Moderating Role of Leader-Member Exchange between the Relationship of Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

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Abstract
Extensive research has examined the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior, with mixed results. Most of these studies have used self-reported measuring instruments, and several have used dyadic data to avoid common methodological biases. This study sought to determine the relative impact of organizational justice dimensions on the organizational citizenship behavior of individuals (OCBI) and the organizational citizenship behavior of organizations (OCBO). It uses a double dyad method (faculty member-colleague and faculty member-supervisor), involving data from 151 faculty groups working in private higher education institutions of Pakistan. The data was analyzed using moderated regression analysis through AMOS software. The results revealed that distributive justice and procedural justice are related to altruism, courtesy, and civic virtues, while interactional justice is only correlated with courtesy. Additionally, leader-member exchange (LMX) was found to be a significant moderator in the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior.
Keywords: organizational justice, distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, organizational citizenship behavior, leader-member exchange (LMX), higher education institutions, universities.

1. Introduction

Universities are knowledge-intensive organizations (Mintzberg, 1979) which differ in nature from conventional organizations. Brunsson and Sahlin-Andersson (2000) claim that the employee-organization relationship in universities may be treated similarly to relationships in other organizations. Research in the last decade has described the prevailing university system as consisting of outsized, multiform, and diverse faculty entities (Middlehurst et al., 2009). Notably, the teacher-student relationship warrants significant attention from both policymakers and researchers from higher education institutions (HEIs). Among various factors, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is essential for workplace performance (Dong and Phuong, 2018). Many studies have documented the usefulness of OCB for organizational effectiveness (Netemeyer et al., 1997). Al-Zu’bi (2010) defines OCB as behavior that is not recognized or rewarded by the formal organizational system, but that aggregately promotes organizational effectiveness. However, Organ (2018) defines it as “behavior that sustains or enhances the cooperative system of the organization but is not systematically or generally recorded in the formal system of the organization or tied in any consistent way to specific rewards.”

Among the highly explored areas in the field of organizational behavior, OCB is one which assists organizations in achieving their goals (Abu-Elanian, 2010). Over 3,700 articles have been published on this topic in fewer than four decades (Podsakoff et al., 2016). OCB has been empirically proven to increase efficiency and stimulate the effective functioning of an organization (Podsakoff et al., 1997; Wagner and Rush, 2000). Therefore, organizations prefer employees who demonstrate OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Other benefits may include knowledge sharing, organizational sustainability, organizational effectiveness, and enhanced employee productivity (Hsu and Lin, 2008; Murphy, Anthansou and King, 2002; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Organ et al., 2006; Wan, 2016). The OCB theory has been vigorously applied in different cultures and industries, such as hospitality, health, information technology, textile, banking, family business, and law enforcement agencies (Ocampo et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2018; Qurashi and Aziz, 2018; Anand et al., 2018; Kesen, 2016). However, such studies are limited in educational settings (Inelmen et al., 2017; Lobb, 2017), particularly in Pakistan (Ismail et al., 2018; Tehseen and Akhtar, 2016).

Organizational justice is another highly researched and significant factor in the organizational behavior literature. Greenberg (1990) defines organizational justice as the perception of fairness in the workplace. The perception and interpretation of justice among employees is directly related to their behavior and performance (Swalhi et al., 2017). Perceived justice may lead to positive outcomes such as achieving expected in-role performance, exhibiting OCB, and improving employees’ satisfaction and commitment (Burney et al., 2009). Organizational justice has a significant positive relationship with OCB (Dong and Phong, 2018; Emami and Soltani, 2018; Sujono et al., 2018).
Accordingly, Cropanzano et al. (2017) concluded that high organizational justice leads to high OCB, and low organizational justice leads to low OCB.

Although extensive research has investigated the effects of organizational justice on employees' OCB, the generalizability of the extant research on this issue is problematic for numerous reasons. First, most of these studies used one-time data collection with a single source, and thus the results could be misleading due to frequent methodological variance. Secondly, previous studies have failed to yield consistent results in the relationship between these two variables (Gan and Yusof, 2018). For instance, Sujono et al. (2020) and Emami and Soltani (2018) found a positive relationship between organizational justice and OCB. However, studies conducted by Hassan et al. (2017), and Jehanzeb and Mohanty (2020) concluded that there was no significant relationship. Therefore, Gan and Yusof (2018) proposed that more empirical studies should be conducted to obtain conclusive results. In the case of HEIs, Fan et al. (2019) concluded that lack of teamwork makes it difficult for faculty members to perform beyond their duties in an educational environment (i.e., OCB). Higher education administrators are hard pressed to address the lack of OCB, but such pressure of more and extra work on employees negatively affects OCB (Sarnacchiaro et al., 2018; Sawalha et al., 2019).

Ahmed et al. (2012) stated that there are three types of relationships in organizations: organization-employee, leader-employee, and employer-employee. Previous studies have suggested that a quality exchange relationship between employees and their leaders has a significant effect on employees' job outcomes. In the literature, this relationship is known as leader-member exchange (LMX). Employees consider their leader to be part of the management and thus look to them for justice. Therefore, to address the inconsistent findings of previous studies on the relationship between organizational justice and OCB, this study has adopted LMX as a moderator.

Taking these caveats and future research aims into consideration, the purpose of this research is to ascertain the impact of three organizational justice dimensions on OCBI and OCBO dimensions. Moreover, this study also sought to determine the moderating role of LMX. This study fills the gap in the available research in multiple ways. Firstly, this study takes into account all of the dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional justice), OCBI (altruism and courtesy), and OCBO (sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness). Secondly, few studies have used LMX as a moderating variable in the relationship between organizational justice and OCB (OCBI and OCBO) (see Wan, 2016; Waskito et al., 2020). Thirdly, previous studies have variously collected data from respondents, colleagues, or supervisors. However, this study has collected data from the double dyads perspective, including respondent-colleague and respondent-supervisor, a methodology supported by Chan and Lai (2016) and Lai, Lam, and Lam (2013). Finally, data was collected for OCBI from colleagues, OCBO and LMX from supervisors, and organizational justice dimensions from the respondents.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Organizational Justice

Moorman (1991) stated that the term used to describe the role of fairness as it directly relates to the workplace. Another view was presented by Greenberg et al. (2005) that an
employee observation of usage of justice by management at the workplace. A large number of existential studies have been conducted on organizational justice with different perspectives to examine its nature, perception, and impact on organizational outcome. These perspectives include uncertainty management (Wolfe et al., 2018), knowledge sharing (Akram et al., 2017), intention to leave (Bayarcelik and Findikli, 2016), job satisfaction (Al-Zu’bi, 2010), and citizenship behavior (Emami and Soltani, 2018).

Moreover, a person's perception of justice is directly related to their satisfaction with society and the workplace (Andreyenkov, 2017). The outcomes of almost all studies depict the significance of justice in organizational settings in terms of its effect on the attitudes and behaviors of employees. For example, Ambrose (2002) stressed that justice is vital for the smooth functioning of organizational procedures. In the same vein, Cropanzano et al. (2007) suggested that it is necessary to ensure justice for all the employees in order to develop effective working relationships. This view is also supported by Gholipour and Ezat (2008), who assert that fair treatment will enhance the integrity of an organization among its stakeholders, whereas organizational injustice is the cause of all organizational harms. Moreover, in a recent review of organizational justice, Rupp et al. (2017) stated that fair treatment acts as a glue that motivates the employees of an organization to work together to fulfill the organization’s goals. Thus, fair treatment of all employees at all levels not only enhances the employees’ motivation to work for the organization devotedly but also increases organizational integrity.

Further, Cropanzano et al. (2016) has defined the three types of organizational justice: distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. Distributive justice relates to the results of the fair division of resources in an organization. Adams (1965) formalized distributive justice as the equity of decision outcomes, whereas Eskew (1993) viewed the distribution of organizational assets honestly. Cropanzano et al. (2002) studied distributive justice reactions and found that they have strong correlation with precise inferences. In the same vein, Campbell et al. (2013) suggested that employees must feel that the assets of their organizations may be dismantled fairly. Previous studies have reported a positive relationship between distributive justice and work outcomes (Raja et al., 2018).

Procedural justice, which covers the methods, mechanisms, and procedures of justifiable results, refers to the decisions made for the smooth day-to-day functioning of the organization (Swalhi et al., 2017). Management adopts various procedures which have an impact on the staff of the organization. These management decisions are based on rules, norms, benchmarks, and ethics, which are then evaluated by the workforce. Raja et al. (2018) and Potipiroon and Rubin (2018) found a positive relationship between procedural justice and employees' output behavior.

Interactional justice refers to fair and interpersonal communication regarding the processes of an organization (McDowall and Fletcher, 2004). A hard but well-communicated decision will not influence employees as much as a soft but poorly communicated decision (Colquitt et al., 2001). Whatever an organization's decision is, affected employees look at the quality of the interpersonal treatment by considering whether it was polite and respectful or the reverse (Cropanzano et al., 2002). Moreover,
interactional justice has a strong link with employee satisfaction and outcomes (Fernandes and Awamleh, 2006). Employees evaluate management decisions by how it is communicated to them, and just decisions will not lead to angry behavior (Holmvall and Sidhu, 2007). Past studies by Elamin and Tlaiss (2015) and Lim and Loosemore (2017) found a positive relationship between interactional justice and employee behavior.

2.2 Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The history of OCB can be traced from the study of Barnard (1938) that further explained by Katz (1964), who stated that the organizations required such employees who go extra-mile. The term OCB usually considered as discretionary behaviors of the employees in academic literature (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Similarly, citizenship is a behavior that is not covered by the boundary of the job description or contract responsibilities and obligations signed by the employees. The researchers (Lam et al., 1999; Podsakoff et al., 2009) argued that the supervisors are considering OCB as in-role behavior due to its significance in performance evaluations. Also, citizenship behavior enhances organizational effectiveness (Williams and Anderson, 1991) from 18% to 38% (Ehrhart, 2004) and on average affects customer service indicators (38%), financial efficiency indicators (25%) performance quantity (19%) and quality (18%) as mentioned by Wan (2016).

Among various forms of OCB, particularly for this study, the researcher’s have chosen the Williams and Anderson (1991) two dimensional structure of citizenship behavior - OCBI (Organizational Citizenship Behavior- Individual) and OCBO (Organizational Citizenship Behavior- Organization). Lai et al. (2013) have declared these dimensions as the most appropriate widespread classification for OCB. Mohammad et al. (2016) have presented the explanation that nearly all research on citizenship behavior can be listed under these two categories. OCBI forward the advantages taken by the individuals openly. It is lending a helping hand to those who have a heavy workload or work on behalf of those who are absent and may also include giving information to colleagues. OCBO refers to the benefits which an organization takes from the exhibition of an employee. It may include saving organizational resources, defending organizational policies and decisions when no senior is present, attending insignificant but image enhancer organizational meetings (Erturk, 2007), and prior sanction of leave (Williams and Anderson, 1991).

2.3 Organizational Justice and OCB

The fairness perception in the organizations leads towards more citizenship behavior by the employees with acts of coordination, participation in decision making, and team efforts. Sujono et al. (2020) argued that justice has a direct relation to discretionary behavior. Justice relationship with citizenship behavior work on the pattern of the law of proportionality. When the perception of fairness increases, OCB also increases, and vice versa (Cropanzano et al., 2017; Salajegheh et al., 2013). Countless studies have been done on seeking the relationship between organizational justice and OCB (Gan and Yousuf, 2018; Emami and Soltani, 2018; Kittikunchotiwut, 2017; Hassan et al., 2017; Sujono et al., 2020). Additionally, social exchange theory also entails almost the same
descriptions that when a worker perceives justice, he reciprocates that fairness through the exhibition of OCB (Cropanzano et al., 2017; Fassina et al., 2008; Karriker and Williams, 2009). Fatimah et al. (2011) concluded that management has to make sure that employees have the perception that justice is being practised in the organization, which will enhance their commitment to the organization and which will also motivate them to participate in discretionary behaviors.

Academic institute values are assessed through student achievements, but behind this achievement, the teaching staff discretionary behavior is needed (DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran 2001; Ishaq et al., 2012). The empirical evidence presented by Awang and Ahmad (2015) on 363 teachers of polytechnic institutes has confirmed the reciprocating system of social exchange theory. When employees feel that they are treated fairly, they involve in OCB. In another study, Shahzad et al. (2014) found a significant positive relationship between organizational justice and OCB with a sample of 360 university teachers. However, Jehanzeb and Mohanty (2020) found no significant relationship between organizational justice and OCB in a study in Pakistan. By the proceeding discussions, this research assumed that academic staff, when perceiving justice with themselves, try to make this perception balanced by reciprocating OCB, which is ultimately beneficial for the colleagues and organization. Hence:

- **H₁**: Organizational Justice positively relates to organizational citizenship behavior-individual (OCBI).
- **H₂**: Organizational Justice positively relates to organization citizenship behavior-organization (OCBO).

### 2.4 Moderating Role of LMX

Paille (2013) witnessed the significant contribution of social exchange relations in predicting employees’ attitudinal outcomes. Also, Biswas et al. (2013) noticed exchange relations as a source of employee engagement and better job outcomes. Therefore, Social Exchange Theory (SET) is the base theory for organizational justice and employee OCB relationship (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Illies et al. (2007) stated that LMX also draws from SET. Additionally, Ahmed et al. (2013) stated that SET could better explain organizational–employee and leader–employee relationships. Blau (1964) stated that “the establishment of exchange relations involves making investments that constitute commitments to the other party.” Settoon et al. (1996) and Wayne et al. (1997) found that OCB and in-role behaviors are affected by LMX relations. Exchange relationships between employees and their managers affect employees’ perceptions of organizational fairness as well as their commitment, satisfaction, motivation, and turnover intentions (Masterson et al., 2000). In the same vein, Illies et al. (2007) and Kim et al. (2009) state that leader membership exchange (LMX) has a positive influence on employees’ citizenship behavior towards their job, supervisor, and organization. Bezuijen et al. (2010) propose that LMX helps engage employees in their jobs and organizations.

Teng et al. (2020) posit that employees and managers exchange benefits, and their LMX relationship significantly increases with such benefits. They also believe that managers give more support and resources to employees with high-quality LMX relationships, who
outperform their colleagues. In such situations, the employees reciprocate by exerting more energy to display job-related behaviors and attitudes, such as organizational identification, commitment, performance, job satisfaction, and OCB (Teng et al., 2020). Chen et al. (2002) suggest that employees’ most significant working relationship is with their supervisor or leader. LMX is an exchange relationship between a leader and his subordinate, but a leader’s relationship with all his subordinates is not the same due to the dyad relationship’s quality (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The quantity of exchange depends on the quality of the relationship. More informal dyad relationships are of higher quality; they lead to frequent conversations and less formal relationships between leaders and subordinates. Klein and Kim (1998) assert that the quality relationship dyad circle must be greater for organizations to function smoothly. This dyad relationship should be present at all the hierarchical levels, including upward and downward. Primarily, the quality of the relationship can be judged on a low to high continuum (Alshenaifi, 2016). Those who are on the low end of the continuum have a formal relationship with the leader, which leads to less support, formal communication, limited benefits, and contractual work assignments. A leader’s relationship with his superiors has a positive effect on his relationship with his subordinates. (Wan, 2016).

Organ et al. (2006) highlighted that LMX is one of the strong antecedents of citizenship behavior. However, leadership behaviors, such as leader-member exchange, are related to citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000). High-quality LMX has significant positive relationships with employees’ organizational citizenship behaviors (Rastgar et al., 2012). The law of reciprocity also has the same relation as LMX. When workers perceive that they have a quality relationship with their supervisor, they feel obligated to return more than they received, so engage in more OCB (Aquino and Bommer, 2003). Hackett et al. (2003) presented similar findings and showed a correlation between LMX and OCB that indicated that citizenship plays a significant role in the reciprocity of LMX. Wayne et al. (2002) argued that the higher the quality of the leader-member relationship, the more employees will exhibit OCB. Moreover, the leader’s equal treatment of all employees has a major effect on the workforce’s attitude toward organizational success, such that LMX has a positive effect on OCB (Zhong et al, 2011). This is also more significant when the workforce is diverse (Wang et al., 2005).

Selvarajan et al. (2018) declared that all justice dimensions are associated positively with dyadic relations, such that the perception of positive justice leads to the development of a closer relationship with the leader, and both leaders and members enjoy the benefits associated with these relationships. Based on these assumptions, a member develops a quality relationship with the leader (Katrinli et al., 2010); thus, the organizational performance also increases (Sindhu et al., 2017). When an employee receives his supervisor’s respect and recognition, his attitude toward organizational justice changes and he exhibits more reciprocal OCB (Tepper and Taylor, 2003). Williams et al. (2002) argued that workers’ OCB is greater when they perceive that their leader’s behavior is fair. Because of the advantages of positive dyadic relationships with the leader, employees view all organizational decisions positively and engage in more citizenship behavior. From this empirical evidence, researchers assume that a leader’s behavior and
treatment affect the relationship between justice and OCB significantly. The above statements provide further support for the following hypotheses:

- **H3:** LMX significantly moderates the relation of organizational justice and organizational citizenship Behavior- Individual (OCBI).
- **H4:** LMX significantly moderates the relation of organizational justice and organizational citizenship Behavior-Organizational (OCBO).

Figure 1 provides the proposed framework for this study based on Social Exchange Theory and Adam’s Equity Theory. The current framework proposes a set of relationships among the independent variable (Organizational Justice dimensions), the moderator variable (LMX) and the dependent variable (OCBI and OCBO).

3. Research Methodology

In this research, we used convenience sampling technique, a branch of non-probability sampling method as supported by Hulland et al. (2018). Cooper and Schindler (2011) elaborated that non-probability sampling can give usable and significant results if employed carefully. Among the considerable strengths of this research, the research design is one of them. The previous studies used self-reported measurement method to collect data from the respondents, potentially leading to common method variances (CMV), which may inflate the results among variables. For this study, the data was collected from multiple sources at different time-intervals to avoid CMV and single-source bias. A highly structured self-administered questionnaire was sent to 250 faculty members, their colleagues, and immediate supervisors in the private sector HEIs in Lahore region.

Organizational justice dimensions were measured through self-reported instruments, whereas OCBI dimension was measured using colleague’s data while OCBO and LMX constructs were measured by immediate supervisor data. The researchers received 169 questionnaires, with a 68% response rate. After eliminating incomplete and non-paired
questionnaires, 151 questionnaire sets comprised of 453 respondents were used for
further analysis. Each respondent (faculty members, his/her colleague, and direct
supervisor) completed the questionnaire on a separate sheet and returned to the
researchers directly. The researchers assigned codes to each questionnaire given to the
faculty members, colleagues, and immediate supervisors for pairing.

The researchers used the three-dimensional construct of organizational justice named
distributive justice (DJ), procedural justice (PJ) and interactional justice (IJ). The
distributive justice is measured using five-items, procedural justice using six-items, and
interactional justice using the seven-item scale proposed by Niehoff and Moorman
(1993). The five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree and five = strongly
agree was used to obtain the responses. The researchers applied confirmatory factor
analysis (CFA) to determine the discriminant validity of organizational justice. The
results revealed that five-factor model for organizational justice is more suitably fit the
data ($\chi^2$/$df = 1.945$, RMSEA = 0.04, IFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.97, AGFI = 0.95, GFI = 0.96) as
compared to single-factor ($\chi^2$/$df = 5.241$, RMSEA = 0.20, IFI = 0.85, CFI = 0.88, AGFI
= 0.87, GFI = 0.90).

Among dependent variables, the colleagues responded to the OCBI dimensions named
courtesy and altruism. Organ (1988) proposed five-items each to measure courtesy and
altruism. The five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly
agree to obtain the responses. The CFA results confirmed that two-factor model for OCBI
dimensions fit the data ($\chi^2$/$df = 1.780$, RMSEA = 0.03, IFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.97, AGFI
= 0.98, GFI = 0.99) much better in comparison to one-factor ($\chi^2$/$df = 3.047$, RMSEA
= 0.19, IFI = 0.87, CFI = 0.81, AGFI = 0.85, GFI = 0.89).

The researchers asked the immediate supervisor to respond on LMX and OCBO
dimensions civic virtue, sportsmanship and conscientiousness. The seven-item scale is
used to gauge LMX construct proposed by Scandura and Graen (1984) whereas civic
virtue is measured on four-item scale, sportsmanship and conscientiousness on five-item
scale proposed by Organ (1988). The CFA revealed one factor model for LMX ($\chi^2$/$df = 1.825$
, RMSEA = 0.06, IFI = 0.91, CFI = 0.99, AGFI = 0.92, GFI = 0.94). Similarly, the
CFA results for OCBO indicated three-factor model more suitable ($\chi^2$/$df = 1.246$, RMSEA
= 0.042, IFI = 0.99, CFI = 0.99, AGFI = 0.96, GFI = 0.98) as compared to
single factor.

4. Results
4.1 Sample Characteristics

The data was collected from the respondent, his/her colleague, and immediate supervisor
working in private institutes/universities in Pakistan. The demographic profile of the
respondents is presented in Table 1.
Table 1. Demographic Profile (N = 151)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Respondents (N=151)</th>
<th>Colleagues (N=151)</th>
<th>Supervisor (N=151)</th>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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<td>67%</td>
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<td>50</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>16 years of Education</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 years of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
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<td>26 to 35 years</td>
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<tr>
<td>More than 15 years</td>
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<td>10%</td>
<td>14</td>
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</table>

4.2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

The descriptive statistics include mean, standard deviation, and correlations are displayed in Table 2. Before testing the study hypotheses, exploratory factor analysis is performed using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The results confirmed the actual-dimensionality of each construct by explaining more than 60% variance. The table indicates that DJ has positive and significant correlation with dependent variables such as LMX (r=0.44, p = 0.05), altruism (r=0.26, p = 0.001), courtesy (r=0.45, p = 0.05), and civic virtue (r=0.45, p = 0.05). The table also shows that PJ correlates with LMX (r=0.47, p = 0.05), altruism (r=0.41, p = 0.05), courtesy (r=0.51, p = 0.001), civic virtue (r=0.40, p = 0.05), and conscientiousness (r=0.38, p = 0.05).
Table 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

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<td>.45</td>
<td>.26**</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
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<td>.43</td>
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<td>.19**</td>
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<td>.47*</td>
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<td>.41*</td>
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<td>.51**</td>
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<td>.71</td>
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<td>.14</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.44**</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

V = variable, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, 1 = DI, 2 = PJ, 3 = IJ, 4 = TJ, 5 = SI, 6 = LMX, 7 = Altruism, 8 = Courtesy, 9 = Sportsmanship, 10 = Civic Virtue, 11 = Conscientiousness

** significant level at 0.001 * significant level at 0.05

4.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Measurement Model

First, CFA was conducted to analyze the fitness of the nine-factor model, reliability, discriminant, and convergent validities are estimated (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). As shown in Table 3, the composite reliability of all instruments is more than the recommended threshold. Additionally, the AVE values are also greater than 0.50 threshold, and also squared correlation coefficients (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), indicated the convergent and discriminant validities of the construct. The standardized factor loadings of each construct are greater than 0.70 and significant at 0.001 level with satisfactory goodness-of-fit indices - $\chi^2 = 1704.59$ with 640 df ($p<0.001$, $\chi^2$/df = 2.66). The root means square error (RMSEA = 0.046) is lower than the threshold value of 0.08. In contrast, the values of normed fit index (0.97), comparative fit index (0.94), and incremental fit index (0.96) are also more than 0.90 value hence indicating satisfactory results.
### Table 3: CFA Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>Composite Reliability</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice (DJ)</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice (PJ)</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Justice (IJ)</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courtesy</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sportsmanship</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civic Virtue</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader-Member Exchange</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Model Fitness: $\chi^2 = 1704.59$, df = 640, $\chi^2$/df = 2.66, RMSEA = 0.046, NFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.94, IFI = 0.96
4.4 Hypotheses Testing – Direct Relationships

Table 4 indicates the summary of regression results for $H_1$ and $H_2$. The OCBI consists of two dimensions named altruism and courtesy, whereas the OCBO consists of three dimensions: sportsmanship, civic virtue and contentiousness. The results display that distributive justice positively predicts altruism ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < .05$) and courtesy ($\beta = 0.30$, $p < .001$), procedural justice anticipates altruism ($\beta = 0.31$, $p < .05$) and courtesy is revealed as ($\beta = 0.32$, $p < .001$). The third-dimension interactional justice only predicts courtesy ($\beta = 0.22$, $p < .05$) significantly. Similarly, the distributive justice has positive and significant relationship with civic virtue ($\beta = 0.27$, $p < .001$), procedural justice has significant impact on civic virtue ($\beta = 0.20$, $p < .001$) and conscientiousness ($\beta = 0.26$, $p < .05$) while other relationships are insignificant. Moreover, the independent variables explain 27% variance in OCBI dimensions whereas they explain 32% variance in OCBO dimensions. Hence, $H_1$ and $H_2$ are partially accepted.

Table 4: Summary of Direct Relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>OCBI</th>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>OCBO</th>
<th>LMX</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ALT</td>
<td>COU</td>
<td>SPT</td>
<td>CV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Justice</td>
<td>0.29*</td>
<td>0.30**</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.27*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Justice</td>
<td>0.31*</td>
<td>0.32**</td>
<td>-0.017</td>
<td>0.20**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Justice</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>0.22*</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>0.27*</td>
<td>0.32**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ALT = Altruism, COU = Courtesy, SPT = Sportsmanship, CV = Civic Virtue, CON = Conscientiousness, LMX = Leader-Member Exchange

** significant level at 0.001; * significant level at 0.05

4.5 Hypotheses Testing – Moderating Role of LMX

Hypothesis 3 and 4 proposed that LMX plays a moderating role in the relationships of organizational justice dimensions and organizational citizenship behavior dimensions. As indicated previously, the data related to organizational justice was collected from the faculty members working in private universities of Pakistan. In contrast, the data related to OCBI was collected from faculty members’ colleagues and data regarding OCBO and LMX was collected from immediate supervisor. To check the moderation, organizational justice dimensions and LMX were multiplied to create their respective interactional effects to predict OCBO and OCBI (Henseler and Fassott, 2010). The bootstrapping results indicated that the non-significant relationship of interactional justice and altruism is significant and positive in the presence of LMX ($\beta = 0.142$, $p < .05$) which indicates that the good relationship of a faculty member with his/her immediate boss positively predict the sense of altruism with his/her colleagues. Similarly, the moderation of procedural justice and LMX with altruism ($\beta = 0.157$, $p < .05$ and civic virtue ($\beta = 0.144$, $p < .05$) is significant. The moderation of interactional justice and LXM with courtesy ($\beta = 0.474$, $p < .001$) and civic virtue ($\beta = 0.221$, $p < .05$) is also significant.
Table 5: Moderating Role of LMX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>OCBI</th>
<th>OCBO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>COU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
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<td>0.045</td>
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<td>Procedural Justice</td>
<td>0.087</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Interactional Justice</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>0.332**</td>
<td>0.457**</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>0.368**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>Distributive Justice x LMX</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>0.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Procedural Justice x LMX</td>
<td>0.157*</td>
<td>0.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interactional Justice x LMX</td>
<td>0.142*</td>
<td>0.474**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>0.390*</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ALT = Altruism, COU = Courtesy, SPT = Sportsmanship, CV = Civic Virtue, CON = Conscientiousness, LMX = Leader Member Exchange

** significance level at 0.001  * significant level at 0.05

5. Discussions

At present, HEIs are mainly dependent on faculty members who show their willingness to contribute to the success of students, along with that of their colleagues. The term OCB, which has received ample recognition among researchers, is one of a number of useful concepts that exemplify the voluntary role of faculty members, which is not mentioned in their formal duties (DiPaola and Hoy, 2005). The previous studies concluded that a higher level of OCB leads to support for extracurricular activities, involvement in various academic committees, and innovative suggestions (Ishaq et al., 2012). Therefore, an important question is which factors can impact this voluntary behavior of faculty members working in HEIs. Organizational justice is also an essential component and refers to employee perceptions about fairness (Greenberg, 1996). HEIs are different from typical business operations. Therefore, Hoy and Tarter (2004) suggested 10 principles of fairness perceptions in the education sector that include the following: a focus on ethical standards and moral values, decisions for relevant parties, leadership decisions based on accurate information, the leader’s ability to reverse poor decisions, impartial decision-making, consistent leadership behavior, interpersonal treatment of employees, employee participation in decision-making, a perception of fairness for each individual, and equity regarding contributions.

The hypotheses reflect current research aimed at investigating how the three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interactional), LMX, OCBI, and OCBO may be related. This study revealed several impressive results. Foremost, this research endeavored to recognize Pakistani faculty members’ perceptions of the institutional systems in which they are working and their behaviors towards the institutions and colleagues. The mean scores were 3.63, 3.60, and 3.38 for distributive, procedural, and interactional justice, respectively. These scores implied that justice perceptions of faculty
members were on the positive side, whereas procedural justice scored higher while comparing to its other counterparts.

Hypothesis 1 and 2 imply that organizational justice dimensions are correlated positively with OCBI and OCBO. The results revealed that the distributive justice had positive impact on both dimensions of OCBI named altruism ($\beta = 0.29$), courtesy ($\beta = 0.30$), one dimension of OCBO named civic virtue ($\beta = 0.27$) and LMX ($\beta = 0.30$). Similarly, the procedural justice had an impact on altruism ($\beta = 0.31$), courtesy ($\beta = 0.32$), civic virtue ($\beta = 0.20$), conscientiousness ($\beta = 0.26$) and LMX ($\beta = 0.35$). Surprisingly, interactional justice was only related to courtesy ($\beta = 0.22$) and LMX ($\beta = 0.21$). Among all dimensions, procedural justice had a relatively stronger influence on OCBI, OCBO, and LMX. Hypothesis 3 and 4 proposed that LMX act as a moderating role in organizational justice – OCB dimensions relationships. The results revealed that interactional justice and altruism relationship was turned into significant and positive in the presence of LMX. Similarly, the moderation of procedural justice and LMX with altruism ($\beta = 0.157$, $p < .05$) and civic virtue ($\beta = 0.144$, $p < .05$) is significant. The moderation of interactional justice and LXM with courtesy ($\beta = 0.474$, $p < .001$) and civic virtue ($\beta = 0.221$, $p < .05$) is also significant.

The previous literature produced significant evidence about the influence of organizational justice on OCB (Emami and Soltani, 2018; Ishaq et al. 2012; Farid et al., 2019; Ambrose and Schminke 2009; Mohammad et al., 2016; Sujono et al., 2020). These studies imply that if faculty members feel that they are granted some authority—essentially, involved in decision-making processes—they are more likely to engage in OCB over the long term (Danish et al., 2014; Ishaq et al., 2012). Distributive and procedural justice among faculty members trends towards helping colleagues; interactional justice, on the other hand, only influences courtesy. Tepper and Taylor (2003) also argued that when employees perceive fairness from their supervisors, they tend to exhibit stronger OCB.

We believe that Pakistani faculty members show a higher level of OCBI and OCBO for three main reasons. First, faculty members feel that a university should uphold equal rights concerning salary, work procedures, and collegial interaction within the administration. When these needs are met, we find that faculty are inspired to welcome extra-role behaviors. Second, this study claims that both distributive and procedural justice are strongly linked with civic virtue (the OCBO dimension) due to a working environment that fosters trust among faculty members. We believe the reason behind this relationship is the university’s environment that engenders trust among faculty members. Third, the higher fairness level given to the faculty members creates a strong sense of belongingness with the organization, which fosters them to help their colleagues (Li et al., 2010).

Anand et al. (2015) argued that LMX theory upholds that in a working environment, the leader-follower association proceeds the entire gamut from low to high-quality relationships. The researchers (Settoon et al., 1996; Maslyn and Uhl-Bien, 2001) insisted that high-quality association with the leaders allows followers to enjoy several rewards.
like professional mentoring, challenging assessments, and financial resources. In this context, the followers reciprocate a leader’s decisive role by exhibiting extra-role behavior to foster organizational performance (Gerstner and Day, 1997; Ishaq et al., 2012). Therefore, the LMX to follower behavior association is mostly based on the norms of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). The meta-analysis of different researchers attest to the firm and positive role of LMX in shaping and strengthening extra-role behaviors among employees (e.g., Rockstuhl et al., 2012; Illies et al., 2007). Several researchers speculated the effects of LMX on individual and organizational outcomes (Rockstuhl et al., 2012; Erdogan and Liden, 2002), and some called for extensive research to understand the social surroundings in the organizations (Anand et al., 2011; Rockstuhl et al., 2012). This study answers these speculations by explaining the role of LMX in controlling organizational justice and OCB relationships.

5.1 Theoretical and Practical Implications

Despite the megatrend in organizational psychology towards the concept of organizational justice, the integration of this concept is still ignored in different managerial practices. In current era, the concept is considered not only as subjective judgment but also as personal experience that is applicable in both corporate and academic settings. The findings of this study suggest that the significance of organizational justice makes an essential contribution to the effectiveness of HEIs rules, regulations, and policies to promote OCB. One of the critical results of fairness among faculty members with the support of their respective heads of faculty is providing support to students for better results. It is the university’s leadership responsibility to foster and shape HEIs culture that promotes a sense of fairness among faculty members. This objective can be achieved through clear and comprehensive development of processes, fair enforcement of policies and procedures, fair distribution of resources, and regular interactions with faculty members that not only support the in-role performance but extra-role performance (OCB) also. If the faculty member(s) perceives that his/her head / chair is taking unfair or biased decisions, the aggregate extra-role behavior may likely diminish. Since it is difficult for the university administration to control or influence the feelings and emotions of faculty members directly, it is still conceivable to decrease the chances of negative feelings and emotions by ensuring fairness in each rule and regulation with proper and timely communication.

This research also finds that LMX is the key to moderate the relationship of organizational justice and OCB. Therefore, HEI’s in Pakistan should also be aware that relationship between Head of Department (HoD) and faculty members are important and should consider developing and implementing policies and practices to foster such relationships. In this manner, HEI’s should consider constantly honoring their faculty members both at departmental and university level, fair policies for all faculty members and quality relationships between faculty members and their HoDs which may set up a positive image of the university in faculty members mind that they are treated fairly. The high quality relationships between faculty member and HoD are crucial to enhance the fairness perception of employees and in turn stimulate more OCB. In this regard, HEI’s of Pakistan may design training programs for their HoDs on developing quality relationships with their faculty members.
The study contributes to the theory in the field of management, psychology and organizational behavior, specifically in the education sector of Pakistan. This study is an addition in the current body of knowledge in the field of education where studies on organizational citizenship behavior are already scarce.

5.2 Limitations

The generalizability of these results is subject to certain limitations. First, the data was collected through a convenience sampling technique, and, hence moderation model results has the concern of generalizability. Second, there was no issue of common method variance (CMV) as the data was collected from multiple sources at different time points both for predictor and outcome variable. However, the study was conducted in private HEIs only. Therefore, further studies need to be carried out in order to validate this relationship in the public sector HEIs as the working conditions, policies, procedures, and interactions among faculty members are different in both sectors. Third, a comparative study between the public sector and private sector HEI’s would also be worthwhile. Fourth, more work needs to be done to establish the relationship between organizational justice and OCB. Therefore, future researchers should consider other moderating variables like Islamic values, individual values, organizational culture, and national culture. Fifth, this study did not analyze any mediator therefore, future researchers could usefully explore mediators like organizational pride, organizational identification, and motivation.

5.3 Conclusion

Although the current study is based on a small sample of participants, the findings conclude that faculty member’s perception of organizational justice (distributive, procedural and international justice) motivate them to exhibit organizational citizenship behavior which may help the students, colleagues, department, and university to achieve their goals. HEI’s leadership and HoD may adopt such policies that may foster justice perceptions among the faculty members to get their extra-role behavior. A key policy priority should therefore be to plan for the long-term care of faculty member’s justice perceptions. The quality exchange relationships between faculty members and their HoDs can affect this relationship positively.

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REFERENCES


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Leader-Member Exchange, Organizational Justice and OCB


Sheeraz et al.


Leader-Member Exchange, Organizational Justice and OCB


Leader-Member Exchange, Organizational Justice and OCB


