

**ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND EMPLOYEE
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN THE CIVIL SERVICE
IN KENYA**

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

(Human Resource Management)

**JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
OF
AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY**

2024

**Organizational Justice and Employee Citizenship Behaviour in the
Civil Service in Kenya**

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**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in
Human Resource Management of the Kenyatta University
of Agriculture and Technology**

2024

DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university

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DEDICATION

This is dedicated to my wife, and children; Joy, Teclar and Radel for their patience, support and understanding during the time of working on the thesis. To you I say God bless you all.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to convey my sincere and heartfelt gratitude to all those who have assisted me in developing this thesis. I am greatly indebted to my supervisors Dr. Clive Mukanzi and Dr. Julius Miroga. Dr. Mukanzi has been patient, supportive, professional, encouraging and available in his teaching and supervision. Dr. Miroga has been a great inspiration and incisive in his guidance. My sincere gratitude also goes to the staff of Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology for their support and assistance. I cannot forget to thank my workmates who have always been made to shoulder some of my duties while I was away writing this thesis and finally to my friends for their great ideas, co-operation and encouragement, May God bless them all. Last but not least, to the Almighty God for granting me peace, knowledge and sanity of mind that has enabled me to complete the development this proposal. Thank you all.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
LIST OF APPENDICES	xvi
DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS.....	xviii
ABSTRACT.....	xx
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Overview	1
1.2 Background to the Study	1
1.2.1 Global Perspective of Organizational Justice and Citizenship Behaviour	6
1.2.2 Region Perspective of Organizational Justice and Citizenship Behaviour	8
1.2.3 Local Perspective of Organizational Justice and Citizenship Behaviour ..	9
1.3 Statement of the Problem	11
1.4 Objectives of the Study	13
1.4.1 General Objective	13

1.4.2 Specific Objectives	13
1.5 Research Hypotheses.....	14
1.6 Justification of the Study	14
1.7 Scope of the Study.....	16
1.8 Limitations of the Study	17
CHAPTER TWO	19
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	19
2.1 Introduction	19
2.2 Theories Informing the Study.....	19
2.2.1 The Social Exchanges Theory	19
2.2.2 Organizational Support Theory	22
2.2.3 Adam's Equity Theory	25
2.2.4 Psychological Contract Theory	28
2.2.5 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation	29
2.2.6 Colquitt (2001) Four-factor Model of Organizational Justice.....	31
2.3 Conceptual Framework	32
2.3.1 Organizational Justice.....	34
2.3.2 Distributive Justice	36
2.3.3 Procedural Justice	38

2.3.4 Interpersonal Justice	40
2.3.5 Informational Justice	42
2.3.6 Job Satisfaction.....	43
2.3.7 Organizational Citizenship Behaviour.....	46
2.4 Empirical Review	52
2.4.1 Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	52
2.4.2 Distributive Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	60
2.4.3 Procedural Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour.....	62
2.4.4 Interpersonal Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	63
2.4.5 Informational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	65
2.4.6 Mediation of Job Satisfaction	66
2.5 Critique of Literature Related to the Study	68
2.6 Research Gaps	72
2.7 Summary of Literature Review	74
CHAPTER THREE	80
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	80
3.1 Introduction	80
3.2 Research Philosophical and Design	80
3.2.1 Research Philosophical.....	80

3.2.2 Research Design	82
3.3 Study Population	83
3.4 Target Population	84
3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Technique	85
3.4.1 Sample Size	85
3.4.2 Sampling Technique	86
3.5 Data Collection Instrument	87
3.5.1 The Instrument.....	88
3.5.2 Measurement of the Variables	89
3.6 Data Collection Procedure.....	91
3.7 Pilot Study	92
3.7.1 Validity	93
3.7.2 Reliability	94
3.8 Data Analysis and Presentation	95
3.8.1 Diagnostic Tests.....	95
3.8.2 Qualitative Analysis.....	97
3.8.3 Quantitative Analysis	97
CHAPTER FOUR.....	100
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	100

4.1 Introduction	100
4.2 Response Rate	100
4.3 Demographic Information	100
4.3.1 Gender of Respondents.....	101
4.3.2 Distribution by Education Level.....	101
4.3.3 Distribution by Ministry	102
4.3.4 Work Experience of Respondent	104
4.3.5 Job Category of Respondent.....	105
4.4 Diagnostic Test Analyses	105
4.4.1 Pilot Test Results	106
4.4.2 Test for Assumptions.....	110
4.5 Descriptive Analysis.....	116
4.5.1 Distributive Justice	116
4.5.2 Procedural Justice	119
4.5.3 Descriptive Results for Interpersonal Justice	122
4.5.4 Descriptive Results for Informational Justice.....	125
4.5.5 Descriptive Results for Job Satisfaction	127
4.5.6 Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	130
4.6 Correlation Analysis.....	134

4.6.1	Distributive Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	135
4.6.2	Procedural Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour.....	135
4.6.3	Interpersonal Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	135
4.6.4	Informational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	136
4.6.5	Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	136
4.7	Regression Analysis and Hypotheses Testing.....	136
4.7.1	Distributive Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	138
4.7.2	Procedural Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour.....	141
4.7.3	Interpersonal Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	145
4.7.3	Informational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	148
4.7.5	Multiple Linear Regression Analysis	151
4.7.6	Demographic Variables on the Influence of Organizational justice.....	156
4.7.7	Demographic Variables and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour.....	162
4.7.8	Hierarchical Regression Analysis.....	173
CHAPTER FIVE.....		185
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....		185
5.1	Introduction	185
5.2	Summary of Major Findings	185
5.2.1	Summary on Response Rate	186

5.2.2	Distributive Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	186
5.2.3	Interpersonal Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	188
5.2.4	Information Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	189
5.2.5	The Mediation Effect of Job Satisfaction	189
5.3	Conclusion.....	191
5.3.1	Distributive Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	192
5.3.2	Procedural Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour.....	192
5.3.3	Interpersonal Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	193
5.3.4	Informational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	193
5.3.5	Mediating Effect of Job Satisfaction	194
5.4	Recommendations	194
5.4.1	Recommendation for Policy and Action.....	195
5.4.2	Recommendations for Further Research	196
5.5	Contribution to Theory and Literature	197
	REFERENCES.....	199
	APPENDICES	221

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Target Population.....	84
Table 3.2: Sample Size Design	87
Table 3.3: Measurement of Variables	90
Table 4.1: Response Rate	100
Table 4.2: Distribution by Gender.....	101
Table 4.3: Distribution by Education Level	101
Table 4.4: Gender* Education Cross Tabulation	102
Table 4.5: Distribution by Ministry	103
Table 4.6: Gender * Ministry Cross-Tabulation	103
Table 4.7: Distribution by Work Experience	104
Table 4.8: Gender* Work Experience Cross Tabulation	104
Table 4.9: Distribution by Job Category	105
Table 4.10: Variables KMO and Bartlett's Test	107
Table 4.11: Rotated Component Matrix Coefficients	108
Table 4.12: Result for Reliability Test	109
Table 4.13: Test for Multicollinearity	111
Table 4.14: Breush-Pagan Test for Heteroscedasticity	113
Table 4.15: Durbin-Watson Test for Autocorrelation.....	113
Table 4.16: Test for Normality.....	114
Table 4.17: Test for Linearity Using Significance Deviations.....	115
Table 4.18: Descriptive Analysis for Distributive Justice.....	118

Table 4.19: Descriptive Results for Procedural Justice.....	121
Table 4.20: Descriptive Results for Interpersonal Justice.....	124
Table 4.21: Descriptive Results for Informational Justice.....	126
Table 4.22: Descriptive Results for job Satisfaction.....	129
Table 4.23: Descriptive Results for Organizational Citizenship Behavior	132
Table 4.24: Correlation Analysis Matrix.....	134
Table 4.25: Distributive Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	139
Table 4.26: ANOVA Results for Distributive Justice and OCB.....	140
Table 4.27: Regression Coefficients for Distributive Justice.....	140
Table 4.28: Procedural Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	142
Table 4.29: ANOVA for Procedural Justice and OCB	143
Table 4.30: Regression Coefficients for Procedural Justice	144
Table 4.32: ANOVA for Interpersonal Justice	147
Table 4.33: Regression Coefficients for Interpersonal Justice.....	147
Table 4.34: Model Summary for Informational Justice	149
Table 4.35: ANOVA for Informational Justice.....	150
Table 4.36: Coefficients for Informational Justice and OCB.....	150
Table 4.37: Model Summary for Multiple Regression Analysis	153
Table 4.38: ANOVA for Multiple Regression Analysis.....	153
Table 4.39: Partial Regression Coefficients.....	154
Table 4.40: Hierarchical Model Summary for Control of Age.....	158
Table 4.41: Regression Coefficients for Control of Age	160
Table 4.42: Model Summary for Control of Education and Gender.....	161

Table 4.43: ANOVA Results for Control of Education and Gender	162
Table 4.44: Mode Summary for Demographic Variable and Citizenship.....	163
Table 4.45: ANOVA for Demographic Variable and Citizenship Behaviour	164
Table 4.46: Coefficients for Demographic Variable and Citizenship Behaviour ...	164
Table 4.47: Coefficients for Regression of Independent on Dependent	167
Table 4.48: Coefficients for Regression of Independent on Mediator.....	168
Table 4.49: Coefficients for Independent, Mediator and Dependent:.....	169
Table 4.50: Coefficients for Independent, Mediator and Dependent.....	171
Table 4.51: Bootstrap Test for Sobel Coefficients	172
Table 4.52: Hierarchical Regression Model Summary	173
Table 4.53: Hierarchical Regression ANOVA Results.....	174
Table 4.54: Hierarchical Regression Coefficients.....	175

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework	33
Figure 4.1: Showing Scatter Plot for Linearity	116
Figure 4.2: Indirect Effect/Mediation	166
Figure 4.3: Indirect Effect/Mediation	171
Figure 4.4: Ultimate Model.....	176

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire.....	221
Appendix II: Letter Authorization from NACOSTI.....	230
Appendix III: Letter of Self Introduction	232
Appendix IV: Letter Introduction From University	233

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
ERS	Economic Recovery Strategy
GOK	Government of Kenya
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HRM	Human Resource Management
KIPPRA	Kenya Institute of Public Policy Research Association
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OST	Organization Support Theory
POS	Perceived Organization Support
PSR	Public Sector Reforms
ROK	Republic of Kenya
RoSA	Republic of South Africa
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS

- Distributive Justice** refers to the perception of the fairness of the results obtained by the employees in the sharing of penalties or rewards such as wages, status and promotions among individuals in the organization (Addai, Kyeremeh, Abdulai, & Sarfo, 2018).
- Informational Justice** refers to the extent to which information provided about procedures is of sufficient quality and quantity and conveys reasons why procedures were used in a certain way or outcomes distributed in a certain fashion (Colquitt & Rodell, Measuring justice and fairness, 2015)
- Interpersonal Justice** reflects the degree to which people are treated with courteousness, dignity, and respect by authorities or third parties involved in executing procedures or determining outcomes (Rupp , Cropanzano, & Meghan, 2016)
- Job Satisfaction:** refers to the level of affective responses expressed by individuals indicating how much they like their job and how much it meets their needs ((Jufrizen & Kumala, 2023).
- Organizational Citizenship Behaviour:** these are an employee's actions which are voluntary, free, outside the boundaries of formal duties, and not regulated within the organization's reward system but can help drive organizational effectiveness and efficiency (Earlyanti & Hamid, 2023)
- Organizational Justice** is a concept that includes the perceptions of employees about how fairly they are treated in the workplace and how this perception affects their performance in the organization (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021)
- Procedural Justice** means that organizational procedures such as avoiding excess and underpayment, participation in decisions, giving

information about results are applied equally among employees in the organization (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The specific objectives of the study were: to assess the influence of distributive justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya; to assess the influence of procedural justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya; to assess the influence of interpersonal justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya; to assess the influence of informational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya, and to assess the mediation effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. A cross-sectional survey design was adopted to study all civil servants spread across the country. Purposive sampling technique was used to select ten key ministries in the government of Kenya. A target population of 11671 employees was then identified using stratified sampling technique. Through simple random and convenient sampling technique a sample population of 375 respondents selected as participants. A structured five-point Likert questionnaire was used for data collection. Data analysis was done using the statistical package for social sciences Version 22 (SPSS. Ver.22). Percentages, frequencies, mean, and standard deviation were obtained and used for descriptive statistics while Correlation and Regression coefficients were applied in inferential statistics to identify variable relationship. The results from average mean scores indicated that respondents agreed with the measures for all the variables. The mean standard deviations indicated that similarities in opinions of respondents. The Pearson correlations coefficients (r) indicated positive and high significant relationships between independent and dependent variables. Procedural justice had the highest correlation ($r=.682$, $P=0.000$), informational justice ($r=.671$, $p=0.000$); distributive justice ($r=.625$, $P=0.000$); and interpersonal justice ($r=.571$, $P=0.000$). The coefficients of determinant (R^2), the f -values and the t -values indicated that the models were well fitted, the relationships were highly significant and the total variance in the dependent variable explained by independent variables: Procedural justice ($R^2=0.466$), Informational justice ($R^2=0.451$), Distributive ($R^2=0.391$) and Interpersonal justice ($R^2=0.326$) were moderate. Job satisfaction was found to have a partial mediation effect on the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour. The study concluded that organizational justice was positively and significantly related to organizational citizenship behavior of civil servants in Kenya. The study recommended that the government and the management of civil service in Kenya adopt and apply organizational justice in the management of civil servants in Kenya as this will improve their job satisfaction and hence organizational citizenship behaviour. This will improve performance of the civil service. Other researchers can interrogate further the relationships in the study and validate the results by through using other study designs such as comparative design to compare public and private sector and use more organizations to validate the model of this study.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

This chapter introduces organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour. It gives the study background, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, study hypotheses, significance of the study, and the limitations. The section highlights the challenges faced by the civil service in Kenya in its performance, the need for civil servants to adopt organizational citizenship behaviour and how organizational justice can lead to employee display of organizational justice.

1.2 Background to the Study

Human resources play a significant and complex role within any organization (Jufrizen & Kumala, 2023). This role includes being planners, actors and determinants of the realization of organizational goals (Prima & Rezi, 2023). Organizations with good human resources, who are disciplined, professional, responsible, and of high integrity, will have significant and direct impact on their progress and bottom-line (Kim & Le, 2019). However, the question on many researchers and managers mind has been how to develop behaviours that are related to good employee work behaviour and performance (O'Connell, 2022). A good employee is considered as one whose work behaviour is not only limited to the behavior of doing duties attached to the main functions of their job description and position but also being able to undertake extra roles (Mennita & Tias, 2023).

An employee who can take on extra role duties is one who exhibits organizational citizenship behaviour- OCB (Prima & Rezi, 2023). Organizational citizenship behaviour refers to employee's actions that are voluntary, free, and which are outside the boundaries of formal duties (McShane & von Glinow, 2020). They are duties an employee perform over and above the normal ones described in job descriptions but are not formally recognized or regulated by the organization but can help organization to succeed (Yang, Jiang, & Cheng, 2022). Although many scholars consider

organizational citizenship behaviours as ones that are not rewarded, Rotich (2022) explains that OCB does not mean working long hours and taking on extra assignments with no thought of reward but rather a means through which employees provide the organization with many creative solutions to problems and provide suggestions to facilitate the implementation of strategies for the success of the organization.

The study of organizational citizenship behaviour has been based on five major indicators (Suparman & Widodo, 2023). These indicators include altruism, conscientiousness, sportsman, courtesy, and civic virtue (Aeknarajindawat & Jernsittiparsert, 2020). In Das and Mohanty (2023) altruism is defined an employee helping behaviour where colleagues help each other to complete work or to solve complex personal problems. Conscientiousness is where employees show high levels of awareness, enthusiasm and need to do their best to exceed expectations. Sportsmanship makes employees tolerant toward the organization weaknesses and shortcomings while courtesy is the employee willingness to foster good relations with others to reduce interpersonal conflict. Civic virtue makes employees to act responsibly for the success of the organization. Contrary, the organization does not oblige performance of OCB but it positively affects the continuity and effectiveness of the organization (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021).

Organizational citizenship behaviour is influenced by several factors (Mustikawati & Suana, 2018). Among these factors is organizational justice whose influence of on OCB evolved as a result of the increasing importance of the concept of social justice (Al-ali , Qalaja, & Abu-Rumman, 2019). Organizational justice is perceived to be important in so far as organizational factors like salary, performance evaluation, rewarding, promotion and advance in career, assignments, benefits from training programs, allocation of work equipment, termination of work and interpersonal interaction (Addai, Kyeremeh, Abdulai, & Sarfo, 2018).

Organizational justice expresses fairness in distribution of outcomes to employees and relationships within the organization (Akbar, 2023). Organizational justice looks at the perceptions of employees about how fairly they are treated in the workplace and how this perception affects their commitment, job satisfaction, among other organizational

outcomes (Gün, Söyük & Memis, 2021). Organizational justice is further looked at as how employees perceive fairness in organization's social and economic interactions (Alzayed et al, 2017). It is argued that organizational justice is one of the political necessities of organizational behaviour (Aeknarajindawat & Jermsittiparsert, 2020). This is because it enhances interest, loyalty, and trust of people to the organization, and adds to the human and social investment of the organizations. Organizational justice explains how workers perceive fairness, how they react to these perceptions, and how these perceptions affect organizational outcomes (Andreyenkova, 2017).

Organizational justice has widely been measured under three dimensions (Colquitt, 2018). These dimensions include distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. These dimensions have been referred to as the big three justice dimensions of organizational justice (Cropanzano, Rupp & Meghan, 2016). An alternative measurement scale was suggested by Colquitt (2001) in a study on the dimensionality of organizational justice. In this study the four-factor model of organizational justice was suggested after the reconceptualisation of interactional justice into interpersonal and informational justice. The four-model constituted distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice.

According to Addai, Kyeremeh, Abdulai, and Sarfo (2018) distributive justice addresses the perception of fairness during sharing of organizational outcomes such as penalties, rewards, wages, status and promotions. Procedural justice relates to the fairness of the methods and procedures used to share organizational outcomes and managing organizational processes in relation to their consistent, accuracy, representativeness, and ethicality (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021; Ploychompoo, 2017).

Interpersonal justice addresses the perception of fairness in the relationships among individual workers in the organization with reference to how subordinates are treated with dignity, respect, honesty, courtesy by those in authority positions (Karanja, 2016). Informational justice on the other hand looks at the feeling of justice in the sharing of information in the organization with regards to the accuracy, timeliness, quality, and adequacy of feedback (Alrawahi, Sellgren, Altouby, Alwahaibi, & Brommels, 2020).

Many studies have been done on the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour and show positive relationship. (Abass & Firdous, 2017; Aeknarajindawat & Jermittiparsert, 2020; Das & Mohanty, 2023; Kangyao, Xiaofu, Jian, Jinglin, & Yun, 2023). In the study by Kangyao et al, among teacher in Chongqing and Chen Zhou, Hunan Province in China, findings indicated that teachers' perception of organizational justice had positive relationships with their OCB. The study further noted that the sense of procedural justice had a more prominent positive prediction effect towards OCB than distributive justice. In a study by Gün, Söyük and Memis (2021) on health professionals working in a public hospital in İstanbul, the results indicated that organizational justice perception had a significant and positive effect on all sub-dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. The study concluded that as healthcare professionals' perceptions of organizational justice increase so do their organizational citizenship behaviors increase.

In the study by Das and Mohanty (2023) on higher education institutions, the study found that organizational justice had a positive relationship with OCB ($R^2 = 0.313$); distributive justice ($\beta = .138$, $T = 2.828$, $sig = .005$), procedural justice ($\beta = .281$, $T = 5.622$, $sig = .000$), interpersonal justice ($\beta = .079$, $T = 1.452$, $sig = .147$), informational justice ($\beta = .187$, $T = 3.293$, $sig = .001$). The study concluded that employees exhibit selflessness, always think for the welfare of others, act in positive ways, never complain, and participate in the political process of the organization when there is a high perception of organizational justice.

On the other hand other studies have found a no significant relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour (Mrwebi, 2019; Hassan et al., 2017, and Jehanzeb and Mohanty, 2020). In a study by Mrwebi (2019) in a selected TVET college in Gauteng, South Africa, a no significant relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour was established ($B=0.1149$, $p=0.5453$). This study concluded that, although many studies had found positive relationship between the variables, there was no straightforward answer that explains the relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour. The relationship could be positive, negative, or no relationship based on differences in

working conditions especially between developed countries, where conditions are conducive, and developing countries where conditions are not conducive.

In another study by O'Connell (2022) findings indicated a no statistically significant relationship between distributive justice and OCBs, ($r=-.07, p=.626$); no significant relationship between procedural justice and OCBs ($r=.04, p=.775$), and a no significant relationship between interactional justice and OCBs ($r=.18, p=.211$). The study noted that the findings contradicted previous research and attributed this to the OCB scale used reflected the experiences of conditions for workers working from home and had decreased interact with co-workers. The study concluded that the context within working environments were importance in the relationship between organizational justice and OCB.

The contention of the current study is that although the relationship between organizational justices has been researched on there are still limitations which require more research to bring out the salient issues. One problems affecting previous studies is the use of a one-time, single source data collection which results in misleading findings due to methodological variance (Sheeraz, Ungku, Ishaq & Nor, 2021).

Other studies findings show inconsistent results; positive and significant relationship (Sujono, Tunas, & Sudiarditha, 2020), no significant relationship (Hassan et al., 2017, and Jehanzeb and Mohanty, 2020), hence the call for replication to obtain conclusive results (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021). Another critical issue which is yet to gain understanding is the dimensionality and conceptual framework of organizational justice (Asaad, Lubna, & Ayman, 2019). Organizational justice has been studied as overall organizational justice, without dimensions, as a two-factor model, a three-factor model and even a four factor model (Colquitt, 2018). This issue still need confirmation to check whether the proposed dimensions are standalone, their intercorrelation, and their influence, individually or jointly on organizational outcomes. There is still another challenge yet to be resolved with regards to the impacts of organizational justice on various organizational outcomes. According to Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels and Hall (2017) some studies have indicated distributive justice as being a weaker predictor for OCBs in comparison with procedural, interaction justice, others

have indicated it as being the strongest. These are mixed results that need more studies. There is need for clarity.

1.2.1 Global Perspective of Organizational Justice and Citizenship Behaviour

The importance of fairness as a key subject for discussion in organizations is widespread (Mirmohhamdi & Marefat, 2014). Organizational justice is recognized as one of the major determinants of organizational effectiveness (Srivastava, 2015). Organizational justice is critical in almost every organizations process such as salary allocation, performance evaluation, rewarding, promotion and advance in the career, assignment, allocation of work equipment, termination of work and interpersonal interaction (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021). Studies on organizational justice have illustrated that perceived fairness of rewards, organizational procedures, and interpersonal treatment are related to individual attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, the relationship between organizational justice and OCB stem from the fact that people's perceptions determine their attitudes (Cropanzano, Rupp & Meghan, 2016).

Kelly (2005) and Colquitt (2001) show that people who have a positive attitude towards their organization have more job satisfaction, a higher commitment, are more and better job performers, and ultimately have better corporate citizenship behaviours (Zadeh, Esmaili, Tojari, & Zarei, 2015). As Srivastava (2015) notes, in India employees in the health-care industry face extraordinary challenges and competitive pressures related to financial challenges, patient safety and security, and quality. He argues that the aging populations, new therapeutic possibilities, and rising expectations have made health-care much more complex than in the past. Because of these higher expectations and demands on Indian hospitals, the issues of organizational justice and its associated outcomes are of concern. According to the findings of this study, most of health workers feel that they are not treated fairly and consequently they could not engage in OCB to enhance the organization performance. This study showed that organizational justice was significantly related to OCB.

A study by Mayfield and Mayfield (2014) in the USA found that workers who practice OCB find their work more fulfilling and improve their performance and personal lives. In this study it was also confirmed that an estimated half of employees in the USA

don't practice OCB in their organizations. The reason for this was lack of perception of justice as with no equitable distribution of economic resources and poor participation in decision-making. The effect was the resultant increase in the costs doing businesses of about 300 billion dollars a year in decreased performance. Such costs would be reduced if employees perceived justice and displayed OCB which could inspire them to expend more effort for the organizations (Suparman & Widodo, 2023).

Mehrdad, Shahram, and Rahim (2011) studied public hospitals in Rasht, Iran. The findings of this study noted that most participants were of the opinion that organizational citizenship behaviour in public organizations could be increased by the existence of a fair climate. According to the findings the responses showed that there was need for the perception and existence of an acceptable level all the types of justice especially on workload, salary, wage, bonus or promotion, and participation.

In a study by Dar (2017) on public sector organizations in Pakistan more injustice was found to exist. The findings indicated that the sector was riddled with favoritism, official nepotism, miscommunication and poor procedure and policies application. The study noted that officials in higher offices could only appreciate employees who were related to them or their friends and ignored the work of competent and efficient employees not related to them. It was also found out that rewards were only set aside for certain employees for work not done but for being friendly to officials or having a soft relationship with them. These employees were highly demoralized and Mohd and Dar (2017) puts it, they lost their effort and activity.

Mustikawati and Suana (2018) confirms that when employees experience such frustration and anger they will quickly convert to deviant workplace behavior such as gossiping, lateness, stealing from organization, not following supervisor instructions, and wasting organizational resources. These are deviant behaviour which doesn't describe a good employee needed for organizational success. These behaviours can be overcome by employees' participation in OCB through fair treatment they receive from the organization (Jufrizen & Kumala, 2023). Fair treatment for employees requires proper policies for rewarding competent employees which allow employees

to receive allocation they deserve. Negative feelings of justice will cause low performance, low loyalty, and low citizenship behavior (Nosheena & Akhtar, 2016).

1.2.2 Region Perspective of Organizational Justice and Citizenship Behaviour

The pursuit of roles that go beyond the call of normal duty such as organizational citizenship behaviour has attracted the attention of researchers and Africa has not been left behind. The role played by organizational justice in boosting employee performance remains a major concern for almost all employees, managers and the organization at large, especially in public organizations (Nuruzzaman & Talukder, 2015). This is because of the work related consequences that are linked to justice within the organizational frameworks (Moghimi, Kazemi & Samiie, 2013).

In a study by Badu (2013) on employees of insurance organizations in Ghana, it was noted that demonstration of desirable workplace behaviour by employees had become important in today's organizations. The study confirmed that organizational justice and its antecedents depend on cultural context. The researcher argued that in the Ghanaian context, interactional justice was an important variable compared to Procedural and Distributive fairness. This was because, based on Ghanaian values and cultural settings, obeying a paternalistic leader was more crucial than following specific procedures. It was therefore normal for those in positions of authority or organizational power to make decisions without participation of those with less formal power. Consequently, the study found that organizational justice was significantly and positively related to OCB because when employees felt fair treatment they naturally demonstrated OCB.

Olowodunoye and Adetula (2015) studied the role organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Ondo State, Nigeria using 320 participants. The study found that perception of organizational justice had significant relationships with organizational citizenship behaviour ($r = 0.57, p < .01$). This study noted that perceived organizational justice determined how much employees would engage in extra activities on behalf of the organization. The study recommended that leaders and their organizations should endeavour to find way of how to practice

fairness with employees and not to be driven only by profit making but consider employee inclusion when making decisions for organization.

In a study by AbubakarIsah and Sabarani (2017) on public sector employees in Nigeria it was revealed that the more organizations adopt fairness in dealings with employees, the more motivated they will be and the less will be cases of absenteeism and turnover but increase in job satisfaction and OCB. Accordingly absence of fairness in rewarding, remuneration, placement, promotion, performance appraisal, training opportunities, and ineffective interpersonal relationship were among the challenges facing public sector employees in Nigeria. Employees were therefore not able to display OCB in Nigerian public organizations as the perception of organizational justice was low.

Mrwebi (2019) studying 30 employees of a selected TVET college in Gauteng, South Africa, found significantly no relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour. This study disapproved the association between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour at the selected TVET College. The study affirmed that there could be other factors besides perceptions of organizational justice which influence levels of OCB at the selected TVET College. The study concluded that the reason for non-compliance of the results with previous studies was the differences in working conditions associated with developed and developing countries. The work conditions in developing countries are conducive while those for developing countries like South Africa are not conducive.

1.2.3 Local Perspective of Organizational Justice and Citizenship Behaviour

Organizational justice plays an important role in the development of employee attitudes towards the organization and is highly associated with organizational positive behaviours like OCB (Colquitt et al., 2001; Srivastava, 2015). Organizational citizenship behaviour increases the committed and work effectiveness of employees, make them do their tasks independently and in teams, and increase their faithfulness to the organization. The absence of organizational justice may therefore result in decreased levels of citizenship performance among employees (Das & Mohanty, 2023).

According to Wanderi (2016) there is little consideration which has been given in Kenya to developing systems which guarantees fairness or which would increase public servants perception of fairness irrespective of the role of the sector. The importance of the public sector is acknowledged by Republic of Kenya (2017) who contemplates that an effective and efficient Public Service is critical to national economic growth and development as it helps in the implementation Government. Kariuki (2017), on the other hand, has argued that the Public Service can only carry out its vital role if the performance, attitude and management approaches are transformed through employees' perception of justice.

The rights of both employers and employees in Kenya are enshrined in the Kenya Constitution (the Republic of Kenya, 2010). Article 41 provides that every employee has a right to good working conditions and fair remuneration. The Salaries and Remuneration Act (2011) which established the Salaries and Remuneration Commission (SRC) mandates the Commission to reform the public sector and ensure that salaries and remunerations of all public officers are harmonized with their qualifications and job descriptions and eliminate cases of overrating the remuneration of certain employees while at the same time underpaying others despite working for the same government (GoK, 2013).

The reason to harmonize the remuneration of public servants is one step towards the promotion of equity in the public sector (Mwangi, 2015). This is also reinforced in Article 10 of the Constitution of Kenya (2010) that provides for national values and principles of governance on human dignity, equity, social justice, inclusiveness, equality, human rights, and non-discrimination. The Public Service Commission (2016) provides the institutional framework for human resource management in the public sector to ensure justice prevails. It recommends undertaking of HRM practices based on fair competition and merit; adequate and equal opportunities and promotion of equality of opportunity without discrimination.

Republic of Kenya (2015) notes that since independence determination of wages, salaries, and other remunerative benefits within the Public Sector in Kenya has been handled by different bodies and created disparities across sectors and inequalities in

pay for similar jobs in the public service. Disparities in salaries, allowances, and other benefits enjoyed by employees with comparable competencies and workloads are widespread within the same departments and State Organs, across sectors and sub-sectors, and even across the different arms of Government perpetuating persistent agitation for parity treatment (Republic of Kenya, 2017). The need for organizational justice in the public sector has resulted in demands by various groups in the public sector for justice.

Teachers, for example, have resorted to industrial action demanding that their salaries be harmonized with those of others civil servants in the country (Karanja, 2016). Universities' failures to honor staff expectations on increased pay, and promotions have resulted in perceptions of unfairness and led to strikes (Ntege, 2010). Medical personnel have been always all in arms against the government as a result of the perception of injustice. Kibet (2021) therefore concludes that public organizations fail to successfully achieve their performance targets because employees perform below standards as result of perceptions of injustice that has led to frustrated staff, labour turnover, industrial action, less commitment and poor quality service delivery. Hence, the importance of organizational justice in the development of employee attitudes towards organizations is highly associated with positive behaviours.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

The importance of organizational justice in the development of employee positive attitudes towards organizations is highly appreciated because of its relationship with employee management, performance and development (Mashudi & Erdiansyah, 2023). Numerous investigations have been done on the relationship between organizational justice and many organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment (Wanderi, 2016; Cahyono, Novitasari, Sihotang, & Aman, 2020); performance (Moon, 2017); Organizational citizenship behaviour (Aeknarajindawat & Jemsittiparsert, 2020; Sujono, Tunas , & Sudiarditha, 2020) and job satisfaction (Akbar, 2023). All the studies show that fairness results in positive behaviour while unfairness results in counterproductive behaviour such as underperformance, unprofessionalism, and absenteeism (Mrwebi , 2019; O'Connell, 2022).

In a report by the Public Service Commission (2023) in a study of 1687 public service officers it was identified that underperformance (84.3%), unprofessionalism (1.3%) and absenteeism (0.9%) were the key performance gaps which were affecting the public service. The report noted that although the number of organizations with reported disciplinary cases declined by 44 from 198 in the financial year 2021/22, the number of officers who were facing disciplinary action increased by 276 from 2021/2022. Other counterproductive vices that were identified included negligence of duty (33%) and absence from duty without permission, accounting for the highest number of disciplinary cases, (26%); poor performance (5%) and falsification of records (3%). These counterproductive behaviours from civil servants have generated complaints of poor services from citizens who demand for reforms, civil society organizations who demand for better services commensurate with tax they pay; private sector who need an enabling environment for their businesses to thrive, and donors who require value for the money for development support (Ong'era & Musili, 2019). This scenario is against the initiative by the Kenya government, through the Public Service Commission, which has introduced and implemented performance contract, performance appraisal and several others performance management strategies to enhance results (Kibet, 2021).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (citizenship behavior) is one of the most popular employee work habit that is relevant to improved organizational productivity, efficiency, customer satisfaction and reduced costs and employees turnover (Miah, 2018). As a positive attitude it helps organizations achieve their bottom line through inspiring employees to work beyond duties prescribed in their job description and position and undertake extra roles (Mennita & Tias, 2023). Organizational citizenship behaviour is voluntary and free employee's actions that are outside formal duties (McShane & von Glinow, 2020), are performed over and above normal duties, but help organization to succeed through enhanced employee performance (Yang, Jiang, & Cheng, 2022).

Several studies have found existence of positive linkages between organizational justice and citizenship behaviour (Abass & Firdous, 2017; Aeknarajindawat & Jernsittiparsert, 2020; Das & Mohanty, 2023; Kangyao, Xiaofu, Jian, Jinglin, & Yun,

2023). The studies have further noted prominence of procedural justice against distributive justice; organizational justice affects all sub-dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. In other studies a no significant relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour has been (Mrwebi, 2019; Hassan et al., 2017; Jehanzeb and Mohanty, 2020). These studies argue the no significant relationship could be as a result differences in working conditions especially between developed countries and developing countries indicating cultural differences (Mrwebi, 2019; Pedro, Rúben , Guilherme, & Costa, 2021); the scale used in measuring OCB which is dependent on conditions for workers working from home and the in-person workers confirming the importance of the working environments on the relationship.

The contention of the current study is that although the relationship between organizational justices has been researched on there are still limitations which require more research to bring out the salient issues. One problems affecting previous studies is the use of a one-time, single source data collection which results in misleading findings due to methodological variance (Sheeraz, Ungku, Ishaq & Nor, 2021) that requires replication (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021); dimensionality and conceptualization organizational justice (Asaad, Lubna, & Ayman, 2019); the impacts of organizational justice on various organizational outcomes (Cropanzano, Anthony , Daniels & Hall, (2017). These are mixed results that need more studies, hence this study.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

This study had both the general and specific objectives.

1.4.1 General Objective

To assess the relationship between organizational justice and employee citizenship behaviour in civil service in Kenya

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

Specifically, this study will seek

- i. To assess the influence of distributive justice on employee citizenship behaviour in civil service in Kenya.
- ii. To assess the influence of procedural justice on employee citizenship behaviour in civil service in Kenya.
- iii. To assess the influence of interpersonal justice on employee citizenship behaviour in civil service in Kenya.
- iv. To assess the influence of informational justice on employee citizenship behaviour in civil service in Kenya.
- v. To assess the mediating influence of job satisfaction on the relationship between organizational justice and employee citizenship behaviour in civil service in Kenya

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses have been set for the study

- i. **H₀₁**: Distributive justice does not influence employee citizenship behaviour in civil service in Kenya.
- ii. **H₀₂**: Procedural justice does not influence employee citizenship behaviour in civil service in Kenya.
- iii. **H₀₃**: Interpersonal justice does not influence employee citizenship behaviour in civil service in Kenya.
- iv. **H₀₄**: Informational justice does not have a significant influence on employee citizenship behaviour in civil service in Kenya
- v. **H₀₅**: Job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between organizational justice and employee citizenship behaviour in civil service in Kenya.

1.6 Justification of the Study

Organizational justice is related to meaningful business outcomes (Alvin & Abbasi, 2012). The findings of this study are important as it provides insights for learning and development practitioners, human resource managers, trainers and leaders in the various capacities on the interaction between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior in organizations. This will enable them to examine their

organization justice efforts as a key component towards a more effective and efficient workforce that may lead to the achievement of their organizational goals. The public sector management will be able to improve the organization's performance and create positive value within employees in line with the dimensions of OCB. This study will enlighten public sector management on employee values system and what can be modified to lower attrition increase job satisfaction and OCB.

The findings of the study will be beneficial to administrators and policymakers in planning how to put in place measures that will ensure fairness is applied in their organizations. The study will specifically provide public service management with data that will help them understand the factors that influence employee citizenship behavior through justice dimensions. The public sector management in Kenya will benefit by understanding that they should not only focus on improving the good perceptions of organizational justice in their employees but make every effort to improve job satisfaction by facilitating all the factors that lead to it to enhance their managers and employee OCB, which in turn affects the organizational performance. Human resources managers will benefit as they will be able to establish policies and actions that support, satisfy, and retain employees in order to promote OCB.

The work done in this study contributes to a better understanding of the relationship between three variables; organizational justice, job satisfaction and OCB. Organizational citizenship behavior is increasingly becoming a crucial topic of interest in academia because of its effects on organizations. This study provides an additional body of knowledge on the subject of OCB and its driver organizational justice in the public sector in Kenya thus broadening its understanding and providing a base for further research. The findings provide a framework and a base for other researchers who will be interested in pursuing this area especially in service and non-profit organizations like the public service. As a result this study expands on the theory of organizational citizenship behavior and how dimensions such as distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice may influence OCB through the mediating role of job satisfaction in various organizational contexts, allowing future researchers to gain a better understanding of employee citizenship behavior in various sectors.

Theoretically, this study will contribute to the expansion and understanding of equity theory and social exchange theory. Equity theory shows that employee work output may increase or decrease based on the perceptions of inequitable outcomes. An understanding of social exchange theory can increase organizational citizenship behaviors as it contribute to the social and psychological context of the firm and support task performance.

1.7 Scope of the Study

This study aimed at assessing relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior of civil servants in Kenya. Organizational justice theory suggests studying the concept under a four dimensions: distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice (Wanderi, 2016; Das & Mohanty, 2023). The study based the definition of organizational justice on Jufrizen and Kumala (2023) as the degree to which an individual feels treated equally within the organization where he or she works, and their effect of that treatment on the individual's performance. Organizational citizenship behaviour was studied as defined by (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006) as the individual's behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. OCB was measured using five indicators; altruism, conscientiousness, sportsman, courtesy, and civic virtue (Suparman & Widodo, 2023).

The study was carried out on civil servants in Kenya. Avis (2015) defines civil servants as officials working in government ministries, departments and agencies and who advise government on development and implementation of policies and programmes on a daily basis. Rao (2013) distinguishes civil servants from other public servants like military personnel, police, teachers, and health workers. Civil servants are employees in who are in the permanent administrative arm of government, the machinery that used to design, formulate and implement directly policies, strategies, and programs (Pritchett, Woolcock, & Andrews, 2010).

The study targeted 11,671 civil servants working in ten critical government service delivery ministries including Interior and Coordination, Labour and Social services,

Information and communication, Public Service, youth and Gender, Environment and Forestry, Lands and housing, Transport and Roads, education, science and Technology, and National Treasury and Energy. These ministries have the highest number of employees who are easily availability across the country (Zayed, Junaimah Jauhar¹, Zurina, & Mohsen, 2020). A sample of three hundred and seventy five (375) employees was selected from this population and used as respondents in the study. The study was commissioned and took a period of six months from the time of data collection to presentation of the study report. The cost of the study was a sum of Kenya shillings seven hundred thousand.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The major foreseen limitation of this study was the perceived incidences of some respondents giving false responses to the questionnaire. It is a tendency of respondents to respond to self-response questions in any way they feel like. This challenge was overcome by informing the respondents that in responding to the questionnaire none of the responses would be considered right or wrong. Therefore they were required to be as truthful as possible.

Another limitation that was expected was the unwillingness or refusal by some respondents to freely participate in the study. This is the case where respondents could be given a questionnaire based on the participant selection criteria for simple random sampling and they totally refuse to participate in the study. In case this happened then a study would end up not having a recommended response rate which would lead to misleading findings. The limitation was overcome by the researcher taking proactive measures of convincing and directly speaking to the respondents to willfully participate in the study.

In case a respondent totally refused to participate due to their own personal reasons, the research would use convenient sampling, where only those employees who met the set selection criteria and who the researcher new would have the required information were identified as requested to volunteer to participate. Otherwise the participants were convinced, although it was very difficult, that the intention of the research was only for academic work and it was prudent for them to participate. The researcher also made

friendship to win the confidence of participants, used supervisors to reach out to participants. The introduction letters written by self, the university and National Council for Research were handy. The researcher mostly collected questionnaires personally.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the theories that informed this study, the conceptual framework, general literature review on the variables, and finally the empirical review. The review is summarized to provide the study with gaps.

2.2 Theories Informing the Study

This section explores theories which gave the study a foundation and which help explain the relationship being hypothesized. The theories which give the study its foundation are such as the social exchange theory (SET) as propounded by Homans (1961), organizational support theory (OST) by Eisenberger et al. (1986), equity theory by Adams (1963), and psychological contract theory (Rousseau, 1989). This study will adapt the Colquitt (2001) organizational justice model.

2.2.1 The Social Exchanges Theory

The social exchange theory (SET) is one of the most influential conceptual paradigms that explain workplace behavior and social science phenomena in general (Rotich, 2022). It is one of the gold standards to understand workplace behavior as it is deeply inculcated in peoples' daily lives (Ahmad, Nawaz, Ishaq, Khan, & Ashraf, 2022). Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels and Hall (2017) have given a definition of SET as a concept involving three aspects; an initiation by an actor toward the target; an attitudinal or behavioral response from the target in reciprocity, and the resulting relationship. In essence the social exchange theory refers to the ability of one party to influence another party to do something (Cooper-Thomas & Morrison, 2019).

Social exchange theories treat life as a series of sequential transactions between two or more parties, who exchange resources, with one party repaying another for its good or bad deeds, in a reciprocity way (Mitchell, Cropanzano, & Quisenberry, 2012). In these transactions the quality of exchanges is influenced by the relationship between

one party, the actor, and another, the target. According to Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage and Rohdieck (2004), the actor, who may be a supervisor or coworker, starts the relationship by treating the target, say a subordinate in a given way, either positive or negative, and in response the target reciprocates in a certain way. An actor may transact positively by providing support, or negatively by being abusive. High quality exchanges results in benefits to the provider while low quality exchanges result in harm to the provider.

The fundamental pillars of SET is that commitment, loyalty, and trust are upshot of evolving relationships and that parties must show compliance toward specific rules (Cropanzano, Anthony , Daniels, & Hall, 2017). Some of these rules include the reciprocity rules outlined by Gouldner (1960) as: transaction; belief, and, moral norm. SET comprises two types of social exchanges; perceived organizational support (POS) that emphasizes employee–organization exchange relationships, and the exchange between the leader and member, which elaborates on the interaction between supervisor and the employee (Lee & Duffy, 2019).

The main principle of this theory is that social phenomenon involves a series of interactions that generate obligations (Rupp , Cropanzano, & Meghan, 2016). Based on this principle, the theory assumes that individuals will continue to participate in social situations as long as they perceive the participation will accrue beneficial outcomes, whether economic, political or social (Blau, 1964). Therefore, people will leave a relationship upon realizing that they no longer gain from it, or when the costs of continuance outweigh the gains. Accordingly, in application, individuals who perceive their contribution to the organization is recognized may feel obligated to reciprocate and commit to the achievement of the organizations’ goals.

The social exchange theory was founded by Homans (1961), who defined social exchange as the exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or costly between at least two people. This theory suggests that supportive behaviors by an authority can be viewed as a benefit to an employee that should trigger an obligation to reciprocate (Colquitt J. A., 2012). This obligation to reciprocate can then be expressed through positive discretionary behaviors. Social Exchange Theory

(Thibault and Kelley, 1959) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) provide reasons why OCB is fully a sub-set of justice (Dalal, 2005). This is so because employment, as human transactions, is a process of resource exchange governed by the norm of reciprocity which encompassing conferment of benefits and continual rebalancing of expectations and obligations (Wanderi, 2016).

Based on this theory, when workers think they can get a high-quality exchange relationship with the organization they are likely to reciprocate by developing norms that promote positive behavior (Kizilos, Cummings, & Cummings, 2013) and favorable consequences to organizations (Funda, 2010). The more the employer fulfills obligations and meets expectations, the more employees feel secure and satisfied and consequently obligated to reciprocate with favorable attitudes and behaviour (Coyle-Shapiro Morrow, 2006). The extent to which organizations manage their relationship with employees makes them likely to engage in OCB (Bukhari, Ali, Shazad, & Bashir, 2009). Employment being a social behavior is a give-and-take relationship of materials and non-material goods and must extend beyond economic values to assistance, support, regard, and respect (Carter, 2010). This theory posits that individuals in an organization will regulate their interactions with others based on self-interest analysis of the costs they bring to the organization against benefits they get (Wanderi, 2016). In the employment situation, when the organization uses procedurally fair supervisory practices, it demonstrates the organization's respect for the rights and dignity of employees (Hermant & Srimulyani, 2022).

Likewise, employees will feel more secure to develop confidence in their organization when they perceive fair treatment in the allocation of rewards, given a voice in the evaluation process, get information without concealment and receive fair interpersonal treatment from management (Hong & Tang-Hua, 2014). Through SET employees exchange desirable outcomes in return for fair treatment, support, and care and will demonstrate more civil virtue and sportsmanship (Paille, 2012). OCBs are means by which an employee reciprocates fair treatment such that when there is a violation they will respond with a reduced form of OCBs (Golparvar & Javadian, 2012). Employees who receive fair pay, recognition, and opportunities for development tend to respond

in kind; otherwise they will withdraw and display burnout (Rizwan, Asad, Ahmad, Hafiz, & Ghulam (2015).

As the organization expects employees to perform reliably, employees expect their organizations to provide fair pay, safe working conditions, and fair treatment (Elamin & Tlaiss, 2015). Fairness can only exist when workers observe that the ratio of their efforts to rewards is as equal for them as it is for others to whom they contrast themselves with. Employees perceive injustice when they notice that the ratio of their efforts to rewards is different for them than it is for others to whom they contrast themselves with (Twaib & Kariuki, 2016). SET therefore is important for this study and explain why organizational justice leads to organizational citizenship behaviour.

2.2.2 Organizational Support Theory

Support from the organization has been considered key for the maintenance of positive work outcomes (Fatma & Amal, 2016). Organizational support theory was developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986) who asserted that employees will always form a general feeling of how the organization sees them as valuable and how it looks at their contribution and the care it gives to them in terms of their wellbeing to increase their work effort. This theory is a practical application of the norm of reciprocity to the employee-employer relationships (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002).

The theory states that employees pay attention to the manner in which organisations treat them in order to decide the extent to which the organisation is supportive and values their contribution (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). With these beliefs, employees interpret the actions taken by the organization and subsequently adjust their behavior accordingly (Gokul et al., 2012). Satardien, Jano and Bosman (2014) looks at the organizational support theory in the perspective of the organization as valuing its employees contributions in terms performance-reward expectancies, and, cares about their well-being by its ability to fulfill their socio-emotional needs at work. According to this theory providing positive resources to employees, in terms of money, services, and information, and socio-emotional resources like approval, respect and support will induce a felt obligation among them to help the organization reach its goals (Kurtessis, Eisenberger , & Ford, 2017).

Perceived organizational support enhances employees' subjective well-being, positive orientation toward the organization and work, and favorable behaviors (Caesens , Stinglhamber, & Demoulin, 2017). Based on the submission of Eisenberger, Rhoades and Wen (2020) the work organization is a nonliving entity with no personality or motives of its own, however humans personify the work organization through such features as responsibility for the actions of its agents, continuity provided by organizational culture and norms, and considerable power exerted, through its agents, over individual employees.

Satardien, Jano and Bosman (2014) reveal that in personifying an organization, three factors: the organisation has a legal, moral and financial responsibility toward its employees; the organisational precedents, traditions, policies and norms provide continuity and prescribe role behaviour, and the organisation exerts power over individual employees, to influence perceptions and behaviour of members. Employees therefore associate the treatment to them by agents of the organisation as indicative of the organisations' overall favourable or unfavorable orientation towards them (Eisenberger, Rhoades, & Wen, 2020).

Therefore employees view the organization as a living being, having purpose and intention. The people in the organizations give the organization human-like features and will look at those who represent the organization as its agents and whom they see as acting on its behalf and not on their own motives (Mathur & kumari, 2013). Kurtessis, et al., (2017) argue that the major antecedents of perceived organizational support are organizational fairness, support from leaders, and human resource practices and work conditions. Organizational support will be enhanced if employees view benefits and work conditions given by the organization as voluntary actions of the organization and not given under circumstances beyond the control of the organization (Abubakar & Sabarani, 2017). The Readiness of an organization to give employees some benefits when their work surpasses set standards makes workers develop a feeling that they are seen by the organization as very important and what they do for the organization contributes significantly to the achievement of its goals (Linda & Eisenberger, 2002).

Rhodes and Eisenberger (2002) established that perceived organisational support is fundamentally rooted in the norm of reciprocity which posits that people should help those who have helped them, and should not injure those who have helped them. Eisenberger, Rhoades and Wen (2020) enumerate the profound outcomes of organizational support as among leading improvement in in-role performance and extra-role performance that contributes to the welfare of the organization. Employees who gain more organizational emotional support, provision of opportunities, and are encouraged to participate in decision making will have more involvement and stronger feelings of faithfulness and allegiance towards the organization and will be motivated to match their obligation and be kept fully engaged at work (Fatma & Amal, 2016).

Employees who perceive that their organization provides them with a high level of support feel morally obliged to contribute to the organization (Karstin, Amanda, Truss, & Soane, 2013) and fosters employee performance as it stimulates their intangible element of exchange (Amankwaa, Susomrith, & Seet, 2016). Fairness has been evaluated as one of the commonly antecedent of POS.

The main interplay between organizational support and organizational justice is in the view that organizations are perceived to have considerable control over resource distribution procedures including rewards and benefits, so judgments of fairness regarding procedures can greatly influence perceptions of organizational support (Anak, Ida, & Gusti, 2016). Organizational procedures convince employees of the organization's positive view of them when there is transparency and consistency in decision making. Impartiality, and employee input into the decision-making process readily promote POS (Earlyanti & Hamid, 2023).

Supportive and trusting interpersonal relationships as well as supportive management promote psychological safety and increase the likelihood of achieving work goals and satisfy, the need to belong, experiment, and the urge for innovativeness (Kamau & Muathe, 2016). Good working conditions coupled with increased benefits including increased salary, job promotions, enrichment of their job, and allowing them to have a say during setting up of organizational policies contribute more to their feelings of organizational support (Eisenberger, Rhoades, & Wen, 2020). When decisions on

allocating resources, setting rules and policies to guide making decisions that affect workers such as giving advance notice, getting accurate information concerning workers and allowing them to participate, providing a quality interpersonal relationship with dignity and respect in providing employees with information are key to organizational support (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, & Vandenberghe, 2002).

Organizational support is one of the major predictors of low and high-performing employees and it is considered for maintaining positive work outcomes such as engagement, task performance, and citizenship (Fatimah, Amiraa, & Halim, 2011). Employees participate in OCB in reciprocity to felt support from the organizations on their self-interest (Chiaburu, Chakrabarty, Wang, & Li, 2015). Lack of social support has been found to deter employees from accomplishing their goals, causing frustration, withdrawal behavior, reduced commitment, and increased turnover intentions (Remo, 2012).

This theory is significant to this study because support from the organization is consequential for a host of positive work outcomes including engagement, task performance, and citizenship (Chiaburu et al., 2015). It is believed that employees engage in citizenship behavior in reciprocity to perceived support from the organization for their interests (Demir, 2015). Organizations that provide support to employees, both in terms of their work and well-being, impact positive behavior at work as appreciating employees' roles and paying more attention to their welfare, creates employee confidence in the organization (Prasetyo & Mugi, 2023).

2.2.3 Adam's Equity Theory

Equity theory was developed by John Stacy Adams. According to Adams (1963) workers will seek to have and see equity between what they come with to a job and the results they receive from it as compared to what they see brought by others of similar qualities. This theory revolves around the balance between the efforts that employees put into their work and the rewards that they receive in return by focusing on employees' work compensation and workplace fairness (Antonio, Caraca, Hernandez, Piamonte, & Silva, 2019). When workers come on duty they bring with them their time, schooling, expertise, energy among others, and expect a secure job, a

good salary, commensurate benefits, expenses, recognition, and reputation, and responsibility, sense of achievement, praise, thanks, and stimuli (Pepermans & Jegers, 2010).

The ratio between inputs and outputs determines the happiness and motivation of the employees. It is fair when employees input is recognized and rewarded as it makes them continue to provide the same amount of effort, and sometimes improve. An organization should ensure fairness for employees whose work is the same not only in monetary terms but also in work conditioning terms (Johnson, 2017). Equity theory proposes that a person's motivation is based on what he or she considers being fair when compared to others (Redmond, 2013). In the workplace, Equity Theory focuses on an employee's work compensation relationship as well as the employee's attempts to minimize any sense of unfairness that might result.

The major assumption of this theory is its belief that workers always want resources in an organization shared equally depending on what each individual comes with when a partnership is established (Al-Zawahreh & Al-Madi, 2012). Equity theory was developed against the lack of theoretical explanation of the psychological basis of inequity perception in organization as perception of fairness underlined employees' behaviour and attitudes towards organisations (Adams, 1965).

Davlembayeva and Alamanos (2023) points out that Equity theory is based on five principles; the relations of people are built on an equity norm, an expectation that peoples' contributions will be rewarded; the evaluation of equity results from the assessment of personal inputs/outputs against inputs/outputs of other people in a social exchange relations; unequal distribution of rewards against contributions leads to inequity perception (Edwards & Shapiro, 2015); inequity results in the psychological discomfort due to the inconsistency between personal outcomes and the referent others (Sprecher, 2018); if any of the forms of inequity are perceived, the person aims to restore inequity either psychologically or physically in pursuit of eliminating the emotional tensions associated with inequity perception (Davies, McGregor, Pringle , & Giddings, 2018).

Voußem, Kramer and Schäffer (2016) highlights several psychological and physical mechanisms used to cope with inequity such as compensation for inequity, self-deprivation, devaluation of the input of the other party of relations, self-affirmation, denial of responsibility for the act, justification of inequity, and retaliation against the party of relations causing inequity. In particular equity theory predicts a decrease or increase in work effort in a situation of underpayment or overpayment respectively with the exact decrease or increase depending on the person's valuation of the effort and the underpayment or overpayment. Workers who find inequity will seek to reduce the equilibrium by reducing their devotion to their work or might leave the organizations (Biswas, Varma, & Ramaswami, 2013),

Equity theory framework has been applied widely, across disciplines and in different geographical contexts. Greenberg (2010) acknowledges that Equity principles have been used to examine the effect of fairness perception on employees' negative and positive behaviour, explain the relationship between the employees' perception of fair procedures and rewards distribution on organisational citizenship behaviour, to explore the moderation effect of fairness perception on the relationship between job demands, job performance and job satisfaction, to explain employees' negative behaviour, such as theft, as the response to redistributing rewards, and the mechanism used to lessen the perception of inequity.

The results of its application have been enormous and positive. For example Moorman (1991) found that positive behaviour of employees can be secured by subjecting them to fair procedures irrespective of the equitable distribution of rewards compared to other employees in the organisation. Manso (2013) confirmed that in conditions of fair effort to reward allocation, individuals will tend to perform better and feel more satisfied. Geographically, inconsistent results have been posted indicating the importance of culture in fairness perception (Iqbal & Bilali, 2018). Culture plays a significant role in so far as individualist and collectivist cultures are concerned as Kim Edwards and Shapiro (2015) found out that Japanese workers perceive overpayment to be unfair, a contrast to Chinese and South Korean employees.

This theory is important for this study because it is concerned with the perceptions people have about how they are being treated compared to others. According to Luthans (2013), it has received relatively more recent attention in the organizational behavior field because it helps understand employees' behavior and attitudes in the workplace and what makes them behave in a given way and not the other. It emphasizes that people will be better motivated if they are treated equitably and demotivated if they are treated inequitably (Armstrong, 2010).

According to Alvi and Abbasi (2012) workers want to have something almost equal to what they give to the organization in compensation. It contributes a lot to this study as it describes some factors that affect employee behavior through organizational justice concept. Nevertheless, equity theory is unbounded by space or time and applies to any relationship which increases its generalizability (Al-Zawahreh & AlMadi, 2012). The relevance of the theory is that supervisors must be sensitive to perceptions of justice by employees while distributing duties, rewards, opportunities, and punishments among employees.

2.2.4 Psychological Contract Theory

The theory of psychological contract was introduced by Argyris (1960) and developed by Denise Rousseau. The psychological contract represents the mutual beliefs, perceptions, and informal obligations between an employer and an employee. The theory can be described as the set of reciprocal but unarticulated expectations that exist between individual employees and their employers (Armstrong, 2010). A psychological contract implies that there is an unwritten set of expectations operating at all times between every member of an organization and the various managers and others in that organization (Conway & Briner, 2005).

Psychological contract is the perceived state of the employment deal formed by an employee's global impression of whether or not the employer's promises are kept, how fair they are perceived to be, and if the promises can be kept in the future (Guest, 2014). The theory treats the failure of an organization to meet its promises as perceived breach and violation, which develops into employee feelings of injustice or betrayal (Reddington & Weber, 2015). Promises such as fair treatment, challenging work,

equitable rewards, growth opportunities, and feedback are important to employees (Mohit & Santosh, 2016).

Psychological contracts are perceived exchanges of agreement and are reliant on promises with trust being the basis of engagement (Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012). A breach of the contract will occur if employees perceive that their firm or its agents have failed to deliver on what was promised. Armstrong (2010) argues that violation of the psychological contract will likely produce burnout because it erodes the notion of reciprocity. A breach in the contract arises when employees give more in terms of time, effort, skills, and flexibility whereas they receive less in terms of career opportunities, lifetime employment, and job security (Bhatti , et al., 2019).

The sustainability of a psychological contract depends on the obligation and responsibilities that both parties assume (Tsai & Lin, 2014). When the employer properly fulfills their side of the contract, employees tend to demonstrate a more positive attitude towards the organization. The key pillars of a psychological contract include consideration and support from the organization. When employees feel that the organization supports them, their commitment increases and they may exhibit OCB. But when employees perceive organizationally supportive actions like fairness, equity, and support as being in the self-interest of the organization and not particularly beneficial to them, they may respond negatively (Jain, 2016).

2.2.5 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation

Herzberg theory has been used as a method to explore job satisfaction among employees. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory was designed in year 1959 by Frederick Herzberg in his study of 200 engineers and accountant in the USA. He defined two sets of factors that determined employees work attitudes and performance; motivation and hygiene factors (Yusoff, Kian & Idris, 2013). Motivational factors/motivators/satisfiers were the main drivers of job satisfaction while hygiene factors/dissatisfies were the main causes of job dissatisfaction (Alrawahi, Sellgren, Altouby, Alwahaibi, & Brommels, 2020). Motivators included achievements, recognition, responsibility, and work advancement, while dissatisfiers included working conditions, salaries, relationships, administrative policies, and supervision

(Band, Shah, & Sriram, 2016). According to the theory dissatisfiers, also known as extrinsic factors or job context factors, such as working conditions, contributed less to employee motivation but were required to prevent employees' dissatisfaction (Alshmemri, Maude, & Phillip, 2017). These factors created a favourable working environment where employees felt comfortable to work. As hygiene factors they fulfilled the need to avoid unpleasantness. On the other hand intrinsic factors, also known as motivators or job content factors, made employees to exert effort and contributed to employees' job satisfactions (Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015). These factors are very effective in creating and maintaining more durable positive effects on employees' job performance and propel employees to insert additional interest, hence job satisfaction (Ogbogu, 2017).

This theory confirms the interdependence to each other of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Addai, Kyeremeh, Abdulai and Sarfo (2018) content that presence of extrinsic factors will only eliminate work dissatisfaction but will not provide job satisfaction. Likewise sufficient supply of intrinsic Factors will cultivate employees' inner growth and development that will lead to a higher productivity and performance; however, they will not eliminate feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. According to Bevins (2018) motivation and hygiene factors are determined on two separate continua for each employee. Motivators are evaluated on a range from neutrality to highly satisfied, whereas Hygiene factors are evaluated on a range from neutrality to highly dissatisfied.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory is an important theory for this study. This theory helps us understand which factors are very critical in generating employee job satisfaction. It also helps in understanding the role responsibility, achievements, growth, promotion, recognition and conditions of work, as motivation factors on job satisfaction. On other hand the theory gives a foundation on the effect of relationship of intrinsic factors such as salary, interpersonal relations, company policy and administration, working conditions, factors in personal life, status, and job security on job satisfaction of employees. These are factors which anchor the model on which perception of organizational justice is built upon. They are factors that influence employees OCBs.

2.2.6 Colquitt (2001) Four-factor Model of Organizational Justice

The Colquitt (2001) devised a factor-model, among the models, that try to explain the concept of organizational justice. According to Colquitt, research on the effect of organizational justice and organizational functioning started with a focus on distributive justice. Later studies brought in distributive and procedural justice leading to organizational justice being perceived as a two-factor mode (Greenberg, 1990). In this model distributive justice was to relate to personal-referenced outcomes, such as satisfaction with pay while procedural justice related to organizational referenced outcomes, such as commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Bies and Moag (1986) introduced interactional justice and defined it as the treatment people receive as procedures were being enacted. To them interactional justice existed when employees were treated with respect and sensitivity, explaining thoroughly, to them, the reasons for making certain decision. The works of Greenberg (1993) led to the foundation of the four-factor model where interactional justice was split into informational and interpersonal justice, with respect and sensitivity viewed as interpersonal justice, while the explanation given to people about decisions made, viewed as an informational.

This conceptualization had not been empirically tested, hence, Colquitt (2001), conceptualised a study to investigate the theoretical dimensionality of organizational justice and to test the construct validity of a new justice measure. Based on the result of this study it was found that the four-factor model, consisting of procedural justice, distributive justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice, was the best fitting than the three-factor model; the one-factor model was the worsed. It was also found that the four factors of organizational justice predicted the four different outcomes that were being measured hence supporting the fact the four factors were to be treated distinct. The study further indicated that when organizational justice is conceptualist as a four-factor model it could predict a diverse set of outcomes. the study suggested that for theoretical advancements both the three and four-models be used simultaneously.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is a visual or written product that explains either graphically or in narrative form the main things to be studied, the key factors concepts or variables, and the presumed relationships among them (Guyo, 2015). It is a model of presentation where a researcher shows, graphically or diagrammatically, the relationships between variables in the study (Orodho, 2004). In this study the independent variable was organizational justice. Organizational justice was measured under to distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice. This was in line with the findings by Colquit (2001) which conceptualised organizational justice into a four-factor model. The study therefore measured organizational justice using the four-factor model instead of three-factor model of distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Interactional justice was broken down into interpersonal and informational justice components as they had been found to differential effects.

Colquitt also noted that justice measures predicted diverse set of outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour. This study tested organizational citizenship behaviour as the dependent variable. Organizational citizenship behaviour was measured using Organ (1988) dimensions of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue and courtesy. The study hypothesized that organizational justice predicted organizational citizenship behaviour as a composite concept under four objectives. The dimensions of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue and courtesy of organizational citizenship behaviour were therefore influenced by organizational justice which that in turn determined the overall organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Based on the study by Colquit (2001), this study visualised the relationship between the variables under investigation as shown in following conceptual framework in figure. 2.1.

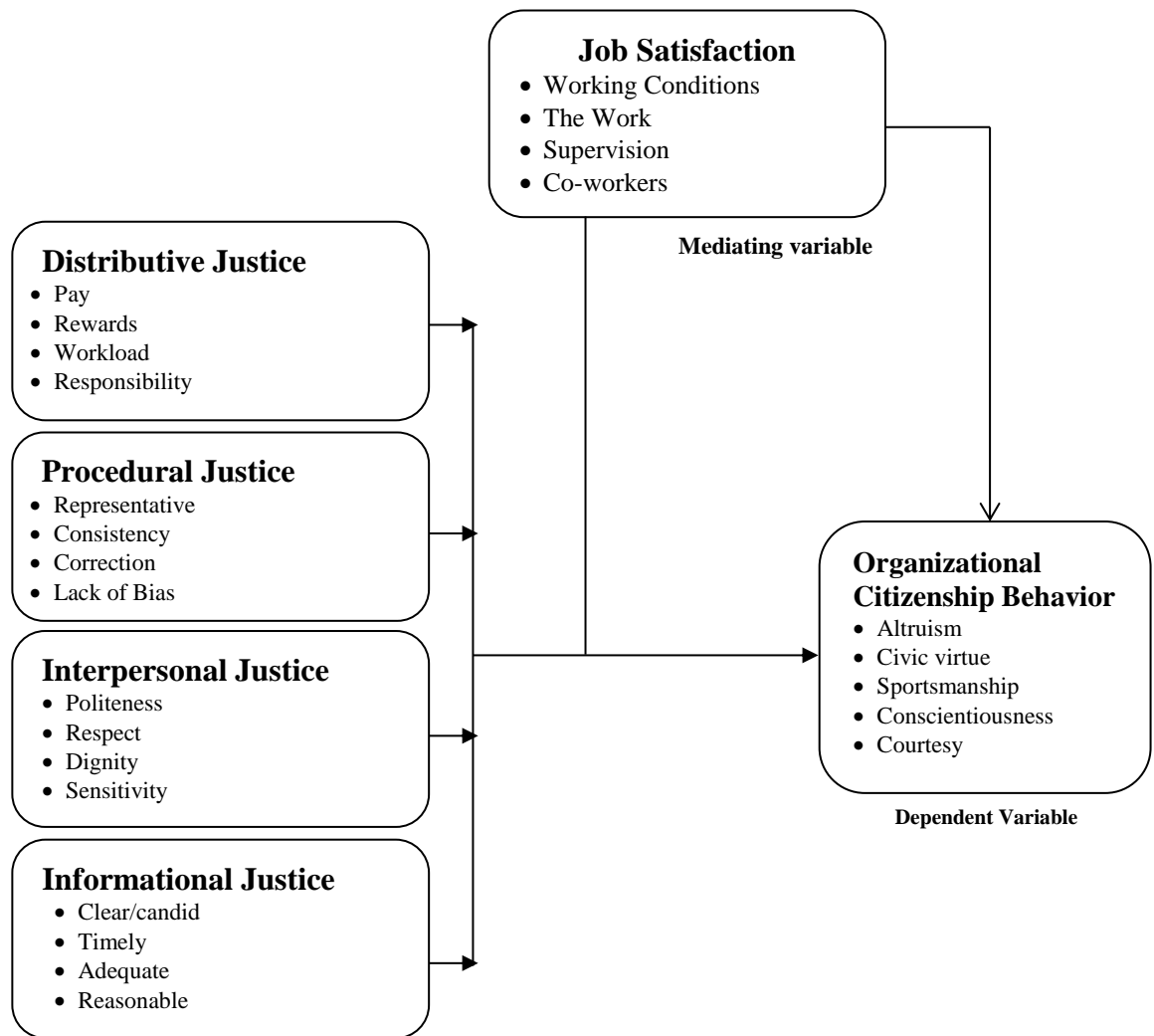


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Researcher, 2023

As shown in the figure 2.1 the study hypothesized a direct and an indirect/mediated relationship between the organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour, the independent and dependent variables. In the direct relationship organizational justice was thought to influence OCB directly as indicated by objective one to four. In the indirect model organizational justice was thought to influence job satisfaction which then influenced OCB. job satisfaction was thought mediate the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour.

This is according to Colquitt (2012) who reasoned out that studies on organizational justice show that indirect measures were more strongly correlated with outcomes than

direct measures and they provide more information than direct measures because they show exactly whether fairness criteria are favorable or not favorable. This study conceptualized that, a side from the direct relationship between organizational justice and OCB; this relationship could be mediated by job satisfaction. In the direct effect organizational justice was related to organizational citizenship under distributive justice, procedural justice, informational justice, and interpersonal justice. In the indirect effect organizational justice was thought to affect job satisfaction which in turn affected organizational citizenship behavior, the dependent variable. The mediation effect of job satisfaction was also reviewed. The review was done by analyzing debates that have been advanced by various studies that have been conducted.

2.3.1 Organizational Justice

The concept of organizational justice was coined by Greenberg (1987) who defined it as a set of social, psychological and sociological theories that illustrated perceptions of fairness that reveal the effects of justice in the workplace on the individual and the organization. Moorman (1991) expressed it as employees' perceptions of the fairness of decision-making and decision-making processes, and the influence of these perceptions on workplace behaviour. It has also been considered as the degree to which an individual feels treated equally within the organization (Gibson , Ivancevich , & Donnelly, 2012). It looks at how fairly an organization behaves towards its employees (Jufrizen & Kumala, 2023). Kurian (2018) argues that organizational justice or fairness is considered as a limited form of social justice and refers to the fair and proper administration of laws that conform to the natural justice law. Mrwebi (2019) suggests that justice can be questioned both in the processes followed in making decisions as well as the decisions being made.

Organizational justice is important as it brings people together and makes them more contribute to achievement of organizational objectives (Al-ali, Qalaja, & Abu-Rumman, 2019). A person's perception of justice is directly related to their satisfaction with society and the workplace (Andreyenkova, 2017). When justice prevails for all employees in an organization it will help to develop effective working relationships,

and will enhance the integrity of an organization, among its stakeholders (Sheeraz, Ungku, Ishaq., & Nor, 2021). Prevalence of justice is the glue that motivates employees to work together to fulfill the organization's goals (Rupp , Shapiro , Folger , Skarlicki, & Shao, 2017). Perception of organizational justice increases when the organization ensures that all procedures provide consistent treatment, lack bias, is accurate can be corrected, and represent views of relevant people, and are ethical (Rupp , Cropanzano, & Meghan, 2016).

Cropanzano and Ambrose (2015) argues that justice is not necessarily for economic benefit, nor compassion, but the application and use of a set of moral principles that guide how people behave toward others. Justice is an aspect of morality and prevails upon those persons with power and authority to make moral decisions that ensures that subordinates are not exploited (Blader & Rothman, 2014). Organizational justice is different from legal justice, which looks at a substantive due process; they are different from the feelings of favorability or satisfaction with outcome, but explain unique variations in key attitudes and behaviors such as OCB (Colquitt J. A., 2012)

Currently, organizational justice has been conceptualized as a function of three variables; interactional, distributive and procedural justice (Oussama, Muhammad , Saiful, Nurul, & Rawiyah , 2019; Mohammad , Junaimah Jauhar1, Zurina, Zurina, & Mohsen, 2020). Initially, the focus on justice was viewed at the decision on outcome allocation level known as distributive justice where individuals reacted to outcome allocation by comparing the ratio of their inputs to those of relevant other (Homans, 1961; Blau, 1964; Adams, 1965).

Procedural justice developed from the need for fairness in the processes leading to making the allocation decisions that are consistent, free from bias, accurate, correctability, and ethical (Thibaut & Walker, (1975). Interaction justice emerged when Bies and Moag (1986) questioned the perception of justice as a two-factor concept made up of distributive and procedural justice by reasoning that a decision was composed of three aspects; the decision, the process, and the interpersonal interaction. On this aspect the scholars believed that the decision and the process were well captured by the two concept, but the third, interpersonal interactions, was not

captured, which they named interactional justice. Interactional justice was therefore fostered when people in authority communicated details of procedures in a respectful and proper manner, and justified decisions using honest and truthful information (Colquitt, 2012). This led to the conceptualization of organizational justice as a three-factor model.

Later studies by Greenberg (1987; 1991) viewed interactional justice as a concept that could be broken into two; informational justice and interpersonal justice. This fact was borne out of the reasoning that interactions had two perspectives; the respect and propriety of rules and the justification and truthfulness in rules. Accordingly, interpersonal justice was considered to deal with respect and propriety while informational justice looked at justification and truthfulness (Andreyenkova, 2017). This split in interactional justice led to four dimensions of organizational justice; distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015; Kurian, 2018; Das & Mohanty, 2023; Das & Mohanty, 2023). This is now known as the Colquitt four-factor model (Colquitt, 2012).

2.3.2 Distributive Justice

Distributive justice has been defined as the degree to which the appropriate allocation norm is followed in a given decision-making context (Colquitt J. A., 2012). It refers to the perception of the fairness of the results obtained by the employees (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021). It is the sharing of results such as penalties or rewards, wages, status and promotions among individuals and the perceptions of employees regarding the fairness of these results (Addai, Kyeremeh, Abdulai, & Sarfo, 2018). It relates to allocations decisions that make some people in the organization to get certain resources while others do not (Kurian, 2018). Distributive justice is rooted in the Equity and Social exchange theories. From equity theory perspective distribution of resources should be in accordance with contributions (Colquit, 2001).

The social exchange theory partakes that when in an exchange relationship each one expects fair exchanges (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015). Therefore employees believe that, employment as a social exchange with the organization, provides fair valued work-related outcomes (Greenberg & Baron, 2008). In determining fairness or lack of it,

employees then look at other employees within the organization and to their social circle, and relate their experiences with relevant others, to find out whether justice is applied to them (Alzayed, Jauhar, & Mohaidin, 2017).

In determining distributive justice, employees look at the ratios of what they get (outcomes) relative to what they contribute (inputs), and what co-workers get (Dar, 2017). These comparisons may go further to previous experiences, expectations, and satisfaction to determine distributive justice (Blau, 1964). The comparisons relate to economic/tangible factors such as salary or social/intangible issues, such as recognition (Anak, Ida, & Gusti, 2016). Inputs such as education and experience, job stress and strains, and their seniority, are compared to outputs such as salary and promotion (Earlyanti & Hamid, 2023). In case of unfairness the reaction would be anger, unhappiness, displeasure or guilt which will cause decrease in the input (Cropanzano, Rupp, Thornton, & Shao, 2016).

Distributive justice is theorized in terms of equity, equality and need. Equity refers to the perceived ratio of outcomes where employees determine if they have been treated fairly by examining the ratio of their inputs such as effort, time, and cognitive resources among others to outcomes like pay, promotions, opportunity for professional development among others, and then comparing this to the input-to-output ratio referent other (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015). Equity requires that benefits be distributed similarly among similar individuals and differently to individuals who are different (Hong & Tang-Hua, 2014). In equity not all workers are treated in a similar manner, but the allocation should be differentiated (Polychompoo, 2017).

Equality, on the other hand, means that in distribution of resources and outcomes all individual should receive the same amount irrespective of their contribution (Wanderi, 2016). Although some individuals may quite fairly receive more favourable treatment than another, based on the rule of equality, all are considered equal and should have an equal chance of receiving a particular outcome or reward (Mrwebi, 2019). Equality is based on the equality rule which dictates that everyone should receive similar outcomes regardless of their needs or contributions. Distributive equality is used to

address any imbalance occasioned by equitable distribution as the nature of employees is to be treated alike (Shruti & Padmakumari, 2013).

Need in distribution require that each person receive resources in accordance with what they require most urgently (Ophillia, 2015). Resources should be given to employees who need them most (Mrwebi , 2019). Pointing out the five norms of distributive justice as; equality, equity, power, need, and responsibility, Forsyth (2018), reckons that distribution of resources should be based on the need norm where those with the most resources are responsible for sharing them with those who have less. Distributive justice is usually perceived from outcome such as hiring decisions, outcomes of performance appraisals, pay raise requests, training opportunities, and decisions in downsizing and layoffs (Kurian, 2018). Employees exert their efforts on their jobs and expect to be fairly compensated in return (Mrwebi , 2019).

Pay/salary, benefits, satisfying supervision, job status among others help employees to determine fairness when compared to effort, education intelligence, experience skills, seniority, age, sex, ethnic backgrounds, and social status (Al-Zawahreh & Al-Madi, 2012). When the comparison is determined to be unfair then the employee emotions and ultimately performance will drop (Hong & Tang-Hua, 2014). Distributive justice is a very important factor for organizational functioning (Alkahtani, 2015). The importance of distributive justice is seen in fact that when employees perceive inequity, they will try restoring equity by altering their own inputs and outcomes or those of others. For example when employees feel they do not receive fair compensation from their organization, they will engage in negative work-related actions, such as interpersonal conflict, aggression, and absenteeism (Tae-Soo & Kuk-Kyoung Moon, 2023).

2.3.3 Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is another dimension of organizational justice. Procedural justice is concerned with the fairness of the decision process leading to the distribution of a certain outcome (Kurian, 2018). It is the justice in the processes that lead to making given decision which are aimed at satisfying certain allocation criteria that may be considered fair and appropriate (Greenberg, 2010). Prevalence of procedural justice

means that organizational processes such as payments, participation in decisions making, giving information about results, are applied equally among employees (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021). Notably, not only do the outcomes individuals receive, but the fairness of the process used to plan and implement a given decision, plays an important role for perception of procedural justice (Al-ali , Qalaja, & Abu-Rumman, 2019).

Kurian (2018) has highlighted six rules that are a foundation to procedural justice. They include consistency; suppression of self-interest or bias; information accuracy, opportunity for correcting procedures, procedure representativeness, and morality and ethicality. Procedural justice is perceived through the processes used when hiring new employees, method used to select employees for training opportunities, and selection of employees for downsizing or layoffs (Addai, Kyeremeh, Abdulai, & Sarfo, 2018). Procedural justice is fostered through voice during a decision-making process, influence over the outcome, or by adherence to fair process criteria (Colquitt J. A., 2012). When there are perceptions of procedural justice employees may be willing to accept an unwanted outcome and may sacrifice personal gains (Kurian, 2018). Lane and Aplin-Houtz (2022) points out four models accepted for how employees interpret procedural justice. These models include; the outcomes model, where justice is perceived based on weighting them against the final effort put into an organizational task; the balancing model which reflects the equitable allocation that ensure each employee go through same processes and procedure. The participation model looks at fairness as weighed against employees' equal opportunity to access or impact how each other employee participates in processes in the organization (Karriker & Williams , 2009). The group engagement model describes procedural justice as where a group's procedural justice process influences employees' identification with the organization, and thereby influences their type of engagement within the group (Cohen-Carash & Spector, 2018).

Procedural justice is particular on the involvement of employees in decision making and focused on the way good systems are used to make decisions on sharing out of resources (Mina, Mohammad, Farshad, & Ali, 2015). It is more important for employees in cases where results obtained for the organization are taken very seriously

and used seriously for decision making (Mutero, 2017). Procedural justice is derived from recognizing the equity of organizational policies and procedures that are responsible for decisions made by management and the allocation of resources (Ploychompoo, 2017). Thibaut and Walker (1975) were the pioneers of procedural influences. According to them procedural fairness patents the chance given to employees to participate in the processes used to reach outcomes affects them. Fair procedures are elucidated when they are consistent with the fundamental moral guidelines for all stakeholders as they affect employees' thoughts about the entire organization (Shruti & Padmakumari, 2013).

Procedural justice emphasizes on the impartiality of the processes, policies, procedures, and criteria by which results are determined (Al-ali , Qalaja, & Abu-Rumman, 2019). It deals with means allocating outcomes, not specifically to the outcomes themselves, but establishes certain principles specifying and governing the role of participants during the decision-making process (Mrwebi , 2019). According to Das and Mohanty (2023) procedural justice describes distributive justice as employees will view organizational process as equitable when they participate in the process of decision-making; when they are given an opportunity or options to amend or change the decisions which have been made; when they believe that the allocation method used were based on positive knowledge; when the allocation processes are stable and reliable across individuals and over time, and when throughout the allocation process, there was no element of self-interest and bias.

2.3.4 Interpersonal Justice

Interpersonal justice focuses on the sensitivity, politeness and respect employees receive from their superiors during application of procedures (Ophillia, 2015). It refers to the thoroughness of the information provided as well as the amount of dignity and respect demonstrated when presenting an undesirable outcome, avoiding rude or cruel remarks (Cropanzano, Rupp, Thornton, & Shao, 2016). Interpersonal justice focuses on interpersonal and group communication where certain behaviors are recognized as fair whereas other behaviors are considered as inappropriate and unfair in a given group (Mirmohhamdi & Marefat, 2014). Interpersonal justice is demonstrated when

supervisors explain decisions to employees while treating them with dignity and respect and showing concern for them regarding the distributive outcomes they receive (Mutero, 2017). It relates to perceptions of the treatment and level of respect experienced by employees during organizational internal actions (Lane & Aplin-Houtz, 2022).

Interpersonal treatment includes interpersonal communication, respect, the propriety of questions, justification, honesty, courtesy, timely feedback, and respect for rights (Mohamed, 2014). Colquitt and Rodell (2015) have argued that interpersonal justice denotes the level at which workers feel treated with politeness, dignity, and respect by authority figures involved in executing procedures or determining outcomes. Chuang et al. (2014), note that interpersonal justice is evidenced by a supervisor who is respectful and polite when dealing with employees.

For positive perception of interpersonal justice decision-makers should always have respect, say the truth, be courteous, and be in a position to provide good reasons regarding the decision they make (Greenberg, 2010). Interpersonal justice was initially captured under procedural justice framework, but recent studies have established it as a significant component of organizational justice that should be treated as a separate measure (Mutero, 2017). Interpersonal justice is important in shaping employee health and is associated with better mental health (Fisher & Howell, 2014).

Researchers believe that if supervisors in an organization explained given situation and reasons for particular action such as layoff to employee candidly, sensitively, and truthfully, it will result in a positive feeling in the mind of the affected employee (Andreyenkova, 2017). Conversely, interpersonal justice enhances employee's preparation for reception of negative feedback (Chuang, Lee, & Shen, 2014). Therefore supervisors and managers in organizations should demonstrate adequate sensitivity and concern toward employees and treat them with dignity and respect so as to enable employees be willing to tolerate the combination of an unfair distributions and procedures because sensitivity can make people feel better about an unfavorable outcome (Wanderi, 2016; Mohamed, 2014). Guang, Ying and Huang (2023) insists

that negative emotions can be regarded as a link between interpersonal distrust and knowledge hiding.

Low interpersonal justice among employees can evoke strong emotional reactions. Subordinates will be very sensitive to interpersonal fairness because it portends the tenor of future relational engagements (Leineweber, Peristera, Claudia , & Constanze , 2020). Interpersonal justice is an important indicator of an employee's standing and value in a group and it indicates socioemotional relevance. It evokes negative feelings like sadness, frustration, and anger, which result in negative attitudes such as poor organizational commitment, and ultimately lead to withdrawal behavior, such as higher rates of absenteeism, increased turnover intentions, and, turnover (Cropanzano, Rupp, Thornton, & Shao, 2016).

2.3.5 Informational Justice

Informational justice was derived from interactional justice and focuses on the explanations provided to people that convey information about why procedures were used in a certain way or why outcomes were distributed in a given fashion (Kurian, 2018). Informational justice refers to the explanation or the justification of information provided by decision-makers as to why outcomes were distributed in a certain way (Ophillia, 2015). Informational justice requires that the information provided by those in authority about organizational processes and procedures is comprehensive, reasonable, truthful, timely and candid (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015). It relates to the explanations adequacy that is given in timeliness, specificity, and truthfulness of information communicated to the employee (Lane & Aplin-Houtz, 2022).

Informational justice considers the extent and effort made by the organizational and its agents in justifying decisions and procedures especially when things go wrong (Mrwebi , 2019). Informational justice may change the reaction and receptivity of employees to procedures as it helps them understand the underlying rationale for decisions. It aims at identifying whether employers or their agents give workers sufficient explanations with an emphasis on timeliness, specialty, and truthfulness (Das & Mohanty, 2023).

Information justice gives the organization and its agents an opportunity to convey information about why certain procedures were used in a certain way or why outcomes were distributed in a certain way. It entails not only providing employees with adequate, good quality, honest information but also demonstrating genuineness in the intent of the procedures (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015).

It is based on clarity on performance goals setting and standards, providing timely feedback, clarity of expectations, and explanations of how the performance appraisal outcome will be arrived at (Thurston Jr & McNall, 2010). The importance of informational justice is that they tend to inspire feelings of loyalty and voluntary compliance to policies and rules in the employee (Srivastava, 2015). It is true that when employees feel that the communication they get from their superiors is done sensitively and respectfully and they treated with politeness and dignity they are more likely to argue that the information was given out fairly (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Informational justice is thought to consist of factors that enhance individual perceptions of the efficacy of explanations provided by organizational agents (Greenberg & Baron 2008).

Scott et al. (2014) argue that managers have a fair amount of control over informational justice because it is less constrained by the organizational system. Adequate explanations help employees to evaluate and understand the structural aspects of procedures and the allocations process (Karanja, 2016). It gives employees confidence that decisions made by the organization originate from and are made based on fair information (Mutero, 2017). Informational justice enhances quality performance of employees as it motivates employees to follow organizational standards and trust in managers that lead to delivery of quality service (Mohamed, 2014). Informational justice significantly improves employees' job satisfaction with the appraisal feedback and supervisors thereby leading to self-improvement, personal development as well as achievement of personal and organizational objectives (Hermant & Srimulyani, 2022).

2.3.6 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to the contentment a worker has with his/her job, and the affective or emotional feelings derived from it (Elian , Paramitha , Gunawan , &

Maharani, 2020). It is the feelings and attitudes of people toward their job, and the positive or negative emotional attitude regarding their work, whether in pleasant or unpleasant circumstances (Jufrizen & Kumala, 2023). It may also be referred to as the level of affective responses expressed by individuals, indicating how much they like their job and how much it meets their needs (Ahmad, Hussain , & Razzaq, 2017). Job satisfaction therefore is the joyful and positive emotional state of mind of an employee as a result of job, appraisals or job experiences (Mushtang et al., 2014); the feeling of happiness with one's current job (Ismaya , Setiawan , Sulistyarini , Winart, & Nabila , 2020).

Job satisfaction is obtained when an organization can meet employee needs such as helping them achieve work goals, fitting in the dynamics of the work environment, and other aspects that support employees at work (Kadiyono , Sulistiobudi , Haris, & Ramdani, 2020). Job satisfaction is individual in that the more aspects of a job that are by the individual's desires, the higher the level of satisfaction felt, and vice versa (Jufrizen & Kanditha, 2021). A person's sense of satisfaction with work can be reflected through the level of morale, discipline, motivation, productivity, achievement and high work performance.

A person's job satisfaction is measured by calculating the difference between what it should be and the perceived reality that is, and when the desired minimum meets the reality (Kim & Yoon, 2019). It measures the extent to which the employee receives value in return from the organization (Mustikawati & Suana, 2018). It is a general attitude towards a person's job which shows the difference between the amount of appreciation they receive and the amount they should get (Akbar, 2023).

According to O'Connell (2022), the basis of job satisfaction is the Herzberg's two factor theory which suggests that unsatisfied needs lead to a state of tension within the employee. The theory argues that satisfaction factors and dissatisfaction factors are distinct and separate, and need isolation (Miah, 2018). If employee job satisfaction is maintained it result in high morale which help in of company goals (Aeknarajindawat & Jermsttiparsert, 2020). Employees who are satisfied with their jobs will do positive things for the organization; help others and exceeding normal work expectations (Na-

Nan , Kanthong , Joungtrakul, & Smith, 2020). Employees who are satisfied can do anything for the company (Sujono, Tunas , & Sudiarditha, 2020). Spector (2019) notes that job satisfaction is affected by factors related to the job environment and the job, and factors related to the individual such as previous experiences and personality; social, personal, cultural, environmental, and organizational factors.

Social relationships at work place, individuals' abilities to do their work, and the quality of supervision induce workers into job satisfaction. This is typified in employee's satisfaction with social relationships such as friendship and within an organizational environment such as fair treatment (Indarti , Solimun, & Hakim, 2017). Kumara and Fasana, (2019) classifies these affecting job satisfaction as extrinsic and intrinsic comprising or motivational and hygiene factors. Job satisfaction is therefore affected by motivational and hygiene factors ((Hur, 2017).

a) Motivational factors

Motivational factors are referred to as intrinsic factors (Heron , Coseano , & Bruk-Lee, 2018). Intrinsic job satisfactions are derived from performing work and consequently experiencing feelings of accomplishment, self-actualization and identity, and ones significance to the organization, recognition, advancement, achievement, autonomy, work itself and responsibility (Hao et al., 2016). Motivational have been considered as the main drivers of job satisfaction. Motivators included achievements, recognition, responsibility, work advancement (Band, Shah, & Sriram, 2016).

Motivators or job content factors make employees to exert effort and contribute (Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015). These factors are very effective in creating and maintaining more durable positive effects on employees' job performance and propel employees to insert additional interest, hence job satisfaction (Ogbogu, 2017).

b) Hygiene Factors

Hygiene factors also known as extrinsic job satisfaction are characterized by the sense of contentment related to working conditions, interpersonal relations, supervision, job security, benefits, company policies, salary and management (Prasetio , Yuniarsih , &

Ahman, 2017). Hygiene factors were the main causes of job dissatisfaction (Alrawahi, Sellgren, Altouby, Alwahaibi, & Brommels, 2020). They include working conditions, salaries, relationships, administrative policies, and supervision. These factors contribute less to employee motivation but were required to prevent employees' dissatisfaction (Alshmemri, Maude, & Phillip, 2017). These factors create a favourable working environment where employees feel comfortable to work. The factors fulfil the need to avoid unpleasantness.

In job satisfaction, Addai, Kyeremeh, Abdulai and Sarfo (2018) content that presence of extrinsic factors will only eliminate work dissatisfaction but will not provide job satisfaction. Likewise sufficient supply of intrinsic Factors will cultivate employees' inner growth and development that will lead to a higher productivity and performance; however, they will not eliminate feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. According to Bevins (2018) motivation and hygiene factors are determined on two separate continua for each employee. Motivators are evaluated on a range from neutrality to highly satisfied, whereas Hygiene factors are evaluated on a range from neutrality to highly dissatisfied.

This hypothesis was assessing whether job satisfaction would be a mediator in the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour. Mediation is a hypothesized causal chain in which one variable affects a second variable that, in turn, affects a third variable (Fritz, Taylor, & Mackinnon, 2012). According to the University of Indiana (2014) rather than a direct causal relationship between the independent and the dependent variables, as in figure 4.1 of the total or direct effect, the independent variables (X) influences the mediator variable (M) which in turn influences the dependent variable (Y) as in figure 4.2 of the indirect effect.

2.3.7 Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) are positive behaviors which enable employees to perform their jobs beyond what they are formally required to do in their job description (Ghanbari & Eskandari, 2016). Organizational citizenship behaviour describes employee's voluntary behaviour that is not part of his or her contractual tasks and is usually discretionary in nature (Mrwebi , 2019).

Organ (1988) introduced the term OCB and defined it as individual behavior based on volunteering, which is not directly and fully taken into account in formal job descriptions, but helps the organization as a whole to fulfill its functions efficiently. These are behaviours that employees are not obliged to do but they behaviors have positive effects on the continuity and effectiveness of the organization (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021).

OCB is believed to be derived from the freewill, inner drive of members for the good of an organization (Bhatti , et al., 2019). In OCB employees help others at the workplace, work overtime, contribute to corporate events and make useful suggestions for improvement of the organization, and are willing to work instead of a friend who is unwell (Bambale , Shamsudin, & Subramanian, 2011). When people have the willingness to help others to accomplish their job it helps an organization in the achievement of its purposes, (Pedro, Rúben , Guilherme, & Costa, 2021).

This is a behavior that benefits or is intended to benefit the organization is discretionary, and goes beyond existing role expectations (Das & Mohanty, 2023). Organizational citizenship behaviour is a behaviour all organizations require from their employees to achieve their goals but employees cannot be punished for lacking them as they can't be defined by the organization (Mehdizadeh, Manzari, Salajeghe, & Sheikhi, 2018). Gün, Söyük, and Memis (2021) have given three reasons why organizations cannot define OCB and include them in formal job descriptions. First, they argue that OCBs are not noticeable and cannot be evaluated objectively; secondly, they affirm that some forms of organizational citizenship behavior could distract employees from their duties in order to help other people, and thirdly, that, there is no punishment sanction for not showing an organizational citizenship behavior.

OCBs occur when a worker embraces an organization's core values to such a degree that the person is inspired to go beyond job rewards and requirements and to act in ways that will improve the workplace (Ismaelzadeh et al., 2016). OCB is a behaviour which is non-mandated and is based on independent individual initiatives and contributes to the best interests of the organization (Bienstock *et al.*, 2013). In OCB employees willingly contribute extra effort for the attainment of organizational

outcomes and that supervisors cannot demand or force their subordinates to perform them (Shruti & kumari, 2013). Ciner *et al.* (2013) reveal that OCBs are necessary for the good functioning of an organization.

Organizational citizenship behaviors mean doing a better job, making an effort above and beyond formal requirements and filling the gap between procedures and regulations and exerting exceptionally good behavior for the sake of the organization and informally supporting its members (Sergio & Antonio, 2017). Mohammad, Junaimah Jauhar¹, Zurina, Zurina, and Mohsen (2020) argue for the benefit of OCB and note them as behaviours which help employees extend beyond the performance indicators in the formal job description and reflect employees' actions that surpass the minimum role requirements.

Many scholars have highlighted benefits of OCB to organizations. Guyo (2015) regards OCBs as behaviors which can help maximize the efficiency and productivity of both employees and the organization. Kumar, Jena, & Kumar (2016) notes that OCBs inherently strives employees to extend their discretionary behaviors beyond the expected normal duties. Harper (2015) on the hand says that OCBs drive consolidation of the relationship between goals of employees and those of the firm which provide avenues for achieving overall aims of the organization. OCB contributes to the productivity of the organization and the motivation of the employees; make employees to help each other in their difficult times and to protect the organization and its friends from all kinds of dangers and problems, and contributes significantly to the environment of peace within the organization (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021).

OCB are behaviours which make employees to persist with enthusiasm, extra effort, volunteer to carry their job, help and cooperate with others, follow organizational rules and procedures, and endorse, support, and defend the organizational objectives (Shin & Lee, 2015). Such actions contribute to the effectiveness of the organization by shaping the organizational social and psychological context that catalyzes task activities and processes. Organizational citizenship behaviour ensures organizational obedience, Organizational loyalty, and organizational participation (Alzayed et al., 2017). Demir (2015) argue OCB help in coordinating activities in an organization

within and across workgroups, reduces need to devote scarce resources to maintenance functions and strengthens organizational ability to attract and retain the best employees and increases its stability and to adapt more to environmental changes.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviours include traditional in-role behaviors, pertinent extra-role behaviors, and political behaviors that enhance employees' full and responsible organizational participation (Jahingir , Akbar , & Hag, 2014). Organ (1988) defined OCB as any discretionary behavior that goes beyond routine duties and supports one's social or psychological environment and proposed five dimensions of OCB: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue.

a) Altruism

Altruism includes all discretionary behaviours that concern helping other people with an organizationally relevant task or problem (Mrwebi , 2019). They involve an employee doing the duties of an absent employee, or helping an employee who has been absent so that the workload can be shared and the task completed (Earlyanti & Hamid, 2023). . People with prominent levels of altruism are selfless and work well in teams (Ocampo, et al., 2018). Altruism behaviour may include orientation of new employees or volunteering to do things and helping employees outside ones department (Kaur & Randhawa, 2021).

It involves an employee giving help without expecting anything in return because he or she wants to improve the lives of others (Das & Mohanty, 2023). In altruism, employees increase their performance and effectiveness by helping other employees such as using tools and equipment, completing tasks, giving certain information, and preparing projects or presentation on time on behalf of others who may be unable (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021). Altruism is about being compassionate and kind, where the good of others is essential, even at the cost of one self (Ahmad, Nawaz, Ishaq, Khan, & Ashraf, 2022).

b) Courtesy

Courtesy refers to individuals doing good deeds and showing respect to others (Basu , Pradhan , & Tewari, 2017). It means being respectful, helpful, and assisting in ways that prevent problems in the organization (Indarti , Solimun, & Hakim, 2017). Courteous employees inform others when their action might interfere with their jobs (Sujono, Tunas , & Sudiarditha, 2020). An example of courteous behaviour would be to give notices about something which can potentially cause problems and which no one else has noticed or point a situation so that a problematic situation does not actually occur (Mrwebi , 2019). Courtesy manifests in interaction and consideration for others to avoid unforeseen problems (Earlyanti & Hamid, 2023). Courteous people usually minimize group conflicts, leading managers to work more efficiently (Ocampo, et al., 2018).

c) Conscientiousness

This is a behaviour of an employee`s willingness to being always on time, present, and mindful of their work (Indarti , Solimun, & Hakim, 2017) . It is an impersonal behavior that benefits the entire organization and not another employee or person. Employees do it to benefit the organization like following rules (Das & Mohanty, 2023). It makes an employee compliant with an organizational rules and regulation. It involves employees who are always punctual and do not take unnecessary time off during working hours, not spending time on personal calls, not engaging in non-work-related talk and coming to work early and not taking excessive time off (Basu , Pradhan , & Tewari, 2017). Conscientiousness means that employees show more than expected in conserving resources, punctuality, participation, continuity among other beneficial behaviours (Sujono, Tunas , & Sudiarditha, 2020). Employees make efforts to come to work on time in bad weather conditions, complying with tea, coffee and meal breaks, attending meetings organized within the organization on time and regularly working overtime to complete unfinished work (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021). Such workers generally exceed standard requirements (Ocampo, et al., 2018).

d) Sportsmanship

This is behaviour where an employee focuses on the positive rather than the negative side of the organisation (Indarti , Solimun, & Hakim, 2017). It defines an employee who has the ability to willingly persist in doing challenging tasks and work environments without complaining, tolerate bothersome conditions in the organization (O'Connell, 2022). Sportsmanship employees do not complain about trivial matters or express resentment or complain about necessary changes that are implemented by management; they always make the best of every situation (Mrwebi , 2019). They focus on positive aspects instead of negatives in the organization (Lavanya & Sree, 2021). Such employees are able to work through difficult situations without complaining (Bhatti , et al., 2019). Sportsmanship involves not complaining but accepting the situation as it could be despite all the difficulties it brings (Sujono, Tunas , & Sudiarditha, 2020).

e) Civic virtue

This is an employee behaviour which encompasses constructive involvement and responsible participation in the life and affairs of the organisation (Mrwebi , 2019). It usually inculcated in an organization's life and culture and employees will enjoy attending business functions like organizational meetings and picnics which are not mandatory for employees (Hermant & Srimulyani, 2022). Employees who display civic virtue stays informed about what is going on in the organisation (Ocampo, et al., 2018). They attending meetings and keeping abreast of news within the organisation and offer suggestions about ways to improve operations in the organization (Rotich, 2022). Employees who display civic virtue act with a sense of responsibility, voluntarily giving ideas on how to develop and enhance the organization's work, and showing that she or he is interested in the worker and organization initiative (Gün, Söyük, & Memis, 2021). People with high levels of civic virtue have high involvement within the company which can increase performance quality within the organization (Ocampo, et al., 2018).

Studies confirm the positive relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and employee performance. These studies include (Rotich, 2022) who found s a

positive and significant relationship at $p < 0.05$. The study noted that the success of any organization was not only determined by employee behavior determined job descriptions, but also behavior outside the job description, described as extra-behaviour like OCB. Organizations with employees who go beyond their job description have proven to have a comparative advantage over other companies (Nadeak, Widodo, Asbari, & Novitasari, 2021). (Pedro, Rúben, Guilherme, & Costa, 2021). Organizational citizenship behaviour is positively related to individual and organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction (Ocampo, et al., 2018).

2.4 Empirical Review

Many studies have looked at the relationship that exists between perceptions of organizational justice and organizational citizenship. These studies have looked at the two variables as related either direct or indirectly. This section looks at some of these studies, their objectives, methodologies, and findings.

2.4.1 Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Research on organizational justice has intensified due to its significant relationship to many organizational outcomes such as with OCBs (Aeknarajindawat & Jemsittiparsert, 2020; Sujono, Tunas, & Sudiarditha, 2020), job satisfaction (Akbar, 2023), performance (Moon, 2017), and organizational commitment (Cahyono, Novitasari, Sihotang, & Aman, 2020). Many scholars have found direct and indirect relationship between organizational justice and OCB (O'Connell, 2022). Similarly many other studies have found direct and indirect relationship between the dimensions of organizational justice including distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, and OCB (Asaad, Lubna, & Ayman, 2019; Das & Mohanty, 2023). Further, there are those studies which have found insignificant relationship between dimensions of organizational justice and OCB as it will be illustrated here.

For example Gün, Söyük and Memis (2021) did a study to determine the level of organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior of health professionals working in public hospitals in Turkey, and the effect of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behavior. The study applied a cross-sectional design and

selected all the 101 healthcare professionals working in the public hospital. The participants responded to 5-point Likert type questionnaire. The analysis of data was done through frequencies, t-test and one way ANOVA to compare mean scores.

The study found that employees who had worked in the institution for 7 years or more had higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviour. Those who had worked for 10 years and more had increased level of perception of organizational justice. Further the study revealed that organizational justice had a significant effect on all sub-dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. This study concluded that organizational justice positively and significantly affected organizational citizenship. Although the effect was not too strong, it was noted that an increase in organizational justice increased the level of organizational citizenship behaviors.

Kangyao, Xiaofu, jian, Jinglin and Yun (2023) studied the relationship between teacher's perception of organizational justice and their organizational citizenship behavior. The participants in the study were 1440 teachers distributed in 32 schools in in two provinces, Chongqing and Chen Zhou, Hunan Province in China. The participants responded to a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire. Means, standard deviations, and correlation, together with regression were used to analyse data collected. The results revealed that teachers' perception of justice; procedural and distributive justice, were positively and significantly related with OCB at $r=0.32$ and $r=0.29$, respectively, $p < 0.001$. Organizational justice explained 10% of variations in OCB.

The study also found that procedural justice had a more strong positive prediction function on OCB at $\beta = 0.26$, $P < 0.001$ than distributive justice which failed to reach a significant level ($\beta = 0.07$, $P > 0.05$). The study contemplated that organizational procedures were more important than the distribution of resources to teachers in their participation in OCB. The insignificant predictive power of distributive justice was attributed to fact that teachers, being intellectuals, put more emphasis on justice in procedures than on resources whose distribution follow laid down procedures and rules. This study applied the two-factor model of organizational justice which has been

found to be inferior to the three and four-factor model of organizational justice (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015).

O'Connell (2022) studied the relationships among job satisfaction, Organizational Justice, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors, and Adaptability. In establishing this study he argued that researchers had recommended that additional performance variables should be used together with the typical predictor of task performance to measure organizational effectiveness. The study employed a cross-sectional design and collected data using Prolific online crowdsourcing platform from a sample of 52 participants who were full-time workers within an organization in the United States. The study used mean scores and standard deviation for descriptive statistics, and correlation and regression for inferential statistics. The means scores indicated moderate levels of organizational justice which translated into less OCB. Correlation coefficients indicated a lack of a statistically significant relationship between distributive justice and OCBs, ($r=-.07$, $p=.626$), procedural justice and OCBs ($r=.04$, $p=.775$), and a significant relationship between interactional justice and OCBs ($r=.18$, $p=.001$).

These findings were noted to have deviated from previous findings by scholars like Sujono, Tunas, and Sudiarditha (2020) and Aeknarajindawat and Jermsttiparsert (2020) which had indicated positive and significant relationship between the justice dimensions and OCB. The Researchers argued that the main reason could be that the study was carried out during the Covid-19 pandemic and participants would have been working remotely and had decreased interactions with co-workers making them unable to display OCB. Similarly, the increase in mental health among the workers could have impacted on their ability to accomplish given tasks, and have extra energy to help others.

This study affirmed the importance of work environments in studying OCB. It noted that in order to understand OCB well it was prudent to examine the setting of the workplace and recognise in-person or remote working conditions. When dealing with such scenarios the study recommended the use different OCB scales so as to come up

with differentiated results. There are differences in OCBs between employees working in in-person and those working remotely.

Das and Mohanty (2023) examined the impact of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behavior in higher educational institutions in India. Organizational justice was found to significantly and positively affect OCB ($p \leq 0.05$), ($r=.559$) and R-squared (.313). This study was hinged on the fact that the impact of employee professional motivation, satisfaction, and behavior could be influenced by perceptions of justice. With a sample of 1,000 faculty members, selected through purposive sampling, and a five-point Likert scale questionnaire, the study concluded that OCBs are more likely when employees perceive a high level of organizational justice. Since this study looked at employees in the higher education sector, it recommended future studies to be done regarding fairness and extra-role behavior in other sectors away from higher education institutions. The current study was set away from this sector in order to confirm this result. Similarly the current study sets to undertake a four-factor model of organizational justice different from this study that studied it under a three-model structure.

Jufrizen and Kanditha (2021) did a study on the role of job satisfaction in mediating the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behavior and using the associative approach to analyze a relationship between a variable and other variables. Their specific aim was to investigate the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behavior at PT Pelabuhan Indonesia. The study employed quantitative methodology and used purposive sampling to select 114 employees who responded to interviews and questionnaires as data collection tools.

The findings of this study indicated that organizational justice strongly and positively predicted organizational citizenship behavior at a high R-squared value (.724). The study noted that employees needed to be treated fairly in the rules and results they receive in order to develop OCB behavior. Injustice in organizations reduces work performance, the quality of work, and cooperation between workers and could lead to a lack of bonds between members, hurt individuals, and be dangerous for the organization (Mustikawati & Suana, 2018).

Bhatti, et al. (2019) did a study to investigate the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior among doctors in Srinagar. The researchers acknowledged that organizations throughout the world today are thronging unique set of opportunities and threats which require them to attract the best and the most professional human resource to survive. The study used a descriptive correlation design and selected a sample of 105 participants from a population of doctors working in five different hospitals of Srinagar city sampled randomly. Data was collected using a five-point-Likert scale questionnaire.

Through SPSS.16, mean scores ranged from 2.99-3.00 for organizational justice, and 3.5-3.85 for organizational citizenship behaviour. The correlation coefficient results indicated a positive and significant relationship between organizational justice and OCB. Distributive and procedural justices both correlated positively to OCB dimensions. Jointly the dimensions had an R-squared=.201, $p=.004$, and f-values were significantly different from zero. This study concluded that employees prefer fair distribution processes show organizational citizenship behaviors, helpful in the progress of an organization. Just policies and careful communication was essential for OCB. To increase OCB it was important to treat employees with dignity, respect and stateliness. Good leader-subordinate relations build OCBs.

Mohammad, et al. (2020) studied the effects of inter-organizational justice on dimensions of OCB in Kuwait ministries. The aim of the study was to model the relationships between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour. The study used a self-administered structured questionnaire and collected data from 573 non-managerial employees working in nine different government ministries who were selected through judgmental sampling. The findings of the study indicated that there was an insignificant relation between procedural justice and OCB against established positive relationships. Distributive and interactional justices were found to have significant relationships with all dimensions of OCB.

The researcher concluded that the reason for the insignificant relationship between procedural justice and OCB was due to employees' already emotional attachment to the rules in the sector and procedural justice was therefore not considered important.

Further it was noted that procedural justice was not enough to steer OCB in public organizations as there already exists high power distance among public sector employees. The researcher intimated that in order to enhance the relationship between organizational justice and OCB, attention should be put on the inclusion of mediating variables to help explain the relations, and also expand the concept of organizational justice from a three dimensional model to a model to include to information and interpersonal justice dimensions. The current study is set in this context, as a four-factor model, and an included model.

Asaad, Lubna and Ayman (2019) did a study to investigate the impact of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour in a Jordian pharmaceutical industry companies. This was a quantitative study that used convinient sampling techniques due to the large number of employees and the difficulty to gain access to detailed human resources data. Data was collected from 330 employees using a questionnaire and analysed using SPSS.21. The findings from mean scores ranged from 3.811-4.11, with highest being for interpersonal justice while the lowest was for procedural justice. Pearson's correlation coefficients showed a significant and positive correlation between organizational justice ($r=.588$), distributive justice (.411), procedural justice (.481), and interpersonal justice (.562), and OCBs.

Linear regression yielded an R-squared (.346) with significant f-values and t-values showing that organizational justice had a positive effect on OCBs; procedural justice, the weakest, had a positive effect but accounted for 2% of OCB. Distributive justice positively affected OCB and accounted for 6.2%. Interpersonal justice was the strongest predictor of OCBs at 31.6%. The study noted that supervisors should be consistent, refrain from improper remarks and comments, and be respectful, polite and candid with communication for development of OCB.

The study noted high levels of interpersonal justice unlike other dimensions and attributed this to the nature of the prevailing national cultural values within the Arab region, which, having a collectivistic culture, interpersonal relationships are highly valued and tight social framework is common. The relationships are perceived in moral terms like a family link and work security is guaranteed through a social network. The

study noted the role of culture in the development of OCBs in organization and confirmed the need for replication of such studies in other sectors and cultures so as to improve their generalizability, paying careful attention to issues of sources of justice, types of justice, and their interactions and dimensional models so as to establish a fixed and durable representation of the justice construct, and the role of mediators in understanding this relationship. The current study was set in this context.

Sheeraz, Ungku, Ishaq, and Nor (2021) studied the moderating role of Leader-Member exchange between the relationship of organizational Justice and organizational citizenship behavior with the aim to determine the relative impact of organizational justice dimensions on the organizational citizenship behavior of individuals (OCB-I) and organizational citizenship behavior of organizations (OCB-O). The researchers collected data from 250 faculty groups working in private higher education institutions of Pakistan who had been selected using convenience sampling technique. The study applied a multiple sources at different time-intervals method to collect data using a highly structured self-administered five-point Likert questionnaire.

The descriptive findings showed that means scores were all above 3.0 denoting agreement with the measures. Regression results indicated that organizational justice explained 27% variance in OCB-I dimensions and 32% variance in OCB-O dimensions. Distributive justice had positive impact on both dimensions of OCB-I. Procedural justice had a relatively stronger influence on OCB-I, OCB-O. The study associated the strength of the relationship between procedural justice and OCB on the fact that faculty members felt that they were granted some authority, were involved in decision-making processes.

The study discovered that Pakistani faculty members show a higher level of OCB-I and OCB-O because they believed that a university should uphold equal rights concerning salary, work procedures, and collegial interaction within the administration; the university's environment engenders trust among faculty members and there is a working environment that fosters trust among faculty members; higher fairness level given to the faculty members creates a strong sense of belongingness with the organization, which fosters them to help their colleagues. The study concluded

that perception of organizational justice motivated participants to exhibit OCB. This study recommended research in the public sector in order to validate the variables' relationship because of the differences in working conditions, policies, procedures, and interactions from a private sector where this study was carried out.

Salam (2020) examined the impact of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviours among nurses in Heet General Hospital in Iraq. The study employed quantitative methods and used a five-point Likert scale questionnaire to collect data from 200 nurses. Data collected was analysed using g Smart PLS. The findings from this study indicated that jointly procedural, distributive and interactional justice had an R squared =.504. The effect of distributive justice p-value < 0.5 and t-statistics > 1.96 with 4.803) and interactional justice, (p-value < 0.05 and t-statistics 3.737 > 1.96, on OCB were positive and significant. Distributive justice had the highest effect while procedural justice had a non-significant effect on OCBs (p-value > 0.05 and t-statistics 0.261<1.96.

The study identified hospital procedures and policies which are normally too rigid and formal and that nurses are always required following them in order to serve the patients with the care as the reason for the lack of significant relationship between procedural justice and OCB. The significance and high effect of distributive and interaction justice was attributed to the fact that nurses need to be handled in an equal and dignifiedly way by leaders or administration. The study concluded that nurses pay more attention to distributive justice, especially in distribution of workload, salaries, and promotions. They also prefer building trust in the organization through being treated with dignity and experiencing free flow of information. The major limitation of this study was its design as direct relationship hence its recommendation of the introduction of causal effect through deployment of mediators.

Mrwebi (2019) set up a study and acknowledged that limited research had been done on organisational justice in the public sector in South Africa yet the sector had created a platform of favoritism and employees display negative attitudes. The study explored the relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour in a selected TVET college in Gauteng, South Africa. The study employed

a case study design using a quantitative approach, and selected 30 employees from a population of 70 tutors in colleges using purposive sampling. A 5-point Likert-type scale questionnaire was used to collect data which was analysed using SPSS software.

The mean score results for organisational justice was 3.52 while for organisational citizenship behaviour was 5.05. Pearson Product Moment Correlation indicated no significant relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship with of $p\text{-value}=.114$. This study concluded that there was no association between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour at the College. The researcher noted that the results differed with those for developed world and believed that there could be some other factors besides perceptions of organizational justice that influenced the levels of OCB at the selected TVET College. The difference in the result was explained that developed countries had very conducive working conditions than those in developing countries like South Africa. The study suggested replication of more studies in other organization and development of a questionnaire with both closed-ended and open ended questions sections.

2.4.2 Distributive Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Studies on the relationship between distributive justice and OCB show mixed results. Some studies indicate positive and significant relationships; others show positive insignificant results while other indicates negative significant results. For example Karriker and Williams (2009) found that distributive justice was positively associated with employee OCB. In their study on employees in the USA they found that employees with high levels of distributive justice perception reported greater OCB than those with low levels.

Chen and Jin (2014) in a study in China found similar results with a confirmation that employees who perceived that they received fair rewards in the Chinese context engage in extra-role behavior that promotes effective functioning of the organization. Therefore fair distribution of extrinsic rewards, which are proportional to inputs, is a powerful predictor of OCB. Tae-Soo and Kuk-Kyoung (2023), in a cross-sectional study of a sample 4133 public employees drawn from Korean central and local governments found that distributive justice had a significant and negative impact on

OCB ($\beta = -0.049$; $p < 0.01$). These were unexpected finding which were explained on the basis of stronger intrinsic motivation of public sector employees who are motivated by pure enjoyment of performing work itself.

The study confirmed that when there is more emphasis on distributive justice to public employees by providing them with material compensation, it may undermine their intrinsic motivation and eventually decrease their OCB (Campbell, 2022). Public employees generally have public service motivation which orientates them to delivering services to people with a purpose to do good for others and society (Chen & Hsieh, 2015). Rin and Armida (2019) surveyed a sample of 272 nurses at a Private Hospital in Padang, Indonesia. They acknowledged that nurses, being the largest number of all health workers in hospitals, determine whether the quality and image of the hospital is good or poor.

It is for this reason that they noted that hospitals need nurses who have high OCB so as to benefit from behaviours which are important but are not included in employee job descriptions. The result of the study indicated existence of a significant and positive influence of distributive justice on organizational citizenship behavior of nurses at Padang hospital, Indonesia at $\beta = -0.047$; $p < 0.05$; t-value 5.6851. Concisely, it was confirmed that when nurses feel a high level of distributive justice their OCB will increase. This results support those obtained by Elsaid (2014) and Oge (2014).

Subramanian, Srikanth and Thakur (2022) investigated the mediating role of gratitude in the relationship between perceived fairness in distributive justice and employees' organization citizenship behaviors. The study used Time-lagged, multi-source data collected from 185 employees and their supervisors in a large manufacturing organization in East India. This study deliberated that distributive justice signals the worthiness or the value of employees' contribution to the organization. The organization values employees by providing opportunity for one to develop technical skills relevant to a job, higher grade promotion, spot awards, exposure to working with top management teams, with senior members in the organization, or getting nominated for a marquee leadership development program (Jimenez , 2018). If an employee believes that the organization fairly allocates rewards, he/she is likely to expend efforts

in ways that benefit the organization (Cropanzano & Gilliland, *The Management of Organizational Justice.*, 2017).

This study found the relationship between distributive justice and OCB to be significant with a positive slope. The study confirmed the relevance of distributive justice based on the fact that employees are more concerned about the consistency in allocating benefits. According to Leineweber, Peristera, Claudia and Constanze (2020) employees are motivated to invest their resources if they believe that these investments will lead to resource gains, otherwise they will likely focus on protecting their current resources from depletion.

2.4.3 Procedural Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Procedural justice has been proven to be important in organizations as it improves trust and confidence of employees by impacting on their feelings when strategic decisions are taken (Al-ali , Qalaja, & Abu-Rumman, 2019). When the decision-making processes in an organization are inclusive, participative and lack bias employees show a high level of voluntary cooperation and would show less resistance in executing strategic decisions (Bhatti , et al., 2019). The relationship between procedural justice and OCB have documented in many studies. This relationship has either been found to positive and significant, positive and insignificant, and negative and significant.

For example Enyia (2016) did a study to consider the extent to which Altruism, Conscientiousness and sportsmanship was influenced by procedural justice in First bank, Union Bank, Access Bank, Sterling Bank, and United Bank for Africa. In this study the researcher argued that it had become very difficult for organizations to predict with certainty what could be done to improve OCB of employees in order to improve industrial harmony. Through sampling 300 employees from the banks purposively, the study found that procedural justice had a strong correlation coefficient ($r=.655$, $p=.000$) with altruism; ($r=.832$, $p= .000$) with conscientiousness and with ($r=.731$, $p= .000$) with sportsmanship. The study concluded that banks need to turn away from activities that distort procedural justice among employees.

In their study Sukisno and AriestaHeksarini (2022) aimed proving the effect of procedural justice and organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior and employee performance of the Residential Area Housing Office of East Kutai Regency, Indonesia. The study attested that the performance of the employees in the regency had not been optimally achieved. They confirmed that many employees were not carrying out their duties thoroughly and consistently. They noted that more employee attitudes were needed to transform the institution, and this could be through organizational citizenship behavior.

According to the researchers, procedural justice, which would allow management not to discriminate one employee from another, provide an opportunity for expression of ones facts and opinions, involve every member in decision making, would reverse the trend. All the 64 employees of the East Kutai District Housing Office were sampled to respond on Likert's five-point scale. The findings indicated procedural justice had a positive and insignificant effect on organizational citizenship behavior of employees at the East Kutai Regency Residential Housing Service. The findings showed that procedural justice was not necessarily in encouraging OCB.

The reason for the result was an assumption that everything done by employees was so because that was what had been set according to regulations and employees felt no need to do things that exceed everything that had been set. Procedural fairness could be improved in the organization by increasing the ethics and morale of employees when they carry out their duties so that their professionalism is reflected in compliance with regulations (Cohen-Carash & Spector, 2018). Increase in procedural fairness could also be strengthened by leveraging on consistency of application of existing regulations and in supervising the application of the regulations so as to make them run as they should be and be followed by all employees (Colquitt, 2018).

2.4.4 Interpersonal Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Leineweber, Peristera, Claudia and Constanze (2020) did a study focusing on the associations between interpersonal justice and organizational turnover among permanent workers of the Swedish working population. In this study a longitudinal Survey was applied to collected data for a period of twelve years. A sample of 11332

participants responded to a postal four-point Likert scale questionnaire. This study found a significant relationship between the variables and noted that the supervisor was an organizational representative with important reach for the employee and can make a difference and lead employees into productive behaviour.

Negative behavior from a supervisor is connoted to imply poor organizational climate and poor upper management leadership as top management actions impact line managers' justice perceptions, which, in turn, affect employees' justice perceptions (Moon, 2017). Therefore maintaining high interpersonal justice perceptions may be a useful instrument for keeping competence at the workplace and within the organization (Colquitt, 2018).

This notion was emphasised in a study by Asaad, Lubna and Ayman (2019) who studied justice in organizations and its impact organizational citizenship behaviour of 330 employees in Jordanian Pharmaceutical industry company. This study applied convenient sampling method and administered a questionnaire as a data collection tool. The study found that 31.6% of OCB was explained significantly by interpersonal justice and that interpersonal justice was the strongest predictor of OCB ($\beta = .403$, at $p < 0.0001$). The study concluded that fair treatment of employees with supervisors refraining from using improper remarks and comments, giving employees respect and dignity, and being polite and being candid during communication with employees would make the employees to reciprocate with OCB. further the study indicated that collectivistic national cultures value high interpersonal relationships, especially in Arab countires.

Das and Mohanty (2023) studied the impact of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of 1000 higher institutions employees in India who were selected using purposive sampling and whom a questionnaire was administered to. The study found that interpersonal justice had an insignificant positive relationship with OCB ($\beta = .079$, $T = 1.452$, $\text{sig} = .147$). the study concluded that employees prefer to be treated well by their supervisors who should always show respect, be considerate, refrain from improper remarks and always consider employees as valuable assets for the organization.

2.4.5 Informational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Acknowledging that knowledge sharing not only realizes the flow of knowledge from source to receiver, but also improves the ability of parties in understanding and applying it to improve performance of tasks, Guang, Ying and Huang (2023) investigated the effects of information justice on employee knowledge hiding and further how justice sensitivity moderates the effects. This study used cross-section design and collected data using an online questionnaire via Creator of Data and Model and received 279 responses from participants who were selected using convenience sampling method. This study found that informational justice was effective factor of knowledge hiding. It emerged that lack of recognition, lack of confidence, and psychological ownership were factors that led to employees not being able to disclose information to others in the organization. Similarly, when employees feel a higher level of information justice they were found to have a higher level of organizational identification.

Based on the social exchange theory when supervisors provide support to subordinates, subordinates may reciprocate by sharing knowledge with other organization members (Ghani, Zhai, Spector, Chen, & Lin, 2020). When supervisors engage in justice behaviour employees will reciprocate by not being evasive with information, not playing dumb nor rationalizing information hiding behaviours (Pradhan, Srivastava, & Mishra, 2019). Unfair treatment by supervisors will hinder the sharing and transmission of information within the organization.

Lane and Aplin-Houtz (2022) explored how fairness perceptions related positively or negatively with emotion regarding remote working. This study collected data purposely from a social media site, Reddit. The valid responses from the sites were 3960. The data collected was analysed through R Studio and the redditextractorR package. The findings indicated that information justice significantly impacted remote working. This study outlined that bad communications cause conflict in the workplace.

Where there is injustice in information, there exists presence of pay secrecy policies in the organizations. Workers need to be given all of the necessary information to accomplish organizational tasks and connect to the organization's culture. As argued

by De Ruiter, Schalk, Schavelin and Van Gelder (2017), because the existence of a social contract between management and employees in an organization, there should be an expected fair exchange of information regarding an employee's job.

2.4.6 Mediation of Job Satisfaction

Several studies have been done on job satisfaction. A study by Chu and Kuo (2015) in Taiwan found that the job satisfaction of an employee was a function of their supervisor's consideration, participation, feedback and interaction. This study affirmed that employees who received more recognition for the work done had high job satisfaction. Hygiene factors like salary, working conditions and company policy were found to be factors which improved job satisfaction of Malaysian retail workers, but motivational factors were indicated to have a great importance (Yusoff, Kian, & Idris, 2013). Employee feel more motivated when they are aware of organizational policies.

Yousaf (2020) did a study to test the fundamental factors that are of six hygiene factors, and five motivators that affect the job satisfaction of front line employees (FLEs). The study surveyed 370 employees, constituting of business managers and executives in both metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas in telecommunication industry of Pakistan. The employees were selected through stratified random sampling technique. The participants responded to questionnaire developed using Google forms and emailed to them. The study found mean scores and standard deviation for Work itself (4.25, 0.88); recognition (4.21, 1.00); relationship with peers (4.33, 0.73); relationship with supervisors (4.16, 0.96); Money (3.62, 1.05); job satisfaction (4.01, 0.80). All the five Herzberg variables showed a significant strong positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Relationship with supervisors had a significant but slightly low impact on job satisfaction. The study believed that employees do leave bosses, not jobs because they prefer supervisors who show trust, understanding and fairness towards them. Relationship with the supervisor is key factor for job satisfaction. Support of the supervisor may not be of the utmost importance in some organizations, but it does have a positive relationship with job satisfaction. Employees often seek better career

opportunities if their relationship with their supervisors is good. Cordial relationship between a supervisor and subordinates motivates subordinates to produce better results.

Likewise Islam and Ali (2013) found that teachers were more satisfied with their jobs because policies applicable to every faculty member were the same, and all the teachers were aware of it. Therefore company policy was very crucial in motivating employees, and ultimately achieving job satisfaction. Company policies that take care of employees have shown reciprocity in terms of higher motivation and job satisfaction. Chiang and Birtch (2011) stated that company policies that considered its employees' working environment, provided organizational support, and offered non-financial rewards, effectively increased the job satisfaction of its work force. Nirmala, (2023) found a positive and significant relationship and affirmed that the higher levels of job satisfaction, the higher employees OCB and vice versa. Individuals who experience great job satisfaction will be more productive, have low turnover and will be rarely absent from work (Cahyono, Novitasari , Sihotang , & Aman, 2020).

Hamidaton, Ahmad, Ismail and Muda (2023) in a study noted that work has gradually shifted from individual focus to teamwork, and this requires more collaboration and interaction between employees, and hence the importance of the co-worker. When employees are willing to help each other to accomplish daily tasks they improve their job satisfaction. Social relationships at a work place are essential for an employee's satisfaction, especially when the relation is with the supervisor. Unethical treatment of employees by managers at any level can lead to job dissatisfaction among employees. Co-workers play a significant role in building employees' job satisfaction.

Having a good interpersonal relationship with colleagues motivates employees. Alam (2015) found that receiving co-workers' appreciation was directly related to job satisfaction of the FLEs of different hotels. Friendly co-workers make employees feel good about themselves (Linz & Semykina, 2012). Employees anticipate appreciation more from co-workers than from their immediate supervisory authority (Danish & Usman, 2010). Individual experiences and expectations, work environment, peer

support, leadership style, workload, and communication level are important factors that determine job satisfaction (Mitterer & Mitterer, 2023).

From an examination of 400 public sector employees in Peninsular Malaysia selected through simple random sampling in a cross-sectional design reckoned that employees' ability and willingness to provide help, share their knowledge, and listen to problems affects their performance and behavior in completing and accomplishing tasks. The study noted that employees who receive motivational and hygiene factors at work increases their job satisfaction and this results positive citizenship behavior in the organization (Asyakireen & Azman, 2019).

2.5 Critique of Literature Related to the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. In setting up the study four theories were identified as its foundation. These theories included the Social Exchange Theory (SET), Organizational Support Theory (OST), Equity Theory, and Herzberg Two-Factor theory. Further the study adapted the Colquitt (2001) four-factor model of organizational justice. Literature was reviewed for each variable based on the available empirical research. This study was majorly based on the social exchange theory. The Social exchange theory is a broad conceptual paradigm that is thought not as a single theory but a family of models (Cropanzano, Anthony , Daniels, & Hall, 2017).

Mitchell, Cropanzano and Quisenberry (2012) highlight that theoretical models included in the social exchange theory share common features: they treat social life as a series of transactions between two or more parties; they believe exchanges follow the norm of reciprocity, and that the quality of exchanges is determined by the relationships between the parties. Hence, many of the topics in organizational behavior such as organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour have been studied under this theory.

It is in this perspective that Sun (2019) confirms that both the psychological contract theory and organizational support theory apply social exchange theory and the

principle of reciprocity in the discussion of the relationship between employers and employees and the explanation for outcome variables. This position is taken by the analysis that when employees' perception of organisational support is high a social exchange relationship develops (Satardien , Jano, & Bosman , 2014). Hence as put up by Eisenberger, Rhoades and Wen (2020), organisational support theory is an application of the norm of reciprocity, which the social exchange theory uses to study the employee-employer relationships in organizations.

This perception of the social exchange theory as a frame covering many theories under its shadow that can describe almost anything from management, social psychology, to anthropology (Ahmad, Nawaz, Ishaq, Khan, & Ashraf, 2022), is a weakness. It is argued that as a result of the theory having a broad application the core ideas that comprise it are yet to be adequately articulated and integrated. Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels and Hall (2017) argue that this breadth has made the theory to lack a theoretical utility with many similar and overlapping constructs used to operationalize it, insufficient appreciation of the extent to which constructs are either positive or negative, and its failure to completely distinguish between behavioral action and inaction.

The social exchange theory is premised on the principle that social phenomenon involves a series of interactions that generate obligations (Rupp , Cropanzano, & Meghan, 2016). On this principle the theory assumes that all individuals will continue to participate in social situations as long as they perceive that the participation will accrue beneficial outcomes, whether economic, political or social (Blau, 1964). It therefore implies that people will leave a relationship upon realizing that they no longer gain from it, or when the costs of continuance outweigh the gains (Ahmad, Nawaz, Ishaq, Khan, & Ashraf, 2022).

This assumption may not be true in the long run as this theory has not been able to make a distinction between people's benefits and costs, their of value outcomes, and their behaviour during an exchange relationship (West & Turner, 2007). For example, a person may value money as a benefit, while another values trust (Linda & Eisenberger, 2002). Davlembayeva and Alamanos (2023) claimed that equity theory

oversimplifies the normative foundation of individuals' behaviour by reducing social relations into evaluation of inputs and outputs. The theory refers to employment in a more economical way, denoting competition and no employee cooperation irrespective of cultures differences. Personal profit-maximization may not hold true universally for all people.

This observation was also made by Eisenberger, Rhoades and Wen (2020) who affirmed that in most Asian nations and Western nations with a Catholic religious tradition are inclined towards a combination of collectivism and high power-distance. This limitation was verified in a study by Asaad, Lubna and Ayman (2019), who argued that interpersonal justice was more perceived than other dimensions of organizational justice as far as national cultural values, were concerned. The study noted that in the Arab region, where there exists a collectivistic culture, interpersonal relationships are highly valued. In collectivism cultures employment relationships are perceived more in moral terms, like a family link and work security is guaranteed through a social network.

In high power-distance cultures, people tend to accept traditional power relationships in society, while in collectivism culture people values the tendency not to question but accept leaders' dictates, and are more concerned with favorable group over individual outcomes. Kangyao, Xiaofu, jian, Jinglin and Yun (2023), found that procedural justice had a more strong positive prediction function on OCB than distributive justice among teacher, who, being intellectuals, put more emphasis on procedural justice than on distribution of resources as procedures were responsible for resource distribution.

In addition, the social exchange theory relies on the reciprocity rule which states that a social exchange is a transaction between interdependent parties with a belief that each party gets what they deserve based on their cultural orientation. However, human beings are different, and the way they reciprocate depends heavily on their cultural and individual differences (Ahmad, Nawaz, Ishaq, Khan, & Ashraf, 2022). There are those human beings with a high exchange orientation and who are much read to reciprocate while there are those with low exchange orientation who do not return or reciprocate less.

Similarly according to Cropanzano *et al.* (2017), people may not reciprocate the way they wish to due to various uncontrollable factors such as presence of inadequate supervision or a bad economy. Consequently, reciprocity may be both explicitly and implicitly where there are active and inactive exchanges, or negotiated rules and exchange rules. It is believed that better work relations are the outcome of reciprocity than negotiations. On the same basis, Antonio *et al.* (2019) faults the equity theory on the two basic principles: human beings have different personalities, hence it is difficult to have an exact comparison of employees; and the perspectives of a company and an employee are difference.

Chan and Lai (2017) faults the equity theory on its inability to explain how people respond to inequity and acknowledges that people respond to being under rewarded or over rewarded in a different way than what the theory predicts. It is evident that a person may choose to be under rewarded by turning down a lucrative job in a pursuit of a career with a lower salary. It is also true some people may be more intrinsically motivated to improve performance rather than decrease the input. Employees can withhold from responding to inequity to maintain relationships or obtain gains from other aspects of relationships.

Bourdage, Goupal , Neilson , Lukacik and Lee (2018) identified three types of people based on resource inequity or equity; the equity benevolent, who tend to accept negative distribution of rewards in relation to themselves; equity sensitive people, who evaluate fairness on the proportional ratio of output against the inputs contributed to relations, and the entitled, who are intolerant of unfair rewards allocation and prefer to receive more than they contribute to relations. So it's not fair to treat people equally. Further, there are high performing employees who would prefer to be assigned to more complex and higher level of tasks or responsibilities, while others discern this, yet equity theory proposes that all employees be allowed to perform the same tasks without any variation. This may result in lack of elevated roles, duties or responsibilities, and no leadership to direct decision-making in an organization.

Eisenberger *et al.*, (2004), contents that social exchanges are usually time-bound. They develop over time ranging from premature relations to mature ones. Similarly,

relationships at the workplace are complex, ranging from formal to informal, positive and negative, hence it is not clear how social exchange theory apply in conditions where multiple exchange relationship are simultaneously taking place (Cooper-Thomas & Morrison, 2019). It becomes difficult to determine which exchange caused the relationship. Kurian (2018) acknowledges that equity theory can be used to predict individuals' motivation and satisfaction under different conditions.

But Yousaf (2020) laments that the implementation of the Two-Factor theory has been found less practical in today's employees' motivation study. The reason is attributed to Bevins (2018) who contemplates that critics argue that its reliance on controlled conditions suggests method dependency and invalidates the theory for lack of ability to be replicated by any other data collection method other than incident technique. The theory is criticized for being overly simplified as it draws conclusions that are simply not supported by data.

2.6 Research Gaps

Justice in organizations is not a new concept in the literature but it has not received much attention in the public sector. Justice is one of the most controversial concepts in the present era although discussion and investigation on its form and nature date back to the creation of human beings (Mohammad & Qurban, 2015). Results for the relationship between organizational justice and OCB in the public sector have shown a difference with those from private sector and educational institutions. Results from education institution show stronger relationship between procedural justice and OCB (Sheeraz et al., 2021). Public sector employees indicate a significant negative or low level relationship between distributive justice and OCB (Kangyao et al., (2023).

Although the associations between justice perceptions and various work outcomes are well established in western literature very few studies have examined this relationship in African culture and are particularly worse in Kenya (Mutero, 2017; Karanja, 2016). The importance of the effect of culture, and the need for the evaluation of the perception of justice, has been recommended in many studies. In a study by Asaad, Lubna and Ayman (2019), which found the effect of interpersonal justice to be higher than distributive justice and procedural justice effect on OCBs on employees of a

pharmaceutical industry in Jordian, recommended replication of such studies in other cultures so as to understand the sources of justice, types of justice, and their interactions, and dimensional models so as to establish a fixed and durable representation of the justice construct.

Mrwebi (2019), supporting the notion of the influence of culture in the organizational justice-OCB relationship, and after finding a no significant relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship at a selected TVET college in Gauteng, South Africa, argued that the result differed with those from employees in western and developed countries because of cultural differences. The conceptualization of organizational justice remains a green area. Many scholars look at this concept as a composite construct; others look at as one-factor, two-factor, three-factor and now four-factor model (Colquitt J. A., 2012).

Anak, Ida, and Gusti (2016) noted that for further research, it is advisable to consider the organization as a multidimensional concept of justice, considering that the impact of each dimension of organizational justice may differ to influence attitudes and behavior of individuals since employee behavior may be viewed as mixed-level, incorporating individual, group, and organizational level phenomena. It is true that the two-factor or the three-factor models are inferior as compared to the four-factor model of organizational justice (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015). Research has also revealed that organizational justice together with its dimensions show direct and indirect relationship with outcome variables such as OCB.

These studies include Asaad et al. (2019) and Das & Mohanty (2023). In a study to examine the effect of the three organizational justice's component to organizational citizenship behavior directly and indirectly through perceived organizational support using 85 lecturers in Private Universities in Denpasar Bali, Indonesia, Anak, Ida, and Gusti (2016), revealed that the effect of distributive justice and procedural justice on organizational citizenship behavior was not significant and as the level of distributive and procedural justice increases it had no important impact on the level of organizational citizenship behavior. The study noted that there was no direct influence of distributive justice and procedural justice on organizational citizenship but a

mediating effect of the influence on the behavior of organizational membership such as that of perceived organizational support.

The limitation of common method variance has also been highlighted as a missing link in the understanding of the relationship between organizational justice and OCB. As noted by Shruti and Kumar's (2013) common method variance may result in respondents giving false information on the subject of interest due to self-reporting. Afari & Elanain (2014) concur that self-report measures typically suffer from the problem of a social desirability effect because participants choose an ideal alternative response instead of the truth, and hence report falsely. Researchers acknowledge that results and findings from self-report measures are usually provisional and cannot be generalized to other organizations, countries, and cultures, and sectors because they may lack external validity (Abubakar & Sabarani, 2017), and therefore to ascertain and generalize such results there is a need to explore other countries, cultures and organizations, to improve on the validity of such results (Jawahar & Stone, 2017). Polychompoo (2017) suggested further studies to investigate more samples as respondents self-report are common in organizational justice studies which may cause common method bias.

2.7 Summary of Literature Review

The literature review involved an assessment of theories that informed the study, the conceptual framework, the empirical review and the critique of the reviewed literature. This summary gives an overview of the critical evaluation of this section. For this study four theories were identified as important in the assessment of the relationship between the variables. These theories were the social exchange theory, organizational support theory, the Herzberg Two-Factor theory, and the psychological contract Theory. The Colquitt four-factor model of organizational justice was picked to guide the relationship depicted for the conceptual framework. The analysis of the theoretical framework has confirmed that the social exchange theory as anchor theory for this study. The reasons for the choice is explained by Ahmad et al., (2022) who points out that the social exchange theory is one of the standards used to study and understand workplace behavior.

It was also selected based on the assertion of Rotich (2022) that it is one of the most influential conceptual paradigms that explain workplace behavior and social science phenomena in general. The social exchange theory was important for this study because it is not a single theory but a family of models (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Some of other theories that form the model include psychological contract theory and organizational support theory, and equity theory, which, all, like the social exchange theory apply the norm of reciprocity in explaining workplace relationship (Sun, 2019; Eisenberger et al., 2020). The social exchange theory, organizational support theory, equity theory, and the psychological contract theory were used to explain the variables distributive justice, procedural justice, informational justice and interpersonal justice, and their relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour.

The Herzberg Two-Factor theory was used to explain job satisfaction of employees and how it is related to organizational justice and OCB. Equity theory typically explains the relationship between distributive justice and OCB, as founded within the social exchange model. Procedural justice, informational justice and interpersonal justice get their support from the social exchange framework, which indicates that social life is a series of transactions between parties who exchange resources in the context of reciprocity (Mitchell, Cropanzano , & Quisenberry, 2012).

An analysis of literature review reveals that organizational justice concept was brought into research way back in the 1960s by early scholars like Homans (1961), Blau (1964), and Adams (1965). The concept of organizational justice was initially conceptualist as a one-model structure of distributive justice, then to a two-model structure involving distributive justice and procedural justice. This concept later developed into a three-factor model and currently it has been viewed as a four-factor model of distributive justice, procedural justice, informational justice and interpersonal justice (Colquitt, 2012; Kurian, 2018; Das & Mohanty, 2023; Das & Mohanty, 2023).

Distributive justice is defined as the perception of fairness in the allocation of resources to employees in the organization. It looks at how fair the organization shares resources such as penalties or rewards, wages, status and promotions among

employees (Addai, Kyeremeh, Abdulai, & Sarfo, 2018). Based on equity theory resource in an organization should be shared to employees based on their contributions, such that those who contribute more need to receive more and vice versa (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015).

Equity theory asserts that distribution of resources should be based on equality, equity, and the need norm. In equality distribution should such that all individual receive the same amount irrespective of their contribution (Wanderi, 2016). Equity requires employees to receive benefits based on the input-to-output ratio where similar individuals get similar resources and individuals who are different receive different resources (Hong & Tang-Hua, 2014). Based on need, individuals who need resources most should get more of them and each person should get in accordance their need urgently (Ophillia, 2015).

Studies on the relationship between distributive justice and OCB have shown mixed results. There are those studies which have found positive and significant relationships such as Karriker and Williams (2009) in the USA, Chen and Jin (2014) in China, Rin and Armida (2019) in Indonesia, and Subramanian, Srikanth and Thakur (2022). These studies concur that when an employee believes that the organization fairly allocates rewards, he/she is likely to expend efforts in ways that benefit the organization (Cropanzano & Gilliland, *The Management of Organizational Justice.*, 2017); a high level of a high level of distributive justice increases OCB. Studies which have found positive insignificant relationship include Kangyao et al., (2023) who reasoned out that organization which deal with intellectuals, such as teachers and faculty staff at the university, put more emphasis on procedural justice than on resources whose distribution follow laid down procedures and rules.

Conversely studies like O'Connell (2022) have found negative and insignificant relationship between distributive justice and OCB. These studies indicate the reason for these results to be a product of the setting of the workplace and argue that work environments is important when studying OCB. Procedural justice looks at the justice in the processes that lead to making decision in an organization (Greenberg, 2010). Procedural justice evaluates organizational processes such as payments, participation

in decisions making, and giving information to find out whether all are applied equally among employees.

Procedural justice looks at the processes used when hiring new employees, method used to select employees for training opportunities, and selection of employees for downsizing or layoffs (Addai, Kyeremeh, Abdulai, & Sarfo, 2018). It determines how accurate, consistent, representative, moral, and lack of bias in the implementation of decisions made in the organization. Generally it evaluates the fairness in the involvement of employees in decision making, and how good systems are used to make decisions on sharing out of resources (Mina, Mohammad, Farshad, & Ali, 2015). Like distributive justice, mixed results have been found on procedural justice. There are studies which have found positive and significant results.

These studies include Kangyao et al., (2023); Bhatti, et al. (2019), and Asaad, Lubna and Ayman (2019). These studies argue that just policies and good organizational procedures were more important and are essential for OCB. Studies which found positive and insignificant results include Mohammad et al., (2020) and Salam (2020) who argued that some organizations, like hospitals, have too rigid procedures and policies such that employees (nurses) are always required to follow the procedures in order to serve the patients and provide them with the best service. Further, it was noted that in some organizations employees may have been already emotionally attachment to the rules in the sector and that they so no importance of procedural justice.

Information justice deals with the dissemination of information in the organization. It requires that information provided by organization and its agents to be comprehensive, reasonable, truthful, timely and candid (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015). It focuses on the extent and effort made by the organization and its agents in to explain and justify decisions and procedures that have been applied (Mrwebi , 2019). It gives the organization and its agents an opportunity to convey information about why certain procedures were used in a certain way or why outcomes were distributed in a certain manner. This is because adequate explanations made by the organization or its agents help employees evaluate and understand procedures and the process of allocating resources (Karanja, 2016).

Interpersonal justice relates to how people interact in the organization. It focuses on the sensitivity, politeness, and respects employees receive from those in authority when they provide information about organizational matters. It is demonstrated when explanations on decisions are given to employees while treating them with dignity and respect and showing concern for them regarding the distributive outcomes they receive (Muterio, 2017). There is interpersonal justice when there propriety of questions, justification of decisions, honesty, courtesy, timely feedback, and respect for employees' rights (Mohamed, 2014).

Studies on informational and interpersonal justice are very limited. However those available indicate positive and significant relationship between these variables on OCB. For example Asaad, Lubna and Ayman (2019) found high levels of relationship between interpersonal justice and OCB unlike other dimensions and attributed this to the prevailing cultural values and noted the importance of culture in explain justice perceptions. O'Connell (2022) identified the importance of informational and interpersonal justice through a significant relationship between interactional justice and OCBs and asserted the importance of the influence of the co-worker in building OCBs in employees.

The literature has shown that OCBs are very important behaviors for organizational efficiency. Organizations must ensure that their employees engage in OCB to run smoothly and effectively. OCB provides the necessary flexibility for the work, helps employees to do better jobs and to make effort above and beyond formal requirements, and fills the gap between procedures and regulations. In organizations, OCB is influenced by many factors such as internal communication patterns, organizational culture, and Organizational climate, job satisfaction, organization commitment, organizational justice, and career development, among others.

Organizational citizenship behavior is measured using five dimensions including altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and courtesy. These dimensions have also been grouped into OCB-Individual and OCB-Organization. Where OCB-I are favorable behaviors directed towards the individual employees and include altruism and courtesy. OCB-O is those behaviors that are directed to benefit

the entire organization such as sportsmanship and civic virtue (Usmani & Jamal, 2013).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The study aimed at establishing the influence of organizational justice practices on organizational citizenship behavior of public servants in Kenya. This section describes the research methodology used in the study. The areas covered under the research methodology include research design, target population, sample size, the sampling procedure, sampling frame, research instrument, and data processing and analysis (Saunders, Philip, & Thornhill, 2015). The research methodology adapted was influenced by the philosophical orientation chosen by a researcher (Creswell, 2010).

3.2 Research Philosophical and Design

This section looks at the study research philosophy and design.

3.2.1 Research Philosophical

Research methods are influenced by philosophical orientation chosen by the researcher. A research philosophy may be positivist or phenomenologist (Pongah, 2016). Positivism is an approach to social research that seeks to apply the natural sciences model of research as the point of departure for investigation of social phenomena and explanations of the social world (Saunders, Thornhill, & Lewis, 2015). The key idea of positivist orientation is that the world exists externally, and that its properties should be measured through objective methods (Koop, 2004). On the other hand Phenomenology philosophy assumes that experience of the world is subjective and best understood in terms of individual subjective meanings rather than the researcher's objective definitions (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). The philosophy of positivism is linked with different methods and approaches of quantitative and deductive aspects while phenomenology philosophy deals with qualitative and inductive approaches (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012).

This study adopted positivism philosophy. Positivism philosophy is an approach to social research that seeks to apply the natural sciences model of research for investigation of social phenomena and explanations of the social world (Saunders et al., 2015). The key assumption of the philosophy is that scientific methods can be applied to the study of people whose behaviour is caused or initiated by something which if understood could be applied to explain and predict that behavior (Koop, 2004). The philosophy advocates for collection of data about an observable reality and establishing causal relationships to create law-like general conclusions (Saunders et al, 2012).

Positivism philosophy applies a deductive approach where existing theories are used to develop hypotheses for testing and confirmation, in whole or part, or rejection, and conclusions made (Blaikeie, 2010). Deductive approach aims at explaining causal relationship between concepts and variables and uses highly structured methodology to facilitate replication of research results (Gill & Johnson, 2010). Positivism philosophy holds that collecting data about an observable reality and searching for regularities and causal relationships within variables will lead to the creation of a new theory or new generalizations (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012).

Positivism philosophy uses objectivist ontology and realistic epistemology and is largely associated with quantitative research (Mutua, 2020). The philosophy assumes that knowledge exists out there and is waiting to be discovered, collected, and used to find existing relation among variables so as to make informed decisions (Saunders et al., 2014). The association of positivism philosophy with quantitative approach is its basis on the collection and use numerical data (Gill & Johnson, 2010; Namusonge, 2010).

Quantitative research deals with quantities and provides an opportunity to examine relationships between variables measured numerically and analyzed using a range of statistical techniques (Kothari, 2014) to would enable the generation of findings to the population from a representative sample at a lower cost (Saunders, 2016). In applying the quantitative methodology Jufrizen and Kanditha (2021) noted that this methodology depicts and summarize diverse conditions, situations, and variables, and

involves analysis procedures and statistical process that involve testing predetermined hypotheses.

Ophillia (2015), in applying quantitative design acknowledged it enables the researcher to collect data from a large population. In using quantitative approach to examine and explore the relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour in a TVET college in Gauteng Mrwebi (2019) postulated that quantitative approach is suitable because it helps test the relationship between two variables by providing numerical data which can be used in making true conclusions that are logically derived from a set of proven premises. The popularity of the quantitative methodology was seen in Akbar (2023) who used it to analyze the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and employee performance of 435 SMEs owners in Indonesia.

3.2.2 Research Design

Cooper and Schindler (2011) assert that a research design constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of data. It is the way a researcher turns a research question into a research project and the general plan of going about answering research questions (Saunders et al., 2012). A research design contains clear objectives derived from research questions that specify the type of data to collect, and how to collect and analyze that data (Blaikeie, 2010). Elmabruk (2018) notes that the main reasons for a research design are conditioned by the nature of the study, the research question, and the information to be collected answer research questions.

Several research designs exist. These designs include explanatory, correlation, and cross-section research designs, among others. Explanatory research design in one which explains the relationship between variables by providing evidence that support the reason why phenomena behave the way they behave based on the characteristic the data collected (Saunders M. , 2016). Correlation research design is used to discover relationships between variables through the use of correlational statistics which determine the degree to which two variables are related (Creswell, 2014). Wanderi (2016), notes that correlation design does not prove a relationship but it indicates an

association between variables by the examination of links or relationships between variables.

A cross-sectional design is used when data is to be collected at one point in time using a questionnaire and analysed to describe trends from responses and test hypotheses (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). According to Creswell (2014), cross-sectional survey design can be used to describe trends, to determine individual opinions about policy issues, and to help identify important beliefs and attitudes. The main advantage of a cross-sectional design is its ability to measure current attitudes or practices and provide information in a short amount of time, apart from allowing the use both qualitative and quantitative methods in data collection and analysis (Blaikeie, 2010). Using a cross-sectional survey enables a researcher to collect data from a large population (Ophillia, 2015).

Cross-sectional survey design has been used by many studies. These studies include Rotich (2022) who applied the design to study employees working in the quasi-independent public service organizations in Kenya. Gün, Söyük and Memis (2021) applied cross-section design in a study to determine the organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior levels of health professionals working in a public hospital in İstanbul. Likewise Hamidaton et al. (2023) applied a cross-section research design to examine the relationship between co-worker support and employee behavior from an Islamic perspective in Peninsular Malaysia.

3.3 Study Population

Population refers to an entire group of persons or elements that have at least one thing in common (Kothari, 2014). The population also refers to the larger group from which a sample is taken (Orodho & Kombo, 2002). The population of this study comprised of all civil servants in Kenya whose total is 300 000 (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2022). The purpose for selecting this population was because the civil service is the machinery that governments rely on to design, formulate and implement its policies, strategies and programmes and to discharge the routine functions of state (Avis, 2015). Civil servants work mainly work in government ministries or departments and are responsible for development and implement government

programmes and daily activities (Rao, 2013). Civil servants do not include people in military, police, teachers, and health workers but those who provide an enabling environment for social, political, and economic development (Paskov 2020). They are responsible for provision of government services to the people (GoK, 2013).

3.4 Target Population

The study targeted 11,671 civil servants working in ten critical government service delivery ministries including Interior and Coordination, Labour and Social services, Information and communication, Public Service, youth and Gender, Environment and Forestry, Lands and housing, Transport and Roads, education, science and Technology, and National Treasury and Energy. These ministries have the highest number of employees who are easily availability across the country (Zayed, Junaimah Jauhar1, Zurina, & Mohsen, 2020). Table 3.1 shows the staff establishment in the target ministries.

Table 3.1: Target Population

	Ministry	Population Size
1	Interior and Coordination	6768
2	Labour and Social Protection	253
3	Information & communication	610
4	Public Service, youth & Gender	160
5	Environment and Forestry	250
6	Lands	290
7	Transport and infrastructure	780
8	MOEST	1100
9	National Treasury	500
10	Energy	820
	Total	11671

Source: (GHRIS, 2019)

A sampling frame was developed from a list of all current permanent civil servants in these ministries as provided by the Government Human Resource Information System (GHRIS). The Government Human Resource Information System (GHRIS) is a payroll system for government employees. The list was created with the assurance of

accuracy, comprehensiveness, correctness, reliability, and representativeness (Kothari, 2014).

3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

Sample and sampling techniques have been discussed under the sample size and sampling technique.

3.4.1 Sample Size

A sample is part of the target population that has been procedurally selected to represent the population in a study (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). It is an important feature of any empirical study whose goal is to make inferences about a population (Gill & Johnson, (2010). The sample size is determined based on the cost of data collection and need to have sufficient statistical power (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012). Sufficient statistical power is determined using the confidence level, margin of error, type of analysis, and total population (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). The following formula by Kothari (2014) was used to calculate the sample size as the population was finite.

$$n = \frac{z^2 p.q.N}{\sigma^2(N-1)+z^2 p.q}$$

Where

n - Desired sample size

Z – Standard variate value at a given confidence level, usually 1.96 for 95% confidence level

P – Sample proportion (0.5)

q – 1- p

N – Size of the population

$\sigma = 0.05$

Inserting figures into the formula, the sample size will be

$$n = \frac{1.96^2(0.5)(0.5)(11671)}{(0.05)(0.05)(11671-1)+1.96^2(0.5)(0.5)}$$

$$n = \frac{11208.8284}{(0.05)(0.05)(11671-1)+1.96^2(0.5)(0.5)}$$

$$n = \frac{11285.6604}{30.1354}$$

$$n = 375 \text{ participants}$$

3.4.2 Sampling Technique

To obtain this of participants, Kothari (2014) recommends that the sampling procedure or technique adopted should ensure that the condition of a smaller sampling error and a reduced systematic bias are met. This study adopted probability sampling techniques to ensure that each possible sample combination adopted would provide an equal opportunity to each item in the entire population of being picked up and given a chance of being included in the sample (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

The importance of probability sampling is its assumption that the population elements under study are usually already grouped into sub-populations and lists of those sub-populations exist or can be created (Gujarati & Porter, 2010).

To arrive at the determined sample size, a proportionate sampling design was applied to get the optimal sample size from each ministry. A self-weighted stratified sampling technique was therefore applied and all employees were categorized in their respective ministries so as ensure that the number of employees selected from each ministry was proportionate to the total population size in that ministry and to the sample size. This was done by dividing the population of employees in each department by the total number of employees in all the departments and by the sample size. Once the sample size was established, simple random sampling technique was to be used to select participants. The random sampling technique is a more practical approach in the selection of a sample because it offers no biasedness by providing every element with an equal chance of being selected (Cooper & Schindler, 2011; Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012; Kothari, 2014).

However, since the target population was spread across the country simple random sampling could not be convenient and, purpose or convenient sampling was used to

select participants and as Kothari (2014) points out, the research selected some participants deliberately. In purposive/convenient sampling a researcher is allowed to choose participants from the population to take part in a study depending on their own decision (Das & Mohanty, 2023). Table 3.2 illustrates the sample size design.

Table 3.2: Sample Size Design

	Ministry	Population Size	Proportion %	Sample Size
1	Interior and Coordination	6768	59	221
2	Labour and Social Protection	253	2.2	8
3	Information & communication	610	5.2	20
4	Public Service, youth & Gender	160	1.4	5
5	Environment and Forestry	250	2.2	8
6	Lands	290	2.4	9
7	Transport and infrastructure	780	6.7	25
8	MOEST	1100	9.5	36
9	National Treasury	500	4.3	16
10	Energy	820	7.1	27
	Total	11671	100	375

As shown in Table 3.2 the following numbers of employees were selected for each ministry; Interior and Coordination (221), Labour and Social service (8), Information, communication, and Technology (20), Public Service, youth and Gender affairs (5), Environment and Forestry (8), Lands (9), Transport and Roads (25), Education, Science and Technology (36), National Treasury (16) and Energy (27). This constituted a total sample size of 375.

3.5 Data Collection Instrument

According to Creswell (2010), data collection is how information is obtained from the selected subject of an investigation. The study collected primary data from respondents using a structured questionnaire covering all the variables associated with the study.

3.5.1 The Instrument

The questionnaire was structured because all its statements were presented with the same wording and in the same order to all respondents who replied to the same set of statements using the same five-point Likert scale (Kothari, 2014). The purpose of using a structured questionnaire was to enable the study to limit the respondents to given aspects of the variables in which the study had interested (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2014). In setting the questionnaire both open and closed questions and statements were used. Close-ended part of the questionnaire restricted the respondents to specific responses which were measured using the five-point Likert ranging from 1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree. The open-ended part was used to allow respondents room to express their views more pragmatically so that their express opinions would be collected on the variables (Kothari, 2014). The questionnaire was divided into five parts. The questionnaire had seven sections (A-G). Section A was used to capture demographic information which included gender, age, work experience, and education level of respondents. Section B-E captured the information on the dimensions of the independent variable. These variables were distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and information justice respectively.

Distributive justice was measured by distribution of pay, workload, rewards and responsibility. Procedural justice was measured by procedure consistency, correctability, lack of bias, and ethicality. Interpersonal justice was measured using kindness and consideration, respect and dignity, sensitivity and truthfulness, while informational was measured using honesty and timeliness of feedback, adequacy of feedback. The statements for the independent variables were adapted from the Colquitt (2001) four factor model of organizational justice who posted that the four-factor model was the best fitting model while the worst fitting model was the one-factor model .

Section F captured information on the mediating variable job satisfaction, measured using satisfaction with own accomplishments, competence of supervisor, group/teamwork and supervisor treatment of subordinates. The scale was adapted from the Herzberg's two factor model of job satisfaction (Chu & Kuo, 2015). The

dependent variable, organizational citizenship behaviour, was covered in section G using its measures of altruism, civil virtue, sportsman, conscientiousness, and courtesy. These dimensions were tested using respondents obeying rules, attending meetings, being considerate, taking fewer days off and sharing valuable information. The scale for organizational justice was adapted from Organ (1988)

3.5.2 Measurement of the Variables

This study had six variables that were being tested. Four variables; distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice measured the independent variable. Job satisfaction was the mediator variable while organizational citizenship behaviour was the dependent variable. Table 3.3 shows how these variables were measured.

Table 3.3: Measurement of Variables

Type of Variable	Name of Variable	Operationalization	Measurement	Measurement Scale and Adaption
Independent Variable	Distributive Justice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - pay level - workload - Rewarded - job responsibility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Appropriate pay level - Fair salary based on workload - Fair sharing of rewards - Compensation based on responsibility 	Five-point Likert type(ordinal) Colquitt (2001); Karanja (2016)
	Procedural Justice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Procedure consistency - Opportunity for appeal - Lack of bias - Ethical procedures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Procedures ensure consistent decisions making - Procedures allow me opportunity for appeal - Procedures reduce supervisor's bias - All procedures are ethical 	Five-point Likert type(ordinal) Colquitt (2001); Karanja (2016)
	Interpersonal Justice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Kindness - Respect - Consideration - Truthfulness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Supervisor kindness - Supervisor respect - Supervisor is consideration - supervisor truthfulness 	Five-point Likert type(ordinal) Colquitt (2001); Karanja (2016)
	Informational Justice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - explanations - instructions - honesty - 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - explanation of feedback - Supervisor sensible job instructions - Explanation of performance appraisals - supervisor honest feedback 	Five-point Likert type(ordinal) Colquitt (2001); Karanja (2016)
Mediator Variable	Job Satisfaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - work accomplishments - supervisor competency - colleagues getting along - organizational policies - supervisor treatment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - satisfaction with accomplishment - satisfaction with supervisor's competence - satisfaction with colleagues get along - satisfaction with organization's policies - satisfaction with treatment of subordinates 	
Dependent Variable	Organizational Justice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Altruism - Civil virtue - Sportsmanship - Conscientiousness - Courtesy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - obeying rules - attending meetings - being mindful - taking fewer off- duty days - sharing useful information - helping others workloads - punctuality - initiative 	Five-point Likert type(ordinal) Organ (1988)

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

Data collection is the precise, systematic gathering of information relevant to the research sub-problems, using methods such as interviews, participant observations, focus group discussion, narratives, and case histories (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). This study collected mainly primary. The main method used to collect data was a structured questionnaire. Before data was collected necessary permission was sought from relevant authorities. Letters of authority were obtained and used to introduce the researcher to the respondents. The researcher also wrote a letter of introduction which helped the study to be able to state its purpose. In the letter, respondents were assured of strict adherence to ethical standards prescribed for research and their privacy. The employees were also requested through an introduction letter to accept participation in the study.

After these formal processes, key point people were selected to assist in the distribution of the questionnaire to the respondents. The key point people were the heads of various sections that could easily access employees. After the selection of research assistants, the questionnaires were then given to them to distribute out to the selected employees. Similarly, the researcher did distribute and deliver some questionnaires to other respondents. As time went by the researcher would deliver the questionnaire personally, make a follow-up to ensure that they were being filled, and finally pick fully completed questionnaires or agree with respondents on how to pick them later.

The main method used to collect data was therefore through drop-and-pick later. As observed from the process, most respondents required up to five days to complete filling the questionnaire. Other respondents could fill and return the questionnaire on the same day. Contrary, and as expected, some respondents could not be able to fill and return the questionnaires given to them. At the end of the data collection process, which took a period of four weeks, most of the questionnaires which were given to respondents were picked or returned.

3.7 Pilot Study

To reduce the chances of instrumentation error and to make the questionnaire more reliable and valid a pilot test was conducted to pre-test the questionnaire. A pilot study is important for the improvement of the quality and efficiency of the main study in addition to being conducted to examine the randomization and blinding process, increase the researchers' experience with the study methods, and providing estimates for sample size calculation (Leon, Davis, & Kraemer, 2011).

According to Junyong (2017) a pilot study asks whether the study can be done, should the researchers proceed with it, and if so, how. A pilot study is conducted on a smaller scale than the main or full-scale study. In this study, 10% of the sample size, equivalent to 36 participants, as advocated by Creswell (2010), through the rule of thumb, was selected randomly from the ministry of education among primary school teachers in Vihiga County Chavakali ward. This group of participants was selected because they are employees of the government although managed by a different commission, the Teacher's Service Commission. Being employees of the government they are governed by the same rules and regulations as civil servants and hence have similar characteristics as those of the targeted group for the main study. The choice of teachers was further informed by the fact that their knowledge and ability could be of importance in helping to detect instrumentation errors and ambiguities and assist in correcting them to improve validity.

This group of employees who participated in the pilot study was not targeted to participate in the main study. In the selection of teacher participants, eight schools were purposively selected from a list of 80 primary schools in the ward to satisfy the rule of thumb. Out of the eight schools, four teachers were randomly selected from each school using a simple random sampling technique to constitute a pilot sample of 37 teachers. Among the four teachers selected for each school one was a head teacher and three were ordinary teachers to fulfill the requirement for categorization into management and non-management.

The questionnaire was then given to the participants through their head teachers for filling from their respective schools by the researcher. The participants were allowed

a period of up to one week to fill the questionnaire and after completion, they were to hand it back to their head teacher for picking and collection by the researcher. All questionnaires which were given out were filled by the end of the allowed period and later collected for analysis.

3.7.1 Validity

Validity is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of data represent the phenomenon under study. Researchers usually consider three common types of validity; content, construct, and the criterion (Liu, 2010). Content validity indicates the extent to which items adequately measure or represent the content of the property or trait that the researcher wishes to measure in a variable. It refers to the extent to which a measuring instrument provides adequate coverage of the subject matter (Kothari, 2014). In determining content validity, subject matter expert review is often a good first step (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012). Using experienced professionals in research such as the supervisors, the departmental, and the school's examiners, Content validity was verified.

On the other hand, construct validity, which also helps determine criterion validity, and indicates the extent to which a measurement instrument accurately represents a construct that is being measured, and that the variables chosen by a researcher to represent a hypothetical construct capture the essence of that hypothetical construct (Leon, Davis, & Kraemer, 2011), was tested using factor analysis. Factor analysis is a dimensionality reduction latent variable technique which is used to describe several methods designed to analyze interrelationships within a set of variables which result in the construction of a few hypothetical ones called factors, which contain information that reduces the overall complexity of a dataset by using inherent interdependencies (Leon, Davis, & Kraemer, 2011).

Factor analysis is done to summarize interrelationships in order to conceptualize a variable, determine factors underlying it, tell what measures belong together, which ones virtually measure the same thing, and how much they do so (Atkinson, Rosenfeld, & Sit, 2010). Factor analysis answers the question asked by construct validity of

whether the scores on a test measure what the test is supposed to be measuring via addressing whether or not the factors are correlated (Bond & Fox, 2001).

In order to meet the statistical and conceptual assumptions regarding the appropriateness of factor analysis, Field (2009) provides the criterion of; setting variable measures to metric, sample size to variable ratio of 5:1, having correlation matrix for the variables with substantial coefficient greater than 0.30 between variables, Kaiser-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy greater than 0.50, and Bartlett's test of sphericity less 0.05. Factor analysis was done through SPSS's dimension reduction principal component analysis. A factor analysis was done using oblique rotation models, which does permit cross-factor loadings, together with Kaiser Normalization. Furthermore, the latent root (Eigenvalue) criterion, the examination of the Scree Plot as well as an examination of the pattern matrix was used to determine the number of Factors.

During an examination of the pattern matrix, the cut off value was set to 0.4, and items cross-loading over 0.4 were removed. The factor analysis was conducted iteratively, removing items that did not meet the required standard of inclusion. Numerous factor analyses were therefore performed in each variable to extract questionnaire items which were used to collect data that was used for further analysis of descriptive and inferential statistics. Using factor analysis, the questionnaire on a Likert scale was reduced to 30 items with 4 items for distributive justice; 4 items for procedural justice; 4 items for interpersonal justice; 4 items for informational justice; 4 items for job satisfaction and 8 items for organizational citizenship behavior. These items were tested for reliability.

3.7.2 Reliability

Reliability analysis was done to determine and ascertain the properties of the questionnaire and the items that composed it (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012). A measuring instrument is said to be reliable if it provides consistent results (Kothari, 2014). Cronbach's alpha, which is a measure of the coefficient of internal consistency, is commonly used as an estimate of the reliability of a measuring instrument for a sample of examinees (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015).

While there is no agreement between researchers regarding the acceptable value of reliability, the study applied the widely accepted value of 0.70 as the cut-off point for the Cronbach alpha coefficient (Garson, 2013). To determine the Cronbach's alpha for the instrument and hence internal consistency, a three-step measure of reliability; (1) drawing from literature items that have been tested for reliability by other researchers and adapting them. (2) Revision of questionnaires and pre-testing it, and (3) determination of Cronbach Alpha internal consistency technique to measure the reliability of the data collection instruments, as advocated by Wanderi (2016) was used.

3.8 Data Analysis and Presentation

The study collected data using a structured questionnaire that had both close-ended and open-ended sections. The close-ended section was to produce quantitative data while the open-end section produced qualitative data hence both quantitative and qualitative methods were used for data analysis. The first step in the analysis involved reviewing all the questionnaires collected from the respondents to find out whether all of them were filled. In the case of incompletely filled questionnaires, their level of completeness was determined and those which were poorly completed, according to the set criteria, were rejected and removed from the list of all collected questionnaires. After this process, the complete questionnaires were categorized, cleaned for any errors, and properly coded and prepared for use in analysis (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2014).

3.8.1 Diagnostic Tests

Before the main analysis was done diagnostic tests were done. These tests were done to confirm the assumptions of the multiple regression equations, validity and reliability. The assumptions included multicollinearity, Homoscedasticity and heteroscedasticity, autocorrelation, linearity, and collinearity.

a) Test for Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is an undesirable situation where the correlations among the independent variables are strong. Kothari (2014) defines multicollinearity as the degree of correlation between independent variables which make regression coefficients to become less reliable when it increases, and hence the individual effect of explanatory variables cannot be assessed or estimated. This study used variance inflation factor (VIF) to test for multicollinearity.

b) Test for Homoscedasticity and Heteroscedasticity

Homoscedasticity was another test done. Homoscedasticity is also known as equal variance. Homoscedasticity indicates that all the disturbances or the error terms entering the population regression function have the same variance, σ^2 , otherwise if the variance is varying from observation to observation then there is heteroscedasticity, unequal or no constant variance among error terms (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). Gill and Johnson (2010) suggest a host of tests that can be performed to detect heteroscedasticity. The study used Breusch-Pagan test to verify Homoscedasticity or heteroscedasticity.

c) Autocorrelation

The study also tested autocorrelation. Gujarati and Porter (2010) define autocorrelation as the correlation between members of observations ordered in time for time series data or space for cross-sectional. The Durbin Watson d test is the most celebrated test for detecting autocorrelation and it is simply the ratio of the sum of squared differences in successive residuals to the residual sum of squares (RSS).

d) Test for Normality

A normality test determines if the data set is well-modelled by a normal distribution (Cao & Zhang, 2010), and to ascertain whether the data obtained follows a normal distribution (Musselwhite & Wesolowski, (2018). A distribution can deviate from normal by lack of symmetry (skewness) and pointiness (kurtosis). In practice, the values of these parameters should be zero in a normal distribution. An absolute value

of the score greater than 3.0 is significant while a kurtosis greater than 8.0 is an extreme Kurtosis. In this study normality test was done using kurtosis and Skewness. Scholars also agree that the Shapiro-Wilk test and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test are the commonly numerical tests used for normality (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002).

e) Test for Linearity

The test for linearity was done to enable determine whether the relationship between each of the independent variables and the dependent variable was linear or not (Zientek, Kim & Bryn, 2016). A host of tests have been suggested for linearity. These include the use of the Value Significant Deviation from Linearity and P-P Plot graph. The rule of thumb is that this relationship is linear if the value significant deviation from the Linearity obtained is greater than 0.05 and the values shown are represented on a straight line.

3.8.2 Qualitative Analysis

When this entire diagnostic test had been verified data was analysed. The analysis used both qualitative and quantitative methods through the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 24.0. In qualitative analysis thematic content from open-ended sections of the questionnaire was studied, coded and key themes of the study objectives transcribed. Texts were drawn from the coded data, similar ideas put together, and the generalized meanings extracted and stated in a narrative way, verbatim of the study participants. This extracted general meaning was collaborated with quantitative findings.

3.8.3 Quantitative Analysis

The main purpose of quantitative analysis was to generate descriptive and inferential statistics and for hypothesis testing (Asaad, Lubna, & Ayman, 2019). Descriptive was done to provide frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. These descriptive statistics provided simple summaries which were used in the presentation quantitative data in a manageable form (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2014). On the other hand inferential statistics were based on correlation, bivariate and multivariate linear

regressions, hierarchical regression, and step-wise regression analyses. Through Correlation analysis Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to show the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables under study. The bivariate and multivariate linear regressions and joint coefficient of determinant were used to reveal whether the independent variables were significantly related with the dependent variable, and the strength of their relationship (Gujarati et al., 2010).

Further the ANOVA results produced the F-statistic within given degrees of freedom while the t-statistics test provided coefficients of the relationship. The F-statistic and the t-statistic were used in the test of the hypotheses. In testing for the hypotheses it was determined that the F-statistic and the t-statistics were required to be significant and different from zero, with the observed statistic supposedly being greater than the critical statistics. If this was found not the case the null hypotheses set were rejected; otherwise, the null hypotheses would be accepted. In hypotheses testing the following bivariate/simple regression equations were set.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_{x1} + \varepsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model 1}$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_{x2} + \varepsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model 2}$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_{x3} + \varepsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model 3}$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_{x4} + \varepsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model 4}$$

Further the following multivariate regression model was set to test the joint influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_{x1} + \beta_{x2} + \beta_{x3} + \beta_{x4} + \varepsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model 5}$$

The studies also tested the hypothesis for mediation and further multiple regression equations were set based on Baron and Kenny (1986) steps for mediation. The first

step is the regression of the mediator, job satisfaction, on the independent variable, organizational justice, represented by the following model 6, where Y_M is the mediator job satisfaction, β_0 the constant and β_X organizational citizenship behaviour.

$$Y_M = \beta_0 + \beta_X + \epsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model 6}$$

The second step in mediation analysis is the regression of the dependent variable, organizational citizenship behaviour on the mediator, job satisfaction, in the presence of the independent variable, organizational justice to determine the significance of the relationship. This relationship is represented by the following regression model 7.

$$Y_{OCB} = \beta_0 + \beta_X + \beta_X \cdot M + \epsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Model 7}$$

The significance of the t-coefficients for the relationship was tested using the Sobel test and bootstrapping. The model optimization was then done to come up with the ultimate model. In this regression models the symbols representing variables are indicated in the following section.

Where:

Y_{OCB} = Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

β_0 = Constant (coefficient of intercept)

X_1 = Distributive Justice

X_2 = Procedural Justice

X_3 = Informational Justice

X_4 = interpersonal Justice

M_1 = Job Satisfaction (Mediator)

$\beta_1 \dots \beta_5$ = Regression coefficient of the five variables to be estimated

ϵ = Error Term, which is assumed to be normally distributed

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and findings of the study. The data for this research was gathered exclusively through a structured questionnaire as the primary research instrument. The chapter discusses the results for validity, reliability, response rate, background information, descriptive statistics and finally inferential statistics.

4.2 Response Rate

This study targeted 375 respondents. Out of the 375 targeted 290 respondents filled the questionnaire which was then collected. This resulted in a response rate of 77%. 85(23%) questionnaires were not returned as the respondents who were given became unavailable and others kept on postponing the time of collection. Table 4.1 shows the distribution of the response rate.

Table 4.1: Response Rate

	Frequency	Percentage
Responded	290	77
Not respondent	85	23
Total	375	100

The response rate of 77% was considered satisfactory according to Kothari (2014). Similarly, according to Babbie (1990) suggestions, a response rate of 60% is good; 70% is very good. The response rate was calculated as a percentage of the total number of respondents

4.3 Demographic Information

In this section distribution of respondents by category is reported. The section contained four categories in which participants were requested to state their gender, education level, number of years they had worked, and the organization they work for. The primary reason for asking for demographic information was to develop an

understanding of the target population. The demographic characteristics of the respondents in the study were as shown in the following section.

4.3.1 Gender of Respondents

The gender category was divided into males and female. Table 4.2 shows the distribution of respondents who participated in the study by their gender. The findings on gender indicated that 54% were male while 46% were female. The findings are summarised in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Distribution by Gender

	Frequency	Percent
Male	157	54
Female	133	46
Total	290	100

These results indicate that the majority of the respondents were male. However the differences in percentage indicated that the study had an almost equal gender representation. It also indicates that the civil service has an almost equal number of both gender employed.

4.3.2 Distribution by Education Level

The distribution was categorized into certificate holders, diploma, bachelor's degree and postgraduate qualification. The findings indicate that certificate holders were 29%, diploma holders accounted for 34%, bachelor's degree holders were 32%, and postgraduate qualification accounted for 5%. Table 4.3 shows the distribution of respondents according to their level of education.

Table 4.3: Distribution by Education Level

Education Level	Frequency	Percent
Certificate	83	29
Diploma	99	34
Degree	94	32
Postgraduate	14	5
Total	290	100

These results on the education level of respondents indicate that majority of civil servants have the prerequisite education levels to do their work with those having diplomas being the majority and the least being those postgraduate qualifications. It demonstrates that the government's efforts to improve the skills of its employees through employee development have had an impact on the organizations. On the level of education of the respondents, it indicates that the well-educated respondents mean that they were well informed on their work responsibilities.

The education level of respondents was cross-tabulated with their gender. The results on gender-education cross-tabulation indicate that the number of male and female were equal for those with postgraduate qualifications, male (62) were than female (37) for diploma holders; for bachelor's degree male were (53) and female (41); for certificate male (55) while female (28).

Table 4.4: Gender* Education Cross Tabulation

		Education				Total
		Postgraduate	Diploma	Degree	Certificate	
Gender	Male	7	62	53	55	177
	Female	7	37	41	28	113
Total		14	99	94	83	290

The results indicate that the male gender is more than female in all the categories of education. This shows that the population of male is still higher in the civil service than that for female.

4.3.3 Distribution by Ministry

This study sought to determine the ministry in which the respondents were deployed. Ten key ministries were selected for the study. Table 4.12 shows the results that were obtained for this category. The results from descriptive analysis show that ministry of Interior (22%), Public Service (14), Labour and Social Service (3%), ICT (11%), Environment and Forestry (10%), Energy (7%), Transport and Infrastructure (5%), National Treasury (6%), MOEST (15%), and Lands (8%). Table 4.5 summarises the descriptive findings.

Table 4.5: Distribution by Ministry

Ministry	Frequency	Percent
Public Service, Youth and Gender Affairs	41	14
Energy	14	7
Transport and Infrastructure	19	5
Interior and Coordination of N. Government	65	22
Labour and Social Service	10	3
National Treasury	17	6
Education, Science and Technology	43	15
Information, Communication and innovations	31	11
Environment and Forestry	28	10
Lands	22	8
Total	290	100

Table 4.11 shows the distribution of the respondents by the ministry in which they worked. According the percentage all the ministries was proportionally represented. However, majority of the respondents came from the ministry of interior and the least represented was the ministry of labour and social services. The employment establishment for each ministry was cross-tabulated against the gender of the employees. The findings indicate that male is still the majority in all government ministries. In the ministry of interior male (38) while female (27); in ICT, male (21) while female (10); in public service male (22) female (19); environment male (21) female (7). Table 4.6 shows the summary of the findings.

Table 4.6: Gender * Ministry Cross-Tabulation

		MINISTRY									
		Interior	Labour	ICT	Public Service	Environment	Lands	Transport	MOEST	Treasury	Energy
Gender	Male	38	5	21	22	21	14	8	22	15	11
	Female	27	5	10	19	7	8	6	21	2	8
Total		65	10	31	41	28	22	14	43	17	19

As indicated, although male gender has been the majority the results confirm that females are catching up with them and the percentage difference is narrowing down. However, most important state departments had employees participating in this study with the ministry of interior and coordination contributing the majority of employees followed public service and education while the least were transport and treasury.

4.3.4 Work Experience of Respondent

To identify the work experience of employees, the length of stay was categorized into various groups that included those less than 2 years, 3-5 years, 6-9 years, and those over 10 years' experience. The findings show that those who had worked for less than two years (13%) , between 3-5 years (24%), for between 6-9 years (27%) and for over ten years (37%). These results are displayed in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Distribution by Work Experience

	Frequency	Percent
Less than 2 Years	38	13
3-5 Years	69	24
6-9 Years	77	27
Over 10 Years	106	37
Total	290	100

From the table it is evident Majority of the respondents were those who had worked for the civil servants between six and ten years while those who had worked for less than two years were the least. This indicated that the respondents were people who had adequate experience of the civil service and had adequate knowledge about the civil service and could be able to share that information.

A cross-tabulation was done to check the experience per gender. The results indicate that in each category males had higher number than females. Table 4.8 gives the summary from this analysis. The results show that 20 male and 18 female had worked for less than two years, 38 male and 31 female had worked for between three and five years, 51 males and 26 females had experience of 6-9 years, and finally 68 males and 38 females had an experience of over 10 years.

Table 4.8: Gender* Work Experience Cross Tabulation

		Work Experience			
		Less than 2 Years	3-5 Years	6-9 Years	Over 10 Years
Gender	Male	20	38	51	68
	Female	18	31	26	38
Total		38	69	77	106

The findings confirm that both male and female had adequate experience in the civil service and could help divulge critical information about the variables that were being investigated in this study.

4.3.5 Job Category of Respondent

The job category of the respondents was categorized into management and non-management. The findings indicate that 11% were workers in the management category while 89% were selected from the non-management category of workers. Table 4.9 shows the results obtained for this category.

Table 4.9: Distribution by Job Category

	Frequency	Percent
Management	33	11
Non-Management	257	89
Total	290	100

The results in Table 4.9 show that majority of the respondents were workers in the non-management category with 89% while management staff were 11%. Majority of the participants were non-management staff and would help rate organizational justice as they are the employees who are mostly affected by the variables under investigation.

As elaborated by Rotich (2022) job position or grade plays a critical role in determining whether an employee displays citizenship behavior or not. It is noted that the higher the position of an employee in the organization the more likely the employee will be persistent in engaging in OCB. Naturally senior employees feel effective and are willing to undertake extra roles to contribute towards organizational development (Pavalache-Ilie & Anitei, 2014).

4.4 Diagnostic Test Analyses

The diagnostic tests results for this study were for pilot study and the test for assumptions. The findings are discussed in the following sections.

4.4.1 Pilot Test Results

Pilot study is used to check for chances of errors in the instrument, weakness in design, and internal consistency (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2014). Pilot study for the research was conducted among forty (40) school teachers employed by the teachers' service commission in Vihiga County. The teachers selected did not participate in the main study. The data collected from pilot study was used to analyse the validity and reliability of the instrument.

The tests usually performed to determine instruments validity include content, construct and criterion validity (Liu, 2010). In testing content validity subject experts such as thesis supervisors and examiners are very critical. This thesis went through several stages including seminar presentations where subject experts advised on the content of the questionnaire. They accepted that the content of the questionnaire was adequate. On the other hand, criterion validity was validated through the test of construct validity as recommended by Leon, Davis, and Kraemer (2011) who content that through measuring construct validity, criterion validity is confirmed. In testing construct validity the study used exploratory factor analysis, through SPSS's dimension reduction principal component analysis.

Principle component analysis is usually done to determine Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity. This tests help to confirm whether the measures are suitable for factor analysis. The finding shows the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy values for distributive justice (0.749), procedural justice (0.701), interpersonal justice (0.791), informational justice (0.806), job satisfaction (0.824) and organizational justice (0.911) had high Cronbach Alpha. All the KMO values are greater than the accepted alpha value of 0.50. Further the Bartlett values at the given degree of freedom are all significant with a p-value less that the set significant value ($p < 0.05$) meaning that they were all significant.

Table 4.10: Variables KMO and Bartlett's Test

Variable	KMO	Bartlett's Test		
	(Cronbach's alpha)	(Approx. Chi-square)	df	P-Value
Distributive Justice	.749	28.976	6	.000
Procedural Justice	.701	30.905	6	.000
Interpersonal Justice	.791	57.535	6	.000
Informational Justice	.806	78.461	6	.000
Job Satisfaction	.824	103.171	10	.000
OCB	.911	202.524	10	.000

The confirmation of the KMO and Bartlett's test indicated that the statement of the questionnaire were ready for principle component analysis which was used to extract the factors. Field (2009) outlined that a factor is meaningful and can be retained if it has eigenvalues greater than (1) and its rotated Cronbach alpha coefficient value is greater than 0.5. In factor analysis it is also important to check for the percentage of variance explained by the factors which are retained and load on the component. This was also checked.

Factors which loaded on distributive justice explained 67.535% of the total variance in the component. The component procedural justice had the factors explaining 66.6%, factors for interpersonal justice explained 68.5% of its total variance, informational justice had 69.2% of its variance explained, job satisfaction had 65.1% explained while organizational citizenship behaviour had 69.5% of its variance explained.

This indicated that the items selected for the questionnaire were actually measuring the components selected as variables for study (Colquitt, 2018). The findings for factor loading of the components are summarised in Table 4.8.

Table 4.11: Rotated Component Matrix Coefficients

Distributive Justice	Initial Extraction	Final Extraction	Decision	% of Variance	
My work schedule is fair	.664	-	Removed		
My pay is fair	.696	.832	Retained	67.535	
My workload is fair	.530	.665	Retained		
All rewards are fairly given to all	.707	.748	Retained		
Responsibility are fairly awarded	.702	.784	Retained		
All rewards are awarded competitively	.625	-	Removed		
My work schedule allows me to do personal work	.911	-	Removed		
Procedural Justice					
I am given the opportunity to express my views	.791	-	Removed		
Procedures ensure decisions are applied consistently	.667	.794	Retained	66.645	
Procedures allow opportunity to influence decisions	.591	.716	Retained		
Procedures made are free from manager's bias	.800	.864	Retained		
Procedures are based on reliable information	.709	-	Removed		
I am able to make appeal on the decisions	.879	-	Removed		
All procedures are ethical	.711	.794	Retained		
Interpersonal Justice					
Supervisor treats me with kindness	.805	.896	Retained		
My supervisor treats me with respect	.735	.861	Retained	68.354	
My supervisor is considerate to my personal needs.	.777	-	Removed		
My supervisor is always truthful with me.	.782	.776	Retained		
My supervisor is always concern with my rights.	.688	.767	Retained		
My supervisor discusses implications of decision	.732	-	Removed		
Informational Justice					
my supervisor gives adequate explanations on feedback	.404	-	Removed		
My supervisor explains implication of feedback given to me	.644	.778	Retained	69.245	
My supervisor offers job instructions that make sense to me.	.576	.773	Retained		
My supervisor explains my performance clearly	.740	.844	Retained		
Supervisor allows me to challenge some decision made	.559	.815	Retained		
My supervisor provides honest feedback performance	.658	.823	Retained		
Job Satisfaction					
I am satisfied with my working conditions	.388	-	Removed		
I am satisfied with my job autonomy.	.633	-	Removed	65.151	
I am satisfied with my job accomplishment	.654	.797	Retained		
I am satisfied with my supervisor's competence	.726	.859	Retained		
I am satisfied with colleagues getting along	.701	.874	Retained		
I am satisfied with the company policies	.810	.901	Retained		
I am satisfied with my pay and work I do	.488	-	Removed		
I am satisfied way the boss handles subordinates	.603	.798	Retained		
I am satisfied with way supervisor treats subordinates	.836	-	Removed		
OCB					
I always obey rules even when not supervised.	.805	.898	Retained		69.484
I voluntarily attend meetings.	.796	.885	Retained		
I always consider impact of my actions on coworkers.	.699	.815	Retained		
I take fewer days off work and give notice if unable to attend.	.687	.821	Retained		
I share out useful information and make suggestions	.795	.858	Retained		
I spend time in personal conversations during work hours	.939	-	Removed		
I willingly help others with heavy workloads.	.587	.730	Retained		
I am punctual at work and mostly remain in on duty	.675	.810	Retained		
I take initiative to help new employees even when it's not my duty	.723	.840	Retained		

The table shows how the factors were extracted. The component distributive justice was to be measured with seven factors. Out of the seven, four factors loaded on the component with coefficients greater than 0.4 and therefore were retained for further analysis. Three items were removed for not satisfying the set criterion. Therefore the variable distributive justice was consequently measured using four items with a percentage of variance explained on extraction of 67.6%. Four factors were also retained for procedural justice, four for interpersonal justice, five for informational

justice, five for job satisfaction and eight for organizational citizenship behaviour. The questionnaire with 29 Likert items was used to collect the final data.

Reliability analysis was another test done after pilot study in order to determine and ascertain the properties of the questionnaire and the items that composed it (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012). A measuring instrument is said to be reliable if it provides consistent results over and over again (Kothari, 2014). Cronbach's alpha, which is a measure of the coefficient of internal consistency, was used as an estimate of the reliability of the measuring instrument (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). Researches accepted a value of 0.70 as the cut-off point for the Cronbach alpha coefficient for reliability for any variable in a study (Garson, 2013).

When the instrument was tested for reliability factors for distributive justice had Cronbach alpha (0.805), procedural justice (0.799), interpersonal justice (0.746), informational justice (0.835), job satisfaction (0.806), and organizational citizenship behaviour (0.804). The overall reliability for the instrument was (0.838). This questionnaire returned a high level of reliability suggesting that the instruments had relatively adequate reliability (Taber, 2018). Table 4.9 gives the summaries of the test for reliability.

Table 4.12: Result for Reliability Test

Variable	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Distributive Justice	4	.805
Procedural Justice	4	.799
Interpersonal Justice	4	.746
Informational Justice	5	.835
Job Satisfaction	5	.860
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	8	.804
Overall Reliability		0.838

Table 4.3 shows that the instrument returned a highly acceptable score for reliability since all of the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients ranged from 0.746 to 0.860 indicating that the questionnaire had good inter-item consistency reliability (Asaad, Lubna, & Ayman, 2019). The overall Cronbach's Alpha was 0.838 showing high internal consistency. After the test for validity and reliability the instrument was

reviewed accordingly based on the pilot study outcome and later used for the collection of the main data for the study.

4.4.2 Test for Assumptions

In the set up regression models for the study several assumptions were stated. These assumptions were linearity, normality, multicollinearity, and heteroscedasticity and autocorrelation. These are the main five assumptions advocated for when setting and analysing classical linear regression models to indicate that the estimation techniques have various desirable properties and that the hypotheses tests concerning the coefficient estimates can validly be conducted (Jiang, Gollan & Brooks, 2015)

a) Test for Collinearity

Collinearity is a situation where the degrees of correlations among the independent variables are strong (Kothari, 2014). In a multiple regression analysis when the correlation between the independent variables is strong it is said to experience multicollinearity. Collinearity and multicollinearity are undesirable conditions as they cause regression coefficients to be less reliable the individual effect of explanatory variables cannot be assessed or estimated. Gujarati and Porter (2010) noting that multicollinearity is a sample-specific problem provides several tests that can be done to detect multicollinearities. These tests include the use R- squared, where it becomes very high but there are few significant t -values; use correlation coefficient which may show high pairwise correlations among explanatory variables; an examination of partial correlation, and the use of variance inflation factor (VIF).

This study applied all these measures but used the variance inflation factor as the main statistics to check for multicollinearity. According to the findings the t - values for regression coefficients were for distributive justice ($\beta =0.113$, $t= 3.026$, $p=0.003$), procedural justice ($\beta =0.193$, $t= 4.968$, $p=0.000$), interpersonal justice ($\beta =0.167$, $t= 4.133$, $p=0.000$), informational justice ($\beta =0.102$, $t= 2.317$, $p=0.021$). Similarly, all the coefficients of correlation for partial or pair-wise correlations are low and none is even closer to the set high of 0.8. An analysis of all tolerance values show that distributive justice (0.839), procedural justice (0.761), interpersonal justice (0.842),

and informational justice (0.828). The tolerance value for the variables was for distributive justice (1.192), procedural justice (1.314), interpersonal justice (1.187) and informational justice (1.208). Table 4.10 shows the results for the test of Multicollinearity.

Table 4.13: Test for Multicollinearity

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	.938	.163		6.283	.000					
Distributive	.113	.037	.163	3.026	.003	.340	.176	.149	.839	1.192
Procedural	.193	.039	.281	4.968	.000	.451	.282	.245	.761	1.314
Interpersonal	.167	.040	.222	4.133	.000	.379	.238	.204	.842	1.187
Informational	.102	.044	.126	2.317	.021	.324	.136	.114	.828	1.208

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

The results in table 4.10 confirm that the variables used in this study did not fail the test of multicollinearity. The results show that all t-values for the variables were with recommended $p < 0.05$. In the assessment of the partial and pair-wise correlation, the correlations are low and none is closer to the set level (0.8) of correlations that show collinearity. The tolerance values are all significant and within the acceptable level with all the variables having a tolerance value close to 1. The tolerance values estimate the percentage of variation in the predictor variable, which cannot be accounted for by other predictors. This means that each variable is a standalone predictor and an individual measure.

Tolerance value is associated with the variance inflation factor. Variance inflation factor is the reciprocal of tolerance. A Variance Inflation Factor of around or greater than (5) means that there is multicollinearity within the associated variables while that less than (5) show no multicollinearity (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). According to the findings all the VIF factors have values less than (5). Based on these findings this study indicates that the variables under study were not affected by multicollinearity. Each independent variable would not be affected by another variable and therefore its influence on the dependent variable was more reliable and could be assessed or estimated from regression coefficients.

b) Test for Homoscedasticity and Heteroscedasticity

Homoscedasticity indicates that all the disturbances or the error terms in regression function have the same variance, otherwise, and the variance is varying from observation to observation and is unequal, then the regression function is said to have heteroscedasticity (Zientek et al., 2016). The danger of the presence of heteroscedasticity is misreporting of findings which may weaken the examination of the study variables. Gujarati and Porter (2010) acknowledge that heteroscedasticity is a serious problem in cross-sectional studies which rely on self-reporting and such reports may result in drawing up misleading conclusions.

Gill and Johnson (2010) suggest a host of tests that can be performed to detect heteroscedasticity. These tests include the graphical examination of residuals through creating a residual plot, the Park test, the Glejser test, and the White's test and the Breush-pagan test. This study applied the Breusch-Pagan test. Breusch-Pagan test shows uses chi-square value and a significance value for the independent variables. In the Breusch-pagan test a chi-square score is computed from using the unstandardized residuals, the predicted values, and the sum of squared residuals.

To obtain Breush-pagan test score the unstandardized residuals are divided by the sum of the squared residuals and the number of observations, and regressed against the predictive values. The P-value of the score is then observed against the number of degrees of freedom. In the analysis a p-value less than 0.05 indicate that there is heteroscedasticity while a p-value greater than 0.05 indicates that heteroscedasticity does not exist. Table 4.5 shows the results obtained from running the tests. In analysis heteroscedasticity for the study the Breush-pagan test run via SPSS. From the test, the Breush-pagan test score was 0.084. The p-value for the regression is 0.868 at 1 degree of freedom ($p=0.868$; $df=1$). Table 4.11 gives the results of the Breush-pagan test.

Table 4.14: Breush-Pagan Test for Heteroscedasticity

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	.084	1	.084	.028	.868 ^b
Residual	871.887	288	3.027		
Total	871.971	289			

The results in Table 4.11 show the Breush-pagan test score, and its p-value at the given degrees of freedom (0.084, p=0.868). This P-value observed is greater than the standard P-value 0.05 (p<0.05). This indicates that heteroscedasticity does not exist among the variables selected for this study.

c) Test for Autocorrelation

Autocorrelation refer to a high correlation between members of observations. In a multiple regression the disturbance term relating to a given observation should not be related to or influenced by the disturbance term of any other observation. This study used the Durbin Watson (*d*) test to detect autocorrelation among the observations. The Durbin Watson (*d*) test is determined by calculating the ratio of the sum of squared differences in successive residuals to the residual sum of squares (RSS).

In the calculation of the ratio when the computed *d* value is closer to zero there is evidence of positive autocorrelation, if the value is closer to 4, then there is evidence of negative autocorrelation, but when the *d*-value is closer to (2) autocorrelation does not exist (field, 2013). The lower and upper limit for critical values is 1-5% values within positive or negative autocorrelation is estimated. In the analysis for autocorrelation the observed Durbin Watson value is 1.856. The results for this test are presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.15: Durbin-Watson Test for Autocorrelation.

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
	.897 ^a	.805	.801	.30540	1.856

From the table the findings show Durbin Watson value is 1.856. This value is closer to 2. It is imperative to identify that there is no evidence of autocorrelation among the error terms of the variables under investigation. The error terms of the variables are

not correlated and hence the significance relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable was established as genuine.

d) Test for Normality

A normality test determines if the data set is well-modelled by a normal distribution or whether data has been drawn from a normally distributed population (Cao & Zhang, 2010). The tests used to determine normality include One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, Shapiro-Wilk test, and test for symmetry (skewness) and pointiness (kurtosis). According to Saleemi (2011) a distribution can deviate from normal if it is skewed and has pointiness, and a variable is reasonably near to normal if its skewness and kurtosis have values between -3.0 and $+3.0$ or when the sum of all the negative and positive deviations from the mean, median, and mode is equal to zero.

An absolute value of the score greater than 3.0 is significant while a kurtosis greater than 8.0 is an extreme Kurtosis. In this study normality test was done using kurtosis and Skewness. Kurtosis is an indicator of flattening of distribution while Skewness is as a sign of asymmetry and deviation from a normal distribution. Skewness and kurtosis values that range from -3 and $+3$ (SE) are generally considered normal (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002). Table 4.13 presents the results the test of normality using skewness and Kurtosis.

Table 4.16: Test for Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk			Kurtosis	Skewness
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.		
DJ	.082	290	.000	.969	290	.000	-.686	.202
PJ	.101	290	.000	.973	290	.000	-.587	.316
INTJ	.077	290	.000	.979	290	.000	-.553	.066
INFJ	.112	290	.000	.965	290	.000	-.364	.382
JS	.083	290	.000	.983	290	.002	-.233	.154
OCB1	.107	290	.000	.971	290	.000	-.297	.441

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

As shown in the table values are within the range of -3 and $+3$ for all factors. Therefore all variables were found to have a near normal distribution as the Skewness and kurtosis values that range from -3 and $+3$ (SE) are generally considered normal.

e) Test for Linearity

Linearity test determines whether the relationship between the independent and dependent variable displays a linear relationship (Zientek, Kim & Bryn, 2016). This study used the Significance Deviation from the linearity test to ascertain whether the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and organizational justice was linear.

In this test a determination was to be made on whether the value attained for the Significance Deviation from linearity was greater than 0.05, if so then the relationship between each explanatory variable and the dependent would be said to be linearly related. The findings that the value significance of distributive justice (0.056), for procedural justice (0.061), interpersonal justice (0.382) and informational justice (0.769). The results are displayed in Table 4.14.

Table 4.17: Test for Linearity Using Significance Deviations

	Distributive justice and OCB	Procedural justice and OCB	Interpersonal justice and OCB	Informational justice and OCB	Organizational Justice and OCB
Between groups (Combined)	56.992	64.435	45.262	62.224	103.914
Linearity	49.332	58.839	41.149	56.943	64.815
sig. Deviation from Linearity	7.660	5.596	4.113	5.281	39.099
Sig.	.056	.061	.382	.232	.769

From the table is indicated that all the significant values for the significant deviation from linearity are all larger than 0.05. This confirms that all the independent variables were linearity related to the dependent variable. This shows that linearity was confirmed for all the relationships between the distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice with OCB.

A scatter plot was also obtained to confirm linearity between the variables. Residual plots were used for multiple linear regressions to check the relationship between the predictor variables (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice) and the predicted variable, organizational citizenship behaviour. The relationship is displayed in figure 4.1.

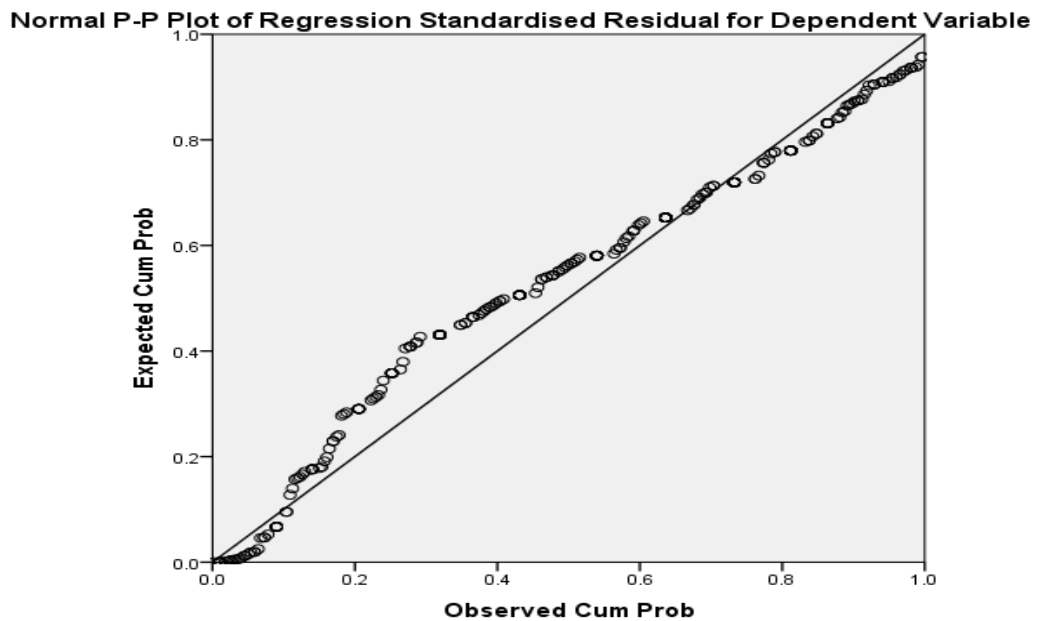


Figure 4.1: Showing Scatter Plot for Linearity

Figure 4.1 shows that that the relationship between independent variables and dependent variable is linear as the values shown are represented on a straight line.

4.5 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive statistics is mainly aimed to enable the distribution of scores or measurements using indices or statistics (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012). The type of descriptive statistics used in a study depends on the type of variables and the scale of measurements. This study used a structured questionnaire to collect responses on a Likert scale, composed of a series of Likert-type items that could be combined into a single composite score during the data analysis process to constitute responses that can be combined to describe the variable in question. The descriptive statistics usually used for analysis include frequencies, percentages, the mean, and standard deviation (Namusonge, 2010).

4.5.1 Distributive Justice

Distributive justice deals with how resources in an organization are shared among employees based on equality, equity, and need. The resources and outcomes which

were being investigated included, work schedule, pay, workload, rewards, and responsibility. To examine the variable distributive justice four items were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1-strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree. Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement about distributive justice in the civil service as a measure of justice.

The findings indicate that more than a half of the respondents (52%) believed that their pay level was appropriate given their performance. This was against 20% who disagreed that their pay level was not appropriate, and 28% who were neutral. The mean score for the responses on this statement was 3.60. This score is above the average mark of 2.50 and above the range for respondents being neutral. It therefore affirms the factor that employees believe that their pay is appropriate. The standard deviation for the statement was 1.110 which indicates diversity of opinions from one response to the next.

The participants were also interrogated on whether their salary was fair given they work load they had. The response show that only 14% disagreed, 21% were neutral, while 65% agreed. This statement recorded a mean score of 3.76 which was above the average mean of 2.50. The average mean score for this statement confirms that employees agreed that their salary was fair when weighted against their workload. The standard deviation was 1.070 and indicates that the respondents had differences in their opinions.

In establishes the rating on whether employees were rewarded appropriately compared to other workers who do similar work in other organizations the findings indicated that 18% disagreed, 34% were neutral, while 48% agreed. The average mean score for the responses was 3.32. This indicated that the respondents were not sure whether the rewards they got similar or not to the rewards received by other employees in other organizations. The employees may have not had adequate information on rewards given in other organization different from the civil service. The standard deviation was 1.224 which indicated that respondents' views were different from each other.

A further investigation on distributive justice intendent to establish whether employees were fairly compensated for the responsibilities they were given by jobs. The findings

indicate that 12% disagreed, 19% were neutral, while 69% agreed. The average mean score for the responses was 3.83. This score show that respondents were in agreement with this statement. It may imply that people in the civil service earn according to their responsibility such that those with high responsibility are given high compensation while those with lower responsibility also earn based on that. This means score is above the average mean score of 2.50. The standard deviation was 1.048 indicating high variation in the views of respondents. These findings are illustrated in the following table 4.18

Table 4.18: Descriptive Analysis for Distributive Justice

Statement	SD		D		N		A		SA		M	SD
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
My pay level is appropriate given my performance	13	5	46	15	80	28	94	32	57	20	3.47	1.110
My salary is fair given my workload	9	3	31	11	61	21	108	37	81	28	3.76	1.070
I am Rewarded appropriately compared to other organizations	18	6	35	12	99	34	111	38	27	10	3.32	1.011
I am fairly compensated given my job responsibility	8	3	28	9	56	19	112	39	86	30	3.83	1.048
Average											3.60	1.060

The rating for distributive justice from the table shows an average mean score of 3.60 while the average standard deviation 1.060. The average mean score lies in the region slightly above the expected mean score of 2.50 and slightly above the highest value for neutral score of 3.49, and hence sits in the range for agreement with the ratings. Consequently, it shows that participants were in agreement that distribution justice was applied in the civil service. With the indicated high variations in views based on the standard deviations it affirmed that employees were not sure whether they were fairly compensated, whether their rewards were appropriate compared to other workers in other organizations, whether their salaries were appropriate based on their workload, and whether or not their pay level was appropriate for the work they do in the civil service.

These findings were collaborated with opinions from the open-ended section of the questionnaire. For example when they were asked whether they thought that distribution of resources was fairly done a majority of them responded in the negatives. One respondent said,

“The pay is not adequate compared to the work we do. We need the pay to be increased from the current amount.”-----RESP 29

Another responded post

“There is poor management of the available resources making their distribution to be unfair to some workers.” -----RESP 121

Five other respondents shared the following sentiments

“For fairness to exist we need distribution of resources such as pay and workload to be done on need basis and the workload for each individual and their responsibility”-----RESP 219, 135, 189, 215, 272,

Majority of the respondents noted that distribution of resources in the civil service was done without proper assessment, the resources such as equipments for work were not provided to employees to undertake their assignments as they were not adequate, and generally the pay was not adequate or commensurate to services offered. However respondents agreed that fair distribution of resources would lead employees to improve their efforts, work extra hard by attending to work regularly without being late, absent or engaging in personal work during working hours.

When the respondents were asked to list ways in which perception of distributive justice would increase, majority highlighted issues such as award of adequate pay, provision of proper and adequate working tools and equipments, proper management of available resources to ensure that that they were well distributed, development of good policies which will ensure fair distribution, and generally treating all workers equally by adopting best practices for employee management.

4.5.2 Procedural Justice

Procedural justice refers to the process of making decisions regarding the performance of duties, allocation of resources and outcomes, disciplinary among other matters of concern to employees. For the employees to perceive existence of procedural justice

there is need for all procedures to be consistent and applied equally across all employees, allow appeal of decisions made, remove bias and be ethical. The findings show employees were neutral on the rating about consistency of procedures in the civil service. This is because only 44% agreed that procedures ensured consistent decision making with 26% disagreeing and 30% being neutral.

This position is taken from the average mean score for the responses (3.26) showing that averagely employees were not very sure whether there was consistent decision making in the civil service. The standard deviation was 1.103 showing that the views of the respondents differed among them. Similar outcomes were noted on the investigation of whether procedures allowed employees opportunity to appeal against any decision that was made and was not favourable or in the best interest of the employees. This is because only 44% agreed, 24% disagreed and 32% were neutral. Dictated by the average mean score (3.29) employees were unable to confirm that the appeal process on unfair decisions made by the civil service did work nor whether it was there altogether or alternatively the appeal procedures were not well known to the respondents.

An attempt was also made to find out the rating on how procedures enacted helped to reduce supervisors' biases. The findings show that 63% agreed against 12% who disagreed and 25% who were neutral with an average mean score for the responses of 3.017. This means score is above the average mean score of 2.50 but indicate that the respondents were not very sure whether procedures in place help reduce the incidences of supervisor biases. The standard deviation was 1.017 indicating that the views of the respondents also differed. It was therefore indicated that procedures set in the civil service have played a big role in reducing the incidences of biases that could emanate from the supervisors based on the percentage of agreement.

Finally, respondents were asked to state whether all procedures that have been set in the civil service are ethical. The findings indicate that 15% disagreed, 20% were neutral, while 65% agreed with an average mean score for the responses of 3.63 and a standard of 0.980. The standard deviation indicates that all the respondents had similar views that the procedures put in place in the civil service were ethical and adhered to

established moral standards. The descriptive findings on procedural justice are shown on Table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Descriptive Results for Procedural Justice

Statement	SD		D		N		A		SA		M	SD
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Procedures ensure consistent decisions making	17	6	57	20	90	30	86	31	40	14	3.26	1.103
Procedures allow me opportunity for appeal	19	7	50	17	94	32	82	28	45	15	3.29	1.122
Procedures reduce supervisor's bias	8	3	26	9	73	25	112	39	71	24	3.73	1.017
All procedures are ethical	7	2	37	13	59	20	140	48	47	16	3.63	.980
Average											3.477	1.055

The average mean score for the responses is 3.477. This average means score confirm that participants were neutral on all the statements on procedural justice. This could indicate that the respondents were not sure whether procedures were ethical, they guarded against supervisor biases, they allowed people to appeal decisions, or they did not lead to consistency in decision making. These results may also indicate that the respondents may not be aware of the procedures set for decision making in the civil service. The average standard deviation was 1.055 showing that the views of respondents were not all similar. These findings were assessed against the free opinion of employees in the open-ended section of the questionnaire. In this section employees were asked whether they thought the procedures used in decision making allowed fairness to be practiced. Majority of the respondents answered the question in the affirmative.

Some quipped,

“Procedures are very fair on paper but there is very little practice of what has been written down.” -----RESP 58

“There are very many incidences where there is favoritism yet procedures require equal treatment of all employees as some supervisors are biased when making decisions.” -----RESP 110

“Lower cadre employees should be consulted when formulating policies because they are the most affected with the policies.”-----
RESP 270

The respondents affirmed that perception of procedural justice could improve when the management will strive to engage workers regularly in coming up with policies and procedures, supervisors to ensure consistency when making decisions and reducing biasedness when dealing with employees, even when the affected employee was their friend or relative. To improve perception of procedural fairness the respondents identified a number of factors that could be used including putting good structures and policies in place to guide the application of procedures, involve employees, especially the low cadres, more in coming up with procedures and policies which would be used to make sensitive decisions, and put in place mechanisms to ensure that all policies and programmes are timely communicated to employees through creation of awareness programmes.

4.5.3 Descriptive Results for Interpersonal Justice

Interpersonal justice refers to the relationship among employees, employees with their supervisors, and employees with their organization. The relationship between supervisors and employees is a very key factor in an organization because the supervisor being an individual employee, he/she is considered as the face of the organization and what he/she does is construed to imply the deeds of the organization. Interpersonal justice was conceptualized using four statements measured on a Likert scale ranging from 1-strongly disagrees to 5- strongly agree.

The findings show that employees had mixed reactions when they were asked whether their supervisor treated them with kindness at the workplace when giving work instructions or assigning duties. On this statement only 45% were in agreement whereas 12% disagreed and 43% were neutral. The position of being neutral was confirmed by the composite mean score (3.40) meaning that the respondents were not sure whether their supervisors treated them with kindness or not. The standard deviation was 1.061 indicating that all the respondents did not have the same opinions.

The study further sought to find out whether respondents were treated with respect by their supervisors. Majority of the respondents (74%) agreed against 8% who disagreed and 18% who were neutral. This statement recorded a composite mean score of 3.87 which was above the average mean of 2.50 and confirmed that respondents were in agreement that they were treated with respect by their supervisors. The respondents were also found to have had similar thoughts on the statement based on the value of the standard deviation (0.844) which is low and indicates that the opinions of the employees were the same that they all received respect from their supervisors.

The respondents were further interrogated on whether on how considerate the supervisor was to their needs. The respondents confirmed indeed that the supervisors were considerate when dealing with them in allocating assignment and other resources. This is because 76% agreed against 11% who disagreed and 13% who were neutral. The composite mean score (3.74) backs this position and show that actually supervisors were considerate when dealing with subordinates and respected their needs. However, the standard deviation (1.129) indicates that respondents' opinions were very different and diverse.

Lastly, respondents were required to rate the statement that their supervisor were truthful when they dealt with respondents. This statement was affirmed in the positive as 65% were in agreement against those who disagreed (8%) and those who were neutral (27%). The position of respondents agreeing with the statement is reinforced by the mean (4.10) and the composite mean (3.78) which indicate that supervisors of the respondents were most times speaking the truth when dealing with them. The standard deviation was 0.902 implying that employees had similar views regarding this aspect of the statements. Table 4.20 summarises the descriptive results for the variable interpersonal justice.

Table 4.20: Descriptive Results for Interpersonal Justice

Statement	SD		D		N		A		SA		M	SD
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
My Supervisor treats me with kindness	6	2	30	10	121	43	100	35	29	10	3.40	1.061
My Supervisor treats me with respect	5	2	19	6	52	18	147	51	67	23	3.87	0.844
Supervisor is considerate to my needs	5	2	27	9	39	13	83	29	136	47	3.74	0.902
My supervisor is truthful with me	1	0	22	8	79	27	138	48	50	17	4.10	0.880
Average											3.78	0.922

The result in the table show the composite mean score for the statements on interpersonal justice as 3.78 and standard deviation 0.922. This indicates that respondents agreed with most of the statements and in agreeing majority had similar opinions regarding perception of interpersonal justice in the civil service. This findings were confirmed through responses from the open-ended section where employees were asked their opinion on how the civil service could improve interpersonal relationship. In the opinion of employees some stated;

*“Supervisors should stop respecting people based on how they are related to them. They should respect each employee even if they are not related.” ----
--RESP 87*

Another one commented;

*“Supervisors should be trained on public relationship so as to enable the handle employee with dignity and respect.” -----RESP
94*

Some other respondent noted that;

*“Some employees have personal challenges which make them not to undertake their duties well. The supervisor should be ready to listen to individual needs -
-----RESP 163*

These sentiments illustrated how interpersonal relationships were very critical in the evaluation of justice perceptions. It underscored the importance for the supervisor to

maintain good relationship with employees as they were the face of the organization and employees saw the organization through them. Accordingly, interpersonal relationships could be improved through regular consultations, supervisors improving their professionalism, and supervisors ensuring that they were impartial in decisions making and maintain respects for all employees.

Further sentiments were echoed on how employees could maintain good interpersonal relationship the respondents noted;

“Workshops, seminars and meetings should be carried out to bring employees and management together so as to break barriers between the two groups and make them work harmoniously.”-----RESP 192

Another one said

*“Inter-tribe games activities, groups and teams should be created so that employees from different tribes work together on projects so as to ensure bonding among employees to reduce perception of tribal favoritism.” -----
---RESP 232*

Majority of the respondents noted the need to enhance bottom-up communication and a clear top-down communication and the training of the supervisors on public relationship so as to enhance and improve their communication skills when dealing with the employees.

4.5.4 Descriptive Results for Informational Justice

Informational justice was conceptualized using four statements. The respondents were asked to rate the statement provided based on a Likert scale ranging from 1-strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree. Respondents were asked their opinion about how their supervisors gave them feedback and whether the supervisors were able to explain the feedback they gave in an elaborate manner. This statement was agreed to by 49% of the respondents, while 18% disagreed and 33% were neutral. The mean score for the responses was 3.42 and the standard deviation was 1.013. Consequently, respondents seem to have been not sure whether their supervisor explained to them appropriately

the feedback they gave as required. Their views varied from one respondent to the next as is supported by the standard deviation.

Another measure required respondents to state whether their supervisor offered good and sensible instructions on how to perform my job. Seventy seven percent (77%) were in agreement, 9% disagreed and 14% were neutral. This statement recorded a mean score of 3.99 which was above the average mean of 2.50 and a standard deviation of 0.988. The results meant that supervisors were good in giving out instructions for employees to perform their activities and duties.

Likewise respondents were in agreement (74%) that the supervisor had the ability to explain to the respondents in a clear manner how their performance was rated, the scales used in rating and what the information in their performance appraisals meant to them, to the supervisor and to organization. Only 13% disagreed with this statement which recorded a mean score of 4.00 and a standard deviation of 1.093 shows that the respondents differed in their opinions regarding this aspect. The mean confirm that indeed the respondent fully agreed with the statement although the standard show marked deviation of one respondent to the other's remarks. Finally, respondents supported the fact that the supervisors were supervisor provided honest feedback with only 11% disagreeing against 22% who were neutral and 77% who agreed with a mean score of 3.71. Table 4.21 gives the summaries for the descriptive findings;

Table 4.21: Descriptive Results for Informational Justice

Statement	SD		D		N		A		SA		M	SD
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
My supervisor explains feedback	10	3	42	15	95	33	102	35	41	14	3.42	1.013
My Supervisor offers good and sensible job instructions	7	2	20	7	41	14	124	43	98	34	3.99	0.988
My supervisor explains my performance appraisals clearly	10	3	25	10	38	13	100	34	117	40	4.00	1.093
My supervisor provides honest feedback	7	2	24	9	64	22	102	35	93	32	3.71	1.106
Average											3.78	1.05

According to the findings in the table the composite mean score for the responses was 3.78 while the average standard deviation was 1.09. The average mean score is above the expected mean score of 2.50 and shows that respondents agreed with the facts that their supervisors provided honest feedback, explained performance appraisals well,

offered good and sensible instructions to employees to undertake their duties, and fully explained any feedback that they gave to employees.

The qualitative findings from the opinions of the respondents in the open-ended section show support of employees for the quantitative results. In the findings on whether employees thought their organization received and provided adequate information for decision making, the respondents affirmed that

*“Some of the decisions made in the organization are never done after gathering adequate information.” -----
RESP 13*

“The civil service should use suggestion boxes and anonymous reports to get opinions from employees on how to improve some services and monitor wrong doers.” ----RESP 1

These responses confirm that respondents understood the statements and had several ways of improving perceptions of information justice. The respondents suggested that in order to improve the perception of information justice it was imperative for the organization to have a clear top-down communication, provision of good appraisal feedback, the development and use of suggestion boxes which would help get ideas from employees that could help enhance communication and management of the organization. The further suggested that there was need for proper documentation of information on employees’ background and performance which could then be used in the distribution of resources in the organization. Provision of adequate information on how employees could perform their tasks was found to be important as they could enhance the way employees understand various tasks.

4.5.5 Descriptive Results for Job Satisfaction

Descriptive statistics for this variable was done to help make summaries of the opinions of the employees. job satisfaction was measured using five statements which were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The findings from descriptive statistics indicate that respondents agreed

(80%) that they were satisfied with the accomplishment they made in their jobs as only 8% disagreed, and 12% were neutral. This was supported by the mean score (4.16) which is far above the average value based on the five-point Likert scale and lying in the section of agreed. The respondents had similar views that they were satisfied with the accomplishment they make on their jobs as supported by standard deviation (0.988) which is lower than one.

Respondents were also asked whether they were satisfied with the competence of their supervisors. A good percentage (56%) agreed while 15% disagreed and 29% were neutral. This statement recorded a mean score of 3.53 which was above the average mean of 2.50 but indicated that employees were not very sure whether they were satisfied with their supervisors' competence. Their views were also mixed about this statement as the standard deviation was above One (1.094). Respondents agreed highly (73%) that they were satisfied with the way colleagues got along with each other, with only 9% disagreeing and 18% being neutral. This was supported by the mean score for the responses (3.89) which is above the average mean score of 2.50 and shows that employees agreed with the statement that they were satisfied with how colleagues got along with each other and a standard deviation (0.990) indicating similarities in opinions that they liked the way they got along with each other.

On how the respondents were satisfied with organization's policies, it was found that 74% were in agreement, with only 11% disagreeing and 15% recording a neutral position. The mean score for the responses was 3.97 which above the average mean score of 2.50 and indicates that employees were in agreement with the statement, although the standard deviation (1.131) show that the opinions of the employees differed from one to the next. Finally, the views of respondents on the satisfaction with the way supervisors treated subordinates indicated that 79% were in agreement against 8% who disagreed and 13% who were not sure whether subordinates were treated well by supervisors. The opinions were supported by mean score for the responses (3.91) with a standard deviation of 0.928. This indicates that the opinions of the respondents were similar and all of them agreed that they were satisfied with the way their supervisors treated their subordinates. Table 4.22 summaries the descriptive statistics for the variable job satisfaction.

Table 4.22: Descriptive Results for job Satisfaction

Statement	SD		D		N		A		SA		M	SD
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
I am satisfied with my work accomplishment	7	3	15	5	35	12	102	35	131	45	4.16	0.988
I am satisfied with my supervisor's competence	18	6	27	9	83	29	106	37	56	19	3.53	1.094
I am satisfied with the way colleagues get along	9	3	18	6	52	18	129	45	82	28	3.89	0.990
I am satisfied with organization's policies	17	6	15	5	43	15	101	35	114	39	3.97	1.131
I am satisfied with way supervisor treats subordinates	8	2	17	6	39	13	154	54	72	25	3.91	0.928
Average											3.98	1.026

From the table the composite mean score for the responses on overall job satisfaction is 3.98 while the average standard deviation 1.026. The values indicate that majority of employees agreed that they were satisfied with the competence and respect they got from their supervisors, the treatment they receive from their supervisor, the way they get along with each other, and the accomplishment they make in their jobs. However the standard deviation indicates a lot of variations in the opinions of the employees. Further these findings were triangulated with the opinions respondents gave in the open-ended section of the questionnaire which wanted to find out how satisfied the respondents were with fairness on resource distribution, the organizational procedures, interpersonal relationships and dissemination of information, their response was negative.

Some of the employees noted;

“Train supervisors and managers more to understand how to deal with employees in a fair manner even when they may have prejudices.” --- RESP 7

Another one lamented;

“In order to improve job satisfaction employees should be assigned duties based on their professionalism and competence.” -----RESP 27

Yet another one said;

“Promotion and reward need to be done on merit for good career progression for all.” -----RESP 37

Another comment was;

“There is a lot of delay in promoting qualified employees which leads to general dissatisfaction and turnover.” -----RESP 67

On probing on how to improve to improve the relationship between supervisors and subordinate the following were highlighted to improve job satisfaction;

“There is need to follow management policies to the latter and remove supervisor bias.” -----RESP 75

“Frequent training, employee involvement, good job evaluation, reward and recognition, promotion based on merit and the assignment of duties to employees based on their qualification should be prioritised.”-----RESP 20

Job satisfaction was therefore considered important in employees’ perception of organizational justice parameters and employees felt that it could inspire them to improve their performance.

4.5.6 Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior was conceptualized using eight statements. These statements were rated using a five-point Likert measures ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). In the study respondents were asked whether they always obeyed rules even when there was no one is watching them or supervising them. Their responses show that they were in agreement (77%) with only 8% disagreeing and 15% being not sure. The responses had a mean of 4.00 and a standard deviation of 0.943. This statistics indicate that respondents agreed with similar opinions that they always obeyed rules even when they were not being watched. This was similar to the responses on the statement that required them to confirm whether they attended important but not mandatory meetings that were regularly held. The mean score for the responses was 4.17 which indicated that they agreed that they attended meetings that were held. The position was reinforced by the unanimity of the responses are represented by the standard deviation (0.855) which indicated similarity of views given.

The respondents further agreed that they were always mindful of the effect of their behaviour on other members or workmates at a mean score (3.78). The standard deviation (0.934) confirm that majority of the respondents were of the same views that most times they were very considerate of their actions on other members of the civil service. This positive action from respondents was also captured when they responded on the issue of always taking fewer days off duty and always giving notice in cases where they expected to be absent or be away from duty for reasons that may be beyond their ability to change. This statement recorded a mean of 3.75 and a standard deviation of 0.961, which indicated unanimity of the responses.

Similar findings were recorded on the on the inquiry that respondents always shared useful information which would benefit individual colleagues and help improve the organization with only 6% disagreeing, 17% not being sure and a whole 77% agreeing, with a mean of 4.00 and a standard deviation of 0.896.

This was a high mean and a low standard deviation that supported employees' positive opinions of the fact that they shared important information by other organizational members. The respondents further confirmed that they willingly helped other employees who had been allocated heavy workloads or those who were unable to complete their assignment on time with only 14% disagreeing, 24% being neutral and 62% recording an agreement on the statement with a mean of 3.69 and a standard deviation of 1.040. This is the only statement that recorded a high standard deviation and showing that employees had different opinions on whether they would be willing to assist colleagues who had heavy workloads. They also affirmed (mean=3.78) that they were always punctual at work and left their duty stations at the recommended time for leaving duty with and a standard deviation of 0.919. They also noted that they took initiatives to help new employees who had been hired settle in their work station and commence their assignment with ease with a mean of 3.98 and a standard deviation of 0.858. Table 4.23 shows the descriptive results for the variable.

Table 4.23: Descriptive Results for Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Statement	SD		D		N		A		SA		M	SD
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
I always obey rules	7	3	14	5	44	15	131	45	94	32	4.00	0.943
I voluntary attend organizational meetings	1	0	13	4	40	14	117	40	119	41	4.17	0.855
I am always mindful of others	7	3	19	7	66	23	137	47	61	21	3.78	0.934
I always take fewer of off- duty days	4	1	30	10	65	22	127	45	64	22	3.75	0.961
I always share useful information organization	4	1	14	5	50	17	132	45	90	31	4.00	0.896
I willingly help others workloads	10	4	29	10	69	24	116	40	66	22	3.69	1.040
I am punctual at work	8	3	21	7	50	17	159	55	52	18	3.78	0.919
It take initiative to help new employees	2	1	18	6	43	14	147	51	80	28	3.98	0.858
Average											3.98	0.926

Table 4.23 shows how respondents rated statements on organizational citizenship behavior. The composite mean score for the responses on organizational citizenship behaviour was 3.98 while the average standard deviation 0.926. This indicated that respondents agreed that they took initiatives to help new employees settle in their work, they were always punctual and reported to work on time, they were willing to assist colleagues who had heavy workloads; they shared with other members of the organization important information, and that they always obeyed rules even when no one was present and watching them.

These outcomes were triangulated with opinions from the qualitative section of the questionnaire. In the open-ended section respondents were asked to state whether they thought that organizational citizenship behaviour was important for employees in the civil service. The respondents answered in the affirmative. They noted that;

“OCB could help the organization to improve its performance because employees would work extra and do more for the organization as it makes employees have positive mindset.” -----RESP
111

There was a comment that;

“Absenteeism, lateness, taking unnecessary breaks and off-duties really affects the performance of the civil service and if employees could be made

*to stop this will make delivery of services to citizens to improve.” -----
RESP 211*

Further comment was that;

*“Some employees are fond of making unnecessary complains on matters that need no complain. If they can be encouraged to work more instead of complaining, the perception of Kenyans about the civil service will change.”
-----RESP 235*

In their opinion the respondents were also asked to how organizational citizenship behaviour could be improved in the civil service. Some of the recommendations were as follows;

“Continuous training and development of employees on the civil service culture, its values and principles was necessary and this should be done during orientation of new employees.” -----RESP 105

“There is some laxity among some civil servants who owe their allegiance to those who facilitated their employment and hence they don’t do work as stipulated. There is need to introduce performance based pay where payment of salaries and allowances could be based on individual performance.” -----RESP 280

Another comment was;

“Rules are just created and forced down the throat of employees. there is need to have practices that will ensure high involvement and participation of employee so as to tap into employees varied talents, attract and retain critical talent necessary for the organization, and reduce resistance to changes which may be instituted.” -----RESP 290.

These findings indicate that proactive measures are required in the civil service which can stimulate employees to engage in organizational citizenship behaviour. As noted from the sentiments of respondents the importance of organizational citizenship

behaviour to individual employees and the organization are enormous and everything possible should be done to inculcate it into the system of the civil service.

4.6 Correlation Analysis

Correlation refers to a broad class of statistical relationships involving dependencies (Creswell, 2010). The correlation coefficient ratio can detect almost any functional dependency (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) indicates the strength of a linear relationship between two variables, with a range between -1, indicating that the variable under investigation are perfectly negatively related to +1, indicating that the variables are perfectly positively correlated (Mahdavi, 2013). The essence for correlation for this study was to satisfy the five objectives which were set for determination involving organizational justice measures and their relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour. Table 4.24 shows the correlation results for the variables.

Table 4.24: Correlation Analysis Matrix

		Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	Distributive Justice	Procedural Justice	Interpersonal Justice	Informational Justice	Job Satisfaction
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	Pearson Correlation	1					
	Sig. (2- tailed)						
Distributive Justice	N	290					
	Pearson Correlation	.625**	1				
Procedural Justice	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000					
	N	290	290				
Interpersonal Justice	Pearson Correlation	.682**	.810**	1			
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000				
Informational Justice	N	290	290	290			
	Pearson Correlation	.571**	.673**	.680**	1		
Job Satisfaction	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.000		
	N	290	290	290	290	290	
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.671**	.740**	.721**	.737**	1	
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	
Job Satisfaction	N	290	290	290	290	290	1
	Pearson Correlation	.655**	.736**	.695**	.623**	.787**	1
Job Satisfaction	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	290	290	290	290	290	290

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The findings are in Table 4.24. The results show that all independent variables had a positive and significant relationship with the independent variable. The correlations for individual variables are explained in the following sections.

4.6.1 Distributive Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The results in the correlation matrix Table 4.24 reveal that the correlation between organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and distributive justice had a positive, moderate and significant correlation ($r= 0.625$, $P=0.000$). The results suggest that an increase in distributive justice will automatically lead to an increase in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. These results further denote that when perceptions of distribution justice increase it causes an increase in the organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. However, when perceptions of distributive justice decrease it will cause a decrease in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. These findings are similar to those by Mayer (2009) who examined the U.S army troops.

4.6.2 Procedural Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya was found to positive and highly significant with a correlation coefficient, $r= 0.682$, $P=0.000$ since $p<0.05$. This result indicated that an increase in the perception of procedural justice resulted in a substantial increase in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The findings also confirm that a decrease in the perception of procedural justice would substantially reduce organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

4.6.3 Interpersonal Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

In the correlation analysis between interpersonal justice and organizational citizenship behaviour the study found a correlation coefficient, $r= 0.571$, $P=0.000$. Since the $p<0.05$ the correlation was positive and significant and hence an increase in the perception of interpersonal justice results in an increase in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Consequently, a perception of lack of

interpersonal justice would decrease the organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. This correlation shows a good relationship.

4.6.4 Informational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Similar findings were established in the relationship between information justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya with correlation coefficient, $r = 0.671$, $P = 0.000$.

4.6.5 Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

In the correlation between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviour of servants in Kenya, the results show that job satisfaction has a positive linear relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour at $r = .655$, $p = 0.000$.

Since the value of $p < 0.05$, the findings indicate a significant correlation and imply that an increase in employee's job satisfaction would lead to an increase in their organizational citizenship behaviour. In this study job satisfaction was used as a mediating variable and finding a significant relationship between the mediator and the dependent variable would be the first step and condition for mediation (Arif, Tjutfu, & Eeng, 2017). Many studies have also found significant and positive correlation between job satisfaction and OCB. These studies include Zeinabadi and Salehi (2011), Kasemsap (2012), Intaraprasong and Peera (2012), Zadeh, Esmaili, Tojari, and Zarei (2015).

4.7 Regression Analysis and Hypotheses Testing

Regression analysis is usually carried out to examine the strength of predictive variables against the dependent variable (Kothari, 2014). In this study organizational citizenship behaviour was the dependent variable while distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice were the independent variables. In regression several statistics are determine so as to help in the identification of the nature of the relationship that take place among the variables.

These statistics include the coefficient of determination R-squared (R^2) which is used to check how well the model used fits data collected or the regression line represents the data (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). The coefficient of determination is useful because it gives the proportion of variance of one variable that is predictable from another variable (Shields & Rangarjan, 2013). R-squared therefore measures the proportion or percentage of the total variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the regression model. Another important statistics in regression analysis is the *f*-value. The *f*-test is used in the analysis of variance (ANOVA) to compare the variance of two-independent samples, judge the significance of more than two sample means at one and the same time and judge the significance of multiple correlation coefficients for hypothesis testing (Kothari & Garg, 2014).

The *f*-statistics is used as the basis for rejecting or accepting the null hypothesis where if the computed *F*-value exceeds the critical *F* value then the null hypothesis is rejected and if it doesn't exceed then the null hypothesis is not rejected (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). The *t*-test is another important regression analysis that is done in the test of the hypothesis. *T*-test, like the *f*-test is used to test the significance of the coefficients of simple and partial correlations. According to Kothari and Garg (2014) the *t*-value is calculated from the sample data and then compared with its probable value based on *t*-distribution at a specified level of significance for concerning degrees of freedom, and used for accepting or rejecting the null hypothesis. When the computed *t*-value exceeds the critical *t*-value then the null hypothesis is rejected (Gujarati & Porter, 2010). The following hypotheses were set for testing:

H0₁: Distributive justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

H0₂: Procedural justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

H0₃: Interpersonal justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

H04 Informational justice does not have a significant influence on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya

H05: Job satisfaction does not mediate the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

4.7.1 Distributive Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The relationship between distributive justice and organizational citizenship behaviour was depicted by the following hypothesis;

H01: Distributive justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

This hypothesis was represented by the following simple regression model for the null hypothesis

$$H_{01} - Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$$

The alternative hypothesis for the relationship was that distributive justice positively and significantly influenced organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The hypothesis was represented by the following model;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon \text{ -----Model 1}$$

Where;

Y- Organizational citizenship behaviour

β_0 - the Y- intercept term

β_1 – The regression coefficient for the estimate for X

X_1 – Distributive Justice

E- The error term

To test this hypothesis, the dependent variable, organizational citizenship behaviour was regressed against the independent measure, distributive justice. The results from the model summary show ($r=0.625$, $R^2= 0.391$, and adjusted $R^2 =.388$). The finding indicate that the relationship between distributive justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya is moderately positive ($r=0.625$).

This means that distributive justice has a good and positive influence on organizational citizenship behaviour. Further, the results show that distributive justice explained substantial amount of variations in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya ($R^2= 0.391$) The results reveal 39.1% of variance in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya can be accounted for by distributive justice whereas the rest, 60.9%, is contributed to by other variables not prioritised in this study and the model. The results for the model summary are shown in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25: Distributive Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.625 ^a	.391	.388	.51706

a. Predictors: (Constant), Distributive Justice

The results in the table also show an adjusted $R^2 = 0.388$. This indicates a small change from the overall effect of distributive justice on organizational citizenship behaviour and may determine up to 39%. However, the value of R-squared show that the effect of distributive justice on OCBs of civil servants in Kenya is low and indicate that there could be other factors which may be more important.

The results for ANOVA $F(1, 288) = 184.519$, $P < 0.05$ (sig. =0.000). The F-value at the given degree of freedom is very large as compared to the critical value (3.87). This value confirms that the relationship between distributive justice and organizational citizenship behaviour is significant. The F-value further underpins the model's goodness of fit and shows that the data collected was good. Table 4.26 shows the results for ANOVA.

Table 4.26: ANOVA Results for Distributive Justice and OCB

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	49.332	1	49.332	184.519	.000 ^b
	Residual	76.998	288	.267		
	Total	126.331	289			

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

b. Predictors: (Constant), Distributive Justice

The results for ANOVA in the table identify that distributive justice is a significant predictor of organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. It has a positive influence. The positive influence of distributive justice similarly found in the analysis of the regression coefficients with the unstandardised coefficient ($\beta=0.473$, $t=13.584$, $p=0.000$). Based on the outcome the observed t-value (13.584) is greater than the critical t-value (+1.96), different from zero, but significant ($p<0.05$). The results are displayed in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27: Regression Coefficients for Distributive Justice

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.166	.129		16.820	.000
Distributive Justice	.473	.035	.625	13.584	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

The results from the analysis of coefficients reveal that distributive justice is statistically significant in explaining OCB of civil servants in Kenya. The value implies that one unit (percentage) increase in the perception of distributive justice will result in a positive increase in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya by 0.473 units (47.3%). The result confirms that perception of distributive justice can increase employees OCB by almost a half. It may also mean that if there is perception of distributive justice among civil servants almost a half of them would display organizational citizenship. The constant of the relationship between distributive justice and OCB is $B_0 = 2.166$. Therefore the relationship between distributive justice and organizational citizenship behaviour can be predicted by the following model.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

This model translates to:

$$Y = 2.166 + 0.473X_1 + e \dots\dots\dots \text{Model 1}$$

The model implies that distributive justice has a positive and significant relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. This was the finding that was being sought for by the first objective: *To assess the influence of distributive justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.* The finding makes the study to reject the null hypothesis:

H01: Distributive justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

Shruti and Kumari (2013) in a study 'organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior among Store Executives in Bangalore, also found that distributive justice positively affected organizational citizenship behaviour. These results are similar to the results obtained by Nosheena and Akhtar (2016) in a study on organizational Justice leading to Citizenship Behavior: A Study of University Education Faculties in Punjab (Pakistan)'. Das and Mohanty (2023) found positive and significant relationship between distributive justice and OCB ($\beta = .178$, $T = 3.583$, $\text{sig} = .000$). The same findings by Bhatti et al. (2019) who showed that the calculated F-value was (4.401) which was higher than the tabulated F-value at (0.005) significance level. However the result differs from those obtained by O'Connell (2022) who found that the relationship was not statistically significant ($r = -.07$, $p = .626$).

4.7.2 Procedural Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviour was set in objective 2 and indicated by the following hypothesis;

H02: Procedural justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya

This hypothesis was represented by the following simple regression model for the null hypothesis

$$H_{02} - Y \neq \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

The following was the alternative hypothesis;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon \text{ -----Model 2}$$

The alternative hypothesis indicated that procedural justice had a positive and significant influence on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. This relationship was tested by the regression of procedural justice on organizational citizenship behaviour. The model summary results show ($r=0.682$, $R^2=0.466$, and adjusted $R^2 =.464$). The finding show that procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya have moderately but positive relationship ($r=0.625$). This means that the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya is a good.

Similarly, the results from the coefficient of determinant ($R^2= 0.466$). The results reveal that procedural justice can account for 46.6% of the total variations in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. However, 53.4% of variations in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya can be accounted for by other factors that may have been not considered in this study or the model. The results for the model summary are shown in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28: Procedural Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
	.682 ^a	.466	.464	.48409

a. Predictors: (Constant), Procedural Justice

The results in the table also show an adjusted $R^2 = 0.464$. This indicates a small change from the overall effect of procedural justice on organizational citizenship behaviour and may determine up to 39%. However, the value of R-squared show that the effect of distributive justice on OCBs of civil servants in Kenya is low and indicate that there

could be other factors which may be more important. The value of the adjusted R^2 (0.464) highlights the factor that in case of any other variable being introduced it will only reduce the effect of procedural justice on organizational citizenship behaviour by 0.00002%.

The results for ANOVA show $F(1, 288) = 251.081, P < 0.05$ (sig. = 0.000). The F-value at, one degree of freedom, is large enough when compared to the critical value (3.87), and is different from zero. This value generates the fact that relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya is significant. The high value for F leads to the conclusion that the regression model fitted for the relationship has goodness of fit for data collected. The results for ANOVA for procedural justice and OCB are shown in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29: ANOVA for Procedural Justice and OCB

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	58.839	1	58.839	251.081	.000 ^b
Residual	67.491	288	.234		
Total	126.331	289			

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

b. Predictors: (Constant), PJ

The ANOVA result mean that the total variance in OCB explained by procedural justice is large than the variance that is not explained since ($P = 0.000$), which is equivalent to zero for the observed F-value. This result therefore implies that procedural justice is a significant predictor of organizational citizenship behaviour civil servants in Kenya. The significance of the relationship between procedural justice and OCB are further shown from the analysis of regression coefficients. From the analysis the unstandardised coefficients for the relationship between procedural justice and OCB is ($B = 0.533, P = 0.000$). This beta value shows that procedural justice is statistically significant in explaining OCB of civil servants in Kenya. The beta value implies that when perception of procedural justice is increased by one unit or percent (1%) organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya will increase by the margin of 0.533 units (53.3%). The result indicate when employees in the civil service in Kenya perceive justice in the procedures used to make decisions their

organizational citizenship behaviour will increase by 53.3%. This finding is illustrated in Table 4.30 of coefficients.

Table 4.30: Regression Coefficients for Procedural Justice

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.011	.120		16.692	.000
Procedural Justice	.533	.034	.682	15.846	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

The percentage increase in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya as a result of procedural justice is above the 50% mark. The implication of this change is that more than a half of civil servants in Kenya can improve their behavioural performance, positively, if they feel the presence of procedural justice in the management practices in the civil service. The constant for the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviour is 2.011. The relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya can be explained by the following regression equation.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_2 + e$$

This translates to the following model when the unknowns are substituted by the known values.

$$Y = 2.011 + 0.533PJ + e \dots\dots\dots \text{Model 2}$$

This is the model for the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviour among civil servants in Kenya. It indicates that procedural justice can increase organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya by 53.33%. Therefore, the study finds that procedural justice influences organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya by over 53%. The finding leads to the adoption of the alternate hypothesis and the rejection of the following null hypothesis:

H₀₂: Procedural justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya

The results are similar with the findings of Das and Mohanty (2023) who acknowledged that all the dimensions of organizational justice had statistically positive effect on OCB with procedural justice ($\beta = .281, T = 5.622, sig = .000$). Bhatti et al. (2019) found similar results indicating that the calculated F value (7.56) was higher than the tabulated F-value at the level of significance (0.000) and agreed that the increase of the procedural justice in the Doctors enhances organizational citizenship behaviour among employees Srinagar city. This means the rejection of the hypothesis and the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis which states that there is an effect of the procedural justice on the organizational citizenship behaviour of the Doctors. The results are not similar to findings of O’Connell (2022) who noted a not significant relationship between procedural justice and OCBs ($r = .04, p = .775$).

4.7.3 Interpersonal Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The study set an objective to assess the influence of interpersonal justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. This was the third objective of the study. The objective was transformed into the following third hypothesis:

H₀₃: interpersonal justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya

This hypothesis was represented by the following simple regression model for the null hypothesis

$$H_{02} - Y \neq \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon$$

The following was the alternative hypothesis;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon \text{ -----Model 3}$$

The alternative hypothesis indicated that interpersonal justice had a positive and significant influence on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. This relationship was tested when interpersonal was regressed organizational citizenship behaviour. The results from the model summary results show ($r=0.571,$

$R^2 = 0.326$, and adjusted $R^2 = .323$). From the illustrated findings it is clear that interpersonal justice relates positively with organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya ($r=0.571$). However, this relationship is moderate, but means that the relationship between interpersonal justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya is favourably good. The good relationship between interpersonal justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya is clearly shown by the coefficient of determinant ($R^2 = 0.326$).

The results of the coefficient of determinant reveal that interpersonal justice has the ability of explaining 32.6% of the total variance in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya, but 64.4% of the variations in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya can be accounted for by other factors that may have been not considered in this study or the model. The results for the model summary are shown in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31: Model Summary for Interpersonal Justice and OCB

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
	.571 ^a	.326	.323	.54385

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interpersonal Justice

The model summary show that there is a linear relationship between interpersonal justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya and that the regression line drawn for the relationship between interpersonal justice and OCBs of civil servants in Kenya has been well fitted for data collected based on the small value of the adjusted R-square value of 0.323.

The positive relationship is confirmed by the results of the ANOVA. The ANOVA results reveal $F(1, 288) = 139.124$, $P < 0.05$ (sig. = 0.000). According to the results, the computed F -value (48.451) is far high than the critical F -value and is greater than 1 meaning that there are variance in organizational citizenship behaviour that can be explained by interpersonal justice ($p=0.000$). These results are elaborated in Table 4.32 for ANOVA.

Table 4.32: ANOVA for Interpersonal Justice

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	41.149	1	41.149	139.124	.000 ^b
Residual	85.182	288	.296		
Total	126.331	289			

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

b. Predictors: (Constant), Interpersonal Justice

Accordingly, interpersonal justice has a positive and significant influence on the organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The positive and significant relationship between interpersonal justice and OCB is articulated in the analysis of the regression coefficients. The unstandardised beta coefficients show the relationship between OCB with interpersonal justice ($B=0.505$) and $t=11.795$, is significant ($P=0.000$; $p<0.05$). The results show that the observed *t-value* is greater than the critical *t-value* and different from zero. This confirms and provides further evidence that interpersonal justice is significantly related to OCBs of civil servants in Kenya. The analysis is posted in Table 4.33 of coefficients for interpersonal.

Table 4.33: Regression Coefficients for Interpersonal Justice

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.958	.165		11.873	.000
Interpersonal Justice	.505	.043	.571	11.795	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

The results from the analysis of regression coefficients justify that a unit increase in the perception of interpersonal justice will result in 0.505 units (50.5%) increase in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The constant of this relationship is 1.958. This study finds therefore that interpersonal justice has a positive and significant influence on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya under the following regression equation and as predicted by model 3.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3 + e$$

This model is transformed into the following when the unknown values are substituted by the observed value:

$$Y = 1.958 + 0.505X_3 + e \dots\dots\dots \text{Model 3}$$

This is the model that this study has identified for the relationship between interpersonal justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Therefore, the study finds that interpersonal justice influences organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya by over 50%. This means that the study automatically rejects the following null hypothesis

H₀₃: interpersonal justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya

These results are similar to the results obtained by Nosheena and Akhtar (2016) in a study 'organizational Justice leading to Citizenship Behavior: A Study of University Education Faculties in Punjab (Pakistan)'. Shruti and Kumari (2013) in a study 'organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior among Store Executives in Bangalore,' also found that procedural justice positively affected organizational citizenship behaviour. Das and Mohanty (2023) acknowledged that interpersonal justice did not have a statistically significant positive effect on OCB ($\beta = .079$, $T = 1.622$, $\text{sig} = .147$).

4.7.3 Informational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The study set an objective to assess the influence of informational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The objective was the fourth for the study. The objective was used to state the following fourth hypothesis:

H₀₄: Informational justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya

The following simple regression model for the null hypothesis was used to represent the hypothesis;

$$H_{03} - Y \neq \beta_0 + \beta_4 X_4 + \varepsilon$$

On the other hand the alternative hypothesis was indicated by the following model;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_4 X_4 + \varepsilon \text{ -----Model 4}$$

The alternative hypothesis indicated that the relationship between informational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya was positive and significant. To test the relationship organizational citizenship behaviour was regressed against informational justice. The findings from the regression model summary show ($r=0.671$, $R^2= 0.451$, and adjusted $R^2=.449$). The findings from the regression model summary demonstrate informational justice is positively related to organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya ($r=0.671$). This relationship is high meaning that informational justice exhibits a high positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

The relationship further depicted the coefficient of determinant ($R^2= 0.451$). This relationship demonstrate that informational justice has can explain 45.1% of the total variance in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya, however 54.9% can be explained other factors beyond the limit of the current study. The results for the model summary are shown in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34: Model Summary for Informational Justice

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
	.671 ^a	.451	.449	.49085

a. Predictors: (Constant), Informational Justice

Based on the model it is arguably true to note that informational justice has a linear relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The study can also note that the regression line drawn for the relationship between informational justice and OCBs of civil servants in Kenya has been well fitted for data collected based on the small value in the difference between R^2 and the adjusted R-square (0.449).

The ANOVA results reveal $F(1, 288) = 236.347$, $P < 0.05$ (sig. = 0.000). The results show that the computed F -value (236.347) is far high than the critical F -value and is greater than 1 meaning that there are variance in organizational citizenship behaviour that can be explained by informational justice ($p = 0.000$). These results are elaborated in Table 4.35 for ANOVA.

Table 4.35: ANOVA for Informational Justice

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	56.943	1	56.943	236.347	.000 ^b
Residual	69.388	288	.241		
Total	126.331	289			

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

b. Predictors: (Constant), Informational Justice

The ANOVA results from the table indicate that informational justice has substantial influence on the total variance in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya since the value $P = 0.000$, which is equivalent to zero for the observed F -value. This finding is further strengthened by the regression coefficients. The regression analysis show that the unstandardised coefficients have beta ($\beta = .510$, $t = 15.374$) which are significant with ($P = 0.000$, $p < 0.05$) showing that the relationship is significant with the constant (1.928). The results are summarised in Table 4.36.

Table 4.36: Coefficients for Informational Justice and OCB

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.928	.129		14.917	.000
Informational Justice	.510	.033	.671	15.374	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

This result, therefore, means that informational justice has a positive and significant relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya under the following regression equation and as predicted by model 4.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_4 X_4 + e$$

This model is transformed into the following based on the findings:

$$Y = 1.928 + 0.510X_4 + e \text{ ----- Model 4}$$

This is the model for the relationship between informational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The study finds that informational justice influences organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya and rejects the null hypothesis:

H₀₄: Informational justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya

These results are similar to the results obtained by Nosheena and Akhtar (2016) in a study on organizational Justice leading to Citizenship Behavior: A Study of University Education Faculties in Punjab (Pakistan)'. Shruti and Kumari (2013) in a study 'organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior among Store Executives in Banglore, also found that procedural justice positively affected organizational citizenship behaviour. Similarly Das and Mohanty (2023) found positive and significant relationship between informational justice and OCB ($\beta = .187$, $T = 3.293$, $sig = .001$).

4.7.5 Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

The main objective of the study was to assess the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. In order to assess the relationship all the measures of the organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational), which were individually found to significantly influence OCB, were jointly regressed as predictors of OCB. The joint relationship between the predictors and organizational citizenship behaviour was depicted by the following multiple regression model.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_{X1} + \beta_{X2} + \beta_{X3} + \beta_{X4} + \varepsilon \text{Model 5}$$

Where:

Y = Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

β_0 = Constant (coefficient of intercept)

X₁= Distributive Justice

X₂ = Procedural Justice

X₃ = Informational Justice

X₄ = interpersonal Justice

$\beta_1... \beta_4$ = Regression coefficient of the five variables to be estimated

ϵ = Error Term, which is assumed to be normally distributed

The findings from the regression model summary show the joint coefficients ($r=0.731$, $R^2= 0.534$, and adjusted $R^2 =.527$). The findings demonstrate the joint coefficient of relationship ($r=0.731$) show the existence of a high, strong, positive and significant relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Since the correlation is high and strong, it indicates that organizational justice is strong predictor of organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

The strength of the relationship is further illustrated by multiple coefficients of determination ($R^2= 0.534$). The observed value of R^2 implies that jointly the independent variables (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justices) explain 53.4% of the total variance in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya while 46.6% of the variance can be explained by other variables not included in this study. The R-square results also indicate that the regression line for the joint independent variables and the dependent, OCB has been well fitted for data collected based on the small value of the adjusted R-square (0.527). The results for the model summary are shown in Table 4.37.

Table 4.37: Model Summary for Multiple Regression Analysis

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
	.731 ^a	.534	.527	.45466

a. Predictors: (Constant), Informational, Procedural, Interpersonal, Distributive Justice

The results in the table confirm that organizational justice predicts over 50% of the total variance in organizational citizenship behaviour. The findings are further approved by the ANOVA results. The regression results for ANOVA show that the independent variables jointly had a significant influence on the dependent variable, with $F(4,285) = 81.537$. The results are significant because the observed *F-value* is higher than the critical *F-value* of the computed *F-statistics* of 81.537 which is greater and different from 1. Table 4.38 shows the ANOVA results for the relationship.

Table 4.38: ANOVA for Multiple Regression Analysis

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	67.418	4	16.855	81.537	.000 ^b
Residual	58.913	285	.207		
Total	126.331	289			

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

b. Predictors: (Constant), Informational, Procedural, Interpersonal, Distributive Justice

The observed *F-value* shows that the total variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables is large than the variance not explained since the *p-value* for the *F-value* is 0.000 or zero. The relation is further illustrated by the multiple regression coefficients. The partial regression coefficients show the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and distributive justice was ($\beta_1=.032, P=.000$); with procedural justice ($\beta_2=.296, P=.000$); with interpersonal justice ($\beta_3=.028, P=.000$), and with informational justice ($\beta_4=.261, P=0.000$). The summary for the partial regression coefficients is displayed in Table 4.39

Table 4.39: Partial Regression Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.624	.141		11.501	.000
Distributive Justice	.032	.057	.043	.570	.000
Procedural Justice	.296	.058	.379	5.124	.000
Interpersonal Justice	.028	.056	.032	.501	.000
Informational Justice	.261	.053	.343	4.910	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

The findings in the table show that the partial regression coefficients of the independent variables have all observed *t*-values greater than the expected *t*-values and are different from zero. They-intercept for the joint relationship of the independent variables is 1.624. This therefore connotes that organization justice measures jointly influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya positively and significantly under the following partial regression equation:

$$Y = 1.624 + 0.296PJ + 0.261INFJ + 0.032DJ + .028 INTJ + \varepsilon \text{ ----- Model 5}$$

Where Y (OCB) = $1.624 + 0.296(\text{Procedural Justice}) + 0.261(\text{Informational Justice}) + 0.032(\text{Distributive Justice}) + 0.028(\text{Interpersonal Justice}) + \text{Error Term}$

This regression model implies that holding procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice constant a unit increase in distributive justice will lead to 0.032 units (3.2%) increase in organizational citizenship behavior of civil servants in Kenya. Likewise holding other independent variables constant a unit increase in procedural justice will result in 0.296 units (29.6%) increase in organizational citizenship behavior of civil servants in Kenya. Similarly, holding other independent variables constant a unit increase in interpersonal justice will result in a 0.028 unit (2.8%) increase in organizational citizenship behavior of civil servants in Kenya. Finally holding other independent variables in the model constant would a unit increase in informational justice will result in 0.261 units (26.1%) increase in organizational citizenship behavior of civil servants in Kenya.

The results for ($R^2 = 0.534$) from the model summary, the $f(4, 285) = 81.537$ and the positive and significant, greater than and different from zero, t-values all indicate the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour are positively and significantly related. The further indicate that organizational justice is a very good predictor of organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. This study therefore rejects the null hypothesis that;

H₀: organizational justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya

These results are similar to the results obtained by Nosheena and Akhtar (2016) in a study 'organizational Justice leading to Citizenship Behavior: A Study of University Education Faculties in Punjab (Pakistan),' who found that Distributive Justice significantly and positively predicted Citizenship Behavior with Adjusted R Square = .055, $F(1, 236) = 14.786$, $p < .0005$ (Sig. = .000); Procedural Justice significantly and positively predicted Citizenship Behavior with Adjusted R Square = .068, $F(1, 235) = 18.167$, $p < .0005$ (Sig. = .000) and interaction justice, which can be interpreted as interpersonal justice significantly and positively predicted Citizenship Behavior with Adjusted R Square = .069, $F(1, 235) = 18.542$, $p < .0005$ (Sig. = .000).

Polychompoo (2017) in a study on the effects of Organizational Justice on Organizational Citizenship Behavior in a government savings bank in Thailand found a positive and significant relationship between distributive justice and OCB ($b = .147$, $p = .000$) and noted that there may be a feeling of injustice if a firm decides to make half of its staff redundant as this, in turn, could create a shift in the state of mind of employees and a decrease in productivity as there are constant reactions from individuals to the behaviors of organizations every day. The resulting behavior and attitude of the individual are dependent on their perception of the decisions and actions that the organization makes.

The study also found a positive and significant between procedural justice and OCB ($b = .493$, $p < .05$) and noted that people feel empowered during the process or if the process shows consideration for factors such as consistency, accuracy, ethicality, with no bias. The results also support earlier research by Heidari, Davoodi, and

Bozorgzadeh (2012) who found a significant positive relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior among school teachers in Iran. In a similar direction, the present study is consistent with the most recent research of Danish, Munir, Ishaq, and Arshad (2014) that confirmed the significant and positive correlation between organizational justice and extra-role behavior (OCB) among the university teachers in Pakistan.

These results are similar to the results obtained by Nosheena and Akhtar (2016) in a study 'organizational Justice leading to Citizenship Behavior: A Study of University Education Faculties in Punjab (Pakistan). A study by Shruti and Kumari (2013) in a study 'organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior among Store Executives in Bangalore,' also found that procedural justice positively affected organizational citizenship behaviour. The results of the present study show that organizational justice with all its dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice, informational and interpersonal justice) has a significant positive contribution in generating citizenship behavior among public servants in Kenya. This indicates that higher levels of perceived organizational justice, with all its dimensions, lead to higher predictions of citizenship behavior.

In a similar direction, the present study is consistent with the most recent research of Danish, Munir, Ishaq, and Arshad (2014) that confirmed the significant and positive correlation between organizational justice and extra-role behavior (OCB) among the university teachers in Pakistan. Studies, on the whole, show that organizational justice, taking collectively all its four dimensions has a positive significant relationship with citizenship behavior.

4.76 Demographic Variables on the Influence of Organizational justice

Control variables play an important role in any study that is interested in finding out the causal relationship between variables (Nielsen & Raswant, 2018). Control variables allows for sharing of variance between the controls and independent variable(s) which increase the magnitude of a regression coefficient of determinant, R-square and reduce the effect of the error terms, and provide for internal validity (Becker, 2015).

In this study five control variables. These variables were age, gender, work experience, education level and ministry. In order to use gender for analysis the variables was measured on a nominal scale categorized into (1) for male and (2) for female. Age bracket was categorized into (1) below 29 years; (2) between 30 and 39 years; (3) from 40 to 49 years, and (4) above 50 years, as a categorical variable. The control variable work experience was categorized into (1) less than 2 years; (2) 3 to 5 years; (3) 6 to 9 years and (4) over 10 years. The education level variable had (1) post graduate; (2) diploma; (3) bachelor's degree and (4) certificate holders. The ministry were the respondents worked had nine categories (1) interior and coordination; (2) labour; (3) ICT; (4) public service; (5) environment and forestry; (6) lands; (7) transport and infrastructure; (8) education; (9) national treasury and (10) energy.

The importance of the inclusion of these variables was their close link to the elements of perception of organizational justice which in turn influence organizational citizenship behaviour (Asaad, Lubna, & Ayman, 2019). To determine the effect of control variables in the relationship between organizational justice and OCB hierarchical regression analyses were performed and values of the coefficient of determinant, R-square and F-value were studied to determine whether they were significant so as to enable identify the goodness of fit of the data to the regression line. Table 4.40 shows the model summaries in the inclusion of the control variables in regression analysis.

Table 4.40: Hierarchical Model Summary for Control of Age

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.071 ^a	.005	.002	.66064	.005	1.451	1	288	.229
2	.626 ^b	.391	.387	.51765	.386	182.095	1	287	.000
3	.695 ^c	.483	.478	.47783	.092	50.823	1	286	.000
4	.705 ^d	.497	.490	.47238	.013	7.642	1	285	.006
5	.731 ^e	.534	.526	.45521	.038	22.895	1	284	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Distributive Justice

c. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Distributive Justice , Procedural Justice

d. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Distributive Justice , Procedural Justice, Interpersonal Justice

e. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Distributive Justice , Procedural Justice, Interpersonal Justice, Informational Justice

The model summary results show five models. The first model shows the regression of the dependent variable OCB on the control variable age. In this regression R-square was ($R^2=0.005$). This indicates that age accounted for 0.005 units (5%) of variance in OCB while 95% of the variations are accounted for by other variables outside the model. Model two shows the addition of distributive justice in the relationship between age and OCB. In this model the value for R-square ($R^2=0.391$). The implication of this model is that age does not significantly affect the relationship between distributive justice and organizational citizenship behaviour based on the result from the simple linear regression between distributive justice and OCB ($R^2=0.391$).

The R-square change for the model was 0.386 showing that in the inclusion of distributive justice the model was enhanced by 0.386 from 0.005. These findings supported the fact that distributive justice was a significant predictor of OCB ($F=92.229$; $P=0.000/p<0.005$). The third model involved the inclusion of procedural justice in the model that had OCB, age and distributive justice. The value for R-square ($R^2= 0.483$). The R-square value indicated an increase showing that the new model would now explain 48.3% of variance in OCB.

The findings illustrate that age, distributive justice and procedural justice were good predictors of OCB. The model was therefore statistically significant ($F=89.101P<0.005$). Model four was generated in the regression of OCB on age,

distributive justice, procedural justice and interpersonal justice. The R-square value was ($R^2=.490$) which indicated the new model would now explain 49.0% of variance in OCB. The findings illustrate that age, distributive justice and procedural justice and interpersonal justice were good predictors of OCB. The model was therefore statistically significant ($F=70.288$; $P<0.005$). Finally Model five was generated in the regression of OCB on distributive justice, procedural justice and interpersonal justice with age controlled. The R-square value was ($R^2=.526$) which indicated the new model would now explain 52.6% of variance in OCB.

The findings illustrate that when controlling for age, distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice were good predictors of OCB as their model was therefore statistically significant ($F=65.129$; $P<0.005$). The significance of the relationship between the independent variables controlling for age is shown by the significance of the t-value in table 4.41. The result for the regression coefficients shows that the link between the control variable age and the dependent variable was insignificant for all the models. In model 1 the unstandardised coefficient for age ($B=0.059$; $P=.229$). In model 2 which included age had ($B=.023$; $P=.553$). Model 3 age had ($B=.023$; $P=.553$). In the fourth model age had ($B=.041$, $P=.246$). The fifth model age had ($B=.019$, $P=.584$) respectively. However, when the predictor variables; distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice were added to the models the unstandardised coefficients became significant. Table 4.41 shows the regression coefficients.

Table 4.41: Regression Coefficients for Control of Age

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.684	.156		23.687	.000
	AGE	.059	.049	.071	1.205	.229
2	(Constant)	2.101	.169		12.417	.000
	AGE	.023	.039	.027	.594	.553
	DJ	.471	.035	.623	13.494	.000
3	(Constant)	1.788	.162		11.020	.000
	AGE	.039	.036	.047	1.100	.272
	DJ	.153	.055	.202	2.782	.006
	PJ	.405	.057	.518	7.129	.000
4	(Constant)	1.566	.179		8.733	.000
	AGE	.041	.035	.049	1.163	.246
	DJ	.108	.057	.143	1.905	.050
	PJ	.354	.059	.453	6.008	.000
	INTERJ	.146	.053	.165	2.764	.006
5	(Constant)	1.569	.173		9.080	.000
	AGE	.019	.034	.023	.549	.584
	DJ	.031	.057	.041	.540	.042
	PJ	.298	.058	.382	5.145	.000
	INTERJ	.030	.056	.034	.539	.003
	INFOJ	.257	.054	.338	4.785	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

The results in the table show that all predictor variables; distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice are significantly related with the dependent variable when the control variable age is controlled. Similar findings were established when gender and education level were controlled in the analysis of the influence of the independent variables on organizational citizenship behaviour. The results from the first regression model summary indicate that R-square was ($R^2=0.024$). This indicates that education level and gender accounted for 0.024 units (2.4%) of variance in OCB while 97.4% of the variations are accounted for by other variables outside the model.

Model two shows the addition of distributive justice in the relationship between education level and gender and OCB. In this model the value for R-square ($R^2=0.409$) which imply that education level, gender and distributive justice account for 40.9% of variance in OCB. The third model had education level, gender, distributive and procedural justice with ($R^2= 0.494$).

The model shows that the independent variables together with the control variables account for 49.9% of the variance in organizational citizenship behaviour. The fourth model with education level, gender, distributive, procedural, and interpersonal justice had ($R^2=0.505$). This shows that the fourth model with education level, gender, distributive, procedural, and interpersonal justice explained 50.5% of variance in OCB while 49.5% were explained by other variables not in the model. Further model five with education level, gender, distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice had ($R^2=0.543$) showing that all the independent variables together with the control variables education and gender explained 54.3% of the total variance in organizational citizenship behaviour while 45.7% were accounted for by other variables not included in the model. These results are summarised in table 4.42

Table 4.42: Model Summary for Control of Education and Gender

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.156 ^a	.024	.017	.65537
2	.640 ^b	.409	.403	.51091
3	.703 ^c	.494	.487	.47349
4	.711 ^d	.505	.497	.46908
5	.737 ^e	.543	.533	.45176

a. Predictors: (Constant), Education Level and Gender

b. Predictors: (Constant), Education Level, Gender, Distributive Justice

c. Predictors: (Constant), Education Level, Gender, Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice

d. Predictors: (Constant), Education Level, Gender, Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice Interpersonal Justice

e. Predictors: (Constant), Education Level, Gender, Distributive, Procedural, Interpersonal and Informational Justice

The significance of the models is indicated by the ANOVA results. The ANOVA findings indicate that the relationship between the control variables and OCB is insignificant ($F=3.566$, $P=0.30$). However in the inclusion of the independent variables the relationship becomes significant. For example in model 2 with inclusion of distributive justice ($F=65.989$, $P=0.000$); model 3 in the inclusion of procedural justice ($F=69.625$, $P=0.000$); model 4 in the inclusion of interpersonal justice ($F=58.028$, $P=0.000$), while in model 5 in the inclusion of informational justice ($F=56.001$, $P=0.000$). The results are summarised in Table 4.43.

Table 4.43: ANOVA Results for Control of Education and Gender

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.063	2	1.532	3.566	.030 ^b
	Residual	123.268	287	.430		
	Total	126.331	289			
2	Regression	51.676	3	17.225	65.989	.000 ^c
	Residual	74.655	286	.261		
	Total	126.331	289			
3	Regression	62.437	4	15.609	69.625	.000 ^d
	Residual	63.894	285	.224		
	Total	126.331	289			
4	Regression	63.841	5	12.768	58.028	.000 ^e
	Residual	62.490	284	.220		
	Total	126.331	289			
5	Regression	68.574	6	11.429	56.001	.000 ^f
	Residual	57.756	283	.204		
	Total	126.331	289			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Education Level and Gender

b. Predictors: (Constant), Education Level, Gender, Distributive Justice

c. Predictors: (Constant), Education Level, Gender, Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice

d. Predictors: (Constant), Education Level, Gender, Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice Interpersonal Justice

e. Predictors: (Constant), Education Level, Gender, Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice ,Interpersonal Justice Informational Justice

The ANOVA results in the table reveal that all the independent variables are significant predictors of OCB. the result further connote that irrespective of education level and the gender of the respondents organizational justice will positively and significantly influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

4.7.7 Demographic Variables and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The study has established the positive and significant relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The study has also established that the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour is not very much influenced by demographic variables. The study found it important to establish whether demographic factors have an influence on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. In the

analysis organizational citizenship behaviour was regressed against demographic variables age, gender, and work experience and education levels.

From the analysis the regression of gender, age, work experience, education level and job category had coefficient of correlation ($r=0.389$) which indicated that the variables had a positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Further the regression coefficient of determinant ($R^2= 0.151$) which denoted that all the demographic variables accounted for only 15.1% of the variations in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya while 84.9% were accounted for by other factors not in the model. The adjusted R square was 0.136 meaning that if any other variable was included in the model then demographic factors would account for 13.6% of the variance. Table 4.44 shows the results.

Table 4.44: Mode Summary for Demographic Variable and Citizenship

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.389 ^a	.151	.136	.61448

a. Predictors: (Constant), JOBCAT, Gender, Age, Experience, Education

The results in the table show that demographic variables have a very low positive effect on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The ANOVA findings for the relationship indicate that the relationship is significant ($F=10.114$, $P=0.000$) as summarised in Table 4.45.

In a study by these findings of a significant relationship was also identified by

Table 4.45: ANOVA for Demographic Variable and Citizenship Behaviour

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	19.095	5	3.819	10.114	.000 ^b
	Residual	107.236	284	.378		
	Total	126.331	289			

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

b. Predictors: (Constant), Job Category, Gender, Age, Experience, Education

The t-values for the relationship indicate lack of significance of the unstandardised coefficients which are all insignificant as shown in Table 4.46.

Table 4.46: Coefficients for Demographic Variable and Citizenship Behaviour

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.782	.264		10.542	.000
	Age	.052	.046	.062	1.133	.258
	Gender	.117	.075	.086	1.570	.117
	Education	.074	.041	.100	1.815	.071
	Experience	-.071	.034	-.113	-2.053	.041
	Job Category	.199	.033	.336	6.072	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

The results in the table show that age (.052), gender (.117) and job category (.199) have positive unstandardised Beta values while work experience (-.071) has a negative Beta value. All the t-values for the variables are greater than zero but are insignificant except for job category. The t-value for work experience is negative.

This result is different from the results by Mahnaz , Mehdi , Jafar and Abbolghasem (2013) who investigated sex, marital status, academic qualification, type of profession, salary and wages, ethnicity, job position and duration of employment among hospital workers and found that all demographic characteristics except ethnicity had significant effects on OCB. Abdullah and Kamil (2020) reported significant effects of sex, marital status, age, academic qualification, duration of service, and monthly income on OCB.

The results are similar to Yadav and Rangnekar (2015), Kamel, Ilyes and Zohra (2015) and Abdullah and Kamil (2020) who observed no significant difference in levels of citizenship behavior in relations to age group, level of education and job tenure and

insignificant effects of demographic variables on OCB. However studies note that women show a higher level of citizenship behavior since they are more empathetic and caring for others (Mirković & Cizmic, 2019), have a positive opinion towards OCB but only engage in certain types of OCB (Bhatla, 2016). Further analyses on demographic factors have found that older workers participate more actively in citizenship behavior than younger employees who exhibit limited OCB because they have to adapt and adjusting to the organization which older employees have already adapted to (Mirković & Cizmic, 2019).

Findings on education show that highly educated employees perceive more social advantages in the exchange with the organization compared to the less educated who focus more on the economic value (Jena & Goswami, 2014). The length of stay in an organization is critical for the organization as it determines work performance with those who have stayed longer showing high level of OCB than short-lived tenures (Chen et al., 2018). On job category it has been found that the higher the position, the more persistent the employee engage in OCB towards colleagues and the organization. Employees at the management level are more willing to undertake extra role duties that contribute towards organizational development (Pavalache-Ilie & Anitei, 2014)

4.7.8 Mediating Effect of Job Satisfaction

The mediation effect of job satisfaction was captured by objective number five (*H₀₅*); to assess the mediating influence of job satisfaction in the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The objective was used transformed into the following fifth hypothesis:

H₀₅: Job satisfaction does not mediate the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

In order to test for mediation the Baron and Kenny (1986) three-step approach was applied. These steps involve; (i) Testing the significance of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable as indicated by XY (Path C) in figure 4.1 to show that the causal variable is correlated with the outcome and to estimate path c^1 , (ii) testing the significance of the relationship between the

independent variable and the mediator to show that the causal variable is correlated with the mediator, XM and to estimate and test (path a), (iii) testing the significance of the relationship between the mediator and the dependent variable controlling the independent, MY (path b) to show that the mediator affects the outcome variable. This step is used to calculate the Sobel's Indirect Effect by multiplying the coefficients of Path 'a' and 'b', and testing for complete or partial mediation of M on X-Y where the effect of the independent variable on the dependent controlling for the mediator (path c¹) should be zero for complete mediation and reduce significantly for partial mediation. These steps are illustrated in figure 4.3.

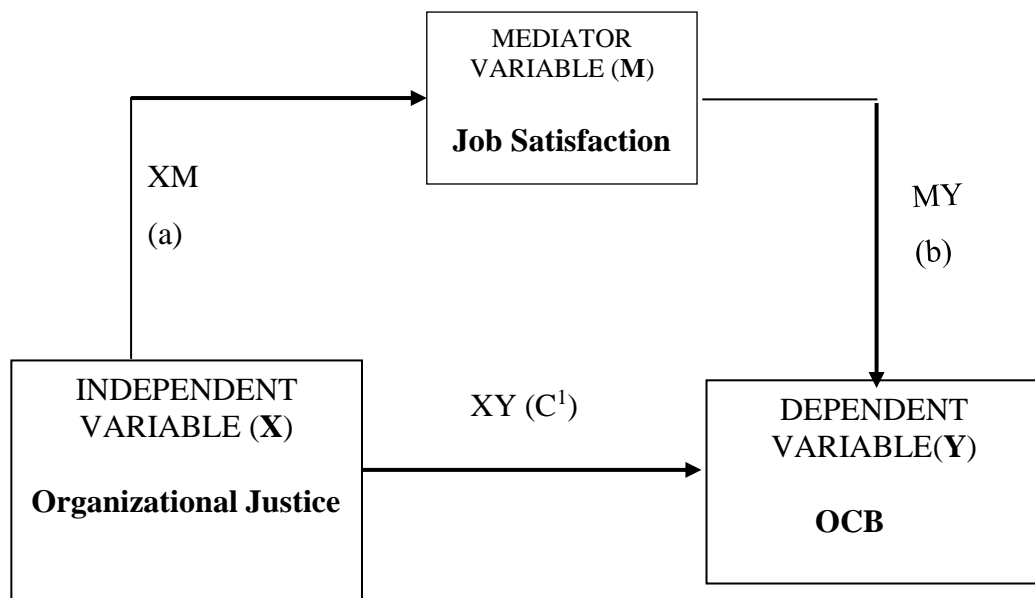


Figure 4.2: Indirect Effect/Mediation

According to the highlighted steps, a regression of the dependent variable on independent variables, a regression of the mediator on the independent variables, and a regression of the dependent variable on both the mediator and independent variables are required to determine the mediation. In mediation analysis the goal is to identify whether any statistical significance exists for the indirect effect and to estimate the point effect using the Unstandardized Coefficient Beta and Standard Error for the paths- *a* and *b* (Saifi & Shahzad, 2017). Therefore the main important statics in this analysis was the table of coefficients.

a) Estimation of the Total Effect of Independent (X) on Dependent Variable (Y)

In this regression the composite variable organizational justice, the independent variable, was regressed against organizational citizenship behaviour, the dependent variable. The purpose of this regression analysis was to determine the statistical significance of the unstandardized Beta coefficient and the standard Error for paths- *c*. this was done by checking the p-value in the table of coefficients. The results illustrate that the unstandardised coefficients ($\beta = 0.636$). The p-value for the relationship ($p=0.000$). This show that p-value is less than 0.05, ($p<0.05$). The findings are summarised in Table 4.47.

Table 4.47: Coefficients for Regression of Independent on Dependent

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.537	.136		11.271	.000
1 Organizational Justice	.636	.037	.716	17.420	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

The findings indicate that a unit increase in the perception of organizational justice will result in 0.636 units (63.6%) increase in the display of organizational citizenship behaviour. This is illustrated in Table 4.42. The findings in the table are an illustration that organizational justice is a positive and significant determinant of organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The results confirm the first step in mediation analysis and the value for $c=0.637$. The constant for the relationship is 1.537 hence the model for the relationship;

$$Y_{ocb} = 1.537 + 0.637X + e \text{ ----- Model 6}$$

Y_{ocb} – Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

X_0 . Organizational Justice

b) Regression of Independent (X) on Mediator (M) Variable

This is the second step in mediating where a regression analysis is done to determine the significance of the relationship between the mediator (job satisfaction) and the

independent variable (organizational justice). The purpose of this regression analysis was to determine the statistical significance of the unstandardized Beta coefficient and the standard Error for paths- α . This was done by checking the p-value in the table of coefficients. In the analysis the unstandardised coefficients show $\beta = 0.945$, $p = 0.000$, hence $p < 0.005$. Table 4.48 shows the summarised findings.

Table 4.48: Coefficients for Regression of Independent on Mediator

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.430	.157		2.749	.006
1 Organizational Justice	.945	.042	.799	22.561	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

This results show that a unit increases in the perception of organizational justice would result in 0.945 units (94.5%) of job satisfaction whereas 0.055 units (5.5%) can be accounted for by other variables not in the model. The results confirm the second step in mediation analysis and the value for $a = 0.945$. The constant for the relationship is 0.430 hence the model for the relationship is;

$$Y_{JS} = 0.430 + 0.945X_0 + e \text{ ----- Model 7}$$

Y_{JS} – Job Satisfaction

X_0 . Organizational Justice

c) Regression of Dependent on Independent and Mediator Variables

This is the third step in mediation where a regression analysis is done to determine the significance of the relationship between the mediator (job satisfaction) and the dependent (organizational citizenship behaviour) holding the independent variable (organizational justice) constant. The purpose of this regression analysis was to determine the direct effect of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behaviour to find the statistical significance of the unstandardized Beta coefficient and the standard

Error for paths- *b* and *c*. The p-value for the relationship was checked in the table of coefficients.

In the analysis the unstandardised coefficients between the regression of organizational citizenship behaviour on organizational justice on is $\beta = 0.473$, $p = 0.000$, while the standard error for the coefficient is 0.060 . Further, the unstandardised coefficient between the regression organizational citizenship behaviour on job satisfaction on is $\beta = 0.172$, $p = 0.001$ while the standard error for the coefficient is 0.050 . Table 4.49 shows the summarised findings.

Table 4.49: Coefficients for Independent, Mediator and Dependent:

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.463	.136		10.784	.000
Job Satisfaction	.172	.050	.229	3.416	.001
Organizational Justice	.473	.060	.533	7.934	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

This results show that a unit increases in the perception of organizational justice would result in 0.172 units (17.2%) increase in job satisfaction which would lead to 0.473 units (47.3%) increase in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya under the following regression model;

$$Y_{OCB} = 1.463 + 0.172M + 0.473X_0 + e \text{ -----Model 8}$$

The results in the Table 4.49 show a significant relationship between dependent variable, OCB, and the mediator variable, job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.172$, $t = 3.416$, $p < 0.000$) when organizational justice was controlled. It provides the coefficient for path $b = 0.172$. Similarly, the results show the relationship between OCB and organizational justice was significant ($\beta = 0.473$, $t = 7.934$, $p < 0.000$) with the Beta value, $\beta = 0.473$. The Beta value for the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable in the presence of the mediator variable ($\beta = 0.473$), which is the coefficient for path c^l , has significantly reduced from the Beta value for the

relationship between the independent variable in the absence of the mediator variable $\beta = 0.636$. The reduction in the coefficient of the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour in the presence of the mediator, job satisfaction, indicates that job satisfaction has a partial mediating influence on the relationship between organizational justice and OCB.

These findings compare favourably with the steps used by Jufrizen and Kanditha (2021) in the study on the role of job satisfaction in mediating the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behavior and all the three procedures for test of mediation positive and significant; X to Y (T=10.611, p=0.000); X to M (T= 9.555, P=0.000) and M to Y (T=3.035, P=0.003) and acknowledged that injustice in organizations reduces work performance, the quality of work, and cooperation between workers and may lead to a lack of bonds between members. They further noted that organizational justice influences organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) not only directly but also through Job satisfaction as a mediator. Employees who feel treated fairly at work tend to be more satisfied with their jobs and subsequently show more OCB. This is because a sense of justice can increase employees' perceptions of organizational support and job satisfaction, increasing motivation to carry out voluntary behavior (Jufrizen & Kanditha, 2021).

d) Test for Indirect Effect Statistical Significance (The Sobel Test)

The confirmation of the partial mediation can be done through the Sobel (1982) test. To calculate the significance of the indirect effect the Sobel test calculator online was applied to the three coefficients identified from the three models established;

Path a = 0.473, from model 8

Path b=0.172; from model 8

Path c= 0.636; from model 6

Table 4.50: Coefficients for Independent, Mediator and Dependent

Coef for path (a)	Standard error for path (a)	Coef for path (b)	Standard error for path (b)	Sobel Test statistic	p-value
0.473	0.060	0.172	0.050	3.15289546	0.0016166

The results in Table 4.50 show the critical ratio or the Sobel Test statistic value (3.152895) of the effect of the organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour via the mediator, job satisfaction is significantly different from zero ($p=0.002; p<0.05$). This indicates that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour. Figure 4.4 shows the mediations paths and their coefficients.

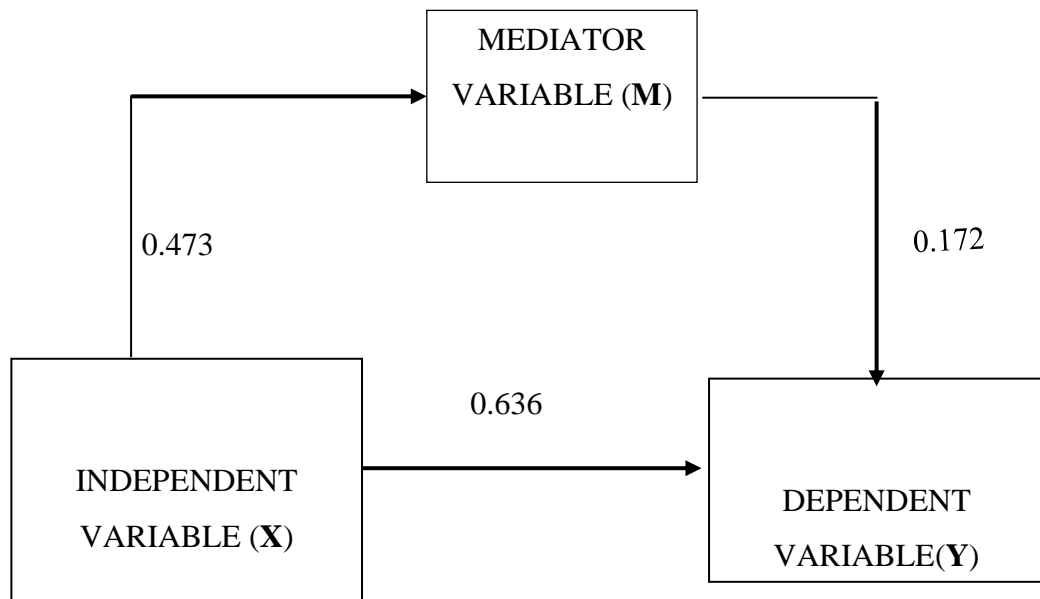


Figure 4.3: Indirect Effect/Mediation

The figure shows that organizational justice influences organizational citizenship behaviour directly and indirectly through job satisfaction. This findings were also established through bootstrap test for mediation as suggested Hayes and Scharkow (2013) who indicate the alternative in the test of the significance of the indirect effect.

The bootstrap test is usually done to check for the confidence interval and the p-values of the Sobel test’s coefficients to illustrate whether their confidence intervals are

different from or are greater than zero or nonzero, with $p < 0.05$ (Kenny, Mediation, 2022). Based on the determination of the confidence intervals, $\beta = 0.172$ (0.005-0.339; $p = 0.049$), for job satisfaction and $\beta = 0.473$ (0.293-0.653, $p = 0.001$) for organizational justice. According to results the confidence interval at 95% have non-zero values which indicate indirect effect hence existence of mediation. The results are as shown in Table 4.51.

Table 4.51: Bootstrap Test for Sobel Coefficients

Model	B	Bootstrap ^a				
		Bias	Std. Error	Sig. (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
(Constant)	1.463	.001	.245	.001	1.005	1.963
Job Satisfaction	.172	.002	.086	.049	.005	.339
Organizational Justice	.437	-.002	.094	.001	.293	.653

a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 1000 bootstrap samples

A further test to determine the indirect effect is by the calculation of the Z-value to determine whether it is greater than 1.96 for the Sobel test. From the Table 4.58, the Z-value for the coefficient of job satisfaction $Z = 0.172 / 0.086 = 2.000$, while for organizational justice $Z = 0.473 / 0.094 = 5.0319$. Based on this outcome, the study establishes the mediating effect of job satisfaction in the relationship between organizational justice and OCB. Therefore the model for the mediation effect of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behaviour is shown as ;

$$Y_{OCB} = 1.463 + 0.172M + 0.473X_0 + e \text{ -----Model 8}$$

The model shows that the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour is mediated by job satisfaction. The findings indicate that the study rejects the null hypothesis that;

H₀₅: Job satisfaction does not mediate the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

4.7.8 Hierarchical Regression Analysis

The study set two main models for analysis; the direct model and the mediated model. The direct model was the regression of organizational citizenship behaviour, the dependent variable, on organizational justice, the independent variables, which was measured under distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice. The indirect or mediated model involved the regression of organizational citizenship behaviour on both organizational justice and job satisfaction, the mediating variable. For this analysis two model were generated. Model 1 indicated the direct relationship between the independent and dependent variables while model 2 indicated the mediation effect of job satisfaction in the relationship between the organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour. Table 4.52 shows the model summary of the hierarchical regression.

Table 4.52: Hierarchical Regression Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.731 ^a	.534	.527	.45466
2	.741 ^b	.549	.541	.44784

a. Predictors: (Constant), Informational, Procedural, Interpersonal, Distributive Justice

b. Predictors: (Constant); Informational, Procedural, Interpersonal, Distributive Justice, Job Satisfaction

As indicated in the model summary results in the table *model 1* shows how the dependent variable was affected by the independent variable, while in *model 2* shows the effect of the mediator variable on the relationship between the independent and dependent variable. For *model 2* the R-squared value was 0.549 while in model 1 the R-squared value was .534. The two R-squared values show an R-squared change of .015. The change in the R-squared values shows the overall mediation effect on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. It shows the mediation effect of job satisfaction in the relationship between organizational justice and OCB. The findings indicate the truth that organizational justice influences job satisfaction which in turn influences organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

According to this findings, and based on the value of R-square for the two model, the study identifies that Model 2, the mediated model, with high R-square value, explains more variations, (54.9%) than model 1 (53.4%), for the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour. The mediated Model 2 is therefore found as one which defines well the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The two models are also found to be significant based on the ANOVA analysis in Table 4.53.

Table 4.53: Hierarchical Regression ANOVA Results

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	67.418	4	16.855	81.537	.000 ^b
	Residual	58.913	285	.207		
	Total	126.331	289			
2	Regression	69.372	5	13.874	69.178	.000 ^c
	Residual	56.959	284	.201		
	Total	126.331	289			

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

b. Predictors: (Constant), Informational, Procedural, Interpersonal, Distributive Justice

c. Predictors: (Constant), Informational, Procedural, Interpersonal, Distributive Justice, Job Satisfaction

The ANOVA results indicate the significance of the direct relationship (F=81.537; P=0.000) and the indirect model (F=69.178; P=0.000). The observed f-values are greater than the expected f-value and are different from zero indicating that the relationship is significant. The significance of the models is also supported by the t-values for the coefficients of the models as shown in Table 4.54

Table 4.54: Hierarchical Regression Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.624	.141		11.501	.000
	DJ	.032	.057	.043	.570	.000
	PJ	.296	.058	.379	5.124	.000
	INTERJ	.028	.056	.032	.501	.000
	INFOJ	.261	.053	.343	4.910	.000
2	(Constant)	1.528	.142		10.726	.000
	DJ	-.013	.058	-.017	-.223	.000
	PJ	.277	.057	.354	4.834	.000
	INTERJ	.032	.055	.036	.572	.000
	INFOJ	.175	.059	.231	2.972	.003
	JOBSAT	.164	.052	.218	3.121	.002

a. Dependent Variable: OCB

The results in the table show that all the t-values are greater than and different from zero and all of the values are significant as their p-value is less than 0.005 (P=0.000). According to these findings the study reveals that the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and organizational justice is both direct and indirect as indicated by the significance of model 1, the direct model, and model 2, the indirect model. However, the results also reveal that the indirect or the mediated model is more superior to the direct model based on the variance in the dependent variable they explain. Since model 2 shows that organizational justice explains 54.8% of total variance of organizational citizenship behaviour while model 1 explains 53.4% the study determines that model 2 is the best fitted model for the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The model is shown in the following figure 4.4.

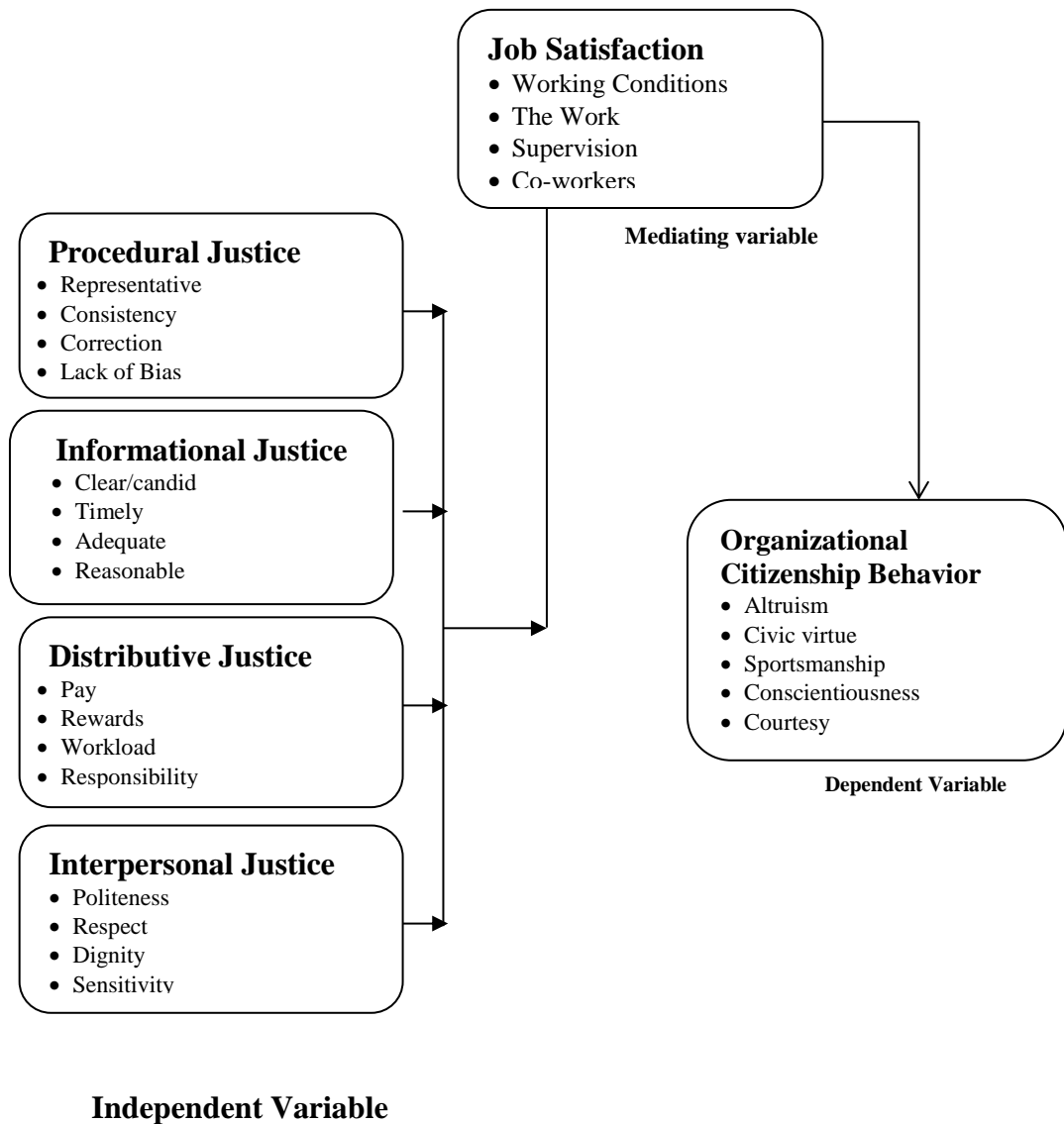


Figure 4.4: Ultimate Model

The model reveals that among civil servants in Kenya procedural justice explains the highest variance in their organizational citizenship behaviour followed by informational justice, distributive justice and lastly interpersonal justice. The results further indicate that among civil servants procedures, their consistency, lack of bias, correctability and their ability to allow employees a second chance through appeal are very critical in the performance of employees. It is factual that once procedural are fair other forms of justice will fit in place, especially interpersonal relationships, which are seemingly determined by procedures and information dissemination. Civil servants in Kenya felt that procedures determine everything done in the organization and once

they are provided with adequate, good quality information, distribution of resources and interpersonal relationship will be fair.

4.4 Discussions of Findings

This chapter has presented the results and findings of the study on the research objectives and hypotheses with regards to the data collected from the respondents. Statistical analysis of frequencies has been used to present the response rate of the study, the Cronbach Alpha test was used for the presentation of the reliability results while factor analysis was used to determine the validity of the questionnaire. Statistical frequencies, percentages, the mean and standard deviation were used for the presentation of descriptive statistics on background information and variables descriptive. Correlation and regression analysis were used for the subsequent sections that focused on the relationship between the independent variables, the mediator and the dependent variable for inferential statistics.

4.8.1. Discussion on Descriptive Findings

The results from descriptive statistics indicate that majority of the participants did agree with most of the statements used to measure the variables based on frequencies, percentages, the mean and standard deviation. The mean measures for all the statements on the variables were found to be above average with some statements recording values of 4.17. The standard deviations range was between 0.70 to about 1.20, which indicated a similarity and congruency of the responses. Accordingly therefore, based on the descriptive statistics, the majority of the respondents indicated that the civil service had a good level of organizational justice which improved the employees job satisfaction and consequently, organizational citizenship.

The descriptive findings on distributive justice indicated the average mean score for the responses as 3.60 with a range between 3.26-3.83, with the average standard deviation 1.060. The average mean for these responses show that participants were in agreement that distribution justice was present in the civil service in Kenya. The participants indicated that their pay level was appropriately based on their work; salaries were fair given their workload, their rewards were appropriately compared to

colleagues in with similar work in other organizations, and they were compensated appropriately.

The statement which recorded the highest mean was 'I am fairly compensated given my job responsibility.' While the one with the lowest mean was lowest 'I am rewarded appropriately compared to colleagues in other organizations.' This implies that the respondents were satisfied with the compensation in the civil service but they may not be sure whether their compensation is similar to that of colleagues in other organizations. It may not be easy to compare their salaries and those of colleagues elsewhere. These findings were collaborated with the opinions from the open-ended responses which revealed that fair distribution improves employee positive behaviour.

The descriptive findings on procedural justice indicated average mean score for the responses as 3.47 with a range between 3.26-3.73 with the average standard deviation 1.055. Among all the statements procedural justice recorded the lowest mean on the statement 'Procedures ensure consistent decisions making.' It also recorded the lowest highest mean at 3.73 compared to other highest mean on the statement 'Procedures reduce supervisor's bias.' The reason for this may be attributed to participants not being sure of the processes through which decisions are made in the civil service. Employees in the civil service are governed by rules and regulations which have already been set (Kobia, 2013) and they may have none or very little input on decision making.

Generally, the respondents indicated that they were not sure with most of the statements. Further the respondents did not agree on two statements; procedures were consistent, and procedures allowed for appeal. However they agreed that procedures limited supervisor's bias and that they were ethical. According to their opinions the procedures were very fair on paper but there was very little practice of what had been written in the policies because there were incidences of when procedures were not applied consistently and at certain times supervisors could show biases. The descriptive findings on interpersonal justice indicated average mean score for the responses was 3.78 with a range of 3.40-4.10, with the average standard deviation 0.922.

These results indicate that participants agreed with most of the statements and agreement was unanimous. The participants did however disagree with the fact that their supervisors treated them with kindness. In their opinion they noted that there was need for the supervisor to maintain good relationship with employees as they were the face of the organization and employees saw the organization through them. They also agreed that interpersonal relationships could be improved through regular consultations, supervisors improving their professionalism, and supervisors to ensure the implementation of impartial decisions and maintain respects with all employees.

The descriptive findings on informational justice indicated average mean score for the responses was 3.78 with a range between 3.42- 4.00 and the average standard deviation 1.05. This indicated that the respondents agreed with most statements on informational justice. The highest rated statement was ‘My supervisor explains my performance appraisals clearly.’ While the lowest was ‘My supervisor explains feedback adequately.’ Generally, the participants noted that their supervisors provided honest feedback.

On job satisfaction results indicated an average mean score for the responses as 3.98 with the range of 3.53-4.16 and the average standard deviation 1.026. The values indicate that majority of employees agree that they are satisfied with the competence and respect they get from their supervisors, the treatment they receive from their supervisor, the way they get along with each other, and the accomplishment they make in their jobs. The highest rated statement was ‘I am satisfied with my work accomplishment.’ The lowest rating was on the statement ‘lowest I am satisfied with my supervisor’s competence.’ This may imply that most civil servants doubt the competence of their supervisors and may be due to their questionable level of performance.

The findings on organizational citizenship behaviour indicated average mean score as 3.98 with a range of 3.69-4.17, and the average standard deviation 0.926. This indicated that respondents agreed that they took initiatives to help new employees settle in their work, they were always punctual and reported to work on time, they were willing to assist colleagues who had heavy workloads; they shared with other members

of the organization important information, and that they always obeyed rules even when no one was present and watching them. The highest rated statement was 'I voluntarily attend organizational meetings.' And the lowest was 'I willingly help others workloads.' The reason for the high rate on the statement may be due to the importance of meeting, which gives employees opportunity to air their views and participate in organizational matters. The low rate however may indicate that each employee is required to perform their duties as assigned failure to which explanation is required.

4.8.2. Discussion on Inferential Analysis

The results for inferential statistics include correlation and regression analysis. Correlation analysis was used to determine whether the relationship between the variables was positive or negative and the magnitude of that relationship. This determination was then to be used to confirm the objectives of the study. In the correlation analysis the study found out that all the independent variables had positive correlation with the dependent variable. The results indicate that organizational citizenship behaviour had a positive relationship with distributive justice ($r=0.625$, $p=0.000$); with procedural justice ($r=0.682$, $p=0.000$); with interpersonal justice ($r=0.571$, $p=0.000$); with informational justice ($r=0.671$, $p=0.000$), and with the mediator, job satisfaction ($r=0.655$, $p=0,000$). According to these findings, among all the independent variables, procedural justice had the highest effect on OCB, followed by informational justice, distributive justice and lastly interpersonal justice.

The interpretation of the findings is that civil servants in Kenya value organizational procedures more than interpersonal relationships or the distribution of resources in the organization. This could therefore emphasize the importance of procedures to employees' behaviour. As acknowledged by Gün, Söyük and Memis (2021) procedural justice ensures that organizational processes are applied equally among employees, and all processes used to plan and implement given decision are accurate, consistent and ethical (Al-ali , Qalaja, & Abu-Rumman, 2019), correctable, representativeness, and moral (Kurian, 2018). Procedural justice is important because it controls processes such as recruitment of employees, selection of employees for training opportunities, and selection of employees for downsizing or layoffs (Addai,

Kyeremeh, Abdulai, & Sarfo, 2018). When the decision-making processes in an organization are inclusive, participative and lack bias employees show a high level of OCB (Bhatti , et al., 2019).

The perception of the importance of informational justice is begged on the fact that people in authority should be able to provide employees with comprehensive, reasonable, truthful, timely and candid information about organizational processes and procedures is (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015). Employees need adequate information from the organization and its agents on decisions made and procedures of undertaking assignment to help them understand the underlying rationale for decisions and how to perform certain activities (Mrwebi , 2019), they need clarity on performance goals setting and standards, timely feedback, clarity of expectations, and explanations of how the performance appraisal outcome will be arrived (Lane & Aplin-Houtz, 2022). Once these are clear they may not mind interpersonal relationships.

Distributive justice has still shown a high correlation with OCB. Distributive justice signals the worthiness or the value of employees' contribution to the organization. When the employees exert efforts in their jobs they expect to be fairly compensated in return (Mrwebi , 2019). In this context when employees feel that they do not receive fair compensation from their organization, they will engage in negative behaviour such as conflict, aggression, and absenteeism (Tae-Soo & Kuk-Kyoung Moon, 2023).

Regression analysis on the other hand was done to test the hypotheses which were set. The study set to test five hypotheses: **H01**- Distributive justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya; **H02**- Procedural justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya; **H03**: Interpersonal justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya; **H04** - Informational justice does not have a significant influence on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya, and **H05**- Job satisfaction does not mediate the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

The findings from the test of hypotheses indicates that organizational justice, through all its measures; distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice, is

positively and significantly related to organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. These findings therefore inform the rejection of the set hypotheses. The test for the first hypothesis found a positive and significant relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and distributive justice ($R\text{-squared}=0.391$, $F(1, 288) = 184.519$, $B=0.473$, $P<0.05$ (sig. =0.0001).

This results are similar to the obtained by Karriker and Williams (2009), Chen and Jin (2014), Cropanzano and Gilliland (2017), Rin and Armida (2019), Subramanian, Srikanth and Thakur (2022), and Tae-Soo and Kuk-Kyoung (2023). The study therefore rejected the the first null hypothesis. In the relationship between procedural justice and OCB a positive and significant relationship was also established ($R\text{-squared} = 0.446$; $F(1, 288) = 251.081$; $B=0.533$, $P<0.05$ (sig. =0.000). This results were similar to those of Enyia (2016), Colquitt (2018), Cohen-Carash and Spector (2018), and Sukisno and AriestaHeksarini (2022). The study therefore rejected the second hypothesis.

The relationship between OCB and interpersonal justice was also found to be significant and positive ($R\text{-square}= 0.326$; $F(1, 288) = 139.124$; $B=0.505$, $P<0.05$ (sig. =0.000). these results related to similar results by (Colquitt, 2018) and Leineweber, Peristera, Claudia and Constanze (2020). This study rejected the third hypothesis. Similarly the fourth hypothesis was rejected as the relationship between OCB and informational justice was positive and significant ($R\text{-square}=0.451$; $F(1, 288) = 236.347$; $B=0.510$, $P<0.05$ (sig. =0.000). this results were similar to those by De Ruiter, Schalk, Schavelin and Van Gelder (2017), Ghani, Zhai , Spector , Chen, & Lin, 2020) and Lane and Aplin Houtz (2022).

In the relationship between the overall organizational justice and OCB at the multivariate analysis the study further found a positive and significant relationship between organizational justice and OCB ($R\text{-square}=0.534$; $F(4,285) = 81.537$, $P<0.05$ (sig. =0.000). The relationship indicated that at the multivariate level all the independent variables, jointly, had a positive and significant relationship with the dependent variable meaning that individually and jointly, all independent variables

contributed positively in influencing the dependent variable among the studied population.

These findings indicated that individually and jointly, all independent variables contributed positively in influencing the dependent variable among the studied population. As noted, overall justice was able to explain 53.4% of the total variance of organizational citizenship behaviour. These findings are similar to those of Ploychompoo (2017) who found a positive and significant relationship between distributive, procedural, interactional (interpersonal and informational) justice and noted that feelings of unfairness, related to distribution of salaries, discrimination on promotion and hiring protocols, negatively affect job performance and conduct in the workplace; the accuracy, consistency, ethicality and lack of bias in the protocols that lead to results make individuals feel empowered, and transparency, empathy and respect for employees increase perception of interpersonal and informational justice.

Abass and Firdous (2017) similarly found positive relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour among doctors in different hospitals in Srinagar city, India, and agreed with the importance of distributing and allocating resources and rewards justly, better to make policies justly, and to communicate with employees with care. Positive and significant results were also identified by Asaad, Lubna and Ayman (2019) who acknowledged that overall organizational justice, together with all its dimensions, explained 40% variance in OCBs of pharmaceutical industry employees in Jordanian and confirmed that organizational justice was a predictor and could improve OCBs practiced by employees.

Jufrizen and Kanditha (2021), while confirming the significance relationship between organizational justice and OCB, noted that lack of justice in an organization can reduce work performance, work quality, and cooperation among workers. They further agreed that if employees feel fair treatment and being valued by their coworkers, superiors and the organization they are likely to act and exceed their responsibilities, conversely, their behaviour becomes negative and may miss work, complain unnecessarily, and or leave their jobs.

A study by Das and Mohanty (2023) found a positive relationship between organizational justice and OCB ($R\text{-square}=0.559$) among employees of higher education institutions. The study admitted that with positive perceptions of organizational justice employees would exhibit selflessness, be conscious of others welfare, act positively, reduce complains, and be politically active in organizational processes. Further, a study by Gün, Söyük and Memis (2021) determined that the organizational justice and all its dimensions were significantly and positively related to organizational citizenship behavior. The researchers reasoned that the more positive perception of justice was organizational citizenship behaviour would become.

The test for mediation for this study has shown that job satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between organizational justice and OCB. The results suggest that employees who have a high perception of organizational justice are generally more satisfied with their jobs and will engage in OCB. The study reveals the is need to maintain high perceptions of organizational justice among employees for job satisfaction and OCB. The results are similar to those found by O'Connell (2022), Akbar 92023) and Hamidaton, Ahmad, Ismail and Muda (2023). These findings demonstrated partial mediation of job satisfaction which would imply that organizational justice relates to organizational citizenship behaviour directly and indirectly. In the indirect relationship part of the effect of the organization on OCB is mediated by job satisfaction but other parts could are either direct or mediated by other variables not included in the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This study sought to assess the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behavior of civil servants in Kenya. This chapter summarises the major findings obtained and makes conclusion from the findings and thereafter gives recommendations for action and future studies in line with the study objectives and hypotheses.

5.2 Summary of Major Findings

The summary of the major findings are provided in line with each objective and hypothesis. The summary is based on the descriptive and inferential statistics. This study assessed the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The study specifically assessed the influence of distributive justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya; the influence of procedural justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya, the influence of informational justice organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya, and the influence of interpersonal justice on organizational citizenship behavior of civil servants in Kenya. Further the study assessed the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior.

The study targeted a population of 1161 civil servants working in ten key government ministries in Kenya. A cross-sectional research design based on the quantitative research methodology and the positivism philosophy was used through simple random and convenient sampling technique to 376 employees who participated in the study as respondents. Data was collected from these participants using self-administered five-point Likert type questionnaire with options for responses ranging from 1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree. The data collected was analysed using SPSS Ver. 22. The summary for the major findings are illustrated in the following sections.

5.2.1 Summary on Response Rate

The study's sample population was 376. A total of 290 questionnaires were returned and found to be usable for data analysis. This indicated that the response rate was seventy-six percent which was well above the recommended level of 50% and was considered adequate.

5.2.2 Distributive Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The study objective was to assess the influence of distributive justice on organizational citizenship behavior of civil servants in Kenya. The hypothesis for this objective was that Distributive justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The summary of the findings relate to descriptive and inferential results. Distributive justice was measured using four statements which had been found to be validity test through factor analysis. These statements were also found to have a high reliability based on their Cronbach's Alpha value.

The descriptive results for distributive justice were evaluated using frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviation, and summarised through mean scores and standard deviations. The results from means scores indicate that respondents agreed with statements that were used to measure distributive justice. The average mean for the statements was above average mean score. The statement which recorded the highest mean was 'I am fairly compensated given my job responsibility.' While the one with the lowest mean was 'I am rewarded appropriately compared to colleagues in other organizations. Generally the respondents felt that the civil service in Kenya had a fair level of distributive justice. In the analysis of correlation between distributive justice and OCB a high positive correlation was established. The results confirmed that an increase in the perception of distributive justice would lead to an increase in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

The results from regression analysis show that distributive justice explained a substantial amount of variance in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya based on the R-squared value, the coefficient of determinant. Similarly,

based on the ANOVA results, the observed F -value was significantly different from zero at the given degrees of freedom and was greater than the critical F -value.

This indicated that there was a significant relationship between distributive justice and OCBs of civil servants in Kenya. Further, this significant relationship was confirmed from the beta value for the relationship which had the observed t -value significantly different from zero and greater than the critical t -value. These findings indicated that the perception of distributive justice increased organizational citizenship behaviour civil servants in Kenya. This study therefore did not accept the null hypothesis on the relationship between distributive justice and organizational citizenship behaviour civil servants in Kenya.

5.2.2. Procedural Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The study sought to identify the influence of procedural justice on organizational citizenship behavior of civil servants in Kenya. The study also tested the hypothesis that procedural justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. To in order to assess this objective four statements were used after their validity and reliability was ascertained. Descriptive results based on mean scores and standard deviation reveals that respondents agreed with statements measuring procedural justice. The lowest mean was recorded on the statement 'Procedures ensure consistent decisions making while the highest mean was recorded on the statement 'Procedures reduce supervisor's bias.' Responses indicated that majority of the participants were not sure with most of the statements with two statements but in general they noted that procedures were ethical and limited supervisor's bias.

The findings from the inferential analysis show that procedural justice had a positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour based on the Pearson Correlation Coefficient. Likewise, procedural justice explained a substantial amount of total variations in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya based on the coefficient of determination. The ANOVA results had significant F -value while coefficients were supported by observed t -value which significantly different from zero and greater than the critical t -value.. This indicated that there was a significant relationship between procedural justice and OCBs of civil servants in

Kenya. This confirmed increasing the perception of procedural justice would increase organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

5.2.3 Interpersonal Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

This study sought to assess the influence of interpersonal justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The hypothesis that was tested was that interpersonal justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. In order to evaluate the relationship between interpersonal justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil service in Kenya, four statements were used. The statements were validated from the initial six statements through factor analysis and the test of reliability indicating high-reliability values as computed from the Cronbach's Alpha.

The results for descriptive analysis revealed that majority of the respondents agreed with the statements measuring this variable. This indicated that interpersonal justice was perceived to be present in the civil service in Kenya. Participants agreed that they were treated with kindness and consideration, they were respect by their supervisors, they were given their dignity, and supervisors were very sensitive personal needs of the employees, a part from being truthful to their subordinates concerning a communication that affected them.

The findings from the inferential analysis show that interpersonal justice had a positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. This was validated through the Pearson Correlation Coefficient, the value of the R-squared, which confirmed that interpersonal justice explained a substantial amount of total variations in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya based on the coefficient of determination. The ANOVA results gave an observed F -value which was significantly different from zero at the given degrees of freedom and greater than the critical F -value. This was also the same finding on the beta value for the relationship with an observed t -value's coefficient that was significantly different from zero and greater than the critical t -value. This indicated that interpersonal justice had a significant influence on OCBs of civil servants in and hence the null hypothesis for this variable was rejected.

5.2.4 Information Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

This study sought to assess the influence of informational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The hypothesis that was being tested was that informational justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Descriptive analysis show that participants responded in the affirmative and confirmed that interpersonal justice was felt in the civil service. This finding indicate that participants received feedback on their performance, supervisor made good explanation of decisions which made by the organization to the satisfactory of employees, and supervisor were very honesty with information they gave to employees.

The findings from the inferential analysis show that informational justice had a positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour among civil servants in Kenya based on the Pearson Correlation Coefficient, it explained substantial amount of total variations in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya based on the coefficient of determination. The ANOVA results also gave an observed *F*-value that was significantly different from zero at the given degrees of freedom and was greater than the critical *F*-value indicating that there was a significant relationship between informational justice and OCBs of civil servants in Kenya. On the analysis of the beta value for the relationship between informational justice and OCB, the observed *t*-value for the coefficient was significantly different from zero and greater than the critical *t*-value. This result proved that a positive and significant relationship existed between informational justice and OCB and therefore the null hypothesis was rejected.

5.2.5 The Mediation Effect of Job Satisfaction

This study sought to assess the mediating influence of job satisfaction in the relationship between organizational justice and OCB of civil servants in Kenya. The study hypothesized that job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between organizational justice and OCB. Before the test for mediation descriptive analysis was done to rate the employees opinions of civil servants in Kenya on job satisfaction. In the collection and analysis of data five statements were used. These statements were

selected through factor analysis where they were tested for construct validity using principal component analysis, factor loadings and commonalities. After the test of validity the reliability of the five statements was also found to be high based on the computed Cronbach's Alpha.

The descriptive statistics that were used to summaries the findings were percentages, means, and standard deviation. These statistics revealed that overall, majority of the respondents were in agreement with the statements and that the perception of job satisfaction was high in the civil service. Majority of the respondents agreed that they were satisfied with the competence and respect they get from their supervisors, they were satisfied with the treatment they receive from their supervisor, the way they get along with each other, and the accomplishment they make in their jobs. Specifically, the statement which respondents rated highly was that 'I am satisfied with my work accomplishment,' while the lowly rated statement was 'I am satisfied with my supervisor's competence.' This indicated that participants were happy with the job assignments they were given and hence they derived a lot of pleasure from their jobs. However, they did not believe in the competence of their supervisors for reasons that could not be explained in this study. The findings from inferential analysis show that job satisfaction had a very high positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour among civil servants in Kenya based on the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (R).

Likewise, job satisfaction explained a substantial amount of total variations in organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya based on the coefficient of determination (R^2). Similarly, based on the ANOVA results, the F -value observed was significantly different from zero at the given degrees of freedom and was greater than the critical F -value. This indicated that there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs of civil servants in Kenya. On the analysis of the beta value for the relationship between informational justice and OCB, the observed t -value for the coefficient was significantly different from zero and greater than the critical t -value. This indicated that when employees are satisfied with their jobs their OCBs would proportionally increase.

In order to progress with the analysis of mediation, a regression analysis was done to determine the influence of the independent variable, organizational justice, on job satisfaction. The results indicated a positive and significant relationship between the variables as given by the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (R), the R-squared value which indicated that organizational justice explained good amount of total variations in job satisfaction. Significant findings were also determined by the ANOVA results with the observed *F*-value being significantly different from zero and greater than the critical *F*-value. Beta values for coefficients resulted in *t*-values which were also significantly different from zero and greater than the critical *t*-value. This confirmed that organizational justice was a significant predictor of job satisfaction, as was job satisfaction a predictor of OCB. This finding indicated presence of mediation.

To confirm mediation organizational citizenship behaviour, the dependent variable, was regressed on job satisfaction, the mediator, controlling for the independent variables through hierarchical regression analysis. The findings from this regression confirmed the existence of partial mediation as in the inclusion of the mediator variable in the dependent variable-independent variables relationship all the beta values for all the independent variables were significantly reduced and becoming smaller in absolute value than those which were obtained in the regression of the dependent variables on the independent variables. This finding illustrated the presence of mediation of job satisfaction as was further confirmed by the Sobel test and bootstrapping.

5.3 Conclusion

This study assessed the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Specifically the study assessed the influence of distributive justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya; the influence of procedural justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya; the influence of interpersonal justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya; the influence of informational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya, and lastly, the mediating effect of job satisfaction in the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in

Kenya informational justice has a synergistic link and impact positively on OCB. Based on the findings of the study the following conclusions are made:

5.3.1 Distributive Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The study assessed the influence of distributive justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The study hypothesized that distributive justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Distributive justice refers to the fairness that is shown in an organization where resources and results such as penalties, rewards, wages, status, and promotions are shared with equity, equality and based on the need of individual employees, and how the employees perceive this fair sharing. It is believed that when resources in an organization are shared with fairness employees will feel valued and improve their performance by displaying positive behaviours such as OCB. The findings of this study indicate that distributive justice has a positive and significant relationship with organizational citizenship behaviours of civil servants in Kenya. According to these findings the study therefore concludes that distributive justice is has a positive influence on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

5.3.2 Procedural Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

This study assessed the influence of procedural justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The study hypothesized that procedural justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Procedural justice is concerned with the fairness of the decision making process which lead to the distribution of resource in an organization. Organizations need to establish clear guidelines and policies in order to ensure that organizational resources are shared with fairness. Procedures are deemed be fair by employees when the decision-making process is consistent, free from bias, accurate, correctable and representatively ethical. The findings of this study indicate that procedural justice had a positive and significant relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. This study therefore concludes that procedural justice has a positive and significant influence on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

5.3.3 Interpersonal Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

This study assessed the influence of interpersonal justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The study hypothesized that interpersonal justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Interpersonal justice refers to how authority figures in an organization relate with their juniors and subordinates while treating them with dignity and respect, kindness, and being truthful with the information they provide especially by avoiding rude or cruel remarks.

The findings of this study indicate that interpersonal justice has a positive and significant relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. This study therefore concludes that interpersonal justice has a positive and significant influence on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

5.3.4 Informational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

This study assessed the influence of informational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The study hypothesized that informational justice does not influence organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Informational justice refers to the explanation or justification of information provided to employees by decision-makers in an organization. It entails not only providing employees with adequate, good quality, honest information but also demonstrating genuineness in the intent of the information. Information justice requires clarity on performance goals setting and standards, timely feedback, clarity of expectations, and explanations of performance appraisal outcome. The findings of this study indicate that informational justice has a positive and significant influence on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. This study therefore concludes that informational justice has a positive and significant influence on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

5.3.5 Mediating Effect of Job Satisfaction

This study assessed the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. The study hypothesized that job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Job satisfaction refers to the feelings and attitudes of people toward their job, and the positive or negative emotional attitude regarding their work, whether in pleasant or unpleasant circumstances. Employees who are satisfied are believed to perform more positive behaviors that benefit the organization than those who are not.

The findings of the study indicate that job satisfaction is positively and significantly related to both organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour. When a variable is related to both the independent variable and the dependent variables, that variable is confirmed to be a mediator. Based on the findings job satisfaction has been found to be a mediator in the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. Therefore this study concludes that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya.

5.4 Recommendations

This study assessed the influence of organizational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants Kenya. The study was guided by the objectives; to assess the influence of distributive justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants Kenya; the influence of procedural justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants Kenya; the influence of interpersonal justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants Kenya; the influence of informational justice on organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants Kenya, and the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants Kenya.

The findings of the study indicate that all the independent variables, distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice have a positive and significant

relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour of civil servants in Kenya. These results further indicate that organizational justice has a positive and significant influence on organizational citizenship behaviour, and that this relationship is mediated by job satisfaction. Based on these findings the study makes the following recommendations:

5.4.1 Recommendation for Policy and Action

In order for public sector in Kenya, and particularly the civil service, to improve its performance and that of its human resource there is need for it to pay special attention to the justice of the processes of output distribution, policies and regulations formulation and implementation, and the process of communication and interaction within the organization. The managers in this sector should develop respect and propriety for a fair interpersonal treatment culture that supports the decision-making process. Through this study the civil service executive and managers have been given information on ways of arousing their human resource organizational citizenship behaviors through the mirror of distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice which boost employees' job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors.

It is the opinion of this study that the senior management of the civil service should be aware that the relationship between junior managers or supervisors and employees are very important and they should consider developing and implementing policies and practices that can bolster these relationships. Training programmes that might improve the ability of the supervisors to deal with employees in appropriate ways should be conducted such as the training in communication skills. Supervisors need to be trained in areas that would boost the quality of the supervisor in employee evaluation so as to practice justice in employee evaluation and provision of feedback.

It is important for managers to communicate job requirements clearly and establish consistent and fair objectives on performance targets for all employees as employees will always compare input to their outputs with those of co-workers. In case of any planned cuts in the output to employees there is need to distribute it throughout the organization. People in decision-making positions should always have respect, say the

truth, be courteous, and be in a position to provide good reasons regarding the decision they make.

Workers should be treated with respect and dignity; they should be valued and appreciated for their contributions. It has been acknowledged that if the civil service wants employees to increase their perceptions of interpersonal and distributive justice then they have to improve on the fairness of the interpersonal treatment of their employees and having good policies and procedures by hiring qualified managers or supervisors. Management and human resources managers should enhance fairness of formal procedures to meet the ethical standards and make decisions based on correct and reliable information.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Further Research

This study was carried out using cross-sectional research design. The cross-sectional research designs rely on self-report method of data collection and collects data at one point in time. This tendency leads to the limitation of common method variance. In self-reporting it is very easy for respondents to give false information about the data being sought. Self-report measures are not very reliable as they suffer from the problem of a social desirability effect on participants who may choose to give an ideal response instead of the truth, and hence reporting falsely. As has been called for in other studies this study requires future studies to investigate more samples, organizations, countries, and cultures to justify these results and increase their external validity. Other studies should consider using other research designs such as comparative design so as to compare more than one organization and apply other methods of data collection such as interviews.

Research is always underlined by costs in terms of time and resources. Due these constraints this study could not exhaust all the factors that contribute to organizational citizenship behaviour. Only factors related to organizational justice such as distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice were studied in determining to what extent they determine the Organizational Citizenship Behavior of civil servants in Kenya. The study found that organizational justice could only explain

about 53% of variance in OCB meaning that there are other many factors not considered which could influence OCB in a more strong way.

These factors need to be brought out so that human resource managers can use a blend of components to stimulate OCB which a factor for improved organizational performance. There also other mediators and moderators that could be included in the future studies to establish a firm relationship between organizational justice and OCB.

5.5 Contribution to Theory and Literature

In the review of literature this study identified a number of gaps. One of the research gaps was that the relationship between organizational justice and OCB in the public sector has shown a difference with those from private sector and educational institutions. Results from education institution show stronger relationship between procedural justice and OCB where us those from the public sector indicate a significant negative or low level relationship between distributive justice and OCB. According to the results of this study it is true that procedural justice is perceived as very important for public sector employees than distributive justice majorly because of the facts as explained by the public sector motivational theory.

The importance of the effect of culture on organizational justice perception has been discussed in many studies. The researchers content that the importance of the various dimensions of organizational justice are perceived different from different cultures. Scholars argue with facts that the effect of interpersonal justice on OCB is higher than distributive justice and procedural justice on employees in Asian countries than they are in other regions. This study supports this argument as it found out that interpersonal justice was not considered highly unlike procedural justice and informational justice which had a higher relationship among Kenyan workers. According to this study the source of justice has more to do with procedures and information provided to employees and not so much in interpersonal relationship and distribution of resources.

Another dilemma in literature has been related to the dimensions or the types of justice and their interactions and therefore the lack of clear dimensional models that represent the construct of justice. This has made the conceptualization of organizational justice

to remain a green area. The construct of justice has been conceptualized as a one-factor, two-factor, three-factor and now four-factor model. The findings of this study through factor analysis confirms that organizational justice is well represented as a four-factor model as in the factor loading four factors loaded successfully. Research reveals that organizational justice together with its dimensions show direct and indirect relationship with outcome variables such as OCB. This adds to this existing literature by confirming that organizational justice has both the direct and indirect relationship with outcome variables such as OCB. It is also true that job satisfaction is one of the variables that can mediate the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables.

This study focused on the importance of organizational justice in contributing to OCB. This provides unique theoretical contributions by extending the organizational behavior and psychology literature by incorporating management and organizational behavior field at the same time. The study has also extended the measurement of organizational justices by showing how the four dimensions are unique and distinct. The study as also integrated the concept of organizational justice, job satisfaction and OCB.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire

General Guidelines

The purpose of this questionnaire is to solicit for information concerning the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviour in your organization. Kindly respond to this questionnaire in an honest and sincere way to assist me identify this relationship. This questionnaire is made up of five parts. Section A is used to identify demographic characteristics. Section B (1-5) represents the variables which are used in this study to identify the stated relationship. Respond to all the statement in each part appropriately.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

PLEASE ANSWERS ALL QUESTIONS

Choose the appropriate response by ticking () in the space provided. Please tick against one response only:

1. **Kindly state your Gender?** Male Female
2. **Level of Education?** 'O' Level Diploma Bachelors Postgraduate
3. **County:** Kisumu Nandi Kakamega Vihiga
4. **Ministry/Department?** Civil Service Treasury Agriculture
Social Service Environment and Natural Resources Education
ICT Lands Infrastructure Interior and Coordination
5. **For how long have you been working in the Ministry/Department?**
Less than 2 years 2-5 years 5-10 years Over 10 years

6. What is your job category? Management [] Non-Management []

SECTION B: DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE

The statements below refer to the outcomes you receive from your organization such as **pay, rewards, evaluations, promotions, assignments**, etc. Please tick (☐) the statement that best represents your views:

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
7	My work schedule is fair					
8	The pay I receive is appropriate for the work I do					
9	My Work load reflect the effort I put in work					
10	The rewards I get are justified given my contribution to organization performance					
11	My responsibility is justified given my performance					
12	All rewards are awarded competitively					
13	My work schedule allows me to do my own work					

14. Do you think distribution of resources such as rewards and promotions in this organization are fair?

Yes [] No []

15. Please explain your answer

.....

16. Is it true that when resources such as pay and benefits are fairly distributed employees may work extra hard for an organization?

Yes [] No []

Please explain your answer

.....

17. In your opinion what can be done to improve fairness in distribution of resources and outcomes in this organization?

.....

SECTION C: PROCEDURAL JUSTICE

The statements below refer to the procedures and processes your line manager or organization uses to make decisions about **pay, rewards, evaluations, promotions, assignments**, etc. Please tick () the statement that best represents your views:

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
17	Are you allowed to express your views before decisions are made					
18	Are procedures applied consistently to all workers					
19	Procedures allow me an opportunity to influence decisions made					
20	Are procedures applied free from supervisor bias					
21	Procedures are based on reliable information					
22	Have you been able to appeal decisions arrived procedures					

23. Do you think Procedures used to make decisions in this organization allow employment fairness to be practiced?

Yes

No

Please explain your answer

.....

In your opinion, do you think fairness of procedures and policies can lead employees to perform their duty with enthusiasms and determination? Yes [] No []

Please explain your answer

.....

24. According to you what can be done in this organization to improve the fairness in procedure used to make decisions?

.....

SECTION D: INTERPERSONAL JUSTICE

The statements below refer to the interactions employees have with supervisors, co-workers, and other managers in your organization before decisions on **pay, rewards, evaluations, promotions, and assignments**, are implemented. Please tick () the statement that best represents your views

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
25	My supervisor treat me with kindness					
26	My supervisors treats me with respect					
27	My supervisor treats with dignity					
28	My Supervisor is always polite when dealing with me.					
29	My supervisor is sensitive to my personal needs					
30	My supervisor is always truthful with me.					
31	My supervisor is always concern with my rights					

32. In your opinion how can this organization improve interpersonal relationship to enhance employees' citizenship behaviour?

.....

.....

33. According to you how can employees improve relationship among themselves and the organization?

.....

SECTION E: INFORMATIONAL JUSTICE

The statements below refer to the information employees receive from their supervisor or manager about their jobs and the information used to make decisions on employees before decisions with regard to **pay, rewards, evaluations, promotions, assignments** are implemented. Please tick () the statement that best represents your views

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
34	My supervisor explains job instructions thoroughly.					
35	My supervisor provides timely feedback					
36	My supervisor explanations regarding work procedures are reasonable					
37	My supervisor makes his communication meet individual need.					
38	Supervisor allows me to challenge some decision made					
39	My manager gives me honest feedback on my performance					
40	My supervisor offers job instructions that make sense to me					

41. In your opinion, do you think the organization provides and receives adequate information on employees to make fair decisions?

Yes

No

Please explain your answer

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.....

.....

.....

42. How would this organization improve informational justice to increase employees' participation in citizenship behavior?

.....

.....

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SECTION F: JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction refers to the way in which employees are happy with their pay, autonomy, promotion, evaluation, assignments among others in your organization. To what extent do you agree or otherwise with the following statements regarding job satisfaction in your organization?

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
43	I am satisfied with the feeling accomplishment I make on the job					
44	I am satisfied with the competence of my supervisor in making outcome allocation decisions					
45	I am satisfied with the way employees get along with each other in teams/groups					
46	I am satisfied with the way policies are implemented in the organization.					
47	I am satisfied with the respect and dignity given by my supervisor when giving feedback or appraisal					
48	I am satisfied with my working conditions					
49	I am satisfied with my job autonomy.					

50	I am satisfied with my pay and work I do					
----	--	--	--	--	--	--

51. In your opinion are you satisfied with how fairness on resource allocation, promotions, and evaluation are practiced in this organization?
 Yes
 No

Please explain

.....

52. How can the practice of justice in this organization improve employee job satisfaction?

.....

53. In your opinion, is it true that when employees are satisfied with fairness practices, they can display citizenship behavior?

Very true Not at all

Please explain

.....

SECTION G: ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organizational citizenship behaviour is a unique behaviour that enables an employee to sacrifice, have respect, loyalty, participate fully and be dutiful in their organizations without expectations of reward and hence enhance organizational performance. To what extent do you agree or otherwise with the following statements regarding employee display of organizations citizenship behaviour in your organization?

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5
54	I always obey rules and regulations even when no one is watching.					

55	I always attend meetings that are not mandatory but are considered important for organization's image.					
56	I always consider the impact of their actions on coworkers.					
57	I take fewer days off and mostly give notice if unable to attend					
58	I always share useful information and make innovative suggestions to improve the organization.					
59	I spend great deal of time in personal telephone conversations during work hours					
60	I willingly help others who have been absent or have heavy workloads.					
61	I am punctual at work and mostly remain in on duty					
62	It take initiative to help new employees even when it's not my duty					

63. In your opinion, do you think organizational citizenship behaviour is good for and organization?

Yes

No

Please explain

.....

.....

.....

.....

64. In your opinion, how can this organization use justice to improve citizenship behavior?

Yes

No

Please explain

.....

.....

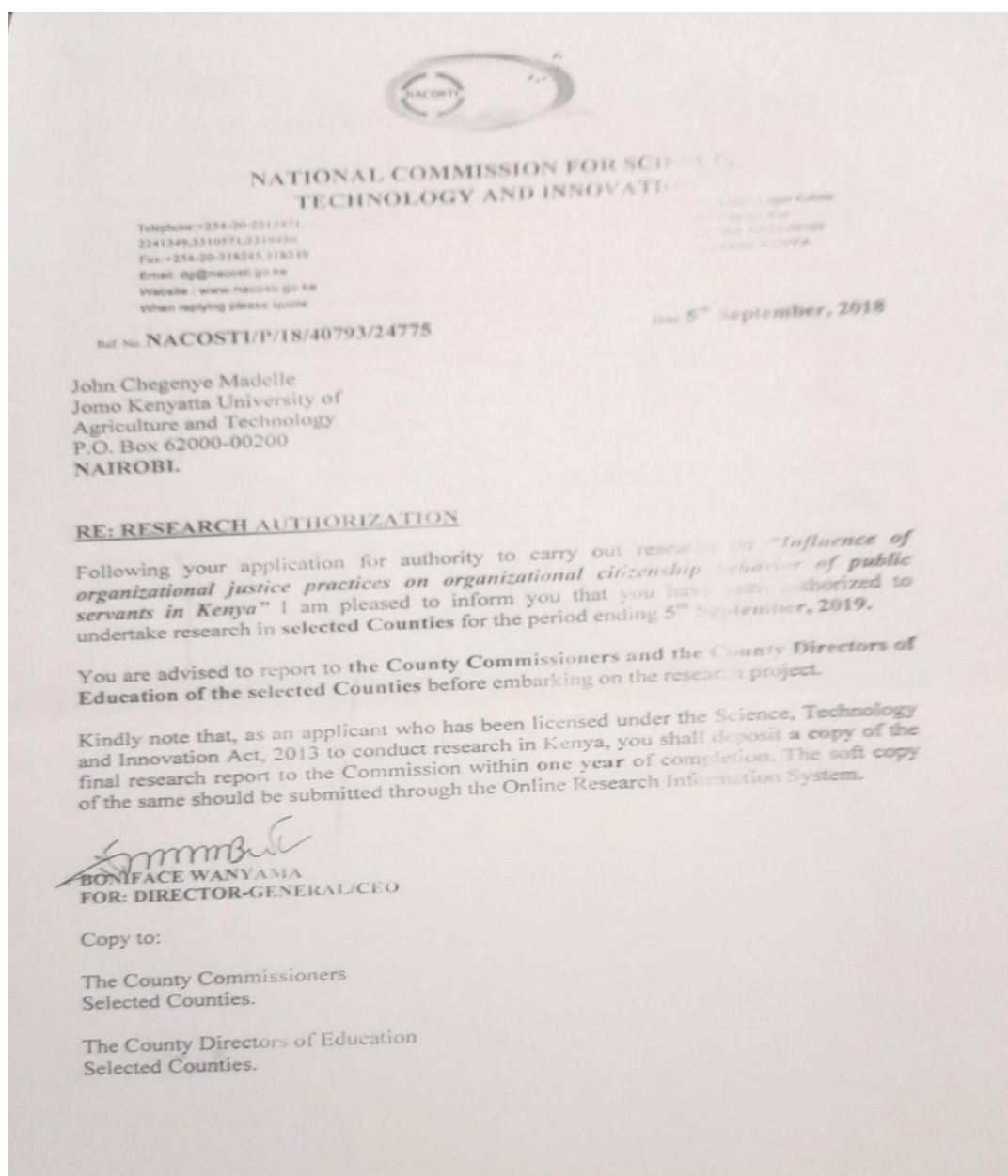
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65. A part from organizational justice what other practices can be used to enhance employee display of organizational citizenship behaviour?

- i.
.....
- ii.
.....
- iii.
.....

I thank you very much for your time, participation and cooperation. Kindly keep the questionnaire until the time I will pick it up. Feel free to call me in case of any enquiry and in case you have completed filling this questionnaire so as I can pick it on this phone number 0720 450 825.

Appendix II: Letter Authorization from NACOSTI



THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
MR. JOHN CHEGENYE MADELE
of **JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF**
AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY,
8-50300 Mbale, has been permitted to
conduct research in *Kakamega ,*
Kisumu , Nandi , Vihiga Counties

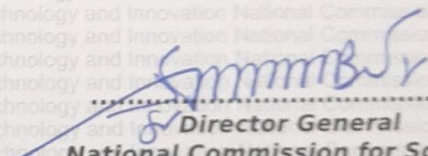
Permit No : NACOSTI/P/18/40793/24775
Date Of issue : 5th September,2018
Fee Received :Ksh 2000

on the topic: **INFLUENCE OF**
ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE PRACTICES
ON ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP
BEHAVIOR OF PUBLIC SERVANTS IN
KENYA

for the period ending:
5th September,2019



.....
Applicant's
Signature


.....
Director General
National Commission for Science,
Technology & Innovation

Appendix III: Letter of Self Introduction



Appendix IV: Letter Introduction From University

