

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR,
LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE, AND ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE
IN ALBANIAN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

MIKAELA MUSTA

BOĞAZIÇI UNIVERSITY

2018

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR,
LEADER–MEMBER EXCHANGE, AND ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE
IN ALBANIAN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Thesis submitted to the
Institute for Graduate Studies in Social Sciences
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts
in
International Trade Management

by
Mikaela Musta

Boğaziçi University

2018

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Mikaela Musta, certify that

- I am the sole author of this thesis and that I have fully acknowledged and documented in my thesis all sources of ideas and words, including digital resources, which have been produced or published by another person or institution;
- this thesis contains no material that has been submitted or accepted for a degree or diploma in any other educational institution;
- this is a true copy of the thesis approved by my advisor and thesis committee at Boğaziçi University, including revisions required by them.

Signature



Date

07.09.2018

ABSTRACT

Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Leader–Member Exchange, and Organizational Justice in Albanian Higher Education Institutions

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are among the most desired behaviors by employers. Perceived fairness, measured through organizational justice (OJ), and the quality of the relationship that an employee has with their immediate supervisor, measured by leader-member exchange (LMX), have been identified among the best predictors of OCB. A model based on social exchange theory was used to investigate the impact of OJ and LMX on OCB, on the one hand, and the impact of OJ on LMX, on the other. The sample of the study consists of 132 Albanian academics working full-time in higher education institutions (HEIs) in Albania. Economic development level of the country, current state of the HEIs in Albania, and the Albanian society's cultural profile, as indicated by the Hofstede model of national culture, were taken into consideration in the development of the model and hypotheses. Scales developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) for OCB, Scandura and Graen (1984) for LMX, and Colquitt (2001) for OJ were utilized for the operationalization of each construct. Responses were obtained using a questionnaire that was sent by e-mail. Multiple linear regression analysis revealed distributive justice as an antecedent of both OCB and LMX, and informational justice as an antecedent only to LMX. Interpretation of results and implications for the management of the HEIs in Albania are presented.

ÖZET

Arnavut Yüksek Öğretim Üyelerin Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışına Etkisi,
Lider-Üye Etkileşimin ve Örgütsel Adaletin Rolü

Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışları (ÖVD), işverenler tarafından en çok talep edilen davranışların arasındadır. Örgütsel Adalet Algıları (ÖAA) ve Lider-Üye Etkileşimi (LÜE) en iyi ÖVD belirleyicilerin arasında belirlenmiştir. Bu çalışmada, bir yandan ÖAA'nın ve LÜE'nin ÖVD üzerindeki etkilerini, diğer yandan da ÖAA'nin LÜE üzerindeki etkisini araştırmak için Sosyal Etkileşim Teorisine dayanan bir model kullanıldı. Araştırmanın örneklemini Arnavutluk'taki Yükseköğrenim Kurumlarında (YÖK) tam-zamanlı çalışan 132 Arnavut Akademisyenden oluşmaktadır. Modelin ve hipotezlerin geliştirilmesinde ülkenin ekonomik kalkınma seviyesi, Arnavutluk'taki YÖK'lerin mevcut durumu ve Hofstede ulusal kültür modelinde belirtildiği gibi Arnavut toplumunun kültürel profili dikkate alınmıştır. ÖVD ölçmek için Podsakoff vd. (1990), LÜE ölçmek için Scandura ve Graen (1984), ve ÖAA ölçmek için Colquitt (2001) kaynakları kullanılarak sorular hazırlandı. Cevaplar, e-posta ile gönderilen bir anket kullanılarak elde edildi. Çoklu doğrusal regresyon analizi kullanarak araştırma sonucunda: dağıtım adaletin hem ÖVD' i hem de LÜE' i anlamlı ve pozitif yönde etkilediği görülmüş, ayrıca bilgisel adalet ile LÜE arasında anlamlı ve pozitif yönde biri ilişki bulunmuştur. Bulguların yorumları ve Arnavutluk'taki YÖK'lerin yönetimiyle ilişkin çıkarımlar sunulmuştur.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank all the people who supported me through this long and challenging period of time.

First and foremost I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my thesis advisor Prof. Nisan Selekler-Gökşen. I thank her for the inestimable guidance and constructive feedback she provided throughout my thesis research, and for the support and motivation she gave me when I needed it the most.

I wish to express my sincere thanks to my dissertation committee members, Assoc. Prof. Özlem Yıldırım-Öktem and Prof. Beyza Oba for their valuable opinions and suggestions.

I would also like to thank all the Albanian academics, whose contribution made this thesis possible, for participating with no hesitation in this study.

I have special thanks for my parents. My father, Flamur, for his love, understanding, guidance, and support throughout my life. I dedicate all my past and future achievements to him. My mother, Ramie, for her unconditional love and all the sacrifices she made for me and my brother.

Lastly I would like to thank my husband Yıldırar Süslü for always being there for me.

DEDICATION

to my son

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	8
2.1 Organizational citizenship behavior.....	8
2.2 Social exchange theory.....	10
2.3 Leader-member exchange theory.....	12
2.4 Organizational justice.....	14
CHAPTER 3: CONTEXT OF THE STUDY.....	20
3.1 OCB, LMX, OJ and culture.....	20
3.2 Country profile.....	22
3.3 Higher education in Albania.....	24
CHAPTER 4: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES.....	27
4.1 Leader-member exchange - Organizational citizenship behavior.....	27
4.2 Organizational justice - Organizational citizenship behavior.....	28
4.3 Organizational justice - Leader-member exchange.....	31
4.4 Hypotheses.....	34
CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY.....	36
5.1 Research objective.....	36
5.2 Sample selection.....	36
5.3 Survey and data collection.....	37
5.4 Measures.....	38
5.5 Data analysis.....	40
CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS OF THE STUDY.....	42
6.1 Sample characteristics and descriptives.....	42

6.2 Relationship between variables	44
6.3 Inter-correlations among variables	52
6.4 Regression analysis	54
6.5 Findings.....	62
CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION	64
7.1 Interpretation of results.....	65
7.2 Practical implications	69
7.3 Limitations, strengths and future suggestions	70
7.4 Conclusion.....	71
APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE IN ALBANIAN LANGUAGE	73
APPENDIX B: QUESTIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR.....	77
APPENDIX C: QUESTIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF LEADER- MEMBER EXCHANGE	79
APPENDIX D: QUESTIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	80
APPENDIX E: QUESTIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF PROCEDURAL JUSTICE	81
APPENDIX F: QUESTIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF INTERPERSONAL JUSTICE	82
APPENDIX G: QUESTIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF INFORMATIONAL JUSTICE	83
REFERENCES	84

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Number of HEIs Opened During the Period 1951-2015 in Albania	42
Table 2. Frequency Table for Socio-demographics.....	43
Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Socio-demographics and Variables under Study .	45
Table 4. Correlation Coefficients of the Variables under study	53
Table 5. ANOVA of the Regression Analysis for OCB	55
Table 6. Model Summary of the Regression Analysis for OCB	55
Table 7. Coefficients of the Regression Analysis for OCB	55
Table 8. Casewise Diagnostics of the Regression Analysis for OCB.....	56
Table 9. Cook's Distance, Mahalanobis Distance, Centered Leverage Values and CVR of the Regression Analysis for OCB	56
Table 10. ANOVA of the Regression Analysis for LMX	59
Table 11. Model Summary of the Regression Analysis for LMX.....	59
Table 12. Coefficients of the Regression Analysis for LMX.....	59
Table 13. Casewise Diagnostics of the Regression Analysis for LMX	60
Table 14. Cook's Distance, Mahalanobis Distance, Centered Leverage Values and CVR of the Regression Analysis for LMX.....	60
Table 15. Summary of findings	63

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Scatterplot of the relationship between LMX and OCB	46
Figure 2. Scatterplot of the relationship between Distributive Justice and OCB	47
Figure 3. Scatterplot of the relationship between Procedural Justice and OCB	48
Figure 4. Scatterplot of the relationship between Interpersonal Justice and OCB.....	48
Figure 5. Scatterplot of the relationship between Informational Justice and OCB.....	49
Figure 6. Scatterplot of the relationship between Distributive Justice and LMX	50
Figure 7. Scatterplot of the relationship between Procedural Justice and LMX	51
Figure 8. Scatterplot of the relationship between Interpersonal Justice and LMX.....	52
Figure 9. Scatterplot of the relationship between Informational Justice and LMX.....	52
Figure 10. Scatterplot of regression Standardized Predicted Value and Regression Standardized Residuals for OCB	57
Figure 11. Histogram of regression standardized residual for OCB	58
Figure 12. Normal P-P Plot of regression standardized residual for OCB.....	58
Figure 13. Scatterplot of regression standardized predicted value and regression standardized residuals for LMX.....	61
Figure 14. Histogram of regression standardized residual for LMX	62
Figure 15. Normal P-P Plot of regression standardized residual for LMX.....	62

ABBREVIATIONS

HEI	Higher education institution
LMX	Leader-member exchange
OCB	Organizational citizenship behavior
OJ	Organizational justice
PD	Power distance
QAHEA	Quality Assurance of Higher Education Agency
SET	Social exchange theory
UA	Uncertainty avoidance

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Organizations which strive to succeed in a dynamic environment can do so only if their members are willing to support organizational activities (Barnard, 1966, p. 86). This “willingness” was termed later as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) by Organ (1987) who defined it as “discretionary behavior that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 86). Helping a co-worker with a private issue, discussing and resolving work-related matters on personal time, and even not complaining are examples of OCB. OCBs are characterized by subtlety; which is why managers sometimes may fail to notice them or identify their effect on the organization. Indeed, their aggregate effect (Organ, 1997) has been found to have a positive impact on organizational success (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009) and employee attitudes (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

OCBs have been found to contribute to organizational effectiveness and success by increasing productivity and profitability (e.g., Walz & Niehoff, 2000; Koys, 2001; George & Bettenhausen, 1990), through greater compliance to organizational standards (e.g., Bienstock, DeMoranville, & Smith, 2003), by improving workgroup performance in terms of quantity and quality of work (e.g., Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997), through higher job performance (e.g., Basu, Pradhan, & Tewari, 2017; Al-Mahasneh, 2015), and by providing the flexibility needed to cope with many unforeseen contingencies (e.g., Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Moreover, OCB has been associated with managerial ratings of employee performance, reward allocation decisions, turnover intentions, actual

turnover, and absenteeism (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2009). This kind of behavior has been studied in different fields, such as human resource management, marketing, hospital and health administration, industrial and labor law, strategic management, international management, military psychology, economics, leadership, public administration, engineering, sports science, sociology, computer science, and communication (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Podsakoff, Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Maynes, & Spoelma, 2014).

Recent studies (e.g., Elstad, Christophersen, & Turmo, 2011; Ugochukwu, 2016) have investigated OCB in the field of education where the human factor plays a key role. As former Norwegian Minister of Education B. V. Solhjell (2009) said: “At the heart of any educational development is the human factor” (Elstad, Christophersen, & Turmo, 2011, p. 405). Motivating and showing confidence in students, applauding student’s achievements and success, cheering students in times of adversity, showing confidence in students’ ability to succeed, helping students to overcome setback may be a few examples of teacher OCBs. These behaviors affect not only the success of the institution they are part of but also the education quality that the students get (Elstad et al., 2011; Farooqui, 2012). In aggregate, teachers exhibiting OCBs would benefit the country and the society they are part of through quality education, one of the main requirements for the achievement of sustainable development (Perrot-Lanaud, Sidhu, Tang, & Samson, 2005). In low-income countries, contextual difficulties and low financial satisfaction may cause teachers’ motivation to decline and performance to suffer (Macfarlane, 2005). In such cases, identifying the factors that affect academics’ willingness to exceed their duties, that is, to exhibit OCB, becomes paramount.

Various studies have been conducted to find out what drives an employee's decision to perform OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Behaviors in organizations are regulated by contracts which lie on a continuum. At one end of the continuum are transactional contracts that are short-term agreements in which employees are promised financial benefits in exchange for their services. At the other end of the continuum are social contracts that are often long-term agreements in which socio-emotional benefits are exchanged besides financial ones (Rousseau & Parks, 1993). Organ and Moorman (1993) proposed focusing on the social contracts, rather than transactional ones, that prevail in the workplace and viewing OCBs as means of exchange in these contracts. Social exchange theory (SET), based on the principle of reciprocity, provides a framework of how exchanges between two parties evolve into social relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchel, 2005). Employees may develop social relationships with both the organization and the supervisors (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). According to SET, when the quality of the relationship between the employee and the supervisor increases, the leader may show more favorable treatment toward the employee who, in turn, reciprocates by engaging in OCB (Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002).

The quality of an employee's relationship with his/her immediate supervisor and the attitudinal and behavioral responses of the employee toward this relationship (Breukelen, Shyns, & LeBlanc, 2006) are studied under the theory of leader-member exchange (LMX). LMX theory is the only leadership theory that focuses on the quality of the social exchanges formed between the employee and the immediate supervisor (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Research has shown that the quality of this relationship, rather than leader traits and behaviors, is more predictive of organizational outcomes (Breukelen et al., 2006). Thus, the LMX theory has recently

become one of the most frequently used theories to study the effect that leaders have on employee behaviors. Various studies (e.g., Cogliser, Schriesheim, Scandura, & Gardner, 2009; Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Smith et al., 1983) point out that when LMX is high, many positive organizational outcomes, such as lower turnover, increased organizational commitment, higher satisfaction, stronger perception of justice, and more OCBs are observed. Because the supervisor is seen as a representative of the organization (Karriker & Williams, 2009), the importance of the exchange is two-fold. Employees who develop a high-quality relationship with their supervisor will also view the organization in a more positive light (Jha & Jha, 2013), therefore, will also engage in more OCB directed at the organization (Casimir, Ng, Wang, & Ooi, 2014).

Favorable treatment has also been associated with employee perceptions of how fairly they are treated by the organization and by their immediate supervisor. Studies of organizational justice (OJ) investigate how these perceptions lead to employee reactions (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002) that have an impact on organizational activity (Greenberg, 1990). When employees perceive organizational outcomes, the process used to determine outcome allocations, and the way the organization (or the organization's representatives) treats them as fair, they may respond with increased OCB (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). OCBs are used by employees as means of exchange to reciprocate fair behavior from the organization and/or the supervisor (Organ, 1988; Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990).

Perceptions of justice also play a role in building high-quality LMX relationship with their immediate supervisor (Eberlin & Tatum, 2005). Studies have found a significant relationship between OJ and LMX (e.g., Katrinli, Atabay, Gunay, & Congarli, 2010, Colquitt et al., 2013, Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002; Burton,

Sablynski, & Sekiguchi, 2008). When an employee perceives his/her immediate supervisor as effective and what is more important as fair his/her contributions tend to be higher (Breukelen et al., 2006). Thus, supervisor should be careful and adjust their behavior according to justice perceptions of employees (Erdogan, Liden, & Kraimer, 2006).

Cultural, historical, economic, and social factors may affect the concept of OCB, its measurement, and its relationship with antecedents and outcomes (Paine & Organ, 2000). For instance, research in Eastern cultures has shown that different cultural values affect perceptions of what is considered extra-role (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007). The strength of the relationship OCB has with LMX and OJ, as well as the one that LMX has with OJ in Eastern countries may vary from those observed in Western countries (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Shore, 2012). In order to study the effect of cultural values on workplace-related attitudes and behaviors, researchers have frequently utilized Geert Hofstede's dimensions of national culture (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010).

Recognizing the importance of the education sector in the development of a country, this study will attempt to analyze the relationship of OCB with LMX and OJ, and the relationship of LMX with OJ in the higher education institutions (HEIs) in Albania. Albania is a small country in Eastern Europe. The HEI management in Albania faces many challenges and the key to success lies in the human capital (Sotirofski, Mema, & Hoti, 2011). Academic personnel are an important asset to HEIs. Due to the nature of their job, academics have the most frequent interaction with students so their willingness to engage in discretionary behaviors such as OCB may considerably influence the learning outcomes of students (Khalid, Jusoff, Othman, Ismail, & Rahman, 2010). This, in turn, holds the potential to contribute to

the improvement of the education level in the country. Since, when compared to Western countries, Albania is higher in power distance, higher in collectivism, higher in masculinity, and higher in uncertainty avoidance, the well-established relations between OCB, LMX, and OJ may not receive support in Albania due to the aforementioned cultural differences.

The main purpose of this study is to examine the effect that the quality of interpersonal working relationships and justice perceptions have on OCB, as well as, the effect the justice perceptions have on the quality of interpersonal working relationships in the HEIs in Albania. The quality of interpersonal working relationships will be measured through the construct of LMX and perceptions of justice will be measured through the construct of OJ. Scores from the Hofstede model of culture will be used as a basis of cultural characteristics of the country. Two main research questions guide this study. First, what is the impact of LMX and OJ on OCB, and second, what is the impact of OJ on LMX, in a country high in power distance, high in collectivism, high in masculinity, and high in uncertainty avoidance? Data was collected through a questionnaire and 132 academics from 25 HEIs participated in the study. Multiple regression analysis indicated that distributive justice is an antecedent to both OCB and LMX, whereas informational justice is an antecedent only to LMX.

This is the first study related to OCB, LMX, and OJ conducted in Albania. Hence, the value of the study is two-fold. First, it adds to the literature of OCB, LMX, and OJ by analyzing them in a new culture and context, and it is the first step to further research in the field of OCB, LMX, and OJ in the country of Albania. Second, identifying the antecedents of OCB and LMX in the HEIs in Albania will provide the administrators of these institutions with insights about the drivers of

OCB, ways to create beneficial supervisor-subordinate relationships, as well as the necessary steps for augmenting organizational effectiveness and success.

The thesis is organized into seven chapters which introduce the main issue and its background, give a summary of previous studies and research related to the issue, describe the methods and tools used to analyze the issue, and provide a discussion about the results. Chapter 1, the introduction, is followed by Chapter 2 which gives a review of the literature on the constructs of OCB, LMX, and OJ. Chapter 3 describes the context of the study. It outlines cultural characteristics of the Albanian society based on Hofstede's dimensions of culture, and summarizes the general state of higher education in the country. Chapter 4 presents the theoretical framework of the study and the hypotheses. Chapter 5 summarizes sampling and data collection methods. This chapter also explains the survey design and data analysis methods used in this study. The results of the analysis are provided in Chapter 6. Descriptive findings regarding the academics in the sample, relationships among variables and the results of the regression analyses are presented. Chapter 7 gives a summary of the findings of the research and discusses practical implications for the management of the HEIs. Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are also presented in this section.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Organizational citizenship behavior

Acts of citizenship and pro-social behaviors are valuable to any social group (Smith et al., 1983). When they take place in organizations they are referred to as OCB.

OCB was defined by Organ (1997) as discretionary individual behavior that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization (p. 86). Based on this definition, two main characteristics of OCB are worthy of mention. First, emphasis is put on the aggregated outcome of all individual occurrences of OCB as it may, though seldom, have an adverse effect on one's primary personal output, for example, waste of focus and time while assisting a co-worker with a task (Smith et al., 1983; Podsakoff et al., 1997). Although the immediate benefits of this behavior may not be seen, the behavior will ultimately add to organizational success (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). Second, the behavior is a personal choice. An employee can neither be forced into performing nor be punished for not engaging in OCB (Motowildo, 2000). These behaviors are not contractually rewarded (Farh et al., 1990), or formally prescribed, so they do not appear in job descriptions. OCB may even not get recognized since this kind of behavior is not described in job performance terms and thus cannot always be measured (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Extra-role behaviors such as helping a co-worker with a task, discussing organizational issues on personal time, refraining from complaining about trivial matters, being punctual, and promoting the organization to outsiders are all examples of OCB. Seldom, OCB may not manifest in distinct behaviors but merge with

behaviors that are socially and psychologically supportive of the work environment (Organ, 1997).

In organizations where OCBs are prevalent, workgroup performance increases both quantitatively and qualitatively (Truckenbrodt, 2000), commitment and performance improve (Chen, Niu, Wang, & Yang, Tsaur, 2009), the need for formal and costly control mechanisms decreases (Becton & Field, 2009), waste is reduced, and organizational productivity and profitability increase (Podsakoff et al., 2014). All these positive outcomes show that OCB leads to an increase in organizational effectiveness (Van Dyne et al., 1994; Walz & Niehoff, 2000). These are a few reasons that make OCBs desired by an organization (Schnake, 1991) and the main topic of many organizational studies (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Studies on OCB have focused on understanding what makes employees engage in OCBs and in what contexts they exhibit OCBs the most.

Employees may demonstrate OCB in different ways. According to Organ's well-recognized categorization (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007), there are five dimensions of OCB: altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue (Walz & Niehoff, 2000; Farh, Zhong, & Organ, 2004). Altruism refers to those behaviors which consist of helping a co-worker or anyone who needs help with an organizationally relevant issue (Fassina, Jones, & Uggerslev, 2008; Wang, Hinrichs, Prieto, & Howell, 2013). Courtesy refers to behaviors that have an impact on a co-worker's performance (Fassina et al., 2008), such as the assistance to co-workers with work-related information in a timely manner and improvement of communication within the organization (Walz & Niehoff, 2000). Conscientiousness refers to behavior which is guided by an inner sense of duty to perform work-related tasks beyond the minimum required levels (Walz & Niehoff, 2000; Wang et al.,

2013). Punctuality and complying with company rules even when no one is watching are examples of conscientiousness. Sportsmanship is about withholding rather than exhibiting certain behaviors. Examples of sportsmanship include avoiding complaints about minor problems that may arise in the workplace (Wang et al., 2013), futile conflicts (Walz & Niehoff, 2000), and not focusing on the negative aspects of work-related issues. An employee who engages in sportsmanship behavior has willingly chosen to forgo any inconvenience in the workplace (Fassina et al., 2008). Civic virtue refers to employee's active participation in organizational governance by voluntarily being present in meetings, voting and making his/her opinion heard (Fassina et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2013), as well as reading any information made available by the organization (Walz & Niehoff, 2000). A study by Khalid et al. (2010) suggests that academics can have an impact on students' academic achievement through all the dimensions of OCB. Helping students with a topic after class, giving advance notice of canceled classes, developing new and innovative teaching strategies, preventing the negative impact of work-related issues on the students' mood, and advocating student problems are a few examples of OCB in the academic context.

There have been several studies on OCB and its correlates (Markozzy, Vora, & Xin, 2009). In order to understand the mechanisms behind OCB, social exchange theory has been widely used to design a theoretical framework (Cohen, Ben-Tura, & Vashdi, 2012; Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008).

2.2 Social exchange theory

SET is one of the most used models in providing valuable insights into workplace behavior (Cropanzano & Mitchel, 2005). In its essence, SET demonstrates how

different resources, following specific rules, are exchanged and how these exchanges develop into high-quality relationships (Colquitt, et al., 2013). In organizations, the employee's effort and loyalty are exchanged for the organization's material and socio-emotional benefits (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). While material benefits or economic gains are specified in transactional contracts or economic exchanges, socio-emotional benefits are specified in relational contracts or social exchanges. Social exchanges are characterized by general open-ended terms and long-term exchange of favors (Rousseau & Parks, 1993). This kind of exchanges functions on the basis of trust, faith (Organ & Moorman, 1993; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994) and a diffuse obligation to reciprocate (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

In organizational settings, SET has been utilized to understand why employees engage in beneficial behaviors which are not formally rewarded by the organization (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008). According to SET, employees develop a universal exchange relationship with the organization and a more specific dyadic relationship with their immediate supervisor (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). When the organization and/or its representative, such as the supervisor, take positive and beneficial actions toward the employee, interpersonal relationships will form and the employee, in turn, will feel compelled to reciprocate in positive and beneficial ways (Liden & Graen, 1980). Such interpersonal relationships are referred to as social exchange relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchel, 2005). Research has shown that OCBs are more frequent in those organizations where social exchanges are prevalent (Organ & Moorman, 1993). The higher the quality of the exchange the stronger the feeling of reciprocity and the more the resources exchanged. The quality of the social exchange has been found to be mainly determined by the level of fairness perceived by the employee (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Colquitt, et al.,

2013). Perceived fairness can be viewed as the symbolic resource that stimulates the feeling of reciprocation in employees (Colquitt, et al., 2013) while OCB can be viewed as the exchangeable resource that employees use in reciprocation (Tekleab & Taylor, 2003).

The quality of the social exchange between the employee and his/her immediate supervisor has been operationalized through LMX (Brower, Shcoorman, & Ten, 2000), and perceptions of fairness have been operationalized through OJ. LMX and OJ are the most frequently studied antecedents of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000) with various studies supporting this relationship (Moorman, 1991; Organ & Moorman, 1993; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Fassina et al., 2008; Zhong, Lam, & Chen, 2011). These constructs will be introduced in the forthcoming sections.

2.3 Leader-member exchange theory

LMX relationship refers to the bond that forms between a supervisor and his/her immediate subordinate. The quality of this relationship and the attitudinal and behavioral response of the employee toward it (Breukelen et al., 2006) are studied by LMX theory. Before the development of LMX theory, research referred to the traits and behaviors of a leader to explain the influence of the leader on employee performance. LMX theory is the first leadership theory to analyze the relationship between the leader and the follower by including the follower in the relationship. The relationship is based on social exchanges (Gooty & Yammarino, 2016) that benefit both parties who, in turn, become interrelated (Brower et al., 2000). The exchange influences not only the leader's behavior toward the follower but also the follower's behavior toward the leader (Wayne & Green, 1993). In time, follower's and leader's

characteristics, as well as organizational factors (Erdogan et al., 2006), shape the nature of this relationship.

LMX theory assumes that because of time and resource limitations, a supervisor develops relationships of different quality with each subordinate (Breukelen et al., 2006; Dulebohn et al., 2012). The relationship, based on the degree of emotional support and exchange of valued resources (Wayne et al., 2002), may develop into a high- or low-quality relationship. In a low-quality LMX relationship, the employee contributes nothing extra to the job except what is required by the employment contract. In a high-quality LMX relationship, on the other hand, the employee will outperform his/her employment contract, by trusting, respecting, and supporting the leader as well as by engaging in high levels of information exchange with him (Chernyak-Hai & Tziner, 2014).

The nature of the LMX relationship has been associated with both in-role and extra-role behaviors (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). When the quality of the relationship is high employees will use OCB to reciprocate beneficial social exchanges initiated by their supervisors (Smith et al., 1983). On the other hand, the lower the quality of the exchange relationship the higher the chances that subordinates will respond through negative behaviors targeted at the organization, such as taking excessive breaks and lying about hours worked (Biron & Boon, 2013). In order to offset the negative effect of a low-quality LMX, an organization would have to provide large contractual benefits to their employees (Settoon et al., 1996). Hence, the LMX theory strongly suggests that leaders try to develop high-quality relationships with all, or most, of their subordinates (Breukelen et al., 2006).

2.4 Organizational justice

OJ studies the fair and ethical treatment of individuals in organizational settings (Eberlin & Tatum, 2005) and their reaction to such treatment (Aryee et al., 2002). In this case what is meant by “fair” has more to do with what is seen as fair by the employees rather than what is actually fair (Greenberg & Lind, 2000). In other words, perceived fairness is more important than actual fairness. Employees invest time and energy into the organization and so expect to be treated fairly (Eberlin & Tatum, 2005). This in turn, may be the reason why human resource interventions are almost always related to justice concerns (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

Perceptions of fairness are essential to the effective operation of an organization (Greenberg, 1990). OJ has been linked to various critical organizational processes and important outcomes, such as trust, commitment, job performance, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, and OCB (Skarlicki, 2001; Eberlin & Tatum, 2005; Chiaburu & Lim, 2008; Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007). Perceptions of fairness also play an important role in employee’s evaluation of their supervisor and the organization they work for (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Lee, Pillutla, & Law, 2000). Employees who perceive that they are treated fairly by the organization and/or the supervisor report to have high-quality social exchanges with the organization and/or the supervisor (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005; Chiaburu & Lim, 2008). In relationships where perceived fairness by the employee is high, the employee feels the obligation to repay the organization or the supervisor through increased performance and OCB (Tekleab et al., 2005; Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). On the other hand, when employees face unfairness, they feel the need to withdraw their contributions to the organization (Organ, 1988) to even out. Since the decreases in job performance can be

troublesome due to the contractual punishments they may be followed by, employees may choose to decrease their engagement in OCB to respond to unfair treatment (Organ, 1988). In fact, OJ has been characterized as a robust predictor of OCB (Fassina et al., 2008).

Four dimensions of justice have been identified (Colquitt, 2001), namely, distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice. Before 1975, however, studies on justice focused only on the perceived fairness of the outcomes received, referred to as distributive justice (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). After the mid-1970s, the emphasis shifted to the perceived fairness of the procedures used to distribute those outcomes, that is, procedural justice. Interactional justice, the quality of the interpersonal treatment employees receive during the implementation of those procedures, emerged as a new type of justice in the year 1986 (Colquitt et al., 2001).

The concept of interactional justice is based on the idea that employees, in order to evaluate how they are being treated by the organization, do not consider the outcomes and the related procedures in isolation. They will also consider the manner in which they are treated by their supervisor (Greenberg, 1990) and the supervisor's attitude towards them (Fein, Tziner, Lusky, & Palachy, 2013) during the communication (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001), enactment and implementation (Colquitt, et al., 2013) of those decisions. Researchers used to include interactional justice in a broadened concept of procedural justice (Masterson et al., 2000). Greenberg (1990), however, suggested that interactional justice was a separate construct and that it was comprised of interpersonal and informational justice. Interpersonal justice refers to the way employees are treated and informational justice is concerned with the quantity and quality of information they are provided

with. Colquitt (2001) empirically showed that these two dimensions are in fact distinct from each other and produced a four-dimension construct of OJ. Many researchers continue to measure the two types of justice as if they were one and use the term of interactional justice to refer to them (Roch & Shanock, 2006; Cropanzano & Molina, 2015). Nevertheless, various studies have that these two types of justice are two different constructs (Colquitt, 2001), employees can identify the difference between the two, they can have different antecedents, and result in different outcomes (Roch & Shanock, 2006). Therefore, in this study, the four-dimensional model of OJ will be utilized.

The overall perception of justice is formed as a sum of the unique contribution of each dimension (Moorman, 1991; Colquitt et al., 2001). Each dimension, however, exerts influence on the other dimensions, making it possible to lessen the negative effect of an injustice by balancing it with at least one of the other dimensions (Cropanzano et al., 2007). For instance, if employees perceive low levels of distributive or procedural justice, they may refer to interpersonal and informational justice (Jha & Jha, 2013) to set the balance of the total perceived level of justice. Specifically, treating an employee with dignity and respect may alleviate his/her dissatisfaction from an unfavorable outcome, whereas providing detailed information about a procedure may help avoid the negative consequences of procedural injustice perceptions (Colquitt et al., 2001).

The four dimensions of justice have been classified into structural (distributive and procedural) and social (interpersonal and informational) forms of justice. Due to its social aspect interactional justice has been considered to be the best predictor of OCB (Moorman, 1991; Chiaburu & Lim, 2008), especially OCB

directed at the supervisor (Masterson et al., 2000; Roch & Shanock, 2006; Fassina et al., 2008). Each dimension will be discussed in detail in the coming sections.

2.4.1 Distributive justice

Distributive justice refers to the employee perceptions of fairness regarding the outcomes he/she receives in the workplace. Outcomes may take many forms, such as wages, social recognition, self-fulfillment (Fein et al., 2013), benefits, punishments (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997), resources (Lee, Murrmann, & Murrmann, 2010), and rewards (Erdogan et al., 2006). According to equity theory, when the contributions an employee makes to the organization are the same as the contributions of a co-worker's, he/she will perceive the outcomes he/she gets as fair only if they are equal to those of the co-workers' (Cropanzano et al., 2007).

Depending on the context, employees may use rules of equity, equality or need to decide whether what they have received is fair or not (Colquitt et al., 2001).

2.4.2 Procedural Justice

Procedural justice relates to the employee perceptions of fairness regarding formal policies and procedures used to make outcome allocation decisions (Cropanzano & Molina, 2015). Employees refer to the procedures used to make the allocation decisions in order to evaluate the fairness of the outcomes. When procedures are considered reasonable, employees tend to evaluate the outcomes related to those procedures as fair (Farh et al., 1990) even if the organization has not provided them with what they believe they deserve (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Procedural justice has been related with higher levels of employee support, loyalty, and commitment toward the organization (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Fair procedures have

six key characteristics: all parties are treated consistently; procedures are free from bias; accurate information is used in making decisions; views of all parties are taken into account; errors are correctable; and procedures are consistent with prevailing ethical norms (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Greenberg & Lind, 2000).

2.4.3 Interpersonal Justice

Interpersonal justice concerns employee perceptions regarding the manner in which they are treated while outcomes and outcome-related procedures are communicated to them. It is considered the social component of fairness (Miller, Konopaske, & Byrne, 2012), with the supervisor playing an important role in building a social relation and conveying the right interpersonal treatment. When employees are treated with respect, dignity (Cropanzano & Molina, 2015), sensitivity (Miller et al., 2012), and politeness (Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013), they will perceive interpersonal justice, and in turn, be more inclined to evaluate outcomes as fair even when they are not (Greenberg, 1990). Additionally, if employees perceive that they have been treated in a fair manner by the supervisor they may interpret the relationship they have with the whole organization in a more positive light as well (Jha & Jha, 2013).

2.4.4 Informational Justice

Informational justice has been considered as the attributional component of justice (Miller et al., 2012). It refers to employee perceptions about the quality and thoroughness (Miller et al., 2012) of the information, explanations, and evidence (Cropanzano & Molina, 2015) presented to them about the outcomes received and the procedures that led to those outcomes. Employees expect the supervisor to be

sincere and to appropriately provide justifications and relevant evidence, especially when problems arise (Cropanzano et al., 2007; Cropanzano & Molina, 2015). The level of perceived informational justice tends to be higher when supervisors provide regular, routine (Jha & Jha, 2013) and logically relevant (Greenberg, 1990) information that coincides with the decisions reached (Fein et al., 2013). Employees are more likely to accept unfavorable outcomes when a satisfying explanation regarding the outcomes is provided to them (Greenberg, 1990).

CHAPTER 3

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

3.1 OCB, LMX, OJ and culture

Research on cross-cultural organizational behavior has proliferated only in the last three decades due to changes caused by globalization (Gelfand et al., 2007). What is known about the constructs of OCB, LMX, and OJ has been developed mainly in Western socio-cultural contexts; therefore, knowledge about these constructs in other cultures is limited (Farh et al., 2004). People from different cultures hold different norms and values which in turn affect the degree people feel obliged to reciprocate behavior (Cropanzano & Mitchel, 2005), the way they perceive fairness (Greenberg, 2001; Lee et al., 2000), and the way they view their leaders (GLOBE, 2014). Thus, culture is an important factor to be considered in the study of OCB, LMX, and OJ.

One of the most comprehensive studies of how values in the workplace are influenced by culture was conducted by Geert Hofstede. He initially identified four dimensions of national culture, namely, power distance (PD), individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, and uncertainty avoidance (UA). The relation that these dimensions have with various organizational outcomes has been empirically tested (Ergeneli, Gohar, & Temirbekova, 2007). Cultural values' predictive effect of employee outcomes is even higher in culturally tight countries (Taras et al., 2010). Therefore, studying them in a culturally tight country such as Albania (Uz, 2014) becomes even more important.

Taras et al. (2010) suggest that cultural values measured at the individual level are, at least for some employee outcomes, as strong predictors as demographics, personality traits, and cognitive ability. There are studies that have revealed a

significant correlation between OCB and cultural values (Lin & Ho, 2010). For instance, in China, not every extra-role behavior is considered as OCB (Gelfand et al., 2007) while some non-work helping behaviors are considered as such (Farh et al., 2004). Becton and Field (2009), comparing American employees, who have high individualistic and low UA values, to Chinese employees, who have high collectivistic and high UA values, found that Chinese employees engaged in OCB more than American employees. Moreover, according to Podsakoff et al. (2000), the cultural context may affect the strength of the relationship OCB has with its antecedents (Podsakoff et al., 2000). For instance, the LMX-OCB relationship is weaker in societies with high PD and low individualism (Rockstuhl et al., 2012).

This study is based on Geert Hofstede's understanding of cultural traits as shared unique characteristics that make a society's members recognizable to foreigners as belonging to that society independent of intra-cultural differences (Ergeneli et al., 2007; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Hence, the nation will be used as a proxy for culture instead of measuring cultural values at the individual level. It has been argued that national scores describe the society in general and that they may not reflect any given individual's values, beliefs, or behaviors (Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007). Referring to values measured at the individual level, however, is not without downsides since it is impossible to demonstrate that those individual values are the result of cultural effects (Kwantes, Karam, Kuo, & Towson, 2008). Moreover, some studies have used only the indexes of individualism and PD in their analysis (e.g. Paine and Organ, 2000), as these two cultural values are strong predictors of various outcomes at the societal level (Rockstuhl et al., 2012). Other studies, however, have suggested the simultaneous study of all dimensions of culture for a balanced development of cross-cultural theory (Shao, Rupp, Skarlicki, & Jones,

2013). The hypotheses of this study will be developed by considering the possible effect that all four dimensions may have on the relationships under study.

3.2 Country profile

Albania, with a population of 2,900,000 (World Bank, 2015), is a small country in the Balkans, Eastern Europe. Albania is categorized as an upper medium level income country by the World Bank Group (2017) and faces many developmental challenges. In 1991, its economy underwent a transition from communism into an open-market economy. An important milestone in the country's integration into the world economy was in the year 2014 when, on the recommendation of the European Commission, Albania became a candidate for the European Union membership. Despite the last developments, much needs to be done and as in all emerging democracies, education plays a key role (Kaltsounis, 1999). Albanians are aware that they can achieve the economic and social development they aspire through education.

According to Hofstede Insights (2018), Albania scores high in PD values with a score of 90 out of 100 (Hofstede Insights, 2018). The high score indicates that Albania has a stratified society and that Albanians accept and expect people in the higher social strata to be more powerful than those in the lower social strata (Hofstede et al., 2010). In countries with high PD values, subordinates are not encouraged to express their disagreement with their supervisor, and supervisors do not have to consult with their subordinates to make a decision (Taras et al., 2010). Subordinates are expected to show respect and obedience toward their superior, and superiors are expected to exhibit protection and consideration toward their subordinates (Hofstede et al., 2010). The results of the study by Hofstede et al.

(2010) suggest that in high PD countries subordinates: have an emotional relationship with their supervisor; trust their supervisor and his capabilities, and respect him/her for this; expect to be told what to do; show obedience to the orders given; do not question the decisions taken by the supervisor.

Albania is categorized as having a collectivistic culture, with a very low score of 20 in individualism (Hofstede Insights, 2018). This score indicates that Albanians do not consider themselves as independent members of the society but as part of a group to which they owe loyalty (Hofstede et al., 2010). Members of cultures which score high in collectivism put the group interest first even when it goes against their self-interest (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). According to Hofstede et al. (2010), in collectivistic cultures, work relationships are seen as family relationships and individuals become emotionally attached to the organization they work for.

With a very high score of 80, Albania is identified as having a masculine society (Hofstede Insights, 2018). A masculine society promotes masculine values, such as assertiveness and acquisition of things as opposed to feminine values, such as cooperation and a friendly atmosphere (Taras et al., 2010). The high score in this dimension reveals that material gains hold a relatively high importance to Albanians (Shao et al., 2013). Individuals in masculine societies are competitive and their behaviors in school, work, and play are driven by the need for achievement Hofstede et al., 2010).

Albania has high UA values with a score of 70 (Hofstede Insights, 2018). Individuals in societies high in UA tend to be aggressive, emotional and intolerant of uncertainty (Shao et al., 2013). This is why they try to avoid ambiguous situations through clear rules and guidelines (Taras et al., 2010). The high score in this dimension reveals that Albanians have a greater preference for predictable career

paths, pay, and promotion policies (Vukonjanski, Nikolic, Hadezic, Edit, & Nedeljkovic, 2012). Members of these societies are precautious to evaluate the information at hand before going forward with their decisions (Hofstede Insights, 2018).

3.3 Higher education in Albania

Political changes that resulted from the fall of communism in Albania affected almost every aspect of the country's life. The higher education system, which was no exception, underwent major changes with various reforms being implemented (Kajsiu, 2015). Furthermore, education in Albania has been under the pressure to conform to the criteria required for integration to the European space (Vadahi & Bilali, 2015). In 2001, Albanian HEIs started applying the ECTS system and in 2003, they started working for the implementation of the Bologna Declaration. Since then, the higher education system has gained new characteristics and become more modern, but also faced new challenges and is still in need of further improvement (Gjonça, et al., 2014).

In the last two decades, the total number of HEIs has drastically increased. Today there are 37 accredited HEIs in Albania, of which 20 are universities (12 public and eight private), two are academies, 10 are university colleges, two are vocational colleges, and three are higher education schools (Quality Assurance Agency in Higher Education, 2018). The total number of study programs is 1,129 of which just 234 are accredited. The highest number of study programs is in economic sciences with 222 programs, 71 of which are accredited. There are 235 social and human sciences programs, 68 of which are accredited, and 149 engineering

programs, 51 of which are accredited (Quality Assurance Agency in Higher Education, 2018).

According to a report from the Albanian Higher Education and Scientific Research Commission (2014), the higher education system does not meet the requirements needed for the country's development (Gjonça, et al., 2014). The report identifies the poor quality of the academic work, the excessive number of HEIs, and low financial resources as the main issues to be addressed in the future. Each issue is briefly discussed in the forthcoming sections.

3.3.1 Quality of the academic work

In recent years, there has been a fall in the quality of academic work in Albania, mainly for two reasons. First, there is a lack of division between the managerial and academic structures of the Albanian HEIs. Tasks related to managerial, financial, and academic issues are not distributed among different individuals but are centralized in the hand of a few. This has led to inefficient management, fund abuse, and a setback in the institutions' academic development (Gjonca, et al., 2014). In addition, academics with an administrative position have been overloaded with managerial tasks. Second, because of low income levels, academics have resorted to multiple jobs, and thus, have allocated less time to scientific research. All these factors have led to a decrease in the quality of the academics' primary job, that is, teaching, and scientific research.

3.4.2 Excessive number of HEIs

As of 1992, Albania had two universities and three academies located in Tirana, and three other institutions located in other cities. Private HEIs started to be established

in 2002 to fill the gap between the demand for higher education and the supply offered by the public sector. As this process was not controlled, it led to a boom in the education sector. During 2005-2009, 34 private HEIs were opened. In the year 2014, Albania had the highest number of HEIs per capita among European countries, and yet the lowest number of student per capita among developed countries (Kajsiu, 2015; Gjonça, et al., 2014). During this year about 80 percent of the students were enrolled in 16 public HEIs and 21 percent of these students were registered in part-time programs. About 20 percent of the students, on the other hand, were enrolled in the 44 private HEIs, which at the time offered a total of 740 study programs. Because of the low student-per-program ratio, costs of running a department were not covered, so the minimum standards for proper education were barely met (Gjonça, et al., 2014). This caused a fall in the quality of education provided by HEIs in Albania.

3.4.3 Financial resources

Another challenge for the Albanian HEIs is the lack of financial resources. In 2014, Albania spent about €500 per student, five-times less than Romania and Bulgaria, and nine-times less than Portugal and Spain (Gjonça, et al., 2014). The Albanian government does little to support HEIs. The total budget that has been accorded to education by the government generally has been lower than that recommended by UNESCO, UNDP, and the EU. In 2014, the budget accorded to higher education was only 0.05 percent of the country's GDP (Gjonça, et al., 2014). Thus, HEIs are in need of finding ways to increase their income by their own means. Possible courses of action include increasing student tuition, allowing the rental of facilities and contracting of campus services, as well as finding donators and investors.

CHAPTER 4

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

This chapter starts with a review of the studies which have analyzed the LMX-OCB, OJ-OCB and OJ-LMX relationships. Suggestions on how cultural values may affect each of these relationships will be made and hypotheses of the study will be presented.

4.1 LMX and OCB

Various meta-analytic studies (Ilies et al., 2007; Dulebohn et al. 2012; Scott, Craven, & Green, 2006) and field studies (Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997; Oren, Tziner, Sharoni, Amor, & Alon, 2012; Wan, 2011) have found support for the relation between LMX and OCB. This relationship is based on the employee felt obligation to reciprocate beneficial behavior in order to match goodwill and helpfulness (Cropanzano & Mitchel, 2005). In collectivistic cultures, the relationship among individuals of the in-group is one of mutual dependence such that the members are bound to support each other psychologically and in practice (Hofstede et al., 2010). Albanian academics, as members of a collectivistic culture, can be expected to feel obligated to reciprocate any beneficial treatment they get from their supervisors or co-workers because cultural values dictate so. Furthermore, in collectivistic cultures, the workplace is like a second family, and relationships are guided by a sense of loyalty (Hofstede et al., 2010). Therefore, high-quality relationships between academics and their department heads may augment the willingness to go beyond one's duty. Altogether, these considerations suggest the following hypothesis regarding the relationship between LMX and OCB:

Hypothesis 1: LMX will be positively associated with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.

4.2 OJ and OCB

Distributive justice has been identified as an antecedent of OCB (Greenberg & Lind, 2000; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Some studies have found a significant yet weak relationship between these constructs, probably because distributive justice is related more to economic exchanges than social ones (Fassina et al., 2008; Roch & Shanock, 2006; Roch & Shanock, 2006). In an upper medium level income country such as Albania, where the monthly GNI per capita is \$360 (World Bank Group, 2017), economic exchanges are of relatively high importance. As mentioned in the previous sections, academics of HEIs in Albania are not always satisfied with the benefits they get from the institutions they work for. Poor management and lack of resources in the Albanian HEIs has resulted in low financial gains for the academics working in these HEIs. Albanian academics have been pushed to accept administrative tasks or resort to multiple jobs, causing them to be overloaded. When the job is hard and compensation is low, perceptions of distributive justice become even more significant (Lee et al., 2010). Moreover, Albanian culture is high in masculine values. Research indicates that individuals in cultures identified as masculine are driven by ambition (Lin & Ho, 2010) and will strive for a higher salary (Hofstede et al., 2010). If the Albanian academics are not satisfied with the salary or other benefits they are provided, the probability that they will engage in OCB is expected to be relatively lower. Hence the following hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 2a: Distributive justice will be positively associated with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.

The relationship between procedural justice and OCB has been supported by various studies (Colquitt, et al., 2013; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Nevertheless, high PD values may distort the relationship, as employees holding them may not consider certain aspects of procedural justice as important. It is possible that individuals who hold high PD values may legitimize the inconsistent treatment of the parties and their exclusion from the procedure-making process (Rego & Cunha, 2010). Due to power inequalities, the employee may be unwilling to point out errors, and still less demand for their correction. Albanians scores high in PD values, therefore, lack of procedural justice may not significantly affect Albanian academics. This, in turn, will cause the strength of the relationship between procedural justice and OCB to diminish. Therefore, it is hypothesized that even when academics are not provided with opportunities to voice their concerns, their tendency to engage in OCB may not diminish:

Hypothesis 2b: Procedural justice will not display a significant positive association with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.

Research on OJ and OCB has shown that interactional justice is the strongest predictor of OCB (Asgari, Silong, Ahmat, & Bahaman, 2008; Colquitt, et al., 2013; Moorman, 1991; Rego & Cunha, 2010). Studies measuring interpersonal and informational justice as distinct constructs (Colquitt, et al., 2013; Rego & Cunha, 2010) revealed interpersonal justice as the strongest antecedent of OCB. Nevertheless, the majority of this line of research has been conducted in societies where individualistic values are prevalent. In individualistic societies, relationships are mainly economic in nature (Hofstede et al., 2010) and therefore OCBs are viewed as instrumental to expressing gratitude in response to favorable interpersonal treatment (Erdogan & Liden, 2006), making the link between these two constructs

stronger. Moreover, since individualists use interpersonal justice as an indicator of their status and self-worth, they may be more sensitive to it (Greenberg, 2006). According to Nevis (1983) self-worth needs, while prevalent in Western societies, do not exist in the hierarchy of needs of the collectivistic Chinese society. Collectivists view the workplace as a second family (Hofstede et al., 2010), and thus, put the well-being of their in-groups above their interpersonal justice concerns (Pellegrini, 2006). Therefore, Albanian academics may be less sensitive to interpersonal justice and their tendency to engage in OCB may be less influenced by it. Thus, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 2c: Interpersonal justice will not display a significant positive association with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.

Various studies (Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt, et al., 2013) point out a statistically significant relationship between informational justice and OCB. In a social exchange relationship, information (e.g. clear instructions from the organization, advice, and opinions from the leader) is seen as a valuable resource to be exchanged (Colquitt, et al., 2013) and in some cases even essential to improving one's performance (Roch & Shanock, 2006). Information is particularly important to members of societies with high UA values as it decreases the uncertainty of the situation in which they may find themselves (Shao et al., 2013). In fact, managers of these societies are expected to provide precise answers to any work-related questions the subordinates may have (Hofstede et al., 2010). Hence, Albanian academics are expected to be sensitive to informational justice issues, thus making the link with OCB stronger. As Albanian academics can be expected to display more OCB when provided with thorough and accurate information due to the strong UA values that characterize the society, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 2d: Informational justice will be positively associated with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.

4.3 Organizational justice and leader-member exchange

Some studies have found a significant relationship between distributive justice and LMX (e.g., Colquitt, et al., 2013; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Burton et al., 2008; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Katrinli et al., 2010) while others have not (Wayne et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2000; Erdogan & Liden, 2006). It has been argued that when a supervisor lacks control on outcome decisions, distributive justice will not be related to LMX (Wayne et al., 2002; Erdogan et al., 2006). In Albanian HEIs, outcomes are specified in well-established rules and regulations, leaving the Department Chair with little control on the outcomes the employee gets. This is a common practice in countries with high UA values in which performance-based pay systems are not preferred by organizations due to the ambiguities they create (Vukonjanski et al., 2012). This being said, in countries with high PD values employees believe in the superiority of their supervisor and the influence he/she may have on various work-related issues. A study showed that managers in countries with high PD values rely more on their superior's experience than their own (Hofstede et al., 2010). By the same logic, Albanian academics, although aware of the fact that the Department Chair cannot directly affect the rewards they receive, may perceive him/her as capable and "powerful" enough to exert indirect influence on outcome-related issues. The quality of the relationship between the Albanian academic and the Department Chair will be higher if the academic believes that he/she has received his/her fair share of outcomes. These considerations lead to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3a: Distributive justice will be positively associated with LMX in the HEIs in Albania.

Various studies have concluded that procedural justice has an impact on LMX. (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Dulebohn et al., 2012). Nevertheless, many of them have used the expanded construct of procedural justice which includes the dimensions of interactional justice (Lee et al., 2010; Jaesub, 2001), so the link remains questionable. Some studies have found procedural justice to be significantly related to social exchange quality directed at the organization but not to LMX (Colquitt, et al., 2013; Tekleab et al., 2005; Wayne et al., 2002). This may be due to employees' disposition to consider the formalized decision-making system as organizationally based. Colquitt et al. (2001), however, do not agree with this view and suggest that procedural justice can be both related to the organization and the supervisor, as when a supervisor involves the subordinates in the decision-making process (Colquitt et al., 2001). However, employees in societies with low PD values and high collectivistic values may feel uncomfortable when the boss asks for their opinion and may even lose respect believing that he/she is not adequately competent (Hofstede et al., 2010). This in turn, may be harmful to the LMX relationship. In these cultures, the voice criterion of procedural justice may have low relevance for employees' perceptions regarding the supervisor (Rego & Cunha, 2010). As previously mentioned, the characteristics of fair procedures, such as the consistent treatment of parties, considering the views of all parties, and correctability of errors, may be less important to the members of high PD societies. This may also be the case for Albanian employees. A study conducted in Albania revealed that the degree to which supervisors involve others in making and implementing decisions had nearly no impact on Albanian employees' evaluation of leadership (GLOBE, 2004).

Thus, the quality of the relationship that Albanian academics have with the Department Chair is not expected to depend on procedural justice. Therefore, the following hypothesis is extended:

Hypothesis 3b: Procedural justice will not display a significant positive association with LMX in the HEIs in Albania.

LMX quality is based on the interpersonal relationships that supervisors have with their subordinates. Thus, it is not unexpected that interpersonal justice would be a strong antecedent of LMX (Fein et al., 2013), and various studies have provided empirical support for this (Tekleab et al., 2005; Roch & Shanock, 2006; Colquitt, et al., 2013; Fein et al., 2013; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Burton et al., 2008; Cropanzano et al., 2002). However, interpersonal relationships formed in the workplace may have different characteristics in different countries. In societies characterized by low PD values the supervisor-subordinate relation is a pragmatic one, whereas in high PD value societies the relation is more emotional in nature (Hofstede et al., 2010). Hence, what constitutes a fair interpersonal treatment may also differ. High-quality LMX relationships in low PD and high individualistic societies are characterized by trust, respect, loyalty, and a sense of obligation toward the supervisor (Park & Nawakitphaitoon, 2018). On the other hand, in high PD and high collectivistic societies trust, respect, loyalty and a sense of obligation toward the supervisor are all dictated by cultural values. Hence, in case issues related to trust, loyalty, and respect arise between an academic and the Department Chair, the former may view this as an upset of the balance of the relationship rather than an unfair interpersonal treatment. Collectivists put group harmony and relationships above justice issues, which is why, the academic may choose to engage in supervisor-focused behaviors to bring the balance back (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). Even if

Albanian academics perceive interpersonal injustice, they may not allow it to affect the relationship they have with their supervisor, and find other ways to alleviate the injustice. In other words, the quality of the relationship will not show great variance despite the change in perceived interpersonal justice. Hence, the following hypothesis is extended:

Hypothesis 3c: Interpersonal justice will not display a significantly positive association with LMX in the HEIs in Albania.

Informational justice has been related to social exchange quality directed at the supervisor (Roch & Shanock, 2006). A cross-cultural study, comparing a society characterized by low PD and high individualism with another characterized by high PD and high collectivism found no difference as to the relationship between informational justice and LMX despite the different cultural characteristics of the two samples (Rockstuhl et al., 2012; Pellegrini, 2006). Since Albanians score high in the dimension of UA they may be sensitive to informational justice and use it in their evaluations of authorities. Albanian academics will perceive their relationship with the Department Chair in a more positive light if the latter shares relevant, accurate and thorough information with them. These considerations led to the development of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3d: Informational justice will be positively associated with LMX in the HEIs in Albania.

4.4 Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: LMX will be positively associated with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.

Hypothesis 2a: Distributive justice will be positively associated with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.

Hypothesis 2b: Procedural justice will not display a significant positive association with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.

Hypothesis 2c: Interpersonal justice will not display a significant positive association with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.

Hypothesis 2d: Informational justice will be positively associated with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.

Hypothesis 3a: Distributive justice will be positively associated with LMX in the HEIs in Albania.

Hypothesis 3b: Procedural justice will not display a significant positive association with LMX in the HEIs in Albania.

Hypothesis 3c: Interpersonal justice will not display a significant positive association with LMX in the HEIs in Albania.

Hypothesis 3d: Informational justice will be positively associated with LMX in the HEIs in Albania.

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

5.1 Research objective

This study aims to conceptually and empirically add to the understanding of the effect of LMX and OJ on OCB as well as the effect of OJ on LMX in the context of Albanian HEIs. The constructs in the theoretical model have been operationalized and designed into a survey study. Sample selection, data collection, measures used to assess each variable, and statistical analyses are summarized in the forthcoming sections of this chapter.

5.2 Sample selection

The up-to-date list of the accredited HEIs in Albania was obtained from the official website of Quality Assurance of Higher Education Agency (QAHEA). As of May 2018, there were 20 universities (12 public and eight private), two academies, 11 colleges, one vocational college, and three higher education schools enlisted, making up a total of 37 accredited HEIs (Quality Assurance Agency in Higher Education, 2018). Full-time Albanian faculty members of these 37 HEIs establish the population of this study. Due to limited time and resources, the e-mail address of every academic in all 37 HEIs could not be obtained. A representative few had to be chosen from each HEI. Choosing one representative faculty was not possible because there is not a faculty common to all HEIs. For instance, the University of Medicine of Tirana offers courses in medicine, nursery, dentistry; Luarasi University offers courses in law and economics; Polis University offers courses in engineering, architecture and urban planning. A decision was made to include only the academics

working in the main faculty of each HEI. For the sake of this study, faculties offering the most widespread programs were considered as main faculties. According to QAHEA, the highest number of study programs in Albania pertains to economic sciences (71 programs), social and human science (68 programs), engineering (51 programs) and medicine (26 programs). Therefore, Faculty of Economics, Faculty of Human Sciences, Faculty of Engineering or Faculty of Medicine of each HEI were chosen to be part of the sample. By doing so the probability that each HEI would be equally represented in the study would be higher.

Of the total 37 HEIs, five of them did not have a website so they had to be excluded from the study. Seven of them, on the other hand, did not have the contact information of the academic personnel on their websites. An e-mail explaining the purpose of the study was sent to request the needed contact information. One request was refused on privacy grounds and six requests did not receive an answer. As a result, the sample of the study consisted of 670 Albanian full-time instructors working in the main faculties of 25 Albanian HEIs.

5.3 Survey and data collection

The data in this study were collected using a questionnaire. The questionnaire was prepared using different sources to measure OCB, LMX, and OJ. The questions from the original scales¹ were first translated from English into Albanian (see Appendix A). Then, they were back-translated by a third party into English and the two versions were compared for translation accuracy. Discrepancies were resolved by discussion (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). The questionnaire was written into a Google

¹ The original scales are shown in Appendix B, C, D, E, F, and G.

Form and the link was sent to 670 faculty members through an e-mail which introduced the researcher and the purpose of the study. Voluntary participation and confidentiality were also noted. Thirty-five e-mail addresses returned a delivery failure notification, thus, 635 e-mails were sent and delivered. One month after the last e-mail was sent, a total of 156 questionnaires were returned. Twenty-four of the surveys were excluded from the analysis, four due to missing data and 20 as respondents had less than three years tenure. The remaining 132 questionnaires were part of the analysis, leading to a response rate of 20.79 percent.

5.4 Measures

A survey was designed to gather information about demographics and to measure OCB, LMX, and OJ. The measures used in this study were as follows.

5.4.1 Demographic information

In the first part of the survey, participants were asked to provide information about age, gender, highest education level achieved, administrative duties, academic title, total net income, type of HEI (public or private) they work in, and tenure in the current HEI.

5.4.2 Organizational citizenship behavior

OCB was assessed by a scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). A total of 24 items (see Appendix B) were used to measure altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. Responses were obtained using a 5-point Likert scale with possible responses ranging from “1=to a small extent” to “5=to a large extent”. Altruism included five

items and a sample item was “Helps others who have heavy workloads.”

Conscientiousness dimension was based on five items, including “Obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.” Sportsmanship was measured by five items all of which were reverse coded, and a sample item was “Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.” Courtesy was based on five items, including “Takes steps to try to prevent problems with other employees.” Civic virtue included four items and a sample item was “Attends meetings that are not mandatory but are considered important.” Scores obtained from each item were added and divided by 24 in order to obtain an average score for the respondent. The higher the score, the higher the level of OCB that the academics engaged in. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .79.

5.4.3 Leader-member exchange

The quality of the relationship between the academics and their immediate supervisor was measured through the 7-items scale developed by Scandura and Graen (1984). The questions from the original scale were adapted (see Appendix C) to fit the question “To what extent do you agree with the following statements?” A sample item was “I always know how satisfied my immediate supervisor is with what I do.” Respondents indicated their agreement with each item using a 5-point Likert scale with possible responses ranging from “1=strongly disagree” to “5=strongly agree”. Responses to the third item (My immediate supervisor does not fully recognize my potential) were reverse scored. Scores were averaged to obtain the overall LMX score for each participant. High scores reflected a high-quality LMX relationship. The coefficient alpha of the seven items was .814.

5.4.4 Organizational justice

Perceived OJ was assessed through the 20-item scale developed by Colquitt (2001). Items were measured through a 5-point Likert scale with possible responses ranging from “1=to a small extent” to “5=to a large extent”.

Four items were used to measure the perception of distributive justice (see Appendix D). A sample item was “My outcome reflects the effort I have put into my work.” The coefficient alpha for this scale was .865.

The scale used to evaluate procedural justice (see Appendix E) consisted of seven items and a sample item was “I have been able to express my views and feelings during these procedures.” The coefficient alpha for this scale was .933.

A four-item scale was used to assess interpersonal justice (see Appendix F). A sample item was “My supervisor has treated me with respect.” Due to changes resulting from translation, the fourth item (My supervisor has not refrained from improper remarks or comments) was reversed. The coefficient alpha for the four items was .868. The reliability test indicated that removing the fourth item would improve the scale’s overall reliability, thus, the fourth item of the scale was dropped and the remaining three items were used for all analyses. The coefficient alpha for the three-item scale was .959.

Informational justice was assessed by five items (see Appendix G) and a sample item was “My supervisor has explained the procedures thoroughly.” The coefficient alpha for this scale was .955.

5.5 Data analysis

In this study, IBM SPSS Statistics Version 21 was used for data analysis. The reliability of the scales was checked through the measurement of Cronbach’s Alpha.

Linearity was assessed and correlation analysis was performed. The relationships hypothesized in the conceptual framework were tested using multiple linear regression analysis. Relationships between LMX, OJ dimensions and OCB, and OJ dimensions and LMX were analyzed. Case diagnostics was run for outliers and residuals. Assumptions of multicollinearity, independent errors, homoscedasticity, and normally distributed errors were also checked for.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

6.1 Sample characteristics and descriptives

The sample of this study included 132 Albanian full-time faculty members working in main faculties of 25 HEIs (10 public, 15 private) in Albania. The highest participation was from the faculties of Economics and Administrative Sciences (79 percent), followed by the faculties of Engineering (ten percent), the faculties of Law and Political Science (five percent), and lastly the faculties of Medicine (three percent). As shown in Table 1, eight of the HEIs were more than 20 years old, and six of them were less than seven years old. The newest HEI was three years old.

Table 1. Number of HEIs Opened During the Period 1951-2015 in Albania

Period of Foundation	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1951-1998	8	32	32
1999-2005	3	12	44
2006-2010	8	32	76
2011-2015	6	24	100
Total	25	100	

Information about socio-demographics of the sample is presented on Table 2. As can be seen from the table, 50 percent of the sample was in the age range between 31 and 40 years old. About 70 percent of the participants were female. The highest education degree completed by roughly 80 percent of the respondents was a Ph.D. degree. Nearly 42 percent of the sample had administrative duties besides teaching. Faculty members with the following titles and achievements were part of the study: professor (10.6 percent), associated professor (26.5 percent), doctor (40.2 percent), and master degree (22.7 percent). Monthly net income was in the \$500-800 range for about 50 percent of the participants and in the \$800-1300 range for approximately 30 percent of the participants. Less than seven percent of the participants had a monthly

net income less than \$500 while the minimum wage for Albania in the year 2018 was \$227 per month (Drejtoria e Përgjithshme e Tatimeve, 2017). Respondents working in a public HEI made up almost 70 percent of the sample. More than three fourth of the respondents' tenure in the HEI they currently worked for was five or more years.

Table 2. Frequency Table for Socio-demographics

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Age Group (n=100)	21-30	12	9.1	12	12
	31-40	48	36.4	48	60
	41-50	20	15.2	20	80
	51-60	14	10.6	14	94
	61-70	5	3.8	5	99
	71-80	1	0.8	1	100
Gender	Female	90	68.2	68.2	68.2
	Male	42	31.8	31.8	100
Highest Education Achieved	Master	26	19.7	19.7	19.7
	Ph.D.	106	80.3	80.3	100
Holds an administrative duty	No	76	57.6	57.6	57.6
	Yes	56	42.4	42.4	100
Academic Title	M. Sc./M.A.	30	22.7	22.7	22.7
	Dr.	53	40.2	40.2	62.9
	Assoc. Prof.	35	26.5	26.5	89.4
	Prof.	14	10.6	10.6	100
Net Income (n=129)	< \$500	9	6.8	7	7
	\$500-799	65	49.2	50.4	57.4
	\$800-1300	42	31.8	32.6	89.9
	> \$1300	13	9.8	10.1	100
Type of HEI	Public	90	68.2	68.2	68.2
	Private	42	31.8	31.8	100
Tenure	<5	30	22.7	22.7	22.7
	5-10	51	38.6	38.6	61.4
	11-15	20	15.2	15.2	76.5
	16-20	17	12.9	12.9	89.4
	>20	14	10.6	10.6	100

*Unless shown otherwise n=132

In order to check whether the variables are normally distributed, skewness and kurtosis values (see Table 3) were used. All socio-demographic variables have a skewness value between the value of ± 1 , except for “highest education achieved” and

“tenure”. The sample is not uniform with respect to these values. This could also be inferred by looking at Table 2, which shows that almost 80 percent of the sample has a Ph.D. degree and the tenure of more than three fourth of the sample is five or more years. The distribution of the variables under study can be said to be fairly normal as skewness values are in the ± 1 range and kurtosis values are in the ± 2 range.

6.2 Relationships between variables

Scatterplots depicting the relationship between independent variables and dependent variables were analyzed to gain preliminary insights into the relationship between LMX, distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, informational justice, and OCB. The same analysis was performed on the relationships between each justice dimension and LMX. The results are reported next.

6.2.1 Dependent variable OCB

Scatterplot graphs portraying the relationship of LMX (Figure 1) and perceived distributive (Figure 2), procedural (Figure 3), interpersonal (Figure 4), and informational justice (Figure 5) with OCB were drawn. Scatterplots revealed that there is a linear relationship between each justice dimension and OCB, however, the slope of the lines in each graph point out to a relatively weak link. Furthermore, outliers and the lack of patterns are also indicative of a weak relationship. Of all the relationships, informational justice - OCB seems to be the strongest and most significant one. A closer look to each graph is offered next.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Socio-Demographics and Variables under Study

	N	Min	Max	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	Std. Error			Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Age	100	21	74	41,15	1.034	10.345	107.018	.829	.241	.329	.478
Gender	132	1	2	1,32	.041	.468	.219	.790	.211	-1.398	.419
Highest education level achieved	132	1	2	1,8	.035	.399	.159	-1.541	.211	.382	.419
Administrative duties	132	1	2	1,42	.043	.496	.246	.310	.211	-1.933	.419
Academic title	132	1	4	2,25	.081	.928	.861	.295	.211	-.742	.419
Total net income level	129	1	4	2,46	.068	.771	.594	.353	.213	-.269	.423
Type of HEI	132	1	2	1,32	.041	.468	.219	.790	.211	-1.398	.419
Tenure	132	3	41	11,12	.688	7.907	62.520	1.380	.211	1.918	.419
Valid N (listwise)	99										
OCB	132	3,25	5	4,3423	0,03029	0,34795	.121	-.423	.211	.068	.419
LMX	132	1	5	3,4266	0,07076	0,81293	.661	-.508	.211	-.127	.419
Distributive Justice	132	2,25	5	4,0202	0,06239	0,7168	.514	-.611	.211	.072	.419
Procedural Justice	132	1	5	3,1445	0,09157	1,05209	1.107	-.419	.211	-.528	.419
Interpersonal Justice	132	1	5	3,9981	0,08213	0,94362	.890	-.836	.211	.289	.419
Informational Justice	132	1	5	3,3273	0,10379	1,19241	1.422	-.285	.211	-.857	.419
Valid N (listwise)	132										

There is a linear relationship, although not strong, between LMX and OCB (see Figure 1). There seems to be a general trend in the data, shown by the line, such that respondents with higher LMX reported higher OCB. A few outliers, which represent respondents with low LMX and high OCB, can be spotted in the graph. What is interesting about this graph is the near absence of dots in the lower-left corner, which would suggest few respondents reporting a low-quality relationship with their supervisor and low levels of OCB.

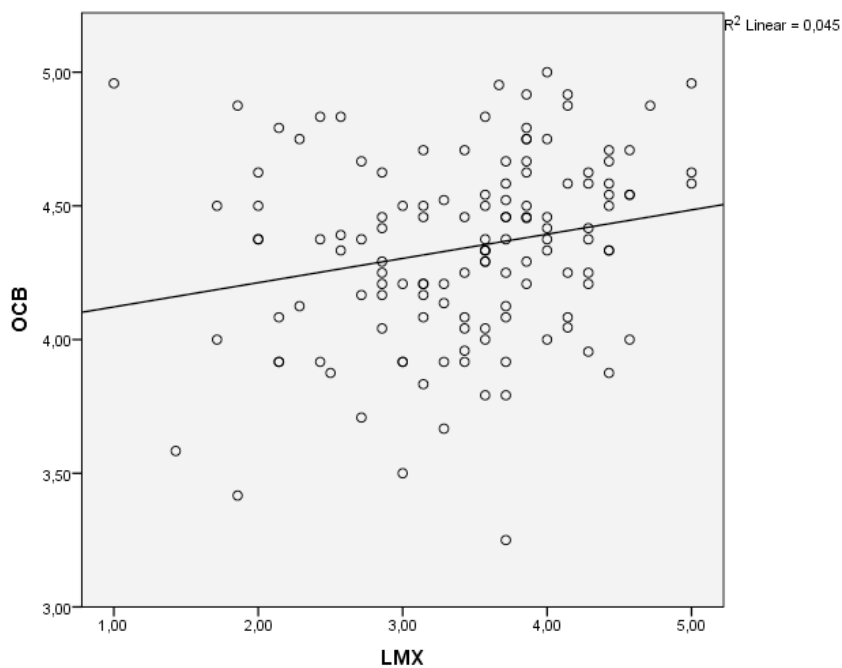


Figure 1. Scatterplot of the relationship between LMX and OCB

A linear relationship, illustrated by Figure 2, was observed between distributive justice and OCB. As indicated by the line, respondents reporting higher distributive justice perceptions generally reported higher engagement in OCB. It is interesting that in some cases respondents with the same perception of distributive justice reported engaging in different levels of OCB. In this graph there are no obvious outliers.

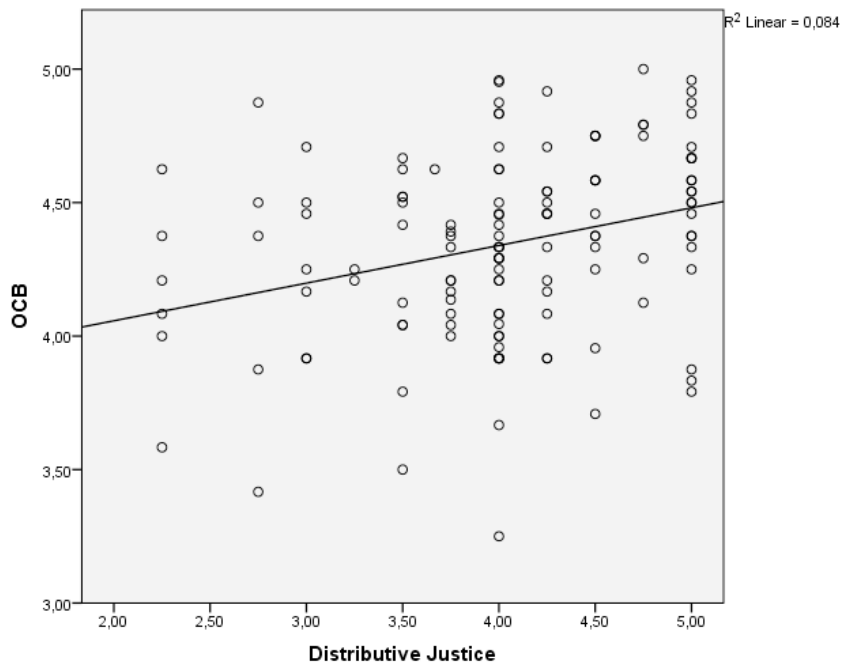


Figure 2. Scatterplot of the relationship between Distributive Justice and OCB

The relationship between procedural justice and OCB is linear as well. As shown in Figure 3, the line indicates that respondents with high procedural justice perceptions generally reported high OCB levels. There are a few outliers, which represent respondents with low procedural justice perceptions and high engagement in OCB, as well as respondents with high procedural justice perceptions and low engagement in OCB. It can be inferred that for some of the respondents, procedural justice perceptions have no effect on the decision to engage in OCB.

Figure 4 also points out to a linear relationship between interpersonal justice and OCB. In general, respondents who reported high interpersonal justice perceptions also reported higher OCB levels. The strength of the relationship, however, seems to be diminished by answers in which the same level of interpersonal justice corresponds to different levels of OCB. Interestingly, interpersonal justice and OCB scores seem to be gathered at the upper-right corner of the graph indicating high levels of both interpersonal justice and OCB for all the participants. A linear relationship was found between informational justice and OCB.

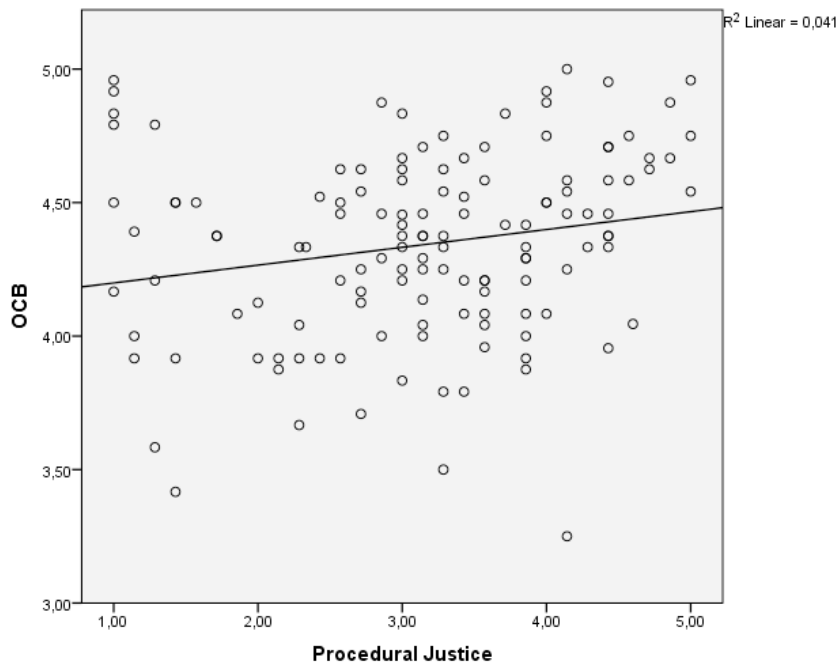


Figure 3. Scatterplot of the relationship between Procedural Justice and OCB

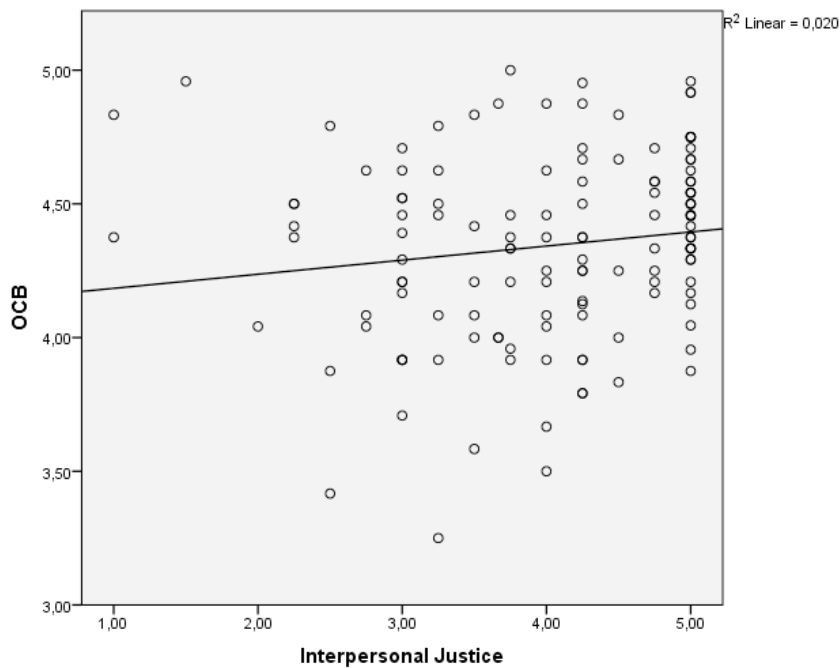


Figure 4. Scatterplot of the Relationship between Interpersonal Justice and OCB

The line on the graph (see Figure 5) suggests that there is a general trend, such that, respondents who perceived higher levels of informational justice also engaged more in OCBs. A few outliers, which represent respondents with low informational justice and high OCB, are visible on the graph.

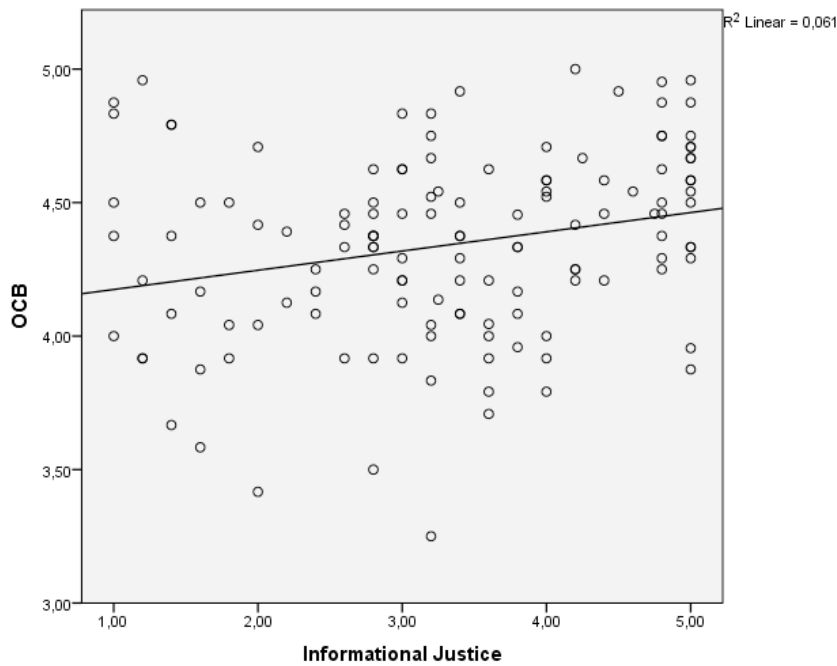


Figure 5. Scatterplot of the Relationship between Informational Justice and OCB

6.2.2 Dependent variable LMX

Graphs showing the relationship between perceived distributive (Figure 6), procedural (Figure 7), interpersonal (Figure 8), and informational justice (Figure 9) and LMX were drawn. Scatterplots tend to indicate a positive association between all justice dimensions and perceived LMX quality. Slopes of the lines in each graph reveal that the relationships between justice dimensions and LMX are relatively stronger than the respective relationships between justice dimensions and OCB. Furthermore, outliers are few in number, pointing out to a greater level of consistency in the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. In other words, high levels of perceived LMX quality were, in almost all cases, associated with high levels of perceived distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice. Of all the relationships, procedural justice-LMX and informational justice-LMX seem to be the strongest and most significant ones. A detailed view of each relationship is provided next.

The relationship observed between distributive justice and OCB can be seen on Figure 6. The scatterplot depicting this relationship reveals that respondents reporting higher distributive justice perceptions generally reported higher engagement in LMX. The line indicates a strong relationship among the two variables. This graph has resemblance with the graph showing the relationship between distributive justice and OCB, in the sense that, respondents with the same perception of distributive justice reported perceiving different levels of LMX quality. In this graph there are a few outliers.

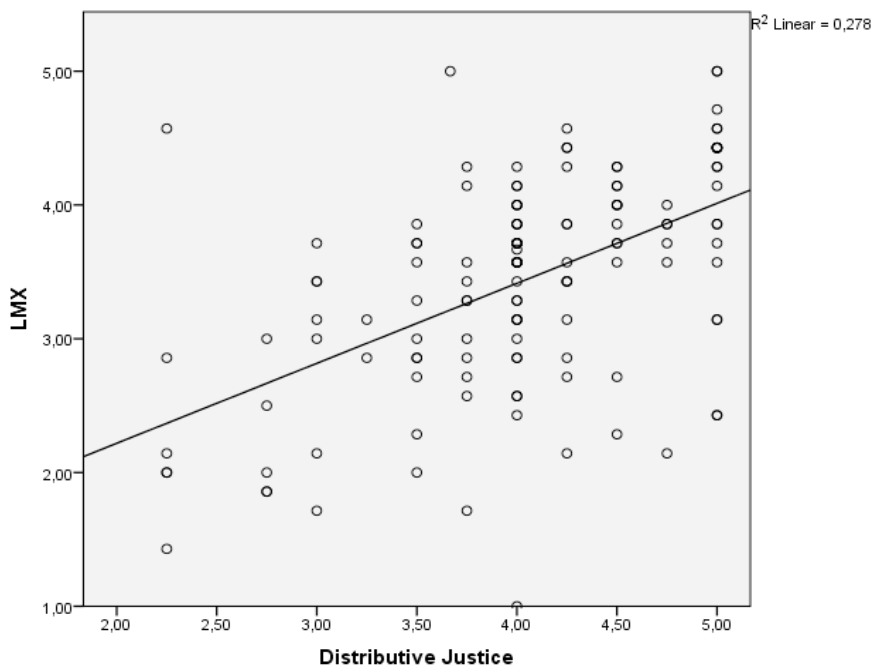


Figure 6. Scatterplot of the relationship between Distributive Justice and LMX

The relationship between procedural justice and LMX was linear as well. As shown in Figure 7, the line indicates that respondents with high procedural justice perceptions generally reported high LMX levels. The dots, representing a respondent's answer regarding procedural justice and LMX, are scattered near the line, forming a pattern suggestive of a strong relation between these two variables.

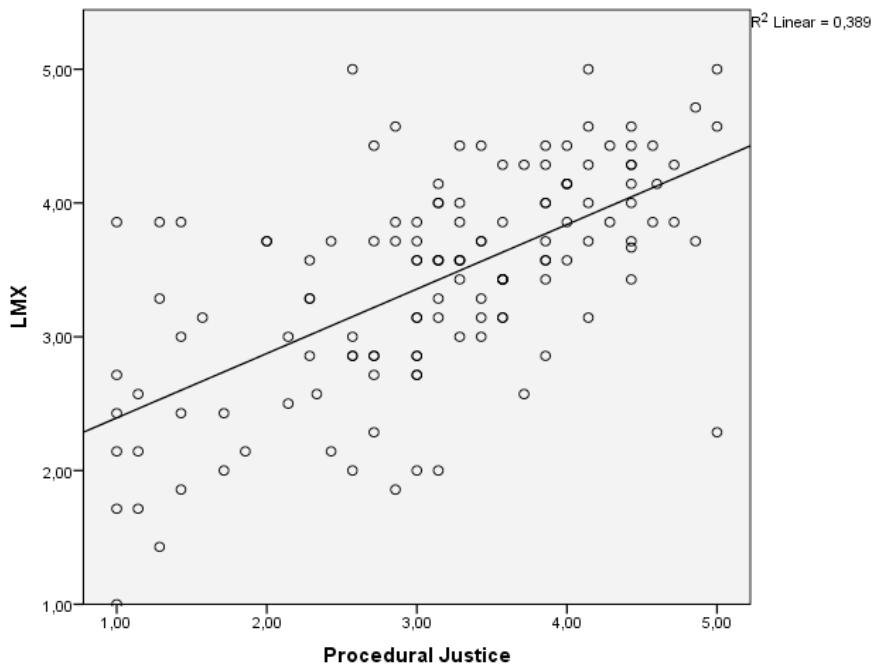


Figure 7. Scatterplot of the relationship between Procedural Justice and LMX

Figure 8 also points out to a linear relationship between interpersonal justice and LMX. In most of the cases, higher interpersonal justice perceptions were associated with higher LMX levels. As the graph shows, almost all of the respondents reported above average levels of perceived Interpersonal justice. Although some respondents reported same levels of perceived interpersonal justice they differed in their rating of LMX quality.

A linear relationship was also found between informational justice and LMX (see Figure 9). There is a certain pattern, such that, respondents who perceived higher levels of informational justice also perceived higher levels of LMX quality. The pattern could be observed even in the absence of the fit line suggesting a strong relationship between the variables plotted.

In the next section, more details about the relationships among the variables of interest will be provided by studying prevailing inter-correlations.

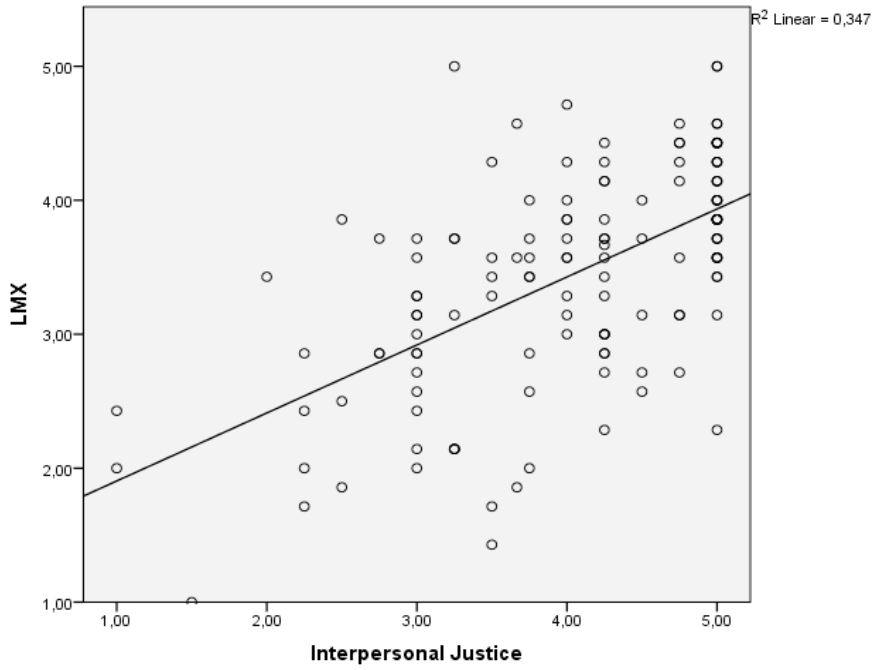


Figure 8. Scatterplot of the relationship between Interpersonal Justice and LMX

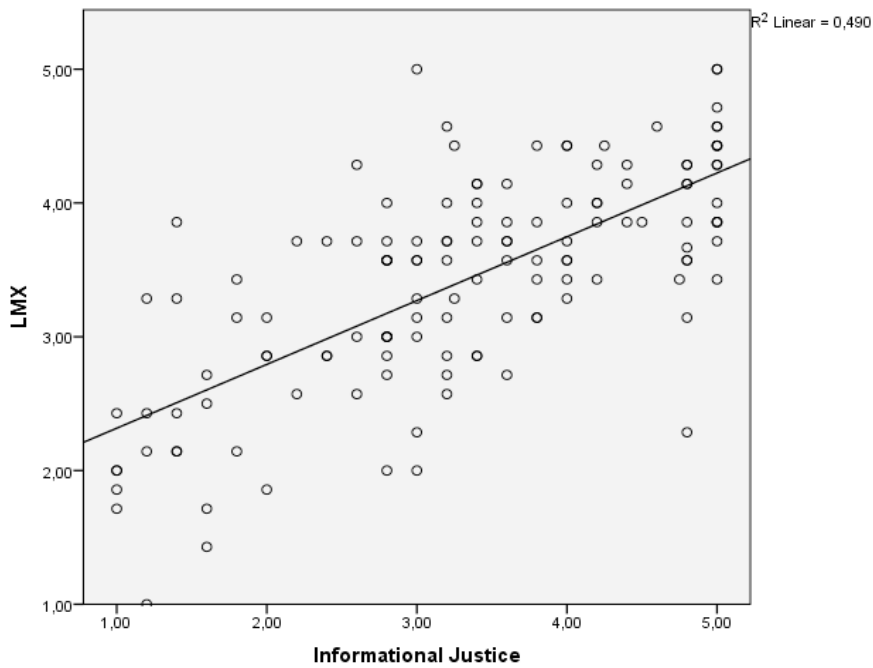


Figure 9. Scatterplot of the relationship between Informational Justice and LMX

6.3 Inter-correlations among variables

Bivariate Pearson correlation was used to check for existing correlations between the variables of interest. Results, shown on Table 4, provide a preliminary picture of how strongly independent variables relate to dependent variables. Correlation coefficients

confirm what was inferred in the previous section. The strength of the relationship between justice dimensions and LMX is relatively stronger than the relationship between justice dimensions and OCB.

The coefficients point to a consistently positive, although weak, relationship between LMX, justice dimensions, and OCB, all but one of which are statistically significant. As can be seen on Table 4, OCB was significantly correlated, in descending order, with distributive justice ($r = .29, p < 0.01$), informational justice ($r = .25, p < 0.01$), LMX ($r = .21, p < 0.05$), and procedural justice ($r = .20, p < 0.05$). The results indicate that LMX and procedural justice, when compared to distributive and informational justice, have a weaker relationship with OCB. No significant relationship was found between OCB and interpersonal justice ($r = .14, p > 0.05$).

Table 4. Descriptives and Correlations of the Variables under study

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. OCB	4.34	0.35	(0.79)	.212*	.291**	.202*	.143	.247**
2. LMX	3.43	0.81		(0.814)	.527**	.624**	.589**	.700**
3. Distributive Justice	4.02	0.72			(0.865)	.375**	.331**	.415**
4. Procedural Justice	3.14	1.05				(0.933)	.557**	.785**
5. Interpersonal Justice	4.00	0.94					(0.959)	.732**
6. Informational Justice	3.33	1.19						(0.955)

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
 **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
 N=132. Values in brackets represent Cronbach alpha's for each scale

On the other hand, LMX displayed a statistically significant correlation, in descending order, with informational justice ($r = .70, p < 0.01$), procedural justice ($r = .62, p < 0.01$), interpersonal justice ($r = .59, p < 0.01$), and finally distributive justice ($r = .53, p < 0.01$). A reason why each justice dimension had a weaker relationship with OCB rather than with LMX could be that OCB has a higher mean (4.34/5.00) and a lower standard deviation (0.35) than any of the other variables.

These values suggest that the majority of the academics in the sample generally reported high levels of OCB. When there is such a narrow range, correlations are diminished (Cameron, Cropanzano, & Vandenberghe, 2007).

Looking at the coefficients among the justice dimensions it can be seen that, procedural and informational justice are highly correlated with each other ($r = .79$, $p < 0.01$), followed by interpersonal and informational justice ($r = .73$, $p < 0.01$). These results are in line with research showing that these constructs are related to each other (Colquitt et al., 2001). The least related constructs were distributive and interpersonal justice ($r = .33$, $p < 0.01$). This finding has also been supported by previous studies (Cameron et al., 2007).

A preliminary look for multicollinearity reveals that there are no substantial correlations ($r > 0.8$) between the independent variables.

6.4 Regression analysis

Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to test the hypotheses. Two analyses were conducted. The first analysis had OCB as the dependent variable and LMX, distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice as independent variables. The second analysis had LMX as dependent variable and distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice as independent variables. In both of the analyses the sample size was $n=132$, well above the minimum required value of 98 and 90, respectively ($50+8k$, where “k” is the number of independent variables, and “n” is the sample size) (Field, 2009). Independent variables were entered into each analysis simultaneously using the forced entry method.

6.4.1 LMX, OJ – OCB relationship

The first analysis was conducted with OCB as the dependent variable and LMX, distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice as independent variables. As Table 5 indicates, the model was a good fit, $F(5) = 3.053$ ($p < 0.05$) with $R^2 = 0.108$ (see Table 6).

Table 5. ANOVA of the Regression Analysis for OCB

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.714	5	.343	3.053	.012
	Residual	14.146	126	.112		
	Total	15.860	131			

Table 6. Model Summary of the Regression Analysis for OCB

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics R Square Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.329	.108	.073	.33507	.108	2.074

Table 7 provides the results of the relationship of each independent variable with the dependent variable. As can be seen from the table distributive justice was found to have a significant and positive relationship with OCB ($\beta = .236$, $t = 2.375$, $p < 0.05$). The relationships of LMX and other dimensions of justice with OCB were

Table 7. Coefficients of the Regression Analysis for OCB

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.824	.193		19.795	.000		
	LMX	-.007	.055	-.017	-.134	.894	.422	2.372
	Distributive Justice	.115	.048	.236	2.375	.019	.717	1.394
	Procedural Justice	-.003	.046	-.010	-.075	.940	.371	2.697
	Interpersonal Justice	-.034	.046	-.092	-.738	.462	.451	2.219
	Informational Justice	.069	.051	.237	1.368	.174	.236	4.240

not significant. These results provided support for Hypotheses 2a, 2b and 2c, and failed to support Hypotheses 1, and 2d.

Case diagnostics was used to check the accuracy of the model. The analysis identified outliers and residuals as shown in Table 8. Five percent of the cases had standardized residuals within about ± 2 and one percent of the cases had standardized residuals within about ± 2.5 . The model had only one standardized residual above the critical value of 3.

Table 8. Casewise Diagnostics of the Regression Analysis for OCB

Case Number	Std. Residual	OCB	Predicted Value	Residual
28	-3.286	3.25	4.3512	-1.10116
66	-2.235	3.50	4.2489	-.74891
81	2.433	4.88	4.0599	.81513
101	-2.087	3.79	4.4909	-.69924
103	-2.259	3.42	4.1737	-.75702
114	-2.234	3.71	4.4569	-.74860

The cases were investigated further using diagnostic statistics. Table 9 shows the results of the analysis which, for all the cases, indicate that Cook's Distance is smaller than the critical value of 1, Mahalanobis Distance is smaller than the critical value of 15, Centered Leverage Value is smaller than the critical value of 0.0909 ($2(k+1)/n$) and CVR is within the critical limits of 1.136 and 0.864 ($1 \pm 3(k+1)/n$ where "k" is the number of independent variables, and "n" the sample size) (Field, 2009).

Table 9. Cook's Distance, Mahalanobis Distance, Centered Leverage Values and CVR of the Regression Analysis for OCB

Case Number	Cook's Distance	Mahalanobis Distance	Centered Leverage Value	CVR
28	.07531	4.07252	.03109	.62306
66	.01737	1.63273	.01246	.83549
81	.13872	13.56435	.10354	.85204
101	.02234	2.80874	.02144	.86918
103	.05476	6.50201	.04963	.85488
114	.05689	6.91659	.05280	.86212

None of the cases has a substantial influence on the model, therefore, the model can be considered fairly reliable.

The assumption of independent errors was checked through Durbin-Watson statistic shown in Table 6. The value for the data of this model is 2.074, which is close to the critical value of 2. Thus, the residuals in the model are independent and the assumption of independence of errors is met.

The assumption of multicollinearity was checked through Tolerance and VIF statistics shown in Table 7. This model has VIF values below 10 and tolerance statistics above 0.2; therefore, it can be concluded that there is no multicollinearity among the independent variables.

Assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were checked through the scatterplot of regression standardized predicted values and regression standardized residuals. As can be seen on Figure 10, the points are randomly and evenly dispersed throughout the plot; a pattern which indicates that this assumption has been met.

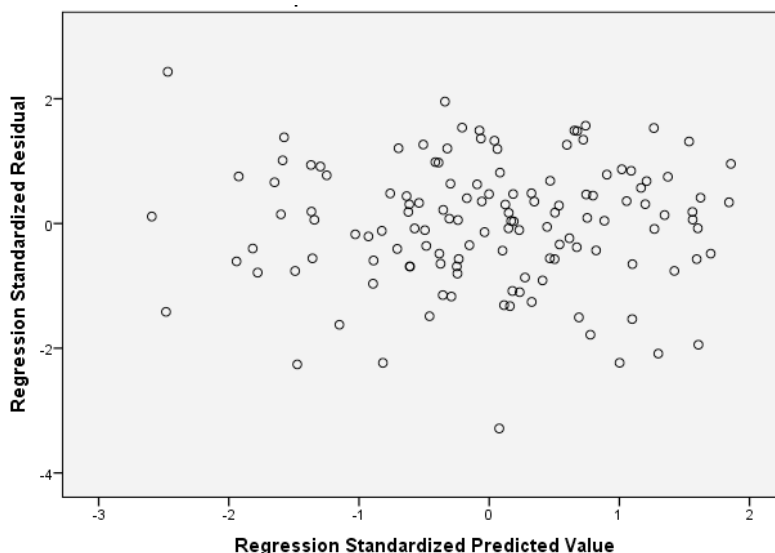


Figure 10. Scatterplot of regression Standardized Predicted Value and Regression Standardized Residuals for OCB

An important assumption of a regression analysis is the normal distribution of residuals. To test whether the residuals are normally distributed, two graphs were

checked, namely, the histogram of regression standardized residuals and normal P-P plots of normally distributed residuals. As can be seen from Figure 11, the distribution of residuals for the model tested is roughly normal. All the points representing the observed residuals (see Figure 12) lie near the line that represents a normal distribution.

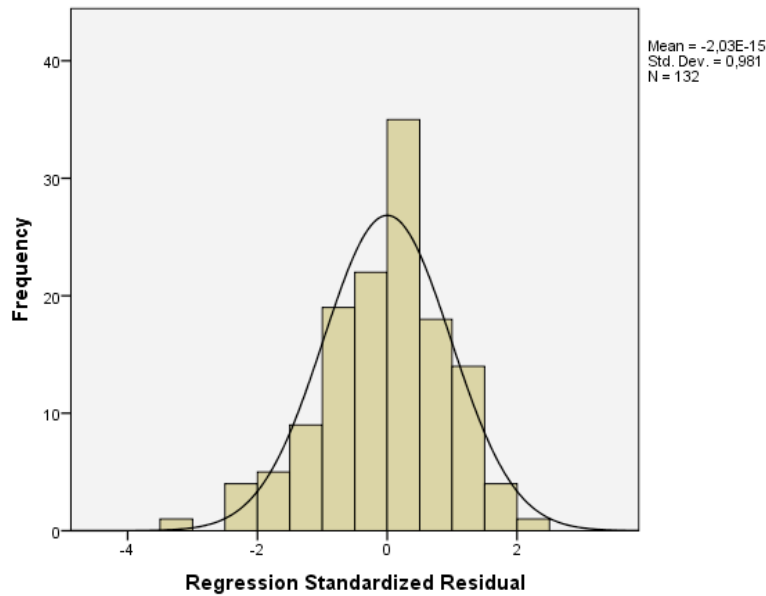


Figure 11. Histogram of regression standardized residual for OCB

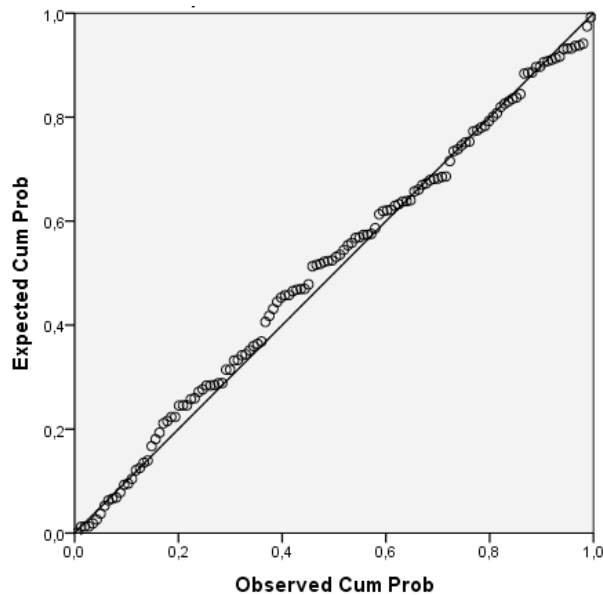


Figure 12. Normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual for OCB

6.4.2 OJ – LMX relationship

The second analysis was run with LMX as the dependent variable, and distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice as the independent variables. The results showed that the model is a good fit $F(4) = 43.569$ ($p < 0.001$) (see Table 10) with $R^2 = 0.578$ (see Table 11).

Table 10. ANOVA of the Regression Analysis for LMX

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 ¹ Regression	50.078	4	12.519	43.569	.000
Residual	36.493	127	.287		
Total	86.571	131			

Table 11. Model Summary of the Regression Analysis for LMX

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics R Square Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.761	.578	.565	.53605	.578	1.866

According to the model (see Table 12), distributive justice ($\beta = .271$, $t = 4.262$, $p < 0.001$) and informational justice ($\beta = .342$, $t = 2.986$, $p < 0.01$) were found to have a significant and positive effect on LMX whereas procedural and interpersonal justice had no significant impact on LMX. These results provided support for Hypothesis 3a, 3b, 3c and 3d.

Table 12. Coefficients of the Regression Analysis for LMX

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.470	.306		1.536	.127		
Distributive Justice	.308	.072	.271	4.262	.000	.820	1.220
Procedural Justice	.128	.072	.166	1.774	.078	.380	2.632
Interpersonal Justice	.135	.073	.157	1.852	.066	.463	2.160
Informational Justice	.233	.078	.342	2.986	.003	.252	3.962

Case diagnostics was run to identify residuals in order to check whether the model was accurate. As shown in Table 13, five percent of cases in the model had standardized residuals within about ± 2 . Three cases had standardized residuals above the critical value of 3.

Table 13. Casewise Diagnostics of the Regression Analysis for LMX

Case Number	Std. Residual	LMX	Predicted Value	Residual
10	-2.447	1.00	2.3115	-1.31147
13	-3.741	2.29	4.2910	-2.00533
22	2.046	3.86	2.7606	1.09658
42	2.064	4.29	3.1794	1.10634
47	3.606	5.00	3.0669	1.93305
93	3.359	4.57	2.7708	1.80059

The cases were investigated further using diagnostic statistics. As can be seen on Table 14, Cook's Distance is smaller than the critical value of 1, Mahalanobis Distance is smaller than the critical value of 15, Centered Leverage Value is smaller than the critical value of 0.0757 ($2(k+1)/n$) and CVR is within the critical limits of 1.114 and 0.886 ($1 \pm 3(k+1)/n$) for each of the cases. Thus, the model is fairly reliable as none of the cases exert substantial influence on the model.

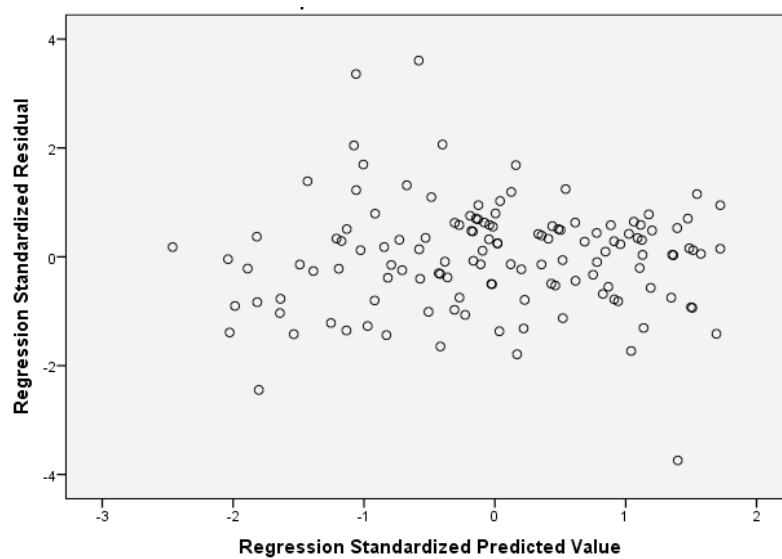
Table 14. Cook's Distance, Mahalanobis Distance, Centered Leverage Values and CVR of the Regression Analysis for LMX

Case Number	Cook's Distance	Mahalanobis Distance	Centered Leverage Value	CVR
10	.11010	9.24622	.07058	.86806
13	.09687	3.25253	.02483	.58739
22	.06220	7.51891	.05740	.92990
42	.02884	3.16577	.02417	.90079
47	.04632	1.26086	.00962	.61065
93	.16065	7.20320	.05499	.67455

Assumption of independent errors was checked through Durbin-Watson statistic presented in Table 11. The value for the data of this model is 1.866 which is close to 2. Thus the residuals in the model are independent and the assumption of independence of errors was met. Table 12 shows the values of Tolerance and VIF

statistic, which were checked to see if the assumption of multicollinearity was met. This model has VIF values below 10 and tolerance statistics all of which are above 0.2, indicating that there is no multicollinearity among the independent variables.

The scatterplot of regression standardized predicted values and regression standardized residuals was used to check for assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity. As can be seen on Figure 13, the points are randomly and evenly dispersed throughout the plot, a pattern indicating that this assumption has been



met.

Figure 13. Scatterplot of Regression Standardized Predicted Value and Regression Standardized Residuals for LMX

In order to test the normality of residuals we look at the histogram, Figure 14, and normal P-P plots of normally distributed residuals and non-normally distributed residuals. For the LMX data, the distribution is roughly normal. As can be seen from Figure 15, all the points, which represent the observed residual, lie near the line that represents a normal distribution.

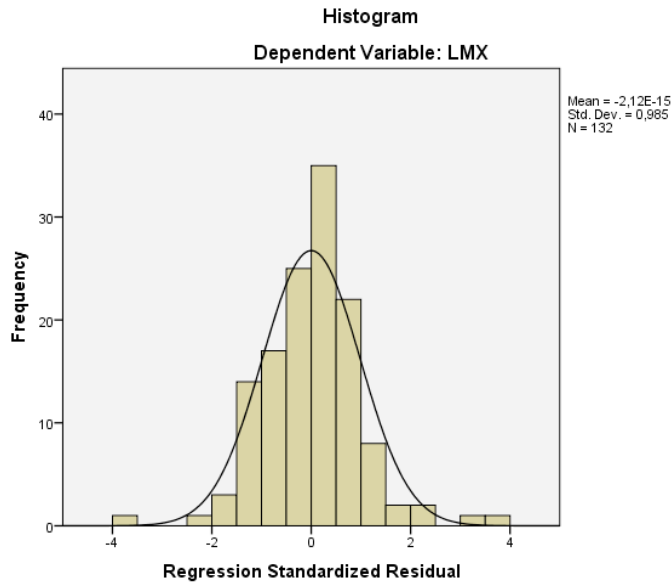


Figure 14. Histogram of regression standardized residual for LMX

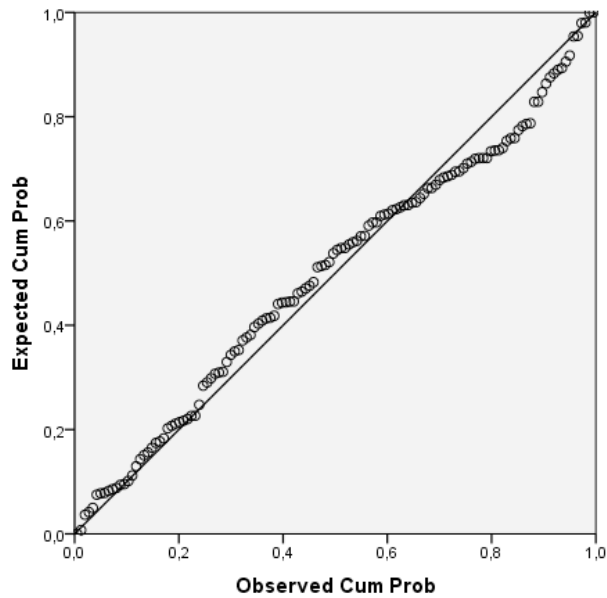


Figure 15. Normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual for LMX

6.5 Findings

Results of the study identified distributive justice as antecedent of OCB, and distributive justice and informational justice as antecedents of LMX. Table 15 offers a summary of the hypotheses tested and their respective results.

Table 15. Summary of findings

Hypothesis 1	LMX will be positively associated with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.	not supported
Hypothesis 2a	Distributive justice will be positively associated with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.	supported
Hypothesis 2b	Procedural justice will not display a significant positive association with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.	supported
Hypothesis 2c	Interpersonal justice will not display a significant positive association with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.	supported
Hypothesis 2d	Informational justice will be positively associated with OCB in the HEIs in Albania.	not supported
Hypothesis 3a	Distributive justice will be positively associated with LMX in the HEIs in Albania.	supported
Hypothesis 3b	Procedural justice will not display a significant positive association with LMX in the HEIs in Albania.	supported
Hypothesis 3c	Interpersonal justice will not display a significant positive association with LMX in the HEIs in Albania.	supported
Hypothesis 3d	Informational justice will be positively associated with LMX in the HEIs in Albania.	supported

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

HEIs in Albania operate in a competitive environment due to the high number of institutions and the low number of students per capita. Poor management and lack of funds in the Albanian HEIs have resulted in low monetary gains for the academics working in these institutions. Albanian academics have been pushed to accept administrative tasks or resort to multiple jobs, causing them to be overloaded, and thus, devoting less time to academic work. The purpose of this study was to identify the antecedents of extra-role behaviors and social exchange quality in the HEIs in Albania. Research in the Western countries, based on SET, has identified perceptions of justice and social exchange quality as main antecedents of extra-role behaviors and also indicated that social exchange quality is affected by perceptions of justice. According to SET, employees will use OCBs to reciprocate high-quality LMX relationships and perceptions of justice, and the latter will also have an impact on the quality of the LMX relationships. Nevertheless, these relationships may not hold in the Albanian society which has been identified as having high PD, high collectivistic, high masculine and high UA values.

Hypotheses were formulated based on the characteristics of the context and cultural values of the country. Two relationships were subject of analysis, specifically, the relationship of LMX, distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice with OCB, and the relationship of distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice with LMX. In order to investigate these relationships, a survey questionnaire was used to collect data. Among 132 participants of the study, almost 80 percent held a Ph.D. degree, near 42 percent had

administrative duties, about 50 percent had a monthly net income in the range of \$500-799, and roughly 70 percent worked in a public HEI. The results of the first multiple regression analysis revealed that distributive justice has a statistically significant positive impact on OCB. No significant relationship was found between LMX, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, informational justice and OCB. The second multiple regression analysis, on the other hand, indicated that both distributive justice and informational justice have statistically significant positive effect on LMX. According to the analysis, procedural and interpersonal justice had no significant effect on the engagement of the academics in OCB or the quality of their LMX relationships.

7.1 Interpretation of results

The results of the study revealed, as hypothesized, that distributive justice is a possible predictor of OCB in the HEIs in Albania. The findings indicated that academics who perceived high levels of distributive justice also reported more OCB. In other words, when Albanian academics perceive the outcomes they receive to be in line with the contributions they make, they are more prone to exhibit behaviors that benefit their co-workers, superiors, the HEI as a whole and third-parties, such as students. If Albanian academics are not satisfied by the outcomes they receive, the probability that they will go beyond their duty is low. The results might be partially due to the low-income level of the academics. The fact that they resort to multiple jobs (Gjonça, et al., 2014) is an indicator of this. Another reason can be the masculine values which characterize Albanians. Due to such values, they may be ambitious and hence strive for a higher salary and aim to gain more benefits in exchange for their work (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Perceived distributive justice, as expected, also had an effect on the quality of the relationship that Albanian academics have with their supervisor. The academics tend to view their relationship with the Department Chair more positively if the outcomes that they believe they deserve are given to them. Although the supervisor has no direct involvement in the distribution of outcomes, Albanian academics, due to high PD values, may believe that their supervisor has at least an indirect influence on the outcomes they receive. Thus, when Albanian academics obtain the outcomes they aspire to, they are likely to attribute merit to the Department Chair and thus are more likely to trust and respect him. The impact of distributive justice on OCB and LMX is supported by previous research (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Katrinli et al., 2010).

In addition, procedural justice, as hypothesized, was not found to have a significant impact on either OCB or LMX. Apparently, Albanian academics are not sensitive to procedural justice stemming from either the organization or the supervisor. This may be attributed to cultural values. In Albania, an institution that does not allow participation of employees in the process control or a supervisor who does not involve the subordinates in decision-making may not be considered as being unfair. It may be the case that, Albanian academics do not expect and/or want to be provided with the opportunity to voice their opinions, therefore, the lack of it may not create perceptions of injustice. The analysis shows that, even if the academics think they have been wronged, because of not being included in the decision-making process, they will not address it by diminishing their OCB or by retaliating against the Department Chair. Another possibility is that they may compare their position with those of others, and judge the situation as fair since no one was given the opportunity to voice their opinions. Either way, perceptions of procedural justice will

not cause the academics to withdraw their OCB or decrease the social exchanges with the Department Chair.

Furthermore, informational justice, as expected, was a statistically significant predictor of LMX quality. Findings revealed that when the Department Chair shares information with the faculty members the latter will perceive the relationship in a more positive light. It is also possible that, not the information itself but the “sharing” is important in the evaluation of the relationship. Interestingly, informational justice failed to predict OCB. The results showed that the Albanian academics’ belief that they have been informed in detail about relevant issues does not have an effect on their engagement in OCB. It has been noticed that in collectivistic cultures employees may rely less on explicit information and use more subtle clues to evaluate the organization, co-workers, and general performance (Hofstede et al., 2010). Therefore, the Albanian academics’ decision to engage in OCB may be affected by factors which do not depend on perceptions of informational justice or the need for information.

Two other hypotheses suggested that interpersonal justice is not an antecedent either to OCB or LMX. Results revealed that interpersonal justice had no significant impact on either OCB or LMX. This can be attributed to the collectivistic values of the Albanian society. Albanian academics hold collectivistic values which stress the importance of interpersonal relationships and social harmony (Greenberg, 2001), and thus, should be cherished despite unpleasantness in the workplace. Hence, Albanian academics may be less sensitive to interpersonal justice. In fact, results show that with an average score of 3.99 (out of 5) the participants in the study thought they were being treated in a just manner. This could also be attributed to the nature of the sample, which largely consisted of academics with a certain level of education and

came from a certain social class. Interpersonal treatment from the Department Chair, under the influence of high PD values, could only be one of dignity, respect, and politeness. On the other hand, there is also the possibility that academics may choose not to jeopardize the relationship they have with the Department Chair by reacting negatively to interpersonal injustice (Erdogan & Liden, 2006).

Contrary to what was hypothesized, LMX did not have a significant effect on OCB. This result is partially supported by a meta-analysis study by Rockstuhl et al. (2012), which shows that the relationship of LMX and OCB is weak in countries where PD is high and individualism is low. It is plausible that in collectivistic countries OCBs are often seen as in-role (Paine & Organ, 2000; Moorman & Blakely, 1995). Thus, Albanian academics may engage in OCB independent of the relationship they have with their supervisor. Additionally, there is also the possibility that OCBs of Albanian academics are directed toward the group (i.e. the organization) rather than the individual (i.e. supervisor). As stated by SET, employees can distinguish between the social exchanges they form and target their OCBs accordingly (Cropanzano & Mitchel, 2005). Albanian academics may probably engage in OCB due to the social exchanges they have with the institution they work for rather than the social exchanges they have with the Department Chair.

Lastly, as previously mentioned, both distributive justice and informational justice were positively associated with the quality of LMX relationship. The correlation analysis revealed that distributive justice, among all justice dimensions, is correlated the most with informational justice. Thus, it can be inferred that informational justice perceptions mitigate perceptions of distributive injustice. Hence, in case Albanian academics perceive distributive injustice they will refer to their perceptions of informational justice to decide if they are being treated in a just

manner by their supervisor. In other words, when Albanian academics think an injustice regarding the outcomes they have received has been done to them, they will turn to information relevant to the distribution of those outcomes to decide if they have been wronged or not by the institution they work for.

7.2 Practical implications

Our findings suggest a number of practical implications for HEIs in Albania. First, since Albanian academics are sensitive to issues regarding reward allocation, the administrators of these institutions should be extra cautious in devising reward allocation mechanisms, such that they should recognize and consider each academic's contribution, and allocate rewards according to employee performance and merit. The Department Chair should be involved in the performance evaluation process as he/she can provide more accurate information about each academic's input in work-related issues.

Second, the management of the HEIs should provide incentives and opportunities for self-achievement to Albanian academics, who can be described as ambitious due to the masculine cultural values that they hold. The Department Chairs, on the other hand, should make use of their interactions with academics to provide the necessary information that will assist the academics' perceptions of outcome fairness. Department Chairs should provide accurate and relevant information if they want to develop high-quality exchange relationships with the academic.

Third, Department Chairs should bear in mind that Albanian academics may utilize subtle means to settle the balance of fairness. In order to address any issues of injustice, they would have to be attentive and look for minor clues that point out to

the academic's dissatisfaction. Albanian academics would not confront their supervisor so the weight of identifying problems falls almost entirely on the Department Chair.

7.3 Limitations, strengths and future suggestions

Findings from this study are subject to certain limitations. First, the variables were operationalized through measures the validity of which was not tested in the Albanian culture before. Nevertheless, Cronbach's Alpha for each scale indicated their reliability and internal validity. Future research can conduct confirmatory factor analyses to validate the use of these constructs in the Albanian context.

Second, the study was conducted only in one context, analyzing the attitudes and behavior of one group of people, specifically academics working in the HEIs in Albania. These findings, therefore, cannot be generalized across other industries or groups of people. Nevertheless, this study is the first step in the analysis of OCB, LMX, and OJ in Albania, an issue which may drive more inclusive future research.

A third limitation is the method of data collection. All variables were assessed with self-reported measurements, so our findings may suffer from the same source bias (Colquitt et al., 2001; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Future research can measure OCB from different viewpoints, such as those of the Department Chair, co-workers, and students.

Lastly, this study contemplated that due to cultural values Albanian academics are less sensitive to procedural and interpersonal justice. A study by Kim et al. (2017) suggested that in cultures with high PD values, the supervisor is not expected to form interpersonal relationships with the supervisor and therefore relatively higher interpersonal justice is likely to emerge (Kim, Choi, Knutson, &

Borchgrevink, 2017). Training leaders on procedural and interpersonal justice has given positive results in increasing LMX quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012) and, in turn, OCB (Greenberg, 2006). In the future, researchers could utilize longitudinal research design in order to analyze the impact such training may have on the quality of the relationship between the academic and Department Chair, as well as, test the impact that high-quality LMXs have on academics' engagement in OCB.

7.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, the results of this study suggest that salary and other benefits that Albanian academics get from the institution they work for play an important role in determining work-related attitudes and behavior. Specifically, when Albanian academics perceive that they have been rewarded in accordance with their contributions to the institution, they will be willing to go the extra mile and build a fruitful relationship with the Department Chair for three main reasons.

First, the satisfaction of getting what they deserve will motivate them to reciprocate the good done, by the institution or the Department Chair, through such means as helping their co-workers, supporting the Department Chair, promoting the institution to outsiders, and going the extra mile for their students. These results can be attributed to the low level of income per capita, the lack of high profits in the institutions of high education in Albania, and masculine values which characterize Albanians. Management of these institutions should conduct performance evaluations which reflect each academics contribution and reward them accordingly.

Second, Albanian academics, who see the rewards they get as fair, will form high-quality relationships. They will trust the Department Chair, perform the tasks he/she appoints, be there for him/her when required, and show loyalty to him/her.

These results can be due to the high PD values which characterize the Albanian society. Department Chairs, in the Albanian institutions, should be aware of the academics' expectations related to the distribution of outcomes and the role they think the Department Chair plays in the determination of those outcomes.

Third, if the institution the Albanian academics work for and/or the Department Chair they report to provide them with thorough, accurate, appropriate and timely information about work-related issues the academics will believe they have a high-quality relationship with the Department Chair. A reason for this could be the high UA values that characterize the members of the Albanian society. Department Chairs can foster their relationships with the academics if they are more careful and rigorous in sharing relevant information with them.

7. Marrëdhënia ime e punës me eprorin tim është frytdhënëse.					1	2	3	4	5
Shprehitë e mëposhtme janë në lidhje me rezultatet e arritura në vendin e punës (detyrat administrative, detyrat në lidhje me mësimdhënien, detyrat jashtë shtetit, lavdërime, rroga, ngritje në detyrë, etj.) Ju lutem përgjigjuni sipas shkallës së mëposhtme të vlerësimit.									
1 = Shumë pak		2 = Pak		3 = Pjesërisht		4 = Mjaftueshëm		5 = Shumë	
1. A pasqyrohen përpjekjet tuaja në rezultatet e arritura?					1	2	3	4	5
2. Rezultatet e arritura përputhen me punën e kryer.					1	2	3	4	5
3. Rezultatet e arritura janë në përpjestim të drejtë me kontributin tuaj në punë.					1	2	3	4	5
4. A i justifikon performanca juaj rezultatet e arritura në punë?					1	2	3	4	5
Shprehitë e mëposhtme kanë të bëjnë me procedurat e përdorura për përllogaritjen e përfitimeve (monetare/jomonetare) në punë. Ju lutem përgjigjuni sipas shkallës së mëposhtme të vlerësimit.									
1 = Shumë pak		2 = Pak		3 = Pjesërisht		4 = Mjaftueshëm		5 = Shumë	
1. A ju jepet mundësia të shprehni mendimet dhe idetë tuaja rreth këtyre procedurave?					1	2	3	4	5
2. A keni patur ndikim në rezultatet e arritura nëpërmjet këtyre procedurave?					1	2	3	4	5
3. A janë zbatuar këto procedura në mënyrë të vazhdueshme?					1	2	3	4	5
4. A janë formuluar këto procedura në mënyrë efektive?					1	2	3	4	5
5. A janë formuluar këto procedura duke u bazuar në dije (informacione) të sakta/të përpikta?					1	2	3	4	5
6. A keni patur mundësinë të kërkoni rishikimin e këtyre rezultateve?					1	2	3	4	5
7. A bazohen këto procedura në standartet e etikës dhe moralit?					1	2	3	4	5
Shprehitë e mëposhtme kanë të bëjnë me personat përgjegjës për proceset e përdorura për përllogaritjen e fitimeve (monetare/jomonetare) në punë. Ju lutem përgjigjuni sipas shkallës së mëposhtme të vlerësimit.									
1 = Shumë pak		2 = Pak		3 = Pjesërisht		4 = Mjaftueshëm		5 = Shumë	
1. A është i sjellshëm me ju?					1	2	3	4	5
2. A ju trajton në mënyrë dinjitoze?					1	2	3	4	5
3. A ju trajton me respekt?					1	2	3	4	5
4. A bën vërejtje dhe komente jo profesionale?					1	2	3	4	5
5. A flet/komunikon hapur me ju?					1	2	3	4	5

6. A ua ka shpjeguar gjithçka rreth këtyre procedurave, përfshirë detajet?	1	2	3	4	5
7. A ua ka shpjeguar procedurat në mënyrë të logjikshme?	1	2	3	4	5
8. A ua ka komunikuar detajet rreth procedurave në kohë?	1	2	3	4	5
9. A komunikon duke pasur në mëndje natyrën dhe nevojat personale të çdo individi.	1	2	3	4	5
Shprehitë e mëposhtme kanë të bëjnë me sjelljen tuaj në vendin e punës. Ju lutem përgjigjuni sipas shkallës së intensitetit me të cilën i shfaqni këto sjellje.					
1 = S'jam aspak dakort	2 = S'jam dakort	3 = Nuk e di	4 = Jam dakort	5 = Jam plotësisht dakort	
1. I Ndhimoj punonjësit e tjerë kur janë të mbingarkuar me punë.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Jam një nga punonjësit më të përgjegjshëm.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Të tjerët detyrohen të përfundojnë punët të cilat unë i lë përgjysëm.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Përpiqem mos iu shkaktoj probleme kolegëve.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Ndjek vazhdimisht ndryshimet që ndodhin në vendin e punës.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Jam gjithmonë i/e gatshëm/e të ndihmoj njerëzit që kam përreth.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Mendoj se njerëzit duhet të punojnë për ta merituar rrogën që marrin.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Humbas shumë kohë duke u ankuar për gjëra të parëndësishme.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Gjithmonë vëzhgoj ndikimin që kanë sjelljet e mia te kolegët e mi.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Marr pjesë në mbledhjet ku pjesëmarrja nuk është e detyruar por që janë të rëndësishme.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Ndhimoj dikë që ka munguar në punë për arsye personale.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Mungesat që kam bërë në vendin e punës janë më të pakta se maksimumi i lejuar.	1	2	3	4	5
13. E bej qimen tra.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Nuk abuzoj me të drejtat e të tjerëve.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Marr vullnetarisht përsiper detyra të cilat janë të rëndësishme për imazhin e vendit të punës edhe kur nuk jam i/e detyruar.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Ndhimoj vullnetarisht njerëzit që kanë probleme në lidhje me punën.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Në vendin e punës gjatë ditës nuk bëj pushime të shpeshta apo të gjata.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Zakonisht kërkoj për të meta dhe gabime sesa për gjëra pozitive.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Marr masa parandaluese që të moj hyj në konflikt me punonjësit e tjerë.	1	2	3	4	5

20. Lexoj dhe ndjek çdo lloj material (lajmërime, shënime) që kanë të bëjnë me vendin e punës.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Ndihmoj vullnetarisht të punësuarit e rinj që të ambientohen me vendin e punës dhe pozicionin e tyre.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I zbatoj rregullat e vendit të punës edhe kur askush nuk e vë re.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Gjej gjithmonë gabime dhe të meta në vendin e punës.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Kujdesem që sjellja ime të mos ndikojë negativisht tek punonjësit e tjerë.	1	2	3	4	5
Faleminderit për pjesëmarrjen, Mikaela Musta, MA Student International Trade Management Bogaziçi University, BS Business Administration Hacettepe University					

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

“To what extent do you agree with the following statements?”

“1=to a small extent” to “5=to a large extent”

1. I help others who have heavy workloads. (Altruism A)
2. I am one of the most conscientious employees. (Conscientious C)
3. I am the classic squeaky wheel that always needs greasing. (Sportsmanship S)
4. I try to avoid creating problems with co-workers. (Courtesy Co)
5. I keep abreast of changes in the organization. (Civic Virtue CV)
6. I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me. (A)
7. I believe in giving an honest day’s work for an honest day’s pay. (C)
8. I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters. (S)
9. I am mindful of how my behavior affect other workers. (Co)
10. I attend meetings that are not mandatory but are considered important. (CV)
11. I help others who have been absent. (A)
12. My attendance at work is above the norm. (C)
13. I tend to make “mountains out of molehills”. (S)
14. I do not abuse the right of others. (Co)
15. I attend functions that are not required but help company image. (CV)
16. I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems. (A)
17. I do not take extra breaks. (C)
18. I always focus on what is wrong, rather than the positive side. (S)
19. I take steps to try to prevent problems with other employees. (Co)

20. I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos and so on. (CV)
21. I help orient new people even though it is not required. (A)
22. I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching. (C)
23. I always find fault with what the company is doing. (S)
24. I consider the impact of my actions on co-workers. (Co)

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE

“To what extent do you agree with the following statements?”

“1=strongly disagree” to “5=strongly agree”

1. I always know how satisfied my immediate supervisor is with what I do?
2. My immediate supervisor completely understands your problems and needs.
3. My immediate supervisor does not fully recognize my potential.
4. My immediate supervisor would certainly be personally inclined to use power to help me solve problems in my work.
5. I can certainly count on my immediate supervisor to “bail me out” at his or her expense when I really need it.
6. I would certainly defend and justify my immediate supervisor’s decisions if he or she were not present to do so.
7. I have an extremely effective working relationship with my immediate supervisor.

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE

“The following items refer to your outcome. To what extent were the following observed”:

“1=to a small extent” to “5=to a large extent”

1. My outcome reflects the effort I have put into my work.
2. My outcome is appropriate for the work I have completed.
3. My outcome reflects what I have contributed to the workplace (organization).
4. My outcome is justified, given my performance.

APPENDIX E

QUESTIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF PROCEDURAL JUSTICE

“The following items refer to the procedures used to arrive at your outcome. To what extent were the following observed”:

“1=to a small extent” to “5=to a large extent”

1. I have been able to express my views and feelings during these procedures.
2. I have had influence over the outcome arrived at by those procedures.
3. Those procedures have been applied consistently.
4. Those procedures have been free of bias.
5. Those procedures have been based on accurate information.
6. I have been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures.
7. Those procedures have upheld ethical and moral standards.

APPENDIX F

QUESTIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF INTERPERSONAL JUSTICE

“The following items refer to the authority figure who enacted the procedure. To what extent were the following observed”:

“1=to a small extent” to “5=to a large extent”

1. My supervisor has treated me in a polite manner.
2. My supervisor has treated me with dignity.
3. My supervisor has treated me with respect.
4. My supervisor has refrained from improper remarks or comments.

APPENDIX G

QUESTIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF INFORMATIONAL JUSTICE

“The following items refer to the authority figure who enacted the procedure. To what extent were the following observed”:

“1=to a small extent” to “5=to a large extent”

1. My supervisor has been candid in his/her communication with me.
2. My supervisor has explained the procedures thoroughly.
3. My supervisor’s explanations regarding the procedures were reasonable.
4. My supervisor has communicated details in a timely manner.
5. My supervisor tailors his/her communications to individuals’ specific needs.

REFERENCES

- Al-Mahasneh, M. A. (2015). The impact of organizational citizenship behavior on job performance at Greater Amman Municipality. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 7(36), 108-118. Retrieved from <https://www.iiste.org/Journals/index.php/EJBM/article/viewFile/27528/28243>
- Aryee, S., Budhwar, P. S., & Chen, Z. X. (2002). Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organizational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(3), 267-285. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.138>
- Aselage, J., & Eisenberger, R. (2003). Perceived organizational support and psychological contracts: A theoretical integration. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24, 491-509. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.211>
- Asgari, A., Silong, A. D., Ahmat, A., & Bahaman, A. S. (2008). The relationship between leader-member exchange, organizational inflexibility, perceived organizational support, interactional justice and organizational citizenship behavior. *African Journal of Business Management*, 2(8), 138-145. Retrieved from http://www.academicjournals.org/article/article1380540749_Asgari%20and%20Samah.pdf
- Barnard, C. I. (1938). *The Functions of the Executive* (18th Ed.). Cambridge, Massachusetts, U.S.A.: Harvard University Press. Retrieved from Internet Archive.
- Basu, E., Pradhan, R. K., & Tewari, H. R. (2017). Impact of organizational citizenship behavior on job performance in Indian healthcare industries. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 66(6), 780-796. Retrieved from <https://0-search-proquest-com.seyhan.library.boun.edu.tr/docview/1915291078?accountid=9645>
- Becton, J. B., & Field, H. S. (2009). Cultural differences in organizational citizenship behavior: A comparison between Chinese and American employees. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(8), 1651-1669. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585190902770646>
- Bienstock, C. C., DeMoranville, C. W., & Smith, R. K. (2003). Organizational citizenship behavior and service quality. *Journal of Service Marketing*, 17(4), 357-378. <https://doi.org/10.1108/08876040310482775>
- Biron, M., & Boon, C. (2013). Performance and turnover intentions: a social exchange perspective. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28(5), 511-531. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-09-2011-0054>

- Breukelen, W., Shyns, B., & LeBlanc, P. (2006). Leader-member exchange theory and research: Accomplishment and future challenges. *Leadership*, 2(3), 295-316. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F17427150060666023>
- Brower, H. H., Schoorman, F. D., & Ten, H. H. (2000). A model of relational leadership: The integration of trust and leader-member exchange. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(2), 227-250. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(00\)00040-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(00)00040-0)
- Burton, J. P., Sablinski, C. J., & Sekiguchi, T. (2008). Linking justice, performance and citizenship via leader-member exchange. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 23, 51-61. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-008-9075-z>
- Camerman, J., Cropanzano, R., & Vandenberghe, C. (2007). The benefits of justice for temporary workers. *Group and Organization Management*, 32(2), 176-207. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1059601102287112>
- Casimir, G., Ngee, K. N., Yuan Wang, K., & Ooi, G. (2014). The relationships amongst leader-member exchange, perceived organizational support, affective commitment, and in-role performance. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 35(5), 366-385. Retrieved from <https://0-search-proquest-com.seyhan.library.boun.edu.tr/docview/1651358656?accountid=9645>
- Chen, L., Niu, H., Wang, Y., Yang, C., & Tsaur, S. (2009). Does job standardization increase organizational citizenship behavior? *Public Personnel Management*, 38(3), 39-49. Retrieved from <https://0-search-proquest-com.seyhan.library.boun.edu.tr/docview/215945176?accountid=9645>
- Chernyak-Hai, L., & Tziner, A. (2014). Relationships between counterproductive work behavior, perceived justice and climate, occupational status, and leader-member exchange. *Revista De Psicología Del Trabajo y De Las Organizaciones*, 30(1), 1-n/a. Retrieved from <https://0-search-proquest-com.seyhan.library.boun.edu.tr/docview/1553449665?accountid=9645>
- Chiaburu, D. S., & Lim, A. S. (2008). Manager trustworthiness or interactional justice? Predicting organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 83, 453-467. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-007-9631-x>
- Cogliser, C. C., Schriesheim, C. A., Scandura, T. A., & Gardner, W. L. (2009). Balance in leader and follower perceptions of leader-member exchange: Relationships with performance and work attitudes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(3), 452-465. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.03.010>
- Cohen, A., Ben-Tura, E., & Vashdi, D. R. (2012). The relationship between social exchange variables, OCB, and performance. What happens when you consider group characteristics. *Personnel Review*, 41(6), 705-731. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00483481211263638>
- Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 86(2), 278-321. <https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.2001.2958>

- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 386-400. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.386>
- Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 425-445. Retrieved from <http://leeds-faculty.colorado.edu/dahe7472/Colquitt%202001.pdf>
- Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Rodell, J. B., Long, D. M., Zapata, C. P., Conlon, D. E., et al. (2013). Justice at a millennium, a decade later: A meta-analytic test of social exchange and affect-based perspectives. *Journal of Applied Science*, 98(2), 199-236. <http://0-psycnet.apa.org.seyhan.library.boun.edu.tr/doi/10.1037/a0031757>
- Cropanzano, R. & Greenberg, J. (1997). Progress in organizational justice: Tunneling through the maze. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. 12. 317-372. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Russell_Cropanzano/publication/261286563_Progress_in_Organizational_Justice_Tunneling_Through_the_Maze/links/00b7d533c4e1d7a786000000/Progress-in-Organizational-Justice-Tunneling-Through-the-Maze.pdf?origin=publication_detail
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchel, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874-900. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0149206305279602>
- Cropanzano, R., & Molina, A. (2015). Organizational Justice. In: Wright, J. D. (Ed), *International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences* (2nd ed., Vol. 17, pp. 379-384) Oxford: Elsevier. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-097086-8.22033-3>
- Cropanzano, R., & Rupp, D. E. (2008). Social exchange theory and organizational justice: Job performance, citizenship behaviors, multiple foci, and historical integration of two literatures. In S. Gilliland, D. D. Steiner, & D. P. Skarlicki (Eds.), *Justice, Morality and Social Responsibility* (pp. 63-99). Information Age Publishing. Retrieved from ResearchGate
- Cropanzano, R., Bowen, D., & Gilliland, S. W. (2007). The Management of Organizational Justice. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 21(4), 34-48. Retrieved from <http://0-www.jstor.org.seyhan.library.boun.edu.tr/stable/27747410>
- Cropanzano, R., Prehar, C. A., & Chen, P. Y. (2002). Using social exchange theory to distinguish procedural from interactional justice. *Group and Organization Management*, 27(3), 324-351. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1059601102027003002>
- Drejtoria e Përgjithshme e Tatimeve (2017). Legjislacioni Tatimor Vendim Nr. 399. Retrieved from <https://www.tatime.gov.al/shkarko.php?id=1046>

- Dulebohn, J. H., Bommer, W. H., Liden, R. C., Brouer, R. L., & Ferris, G. R. (2012). A meta-analysis of antecedents and consequences of leader-member exchange: Integrating the past with an eye toward the future. *Journal of Management*, 38(6), 1715-1759. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311415280>
- Eberlin, R., & Tatum, B. C. (2005). Organizational justice and decision making. When good intentions are not enough. *Management Decisions*, 43(7/8), 1040-1048. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00251740510610035>
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 500-507. <http://0-psycnet.apa.org.seyhan.library.boun.edu.tr/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.500>
- Elstad, E., Christophersen, K. A., & Turmo, A. (2011). Social exchange theory as an explanation of organizational citizenship behavior among teachers. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 14(4), 405-421. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.500>
- Erdogan, B., & Liden, R. C. (2006). Collectivism as a moderator of responses to organizational justice: Implications for leader-member exchange and ingratiation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27, 1-17. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.365>
- Erdogan, B., Liden, R. C., & Kraimer, M. L. (2006). Justice and leader-member exchange: The moderating role of organizational culture. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 49(2), 395-406. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2006.20786086>
- Ergeneli, A., Gohar, R., & Temirbekova, Z. (2007). Transformational leadership: Its relationship to culture value dimensions. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 31(6), 703-724. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2007.07.003>
- Farh, J. L., Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1990). Accounting for organizational citizenship behavior: Leader fairness and task scope versus satisfaction. *Journal of Management*, 16(4), 705-721. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920639001600404>
- Farh, J. L., Zhong, C. B., & Organ, D. W. (2004). Organizational citizenship behavior in the People's Republic of China. *Organization Science*, 15(2), 241-253. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1287/orsc.1030.0051>
- Farooqui, M. R. (2012). Measuring organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as a consequence of organizational climate (OC). *Asian Journal of Business Management*, 4(3), 294-302. Retrieved from: <http://maxwellsci.com/print/ajbm/v4-294-302.pdf>
- Fassina, N. E., Jones, D. A., & Uggerslev, K. L. (2008). Meta-analytic tests of relationships between organizational justice and citizenship behavior:

- Testing agent-system and shared-variance models. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29(6), 805-828. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.494>
- Fein, E. C., Tziner, A., Lusky, L., & Palachy, O. (2013). Relationships between ethical climate, justice perceptions, and LMX. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 34(2), 147-163. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01437731311321913>
- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS (3rd ed.)*. SAGE Publications.
- Gelfand, M. J., Erez, M., & Aycan, Z. (2007). Cross-cultural organizational behavior. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 58, 479-514. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.58.110405.085559>
- George, J. M., & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding pro-social behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(6), 698-709. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.75.6.698>
- Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(6), 827-844. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.6.827>
- Gjonça, A., Aliaj, B., Barbullushi, M., Bozo, D., Civici, A., Demo, E., et al. (2014). Raporti përfundimtar për reformimin e arsimit të lartë dhe kërkimit shkencor. Ministria e Arsimit, Sportit e Rinisë. Retrieved from http://www.arsimi.gov.al/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/Raport_Final_Ministria_Arsimit.pdf
- Gjuraj, E. (2013). The importance of national culture studies in the organizational context. *European Scientific Journal*, 9(11), 160-180. <http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/esj.2013.v9n11p%25p>
- GLOBE. (2004). Results - Albania GLOBE Project. Retrieved 2018, from GLOBE Global Leadership & Organizational Behavior Effectiveness: Retrieved from <http://globeproject.com/results/countries/ALB?menu=country>
- GLOBE. (2014). Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 Societies. (R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. D. Javidan, & V. Gupta, Eds.). California, USA: Sage Publications.
- Gooty, J., & Yammarino, F. J. (2016). The leader-member exchange relationship: a multisource, cross-level investigation. *Journal of Management*, 42(4), 915-935. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206313503009>
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today and tomorrow. *Journal of Management*, 16(2), 399-432. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920639001600208>
- Greenberg, J. (2001). Studying organizational justice cross-culturally: Fundamental challenges. *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, 12(4), 365-375. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/eb022864>

- Greenberg, J. (2006). Losing sleep over organizational injustice: Attenuating insomniac reactions to underpayment inequity with supervisory training in interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(1), 58-69. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.1.58>
- Greenberg, J., & Lind, E. A. (2000). The pursuit of organizational justice: From Conceptualization to implication to application. In C. L. Cooper, & E. A. Locke, *Linking theory with practice* (pp. 73-106). Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/312970280_%27The_Pursuit_of_Organizational_Justice_from_conceptualization_to_implication_to_application%27
- Hofstede Insights. (2018). Country Comparison Albania. Retrieved July 2018, from Hofstede Insights: <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/albania/>
- Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing cultures: The Hofstede Model in context. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture, 2*(1), <https://doi.org/10.9707/2307-0919.1014>.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind. Intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival* (3rd ed.). McGraw-Hill. Retrieved from <http://testrain.info/download/Software%20of%20mind.pdf>
- Ilies, R., Nahrgang, J. D., & Morgeson, F. P. (2007). Leader-member exchange and citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(1), 269-277. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.269>
- Jaesub, L. (2001, May). Leader-member exchange, perceived organizational justice, and cooperative communication. *Management Communication Quarterly, 14*(4), 574-589. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/247741925_Leader-Member_Exchange_Perceived_Organizational_Justice_and_Cooperative_Communication
- Jha, S., & Jha, S. (2013). Leader-Member Exchange: A critique of theory and practice. *Journal of Management and Public Policy, 4*(2), 42-53. Retrieved from <https://0-search-proquest-com.seyhan.library.boun.edu.tr/docview/1491435230?accountid=9645>
- Kajsiu, B. (2015). Higher education in Albania: The never ending challenge. *International Higher Education, 82*, 15-16. Retrieved from <https://ejournals.bc.edu/ojs/index.php/ihe/article/download/8869/7940>
- Kaltsounis, T. (1999). Democratic citizenship education in Albania. *The Social Studies, 90*(6), 245-249. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00377999909602423>

- Karriker, J. H., & Williams, M. L. (2009). Organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior: A mediated multi-foci model. *Journal of Managements*, 35(1), 112-135.
<http://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1177/0149206307309265>
- Katrinli, A., Atabay, G., Gunay, G., & Congarli, B. G. (2010). Perception of organizational politics and LMX: Linkages in distributive justice and job satisfaction. *Journal of Business Management*, 4(14), 3110-3121.
<https://dx.doi.org/10.5897/AJBM>
- Khalid, S. A., Jusoff, H. K., Othman, M., Ismail, M., & Rahman, N. A. (2010). Organizational citizenship behavior as a predictor of student academic achievement. *International Journal of Economics and Finance*, 2(1), 65-71.
 Retrieved from
<https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/f637/c1fbda660c2a7d96ef2472bb48d54209b46f.pdf>
- Konovsky, M. A., & Pugh, S. D. (1994). Citizenship behavior and social exchange. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 37(3), 656-669.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256704>
- Koys, D. J. (2001). The effects of employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover on organizational effectiveness: A unit-level, longitudinal study. *Personnel Psychology*, 54, 101-114.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2001.tb00087.x>
- Kwantes, C. T., Karam, C. M., Kuo, B. C., & Towson, S. (2008). Culture's influence on the perception of OCB as in-role or extra-role. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 32, 229-243.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2008.01.007>
- Lavelle, J. J., Rupp, D. E., & Brockner, J. (2007). Taking a multi-foci approach to the study of justice, social exchange, and citizenship behavior: The target similarity model. (R. Cropanzano, Ed.) *Journal of Management*, 33(6), 841-866. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206307307635>
- Lee, C., Pillutla, M., & Law, K. S. (2000). Power distance, gender and organizational justice. *Journal of Management*, 26(4), 685-704.
[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063\(00\)00052-0](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(00)00052-0)
- Lee, H.-R., Murrmann, S. K., & Murrmann, K. F. (2010). Organizational justice as a mediator of the relationships between leader-member exchange and employee's turnover intentions. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 19, 97-114. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/19368620903455237>
- Liden, R. C., & Graen, G. (1980). Generalizability of the vertical dyad linkage model of leadership. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 23(3), 451-465.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/255511>
- Lin, L.-H., & Ho, Y.-L. (2010). Guanxi and OCB: The Chinese cases. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 96, 285-298. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-010-0465-6>

- Macfarlane, B. (2005). The disengaged academic: the retreat from citizenship. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 59(4), 296-312.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2273.2005.00299.x>
- Markoxzy, L., Vora, D., & Xin, K. (2009). Forbearance in organizational citizenship behavior. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(2), 321-347. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585190802670706>
- Masterson, S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M., & Taylor, M. (2000). Integrating justice and social exchange: the differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(4), 738-748.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/1556364>
- Miller, B. K., Konopaske, R., & Byrne, Z. S. (2012). Dominance analysis of two measures of organizational justice. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 27(3), 264-282. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02683941211205817>
- Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(6), 845-855.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.76.6.845>
- Moorman, R. H., & Blakely, G. L. (1995). Individualism-collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16(2), 127-142.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.4030160204>
- Motowildo, S. J. (2000). Some basic issues related to contextual performance and organizational citizenship behavior in human resource management. *Human Resource Management Review*, 10(1), 115-126.
[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822\(99\)00042-X](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(99)00042-X)
- Nevis, E. C. (1983). Using an American perspective in understanding another culture: Toward a hierarchy of needs for the People's Republic of China, *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 19(2), 249-264.
<https://doi.org/10.1177%2F002188638301900304>
- Oren, L., Tziner, A., Sharoni, G., Amor, I., & Alon, P. (2012). Relations between leader-subordinate personality similarity and job attitudes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 27(5), 479-496.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02683941211235391>
- Organ, D. W. (1988). A restatement of the satisfaction-performance hypothesis. *Journal of Management*, 14(4), 547-557.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920638801400405>
- Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance*, 10(2), 85-97.
http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15327043hup1002_2

- Organ, D. W., & Moorman, R. H. (1993). Fairness and organizational citizenship behavior: What are the connections? *Social Justice Research*, 6(1). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF01048730>
- Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(4), 775-802. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1995.tb01781.x>
- Paine, J. B., & Organ, D. W. (2000). The cultural matrix of organizational citizenship behavior: Some preliminary conceptual and empirical observations. *Human Resource Management Review*, 10(1), 45-59. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822\(99\)00038-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(99)00038-8)
- Park, J. Y., & Nawakitphaitoon, K. (2018). The cross-cultural study of LMX and individual employee voice: The moderating role of conflict avoidance. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 28, 14-30. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12158>
- Pellegrini, E. K. (2006). *A cross-cultural investigation of the relations among organizational justice, paternalism, delegation and leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships* (Order No. 3215246). Available from ProQuest Central; ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (305312693). Retrieved from <https://0-search-proquest-com.seyhan.library.boun.edu.tr/docview/305312693?accountid=9645>
- Perrot-Lanaud, M., Sidhu, S., Tang, S., & Samson, M. (2005). UNESCO and Sustainable Development. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001393/139369e.pdf>
- Podsakoff, N. P., Podsakoff, P. M., Mackenzie, S. B., Maynes, T. D., & Spoelma, T. M. (2014). Consequences of unit-level organizational citizenship behaviors: A review and recommendations for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35, S87-S119. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.1911>
- Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual- and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(1), 122-141. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0013079>
- Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1994). Organizational citizenship behaviors and sales unit effectiveness. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31(3), 351-363. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3152222>
- Podsakoff, P. M., Ahearne, M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior and the quantity and quality of work group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(2), 262-270. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.2.262>
- Podsakoff, P. M., Mackenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2), 107-142. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843\(90\)90009-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(90)90009-7)

- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 513-563. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600306>
- Quality Assurance Agency in Higher Education. (2018). Accredited Institutions. Retrieved May 9, 2018, from ascal.al: <https://www.ascal.al/sq/akreditimi/institucione-te-akredituara>
- Rego, A., & Cunha, M. P. (2010). Organizational justice and citizenship behaviors: A study in the Portuguese cultural context. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 59(3), 404-430. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2009.00405.x>
- Roch, S. G., & Shanock, L. R. (2006). Organizational justice in an exchange framework: Clarifying organizational justice distinctions. *Journal of Management*, 32(2), 299-322. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206305280115>
- Rockstuhl, T., Dulebohn, J. H., Ang, S., & Shore, L. M. (2012). Leader-member exchange (LMX) and culture: A meta-analysis of correlates of LMX across 23 countries. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(6), 1097-1130. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0029978>
- Rousseau, D. M., & Parks, J. M. (1993). The contracts of individuals and organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 15, pp. 1-43). Retrieved from http://web.mit.edu/curhan/www/docs/Articles/15341_Readings/Justice/TheContractsOfIndividualsAndOrganizations_RousseauParks.pdf
- Scandura, T. A., & Graen, G. B. (1984). Moderating effects of initial leader-member exchange status on the effects of a leadership intervention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(3), 428-436. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.3.428>
- Schnake, M. (1991). Organizational citizenship: A review, proposed model, and research agenda. *Human Relations*, 44(7), 735-759. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/001872679104400706>
- Schriesheim, C. A., Wu, J. B., & Scandura, T. A. (2009). A meso measure? Examination of the levels of analysis of the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ). *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20, 604-616. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.04.005>
- Scott, J., Craven, A. E., & Green, C. (2006). A meta-analysis of organizational citizenship behavior and leader-member exchange. *Journal of Business and Economics Research*, 4(11), 19-36. <http://dx.doi.org/10.19030/jber.v4i11.2711>
- Settoon, R. P., Bennett, N., & Liden, R. C. (1996). Social exchange in organizations: Perceived organizational support, leader-member exchange, and employee

- reciprocity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(3), 219-227.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.81.3.219>
- Shao, R., Rupp, D. E., Skarlicki, D. P., & Jones, K. S. (2013). Employee justice across cultures: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Management*, 39(1), 263-301. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206311422447>
- Skarlicki, D. P. (2001). Cross-cultural perspectives of organizational justice. *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, 12(4), 292-294.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/eb022859>
- Smith, C. A., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68(4), 653-663. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.68.4.653>
- Sotirofski, K., Mema, M., & Hoti, U. (2011). Social and cultural dimension of the transformation of higher education in Albania. *European Scientific Journal*, 10, 54-64. Retrieved from
<http://eujournal.org/index.php/esj/article/viewFile/4725/4513>
- Taras, V., Kirkman, B. L., & Steel, P. (2010). Examining the impact of culture's consequences: A three-decade, multilevel, meta-analytic review of Hofstede's cultural value dimensions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(3), 405-439. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0018938>
- Tekleab, A. G., Takeuchi, R., Taylor, M. S. (2005). Extending the chain of relationship among organizational justice, social exchange, and employee reactions: The role of contract violations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(1), 146-157. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.15993162>
- Tekleab, A. G., & Taylor, M. S. (2003). Aren't there two parties in an employment relationship? Antecedents and consequences of organization-employee agreement on contract obligations and violations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(5), 585-608. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.204>
- Truckenbrodt, Y. B. (2000). The relationship between LMX and commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. *Acquisition Review Quarterly*, pp. 233-244. Retrieved from
<https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/f407/0a1f2868ba0ddb44a3bdda2488ca1a56b3a4.pdf>
- Tsui, A. S., Nidfakar, S. S., Ou, A. Y. (2007). Cross-national, cross-cultural organizational citizenship behavior research: Advances, Gaps, and Recommendations. *Journal of Management*, 33(3), 426-478.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307300818>
- Ugochukwu, O. (2016). The effect of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors among private universities in Enugu state, Nigeria. *International Journal of Information, Business and Management*, 8(1), 128-152. Retrieved from <https://0-search-proquest-com.seyhan.library.boun.edu.tr/docview/1752118587?accountid=9645>

- Uz, I. (2014). The index of cultural tightness and looseness among 68 countries. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 46(3), 319-335. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022022114563611>
- Vadahi, F., & Bilali, E. (2015). Approach of Albanian non-public education with the European one. *European Scientific Journal*, 11(28), 335-345. Retrieved from <https://ejournal.org/index.php/esj/article/viewFile/6394/6145>
- Van Dyne, L., Graham, J. W., & Dienesch, R. M. (1994). Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, measurement, and validation. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 37(4), 765-802.
- Vukonjanski, J., Nikolic, M., Hadezic, O., Edit, T., & Nedeljkovic, M. (2012). Relationship between GLOBE organizational culture dimensions, job satisfaction and leader-member exchange in Serbian organizations. *Journal for East European Management Studies*, 17(3), 333-368. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5771/0949-6181-2012-3-333>
- Walz, S. M., & Niehoff, B. P. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: Their relationship to organizational effectiveness. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 24(3), 301-319. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/109634800002400301>
- Wan, H. L. (2011). The role of leader-member exchange in organizational justice: Organizational citizenship behavior relationship. *Research and Practice in Human Resource Management*, 19(2), 71-91. Retrieved from <https://0-search-proquest-com.seyhan.library.boun.edu.tr/docview/1158873739?accountid=9645>
- Wang, L., Hinrichs, K. T., Prieto, L., & Howell, J. P. (2013). Five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior: Comparing antecedents and levels of engagement in China and the US. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 30(1), 115-147. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10490-010-9237-1>
- Wayne, S. J., & Green, S. A. (1993). The effects of leader-member exchange on employee citizenship and impression management behavior. *Human Relations*, 46(12). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/001872679304601204>
- Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., & Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 40(1), 82-111. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/257021>
- Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., Bommer, W. H., & Tetrick, L. E. (2002). The role of fair treatment and rewards in perceptions of organizational support and leader-member exchange. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3), 590-598. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.87.3.590>
- World Bank Group. (2017). World Bank Data, Albania. Retrieved from <https://data.worldbank.org/country/albania?view=chart>
- Zhong, J. A., Lam, W., & Chen, Z. (2011). Relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behaviors: Examining the

moderating role of empowerment. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 28, 609-626. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10490-009-9163-2>