between procedural justice and the organizational citizenship behavior constructs of courtesy, altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship?

The following tables are the ANOVA findings for the procedural justice scale used in this study.

Table 8.

ANOVA Table for OCB: Courtesy and Procedural Justice, N = 157

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.496	8	1.187	4.161	.000[b]
	Residual	42.500	149	.285		
	Total	51.996	157			

A regression analysis, considering the procedural justice composite and the relationship to courtesy, was statistically significant, *F (8,149) = 4.161, p < .001.*

Table 9.

ANOVA Table for OCB: Altruism and Procedural Justice, N = 157

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.449	8	1.431	3.236	.002[b]
	Residual	65.904	149	.442		
	Total	77.353	157			

A regression analysis, considering the procedural justice composite and the relationship to courtesy, was statistically significant, *F (8,149) = 3.236, p < .01.*

Table 10.

ANOVA Table for OCB: Conscientiousness and Procedural Justice, N = 157

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	10.513	8	1.314	1.576	.136[b]
	Residual	124.229	149	.834		
	Total	134.742	157			

A regression analysis, considering the procedural justice composite and the relationship to conscientiousness, was not statistically significant, *F (8,1.314) = 1.576, ns*

Table 11.

ANOVA Table for OCB: Civic Virtue and Procedural Justice, N = 157

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	21.748	8	2.719	4.251	.000[b]
	Residual	95.292	149	.640		
	Total	117.040	157			

A regression analysis, considering the procedural justice composite and the relationship to courtesy, was statistically significant, *F (8,149) = 2.719, p < .001.*

Table 12.

ANOVA Table for OCB: Sportsmanship and Procedural Justice, N = 157

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.515	8	.564	2.033	.046[b]
	Residual	41.376	149	.278		
	Total	45.891	157			

A regression analysis, considering the procedural justice composite and the relationship to sportsmanship, was statistically significant, *F (8,149) = 2.033, p < .05.*

Regression Results for Ethical Leadership

The regression analysis for ethical leadership was performed to test the research question:

What impact, if any, does ethical leadership have on the organizational citizenship behaviors of

the research sample of working adults? Specifically, what is the relationship between ethical

leadership and the organizational citizenship behavior constructs of courtesy, altruism,

conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship?

The following tables are the ANOVA findings for the ethical leadership scale used in this

study.

Table 13.

ANOVA Table for OCB: Courtesy and Ethical Leadership, N = 157

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.159	15	.611	2.024	.017[b]
	Residual	42.837	142	.302		
	Total	51.996	157			

A regression analysis, considering the ethical leadership composite and the relationship to

courtesy, was statistically significant, *F (15, 142) = 2.024, p < .05*.

Table 14.

ANOVA Table for OCB: Altruism and Ethical Leadership, N=157

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	16.585	15	1.106	2.584	.002[b]
	Residual	60.768	142	.428		
	Total	77.353	157			

A regression analysis, considering the ethical leadership composite and the relationship to

altruism, was statistically significant, *F (15, 142) = 2.584, p < .01*.

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Table 15.

ANOVA Table for OCB: Conscientiousness and Ethical Leadership, N = 157

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	17.241	15	1.149	1.389	.160[b]
	Residual	117.501	142	.827		
	Total	134.742	157			

A regression analysis, considering the ethical leadership composite and the relationship to

conscientiousness was not statistically significant, *F (15, 142) = 1.389, ns*

Table 16.

ANOVA Table for OCB: Civic Virtue and Ethical Leadership, N = 157

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	23.091	15	1.539	2.327	.005[b]
	Residual	93.949	142	.662		
	Total	117.040	157			

A regression analysis, considering the ethical leadership composite and the relationship to

civic virtue was statistically significant, *F (15, 142) = 1.539, p < .01.*

Table 17.

ANOVA Table for OCB: Sportsmanship and Ethical Leadership, N = 157

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.100	15	.407	1.451	.132[b]
	Residual	39.791	142	.280		
	Total	45.891	157			

A regression analysis, considering the ethical leadership composite and the relationship to

sportsmanship was not statistically significant, *F (15, 142) = 1.451, ns*

Figure 2. Regression Results of Procedural Justice
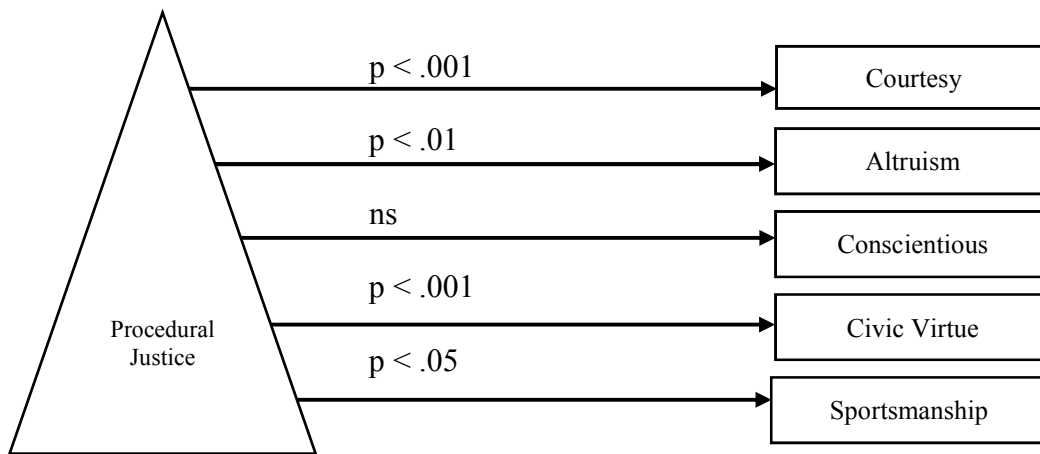
ANOVA model showing findings of the impact of procedural justice on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the research sample of working adults.

Figure 3. Regression Results of Ethical Leadership
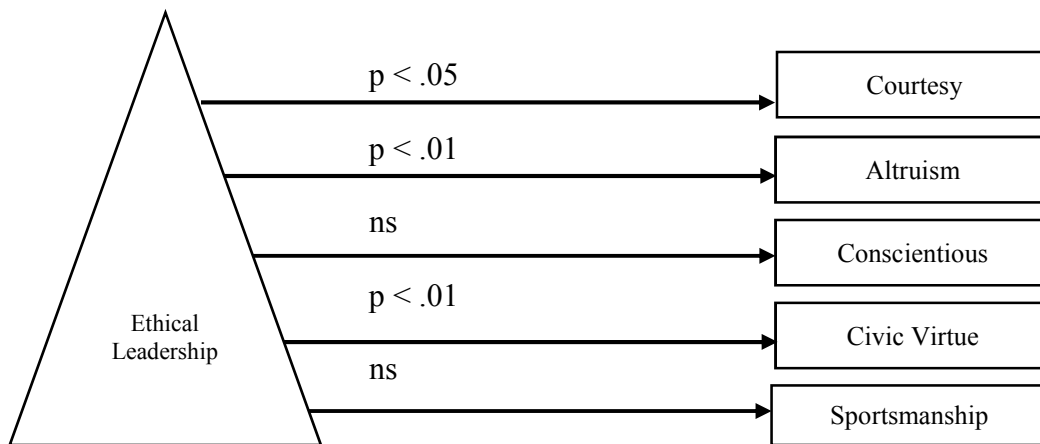
ANOVA model showing findings of impact of ethical leadership on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the research sample of working adults.

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Summary

This chapter discussed the data obtained from the study, the demographics of the study participants, and the data analysis performed. The analyses used in this study was Cronbach's alpha and Analysis of variance (ANOVA). The data analysis section and the statistical results section presented the findings of the statistical test used to answer the research questions. Chapter V discusses the findings of this study in greater detail. Additionally, Chapter V discusses limitations of the findings and suggest implications for future research.

Chapter V: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to investigate the impact of procedural justice and ethical leadership on employee organizational citizenship behavior. Specifically, this study answered the following research questions: What impact, if any, does procedural justice have on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the research sample of working adults? and What impact, if any, does ethical leadership have on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the research sample of working adults?.

Data for this research was collected using the web-based survey platform Qualtrics. This research was conducted using Colquitt (2001) Organizational Justice Scale (Procedural Justice); Khalid et al. (2009) Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale; and Yukl et al. (2013) Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ). Participants were asked to rate their perceptions of procedural justice and ethical leadership within their workplace and were also asked to rate their level of commitment to the organization. The respondent demographic of this study was comprised of employed adults, working full time, working under the authority of a supervisor, and included entry level to senior employees.

Discussion

The goal of this study was to provide further insights to organizational leaders about how to promote environments that encourage organizational citizenship behaviors. This study found that an antecedent of organizational citizenship behaviors, specifically procedural justice, is positively correlated to organizational citizenship behavior and that there is also a positive relationship between ethical leadership and employee organizational citizenship behavior. This study also found the antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors, procedural justice and

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ethical leadership have a positive impact on the organizational citizenship behavior constructs of courtesy, altruism, and civic virtue.

Conclusions

There are many factors that can influence organizational citizenship behaviors: job satisfaction (Till & Karren, 2011), employee commitment (Veronica & Indradevi, 2014) and organizational justice (Chegini, 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2000). This study found that procedural justice does have an impact on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the research sample of working adults. This study supported the research question that procedural justice does have an impact on organizational citizenship behaviors. Overall, there was a significant positive correlation between procedural justice and the organizational citizenship behavior constructs of courtesy, altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. This research found the relationship between procedural justice and the organizational citizenship behavior construct of conscientiousness was not statistically significant, possible due to the research sample size, which should not be viewed as a basis for making inferences of the impact procedural justice has on this organizational citizenship behavior construct.

This research also found that ethical leadership does have an impact on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the research sample of working adults. This research supported the research question that ethical leadership does have an impact on organizational citizenship behaviors. Overall, there was a significant positive relationship between ethical leadership and the organizational citizenship behavior constructs of courtesy, altruism, and civic virtue. This research found the relationship between ethical leadership and the organizational citizenship behavior constructs of conscientiousness and sportsmanship were not statistically significant, possibly due to the research sample size, which should not be viewed as a basis for making

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inferences of the impact ethical leadership has on these organizational citizenship behavior constructs.

It is interesting to note that neither procedural justice nor ethical leadership had an impact on conscientiousness, a pattern of behaviors on the part of the employee that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization, in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations, taking breaks, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Also of interest is that procedural justice had a positive impact on sportsmanship, individuals who not only do not complain when inconvenienced by others, but who also maintain a positive attitude when things do not go their way and are not offended when their suggestions are not taken, willing to sacrifice their needs for the good of the organization, and do not take rejection of their ideas personally (Podsakoff et al., 2000); but ethical leadership did not impact sportsmanship.

Practical Implications

From a practical standpoint, this study represents an opportunity to advance the current understanding of the impact procedural justice and ethical leadership have on employee organizational citizenship behaviors. This study provides insights to organizational leaders about the relationships between perceptions of procedural justice and ethical leadership and how these influence organizational citizenship behaviors in creating employee behaviors that positively impact organizations. Finally, this study provides information to organizational leaders on the constructs of organizational citizenship behavior that are positively influenced by perceptions of procedural justice and ethical leadership. This study demonstrates that efforts directed in increasing positive perceptions of procedural justice and ethical leadership can positively impact organizational citizenship behaviors, specifically the constructs of courtesy, altruism, and civic

virtue. Positive organizational citizenship behaviors have been shown to influence the efficiency, effectiveness, and productivity of organizations (Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

The results of this study offer organizational leaders insights about the relationships between perceptions of procedural justice and ethical leadership and how their actions influence organizational citizenship behaviors in creating employee behaviors that positively impact organizations. Positive and constructive communication and interaction between leaders and employees strengthens productivity and enhances the organization's ability to attract and retain the best workforce. Also, increasing organizational performance improves organizational stability and increases the organization's ability to effectively adapt to environmental changes.

This study contributes to our further understanding of management and the impact of ethical leadership and procedural justice on employee organizational citizenship behaviors. This study demonstrates that employee perceptions are not solely based on work conditions, but also on how they perceive leadership and how they see leaders act towards them and other employees. Perceived fairness is influenced by leader actions and impacts employees more so than the outcome obtained.

Limitations and Future Research

This study used a cross sectional design and analyzed the relationships among the survey items. As a result, in spite of the fact that this study provides greater insight into the relationship between the researched constructs, the design does not establish a good foundation toward causality. Future research in conducting a longitudinal study into the impact of the antecedents on organizational citizenship behavior is recommended.

Additionally, demographic variables such as age, education, race, and profession have not been found to be significantly related to perceptions of fairness. Future research may explore additional organizational and individual characteristics that could possibly be linked to perceptions of fairness.

In using a self-report survey, as this study used, the validity of the responses is a concern as the data is limited by the fact it can rarely be independently verified and can contain biases of the respondent. While responding to items, respondents may not answer truthfully, especially on sensitive questions. Also, the clarity of the items on the survey instrument poses a problem in using self-report questionnaires as there is a risk of obtaining different interpretations of the survey questions.

Finally, the findings of this study indicate that the antecedents, procedural justice and ethical leadership, do not share a similar relationship with all dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. Specifically, the study found that the organizational citizenship behavior construct of conscientiousness was not impacted by either antecedent. The study also found that the organizational citizenship behavior construct of sportsmanship was impacted by procedural justice and not ethical leadership. These two unimpacted constructs of organizational citizenship behavior provide an area for future research into the question of why the constructs were not impacted and are there ways to impact the constructs by the antecedents.

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Appendix A: Colquitt (2001) Organizational Justice Scale (Procedural justice)

Organizational Justice Scale (Procedural Justice)					
Instructions: The following items refer to the procedures used to arrive at your outcome. Specifically, the outcome in question is the outcomes you receive from your job (e.g., pay, promotions, etc.). The procedure in the questions refers to the procedures used by your supervisors in making such decisions. With respect to your own feelings please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by placing a circle around the number that most accurately reflects your true opinion. **To what extent:**	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
Have those procedures been applied consistently?	1	2	3	4	5
Have those procedures been free of bias?	1	2	3	4	5
Have those procedures been based on accurate information?	1	2	3	4	5
Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B: Khalid et al. (2009) Organizational citizenship behavior scale

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCB)					
Instructions: Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by placing a circle around the number that most accurately reflects your true opinion.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I inform my supervisor before taking any important actions.	1	2	3	4	5
I am always willing to cooperate with others to get a job done.	1	2	3	4	5
I take steps to prevent problems with other workers.	1	2	3	4	5
I do not abuse the rights of others.	1	2	3	4	5
I am concerned with the effects of my actions or decisions on others.	1	2	3	4	5
I obey organizational rules, regulations and procedures even when no one is watching.	1	2	3	4	5
I pay attention to organizational memos or announcements.	1	2	3	4	5
I help others that have been absent.	1	2	3	4	5
I willingly give my time to help others with work-related problems.	1	2	3	4	5
I help others who have heavy workloads.	1	2	3	4	5
I help others with demanding work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
I never take long lunches.	1	2	3	4	5
I do not take extra breaks.	1	2	3	4	5
I am always punctual at work.	1	2	3	4	5
I attend functions that are not required, but that help the organization's image.	1	2	3	4	5
I attend and participate in formal and informal organizational meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
I keep abreast of changes in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
I always find faults with what the organization is doing [R].	1	2	3	4	5
I tend to make a "mountain out of molehills".	1	2	3	4	5
I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters [R].	1	2	3	4	5

Note. An "[R]" denotes a negatively phrased and reverse scored item.

Appendix C: Yukl et al. (2013) Ethical leadership questionnaire (ELQ)

Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ)						
Instructions: This questionnaire is designed to study the relevance of ethics to effective leadership. The term "unit" refers to the team, department, division, or company for which your boss is the formal leader, and the term "members" refers to the people in the unit who report directly to your boss. Please indicate how well each of the following statements describes your current boss by selecting one of the following response choices. Please circle the number that most accurately reflects your true opinion. Leave the item blank if you do not know the answer. My boss:	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
Shows a strong conical and concern for ethical and moral values.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Communicates clear ethical standards for members.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sets an example of ethical behavior in his/her decisions and actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Is honest and can be trusted to tell the truth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Keeps his/her actions consistent with his/her stated values ("walks the talk").	1	2	3	4	5	6
Is fair and unbiased when assigning tasks to members.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Can be trusted to carry out promise and commitments.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Insists on doing what is fair and ethical even when it is not easy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Acknowledges mistakes and takes responsibility for them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Regards honesty and integrity as important personal values.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Regards honesty and integrity as important personal values.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Opposes the use of unethical practices to increase performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Is fair and objective when evaluating member performance and providing rewards.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Puts the needs of others above his/her own self-interest.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Holds members accountable for using ethical practices in their work.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix D: Demographic Information

Age	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65or older
Gender	Female	Male	Transgender		Gender Variant	
Marital Status	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced		
Education	High School/Ged	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree		Doctorial	
Race/Ethnicity	White	Hispanic or Latino	Black or African American	Native American	Other	
Average Number of Hours Per Week Worked	30-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51 or more	
How Would You Characterize Your Job?	Management	Professional	Technical		Administrative	