THE INFLUENCE OF PROCEDURAL, DISTRIBUTIVE AND INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE ON ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AMONG EMPLOYEES AT THE SAPS ACADEMY, PAARL

by

HENK RIAAN JANSEN VAN VUUREN

Student number: 214252035

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

MAGISTER TECHNOLOGIAE

in the discipline

BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

in the

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

at the

VAAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

SUPERVISOR: PROF. M. DHURUP

CO-SUPERVISOR: DR P. A. JOUBERT

2016

DECLARATION

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

Signed…………………………

Date……………………………

STATEMENT 1

This dissertation is being submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Magister Technologiae: Business Administration.

STATEMEMENT 2

The dissertation is the result of my own independent work/ investigation, except where otherwise stated. Other sources are acknowledged by giving explicit references. A bibliography is appended.

Signed………………………

Date…………………………

STATEMENT 3

I hereby give consent for my dissertation, if accepted, to be made available for photocopying and for interlibrary loans, and for the title and summary to be made available to outside organisations.

Signed…………………………………..

Date…………………………………….

CERTIFICATE OF LANGUAGE-EDITING

Mary Hoffman

55 May Avenue

ARCON PARK 1939

Tel: 016 428 1577

Cell: 073 147 8764

e-mail: maryhoffman@telkomsa.net

23 December 2015

To Whom It May Concern

This certifies that the following dissertation has been edited for English language correctness and fluency. I trust that the corrections made have been applied after due consideration by the author of the document:

THE INFLUENCE OF PROCEDURAL, DISTRIBUTIVE AND INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE ON ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AMONG EMPLOYEES AT THE SAPS ACADEMY, PAARL

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

MAGISTER TECHNOLOGIAE

in the discipline

BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

in the

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

at the

VAAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

by

HENK RIAAN JANSEN VAN VUUREN

Student number: 214252035

Mary Hoffman

(SATI Registration: 1001632)

DEDICATION

The dissertation is dedicated to my late father and my mother Mr and Mrs Jansen van Vuuren, who believed in my capabilities throughout my academic journey.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor, Prof. M. Dhurup for his patience, advice, support, and guidance from the early stages of this research journey to the very end. He consistently inspired in me the value of excellence in research, which greatly motivated me to complete this study. I attribute the completion of a large portion of this work to him because without his guidance and persistence in helping me, this dissertation would not have been possible.

Secondly, credits must also be given to my co-supervisor, Dr Pierre Joubert, who provided valuable advice and comments that kept me on track. His involvements and effective feedback have empowered me to nurture my research knowledge.

I would like to express my gratitude to my mother, Mrs. Susanna Johanna Jansen van Vuuren, for her love, motivation, inspiration and endless support throughout my academic journey.

I would like to express my appreciation to my lovely sister, Elsa Petronella du Toit, for the unconditional love and support that contributed to the completion of this dissertation.

I would like to express my thankfulness to Adrie Sauerman for unconditional support and motivation.

Finally, but not least, I thank the Almighty God, my fortress, without whom none of this would have been possible.

ABSTRACT

Keywords: organisational justice, procedural justice, distributive justice, interactional justice, organisational citizenship behaviour.

The purpose of this study is to investigate employees' perceptions of organisational justice and their effects on organisational citizenship behaviour. This study advocates that the way employees perceive organisational justice affects their organisational citizenship behaviour in their current organisation. The fact that employees play a central role in the realisation of an organisation's goals makes it critical for any organisation to have employees who are willing to go beyond what is required of them.

In this study, a quantitative research paradigm and an exploratory research method were used to investigate a sample size of 226 employees working at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. In order to minimise the study bias, systematic sampling was used to ensure that the sample accurately reflected the larger population (N=457). Data were collected with the aid of a structured questionnaire and the results of the correlation analysis revealed that all three dimensions of organisational justice are significantly and positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational justice also showed a strong predictive relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour.

Based on the findings of the empirical survey, it was revealed that if organisational justice practices are implemented appropriately, employees holding key positions may be likely to display more organisational citizenship behaviours. Therefore, it was recommended that, to address negative perceptions of organisational justice, a strategy should be formulated to ensure that employees are treated fairly in terms of the dimensions of organisational justice. It was also recommended that when developing and implementing such a strategy, barriers should be addressed that could:

- influence the availability of accurate and complete information for decision making; and

- influence the dissemination of information pertaining to job decisions.

It is further recommended that rewards programmes be reviewed to ensure that employees will experience fairness when comparing their own payoffs with those of fellow employees and perceive just distributive justice practices.

The study concludes by recommending that a "Code of good practice – communication policy" be developed that would enable the displaying of social sensitivity and dignified, respectful and acceptable behaviour by employees in a managerial position towards their subordinates.

The findings and recommendations of this study are important to employers as they provide crucial information regarding the types of activities organisations could engage in for employees to consider them as acceptable organisational justice practices. Such involvement in acceptable organisational justice activities can improve employees' organisational citizenship behaviour and reinforce effective and efficient service delivery in their current organisation.

The implications for future research indicate that a comparative study testing the differences between different groups based on certain biographical traits, such as gender, marital status, age, educational level, income and length of service in the South African Police Service, is advisable as it would assist in determining how such biographical traits might influence the various dimensions of organisational justice. Furthermore, the study could also be expanded to include a broader national sample within the Division: Human Resource Development and other divisions within the South African Police Service.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
HRD	Human Resource Development
JGRT	Joint Grievance Resolution Team
NDP	National Development Plan
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
OJ	Organisational Justice
SAP	South African Police
SAPS	South African Police Service
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SSSBC	Safety and Security Sectoral Bargaining Council

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1   INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Justice is among the most important concepts discussed in political and social subjects (Heydari & Gholtash 2014:152). Justice has its roots in philosophy, political science, and religion, among other disciplines, and strikes a chord with anyone who has experienced unfairness (Jahangir, Haq & Ahmed 2005:13). The philosopher Rawls (1971:3) designates justice as "the first virtue of social institutions, as truth is of systems of thought." In history, justice is expressed always as an essential need in humans' social lives as they need fairness in every aspect of their lives, including when they are at work (Ambrose 2002:803). Human resources, the rarest of resources in modern knowledge-based economies, are considered as valuable organisational capital, providing the organisation with its competitive advantage (Taheri & Soltani 2013:64). Without human resources, no organisation would be able to exist. The South African Police Service (SAPS) is no exclusion to the rule. In terms of Section 205(3) of the Constitution (1996) the SAPS is required to prevent, combat and investigate crime; maintain public order; protect and secure the citizens of South Africa; and uphold and enforce the law. A major objective of an active and dynamic organisation will be to enhance individual and organisational performance through the provision of training interventions. This objective within the SAPS is assigned to the Division: Human Resource Development (HRD). The SAPS Academy, Paarl resorts under the Division: HRD. Human resources are also an important element necessary in the improvement of organisational performance (Heidari, Rajaeepoor, Davoodi & Bozorgzadeh 2012:113). The National Development Plan (NDP) recognizes that a professional police service is one that knows the law and understands its duties according to the law; performs those duties competently; and is responsive to the needs of the public (National Planning Commission, National Development Plan 2011:389). This professionalism cannot be achieved without adequate and on-going training. Therefore, employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl will play an essential role in ensuring the development of members of the SAPS through the provision of training programmes. Examining influential variables on the performance of employees might prove to be very significant in improving an organisation's performance. Exploring

variables that might influence organisational performance is no longer optional, but a requirement for enhancing assigned tasks. One of these influential factors is maintaining justice in the organisation. Against this backdrop, the researcher seeks to determine how organisational justice (OJ) and its dimensions (procedural, distributive and interactional justice) influence the performance of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), specifically within the policing context. The acquired knowledge may assist in the formulation of a strategy, but such a strategy will require an understanding and knowledge of the inherent problems faced by the organisation and more importantly, why they exist.

1.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.2.1 Social exchange theory

The study is based on the social exchange theory (SET). Blau (1964:4) defines the SET as a theory of social interactions and interpersonal relations. One of the basic tenets of SET is that relationships evolve over time into trust, loyalty and mutual commitment. In order to achieve this, parties must abide by certain rules of exchange. Rules of exchange form a "normative definition of the situation that forms among or is adopted by the participants in an exchange relation" (Emerson 1976:351). In this way, rules and norms of exchange are the "guidelines" of the exchange process (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005:875). Thus, the use of the SET in models of organisational behaviour is framed on the basis of the exchange rule or principle that the researcher will rely upon. West and Turner (2007:207) state that the SET assumes that relationships are interdependent. The exchange in the relationship is usually voluntary and often occurs between two parties, especially between an employer and employee (Badu & Asumeng 2013:144). The connection between OJ and OCB sits well with this theory as employees might perform OCB in order to reciprocate fair treatment offered to them by the organisation.

1.2.2 Organisational justice

Moorman (1991:846) defined OJ as the term used to describe the role of fairness as it relates directly to the workplace. OJ is concerned with the ways in which employees determine if they have been treated fairly in their working environment and the ways in which those determinants influence other work-related activities. In literature, OJ has

been conceptualised as being based on three dimensions: procedural, distributive and interactional justice (Ahmadi, Daraei, Rabiei, Salamzadeh & Takallo 2012:22).

1.2.2.1 Procedural justice

Procedural justice can be defined as the fairness of the procedures used to determine the outcomes that employees receive (Folger & Greenberg 1985:143). Moorman (1991:845) defined procedural fairness as "the fairness of the procedures used in determining employee outcomes". When employees perceive that the treatment they receive is based on fair procedures in determining employee outcome, they may tend to show better performance, such as OCB. Employees may then feel that they are rewarded fairly, based on actual performances. Therefore, it makes sense that procedural justice will have a positive relationship with OCB (Rauf 2014:125). Heydari and Gholtash (2014:155) found that there is a significant relationship between procedural justice and OCB. Badu and Asumeng (2013:147) found that the perception of procedural justice would have a significant positive relationship with employees' willingness to engage in OCB.

1.2.2.2 Distributive justice

Distributive justice can be defined as people's perception of the fairness of outcomes (benefits or punishment), as well as their evaluations of the end state of the allocation process. This concept refers to the fairness of outcomes that people receive in the workplace for compensation such as pay or promotion opportunities (Cropanzano & Greenberg 1997:320). Distributive justice is related to the individual's perceptions of the results of the process and is perceived through fairness in social interactions, with people comparing their shares with those of others, and perceiving justice or injustice accordingly (Bhal 2006:109). It seems that the perceived justice of management is influenced mostly by the employee's perception of distributive justice (Brashear, Brooks & Boles 2004:87).

1.2.2.3 Interactional justice

Interactional justice goes beyond the fairness of job outcomes, which is related to distributive justice, and fairness of organisational procedures, which is related to procedural justice. Interactional justice refers to the unfair and fair treatment in the relationship (Rauf 2014:125). Interactional justice can be defined as the elements of how decision makers treat their people with regard to the adequacy with which organisational

formal decision making is explained to employees (Ibrahim & Perez 2014:46). The quality of an individual's interpersonal relations depends on the level of perception of interactional justice (Rauf 2014:126). Therefore, an employee who has good interpersonal relations will engage in OCB, such as helping those who are in need and obeying rules and regulations, even in the absence of managers. Badu and Asumeng (2013:147) found that interactional justice will account for significantly more variance and will be related positively to OCB. Noruzy, Shatery, Rezazadeh and Hatami-Shirkouhi (2011:844) found that the relationship between interactional justice and OCB is statistically significant.

1.2.3   Organisational citizenship behaviour

Organ (1988a:4) defined OCB as follows:

> OCB is individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of an organisation. Discretionary behaviour is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description in terms of the person's employment contract with the organisation. The behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable.

The fairness perception may influence OCB by prompting employees to define their relationship with the organisation as one of social exchange, since social exchange exists outside strict contracts and the exchange tends towards ambiguity, allowing for discretionary, prosocial acts by the employee (Moorman 1991:846). Organ (1988b:553) posits that "the inherent ambiguity of such a system frees the individual to contribute in discretionary fashion without thinking that this will be acquiescence to exploitation." When employees believe they are being treated unfairly by the organisation or by their supervisor, they will then believe that the social exchange has been violated (Blakely, Andrews & Moorman 2005:262). When employees perceive a fair working environment, they are likely to respond in accordance with social exchange and perform more OCBs. Kar and Tewari (1999:424) refer to five dimensions of OCB, which include altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue.

Moorman (1991: 851) shows that all the dimensions of OJ, that is, distributive, procedural and interactional justice, are related positively to OCB. Chegini (2009:176) and

Goudarzvandchegini (2011:46) also found that all OJ dimensions are related positively to OCB.

Therefore, drawing from the SET and the literature, it is expected that the dimensions of OJ, that is, distributive, procedural and interactional justice, foster OCB. It is posited that:

H1:   There is a positive relationship between procedural justice and OCB among employees

H2:   There is a positive relationship between distributive justice and OCB among employees

H3:   There is a positive relationship between interactional justice and OCB among employees

1.3   PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.3.1   Problem identification

Given that employees of the SAPS play an integral role in the protection, safety and security of the population, their own perceptions of OJ and OCB are important in the workplace. A happy workforce is a productive workforce. If SAPS employees feel that they are treated fairly in the workplace, they may display positive citizenship behaviours. However, statistics from the SAPS annual report (2012-2013) show that this is not the case. The SAPS annual report (2012-2013:35) indicates that 537 disputes were referred to the Safety and Security Sectoral Bargaining Council (SSSBC) for resolution during the 2012/13 financial year. The outcome of these resolutions indicated that 198 were unfair labour practice disputes, 249 were unfair dismissal disputes and 90 were related to unilateral change (without consultation of the affected employee) and collective agreements. In addition to these 537 disputes, there were 362 grievances that were referred to the Joint Grievance Resolution Team (JGRT), of which 341 were resolved and did not escalate into disputes. The high number of disputes that related to unfair labour practices and unfair dismissal might indicate that, in many instances, employees of the SAPS are not treated fairly within the working environment.

1.3.2   Explanation of the problem

The influence of OJ and its dimensions has been a phenomenon experienced by many organisations for the past decades. The allocation of labour rights to SAPS members brought about an environment where unjust practices by management and fellow employees can amount to disciplinary and grievance related matters, an unacceptable

position for the police service to be in. Several studies have been conducted in order to explore this phenomenon.

A study by Moorman (1991:851) reveals that all OJ dimensions, that is, distributive, procedural and interactional justice, are positively related to OCB. Chegini (2009:176) found that all the OJ dimensions of distributive, procedural and interactional justice were positively related to OCB among the staff in a governmental organisation. However, such studies have not been conducted in a policing environment.

A study by Crow, Lee and Joo (2012:402) among South Korean police officers on their perceptions of OJ was positively related to their level of organisational commitment. In addition, perceptions of procedural and interactional justice had an indirect impact on the officers' organisational commitment through distributive justice. Lastly, perceptions of OJ showed an indirect influence on organisational commitment through job satisfaction. Although this study was conducted in a policing environment, it did not explore the relationship between OJ dimensions and OCB.

In Western Australia, Brunetto and Farr-Wharton (2003:43) conducted a study among lower-ranked police officers pertaining to job commitment and satisfaction. The findings suggest a relatively high level of pride in the police service, with reasonable levels of identification with the service's goals and increased involvement with rank (from constable to sergeant). It was also observed that dissatisfaction with appraisal/promotional procedures and information communication increased as ranks increased (from constable to sergeant), and an inverse relationship between rank and organisational commitment was also observed. Rus, Ratiu, Vonas and Baban (2013:531) investigated the organisational image and performance of a Romanian police force. From the citizens' perspective, a strong organisational identification was positively associated with high levels of organisational performance. In South Africa, no literature could be found on the study of the relationship between OJ and its dimensions in relation to OCB in any police agency.

1.3.3 Problem orientation

Researchers have largely neglected the influence of procedural, distributive and interactional justice on OCB, and very few studies have been conducted on this topic. The literature search indicates that there is a gap in research in the sense that research

pertaining to the influence of distributive, procedural and interactional justice on OCB has not been conducted in the SAPS environment.

Since OJ and its relationship with OCB forms one of the basic and important foundation blocks of successful organisations (Chegini 2009:173), in today's competitive world, it makes sense to illuminate their importance among employees of the SAPS. Indeed, such an inquiry is imperative and likely to contribute to a deeper understanding of the relationship between these constructs. This necessitates an empirical confirmation or disconfirmation of previous findings in the context of the SAPS employees. It has been argued in previous research in developing countries that it is naive and not judicious to assume a priori that findings in developed countries apply in developing countries such as South Africa (Chinomona 2013:78).

1.4   OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.4.1   Primary objective

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of procedural, distributive and interactional justice on OCB among employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl.

The primary objective was divided into theoretical and empirical objectives.

1.4.2   Theoretical objectives

The following theoretical objectives were formulated in order to achieve the primary objective of the study:

- To review the literature on OJ

- To review the literature on procedural justice

- To review the literature on distributive justice

- To review the literature on interactional justice

- To review the literature on OCB

- To review the literature on the relationship between procedural, distributive and interactional justice and OCB.

1.4.3 Empirical objectives

In line with the theoretical objectives and the primary objective of the study, the following empirical objectives were formulated for the study:

- To ascertain employees' perceptions of the practice of the various types of OJ in the SAPS

- To determine the influence of procedural justice on OCB among employees in the SAPS

- To determine the influence of distributive justice on OCB among employees in the SAPS

- To determine the influence of interactional justice on OCB among employees in the SAPS.

The formulated objectives made it possible to determine whether OJ and its dimensions (procedural, distributive and interactional justice) had an impact on OCB within the SAPS context.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study is situated within the functionalist paradigm. The functionalist paradigm assumes that the social world is composed of familiar empirical facts that exist separately from the research, and reflects the attempt to apply models and methods of the natural sciences to the study of human behaviour (Asante, Mike & Yin 2008:74). To gain a deeper understanding of the relationship between the OJ dimensions and OCB, a quantitative approach will be applied in the study as it entails explaining a phenomenon by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically-based methods (Muijs 2011:1). Two methods of research will be undertaken, namely a literature review and an empirical study.

1.5.1 Literature review

A theoretical examination of all OJ dimensions, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice, as well as OCB, will be conducted. In addition, the relationships between the OJ dimensions and OCB will be discussed. In order to develop a theoretical framework, the study will utilise a wide range of materials, including textbooks on OJ and

OCB, journal articles sourced through electronic databases, conference papers and the Internet.

1.5.2 Empirical study

The researcher conducted an exploratory study to familiarise himself with the phenomenon and to provide possible new insights into it (Babbie & Mouton 2012:79-80). The researcher used empirical (first hand) data collected from employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. An empirical investigation was undertaken in order to provide a practical basis for ensuring that a reasonably objective measurement of the purpose of the study was given.

1.5.2.1 Target population

Kumar (2011:398) defines the target population as the bigger group of people belonging to an organisation. A study population is defined as the unit about which information is collected and that provides the basis of analysis (Babbie & Mouton 2012:173). For the purpose of this study, the target population was restricted to employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. It comprised individual male and female managers, permanent employees and students studying the Bachelor of Police Science degree, who are, for a period of three years, considered to be employees of the SAPS Academy, Paarl. The target population is N = 457.

1.5.2.2 Sampling frame

A sampling frame is the actual list of sampling units from which the sample or some stage of the sample is selected (Babbie & Mouton, 2012:174). The sample frame for the proposed study was the alphabetical name lists of these SAPS members, which was obtained from the human resource department at the SAPS Academy, Paarl.

1.5.2.3 Sampling technique

Probability sampling was used in the study. A basic principle of probability sampling is that a sample will be representative of the population from which it is selected if all members have an equal chance of being selected in the sample (Babbie & Mouton 2012:173). For the purposes of the proposed study, systematic sampling was used. Systematic sampling includes a procedure in which the initial point is selected by a

random process and then every kth number is selected on the list (Babbie & Mouton 2012:190). Therefore, from the alphabetical name list of employees starting, for example at number one, every second employee was selected and became a research participant.

1.5.2.4   Sample size

In addition to the above selection process, a comparison of past research studies (historical evidence method) was used to choose the size of the sample. Sample size determination was based on the studies depicted in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1   Sample sizes of other studies

Author	Participants
Moorman (1991:848)	225
Karriker and Williams (2009:112)	217
Colquitt, Scott, Judge and Shaw (2006:117)	238

Based on the population of 457, with every second employee selected, a sample size of 226 was deemed appropriate for this particular study. The chosen sample size was feasible and large enough to provide a good representation of employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl.

1.5.2.5   Method of data collection

A survey method was used to collect the data by distributing questionnaires among employees of the SAPS Academy, Paarl. The researcher distributed and collected the questionnaires during August 2015.

1.5.2.6   Measuring instrument

The measurement instrument was operationalised on the basis of previous work. Proper modifications were made in order to fit the current research context and purpose. The value of a questionnaire was that it tended to be more reliable because it was anonymous; it encouraged greater honesty (although, of course, dishonesty and falsification might not be discovered in a questionnaire); and it was more economical than the interview in terms of time and money (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007:158). The questionnaire consisted of five sections. Section A solicited demographic information from respondents,

including income, gender, marital status, age, education level and employment history. Section B focused on procedural justice. Section C focused on distributive justice. Section D focused on interactional justice. Section E focused on employees' OCB. Questions for sections B, C and D were adopted from Niehoff and Moorman (1993:538). Questions for section E were adopted from Jung and Yoon (2012:376). Close-ended questions were used as they are more efficient and less time-consuming for respondents. In the study a seven-point Likert scale was used for sections B, C, D and E.

The questionnaire was pre-tested with academics in human resource management to check the suitability of questions and whether the questions measured the relevant constructs in the study. The study was piloted with 40 respondents to test its face and construct validity.

1.6   STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data processing and analysis followed the survey research. Descriptive statistics were used as a method for presenting quantitative descriptions in a manageable form (Babbie & Mouton 2012:459). Initially, descriptive statistics were undertaken to scrutinise the composition and breakdown of questionnaire responses into meaningful data. Descriptive statistics and correlation analyses were undertaken to examine relationships between procedural justice, distributive justice, interactional justice and OCB. Correlation analysis was used to establish the strength and direction of the relationship between certain variables and the identified dimensions. Descriptive statistics were also computed for section A in order to examine the composition of the data. In addition, regression analysis was undertaken to establish the predictive relationship between the constructs that were used in the study, namely procedural justice, distributive justice, interactional justice and OCB of employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. Exploratory factor analysis was undertaken to discover patterns among the variations in values of the variables in the study (Babbie & Mouton 2012:472). The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0 was used for the analysis of the data.

1.7   RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Reliability refers to whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same results each time (Denscombe 2007:296; Babbie & Mouton

2012:119). The Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to enhance the reliability of survey instruments. According to Malhotra (2004:268), Cronbach alpha coefficient values range from zero to one. For the assessment of reliability using the Cronbach alpha coefficient, values below 0.6 indicate unsatisfactory reliability. Cronbach alpha values ranging from 0.6 and higher indicate moderate reliability, hence the higher the correlation coefficient, the greater the reliability of the measuring instrument (Malhotra 2004:267).

In conventional usage, the term validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration (Babbie & Mouton 2012:122). The following types of validity were examined: content, construct, convergent and predictive validities. Content and construct validity were established through the pre-testing and piloting of the survey instrument. Correlations and exploratory factor analysis procedure was used to establish convergent validity in the study. Regression analysis was used to establish predictive validity of the constructs.

1.8   ETHICAL ISSUES

De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2005:57) define ethics as "a set of moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group, is subsequently widely accepted, and which offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students".

The following ethical principles were upheld in this study:

- Permission to conduct the study was sought from the relevant authorities.

- Permission to give respondents' time to complete the questionnaire was requested.

- The researcher informed each respondent of the purpose of the study.

- Participation in the study was voluntary. Respondents were not forced to participate.

- The questionnaire did not contain any questions that are detrimental to the self-interest of the respondents.

- The questionnaire did not contain the names of respondents.

- The researcher assured respondents of anonymity and the confidentiality of the data collected.

- Personal responses from individuals were not be ascribed to any individual. All data were computed in aggregate and were not be ascribed to any respondent.

1.9   CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter 1 provided an overview of and background to the study. The design of the research was briefly discussed. A brief description of the statistical analysis, reliability, validity and ethical issues pertaining to the study were highlighted.

Chapter 2 will provide a discussion of OJ and its dimensions, namely procedural, distributive and interactional justice. OCB will be discussed. The influence of OJ and its dimensions on OCB will be analysed.

Chapter 3 will describe the research methodology applied in the study. The design and method of research utilised in the study will be emphasised. Sampling techniques and methods of data collection and analysis will be elaborated upon.

Chapter 4 will provide an analysis and interpretation of the research findings. The results obtained will be evaluated against findings from previous studies.

Chapter 5 will focus on the conclusions and resulting recommendations of the study. Conclusions will be made based on the findings. Limitations and implications for further research will be highlighted.

CHAPTER 2
ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE AND
ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The literature review in this chapter starts by defining OJ, elaborating on the different dimensions of OJ and exploring the theories underlining OJ. The chapter then proceeds to provide a conceptual definition of OCB and the universal dimensions of OCB, leading to the theories underlining OCB.

The chapter will conclude by exploring the relationship between OJ and OCB and will analyse the relationship between the dimensions of OJ and OCB, highlighting the research in support of the relationship between the variables.

2.2   ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

2.2.1   Definition

There are many definitions of OJ, depending on who the researchers were and what constructs they were examining. OJ refers to the idea that an action or decision is morally right, and may be defined according to certain categories such as ethics, religion, fairness, equity, or law (Owolabi 2012:29). OJ impacts on how people feel and behave towards their employers (Ambrose 2002:803). The term OJ was also used to describe the role of justice as it related directly to the workplace (Al-Zu'bi 2010:102). Specifically, OJ was concerned with the ways in which employees determined if they had been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which this perceived fairness influenced other work-related variables (Moorman 1991:845). Should an employee feel that he/she has been treated unfairly through being shown disrespect, not being promoted, given additional responsibilities without a pay increase, denial of adequate resources to do the job or not receiving what he/she considers adequate credit from fellow employees or management for work performed, such an employee would find himself/herself in a classic state of dissatisfaction (Crino 1994:315). This state of dissatisfaction can influence the employees' perception of justice within the working environment. Ince and Gül

(2011:135) defined OJ as the perceptions of employees pertaining to how their rights were observed and the fairness they were experiencing within the working environment. Cropanzano, Bowen and Gilliland (2007:34) referred to OJ in the context of employees' sense of the moral propriety of how they were treated, as the "glue" that allowed people to work together effectively within the organisation. Without perceiving justice in the working environment, effective functioning of the business unit will be adversely affected, as it might be difficult for managers to provide motivation and leadership for employees (Heydari & Gholtash 2014:152).

2.2.2 Dimensions of organisational justice

A review of literature indicates that the OJ construct was conceptualised based on three dimensions: procedural justice, distributive justice and interactional justice (Bakhshi, Kumar & Rani 2009:145; Al-Zu'bi 2010:103; Malik & Naeem 2011:93; Ahmadi, Daraei, Rabiei, Salamzadeh & Takallo 2012:22; Batool 2013:648). These dimensions are linked by the concept of fairness and have implications for employees' behaviour as a result of the employee's perceptions of just treatment (Balogun, Ojedokun & Owoade 2012:4).

2.2.2.1 Procedural justice

Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the process by which decisions are made (Ambrose, Hess & Ganesan 2007:22). Decisions are constantly made within the employer – employee relationship in any organisation. Employees react to decisions that affect them and are affected by the processes that lead to these decisions (Ince *et al.* 2011:136). Procedural justice suggests that satisfaction is a function of process, i.e. the steps taken to reach that decision (Nabatchi, Bingham & Good 2007:150). Procedural justice establishes certain principles specifying and governing the roles of participants within the decision-making process (Abasi, Mohammadipour & Aidi 2014:133). Lind and Tyler (1988:179) first noted this relationship in their seminal work on procedural justice. They concluded that procedural justice has especially strong effects on attitudes about the organisation or authorities within the organisation as opposed to the specific outcome in a particular case. Folger and Greenberg (1985:143) defined procedural justice as the fairness of procedures used to determine the outcomes that employees receive. Thus, the fairness of procedures provides employees with information about "the rules" of the relationship. Employees' perceptions of the fairness of the rules and procedures that

regulate a process thus denote procedural fairness (Nabatchi *et al.* 2007:150). Fair processes lead to intellectual and emotional recognition, which in turn creates the trust and commitment that build voluntary cooperation in the execution of an organisation's strategy (Cropanzano *et al.* 2007:38). If the process was perceived as fair, employees would show greater loyalty and more willingness to behave in the organisation's best interest, and this could lead to increased OCB. Procedural injustice, on the other hand, produces intellectual and emotional indignation, resulting in distrust and resentment, which reduces voluntary cooperation in the execution of the organisation's strategy and could lead to decreased OCB (Kim & Mauborgne 2005:183). The core attributes that make procedures just are displayed in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1   Components of organisational justice

Procedural justice (Appropriateness of the allocation process)

- Consistency: All employees are treated the same.
- Lack of bias: No person or group is singled out for discrimination or ill-treatment.
- Accuracy: Decisions are based on accurate information.
- Representation of all: Appropriate stakeholders have input into a decision.
- Correction: There is a process or other mechanism for fixing mistakes.
- Ethics: Norms of professional conduct are not violated.

Distributive justice (Appropriateness of outcomes)

- Equity: Rewarding employees based on their contributions.
- Equality: Providing each employee roughly the same compensation.
- Need: Providing a benefit based on one's personal requirements.

Interactional justice (Appropriateness of the treatment one received from authority figures)

- Interpersonal: Treating an employee with:
  - dignity
  - courtesy
  - respect.
- Informational: Sharing relevant information with employees.

(Source: Cropanzano *et al.* 2007:36)

2.2.2.2   Distributive justice

Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of outcome distributions (Ambrose *et al* 2007:22) that an individual receives from the organisation (Al-Zu'bi 2010:103). This concept thus refers to the fairness of outcomes that people receive in the workplace for compensation, such as pay or promotion opportunities (Cropanzano & Greenberg 1997:320). Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of decision outcomes and is judged by gauging whether outcomes adhere to expectations and whether the outcome/input ratios match those of other employees (Colquitt, Scott, Judge & Shaw 2006:110). Employees determine whether they have been treated fairly at work by comparing their own payoff ratio (such as pay or status) to inputs (such as effort or time) with the ratio of their co-employees (Bakhshi, Kumar & Rani 2009:146). Thus, distributive justice suggests that satisfaction is a function of outcome, i.e. the content of the decision or resolution (Nabatchi *et al.* 2007:150). Outcomes may be distributed on the basis of equality, need or contribution, and individuals determine the fairness of distribution through comparison with others (Al-Zu'bi 2010:103). Distributive justice is thus related to the individual's perceptions of the results of the process and is perceived through fairness in social interactions, with individuals comparing their shares with those of others and perceiving justice or injustice accordingly (Bhal 2006:109). Foley, Kidder and Powell (2002:478) defined distributive justice as treating people alike who behaved in a similar ethical manners and treating them differently when they behaved in a different ethical manner. The concept is thus concerned with the reality that not all employees are treated alike; the allocation of outcomes is differentiated in the workplace; some employees get and others do not (Abasi *et al* 2014:133). The formation of employees' positive perceptions of distributive justice depends upon just organisational performance pertaining to the distribution of organisational resources (Ince *et al.* 2011:136). It seems that the employees' perception of the justice of management is influenced primarily by their perception of distributive justice (Brashear, Brooks & Boles 2004:87). The core attributes that make distributions just are displayed in Table 2.1.

2.2.2.3   Interactional justice

Interactional justice is the perceived fairness of the treatment that one receives during the enactment of procedures (Ambrose *et al.* 2007:22). Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001:181) state that interactional justice emerged as an extension of procedural justice

and pertains to the human side of organisational practices, in other words to the way that management (or those controlling rewards and resources) behaves towards the employee who is the recipient of justice. Asgari, Nojabee and Arjmand (2011:142) stated that interactional justice includes the way by which OJ is transferred from the manager to the subordinates. Interactional justice is related to some aspects of the communication process, such as respect and politeness between the addressor and the addressee (Heydari *et al.* 2014:153). Bies and Moag (1986:44) defined interactional justice as the quality of interpersonal treatment received during the enactment of organisational procedures. In general, it reflects concerns about the fairness of the non-procedurally dictated aspects of interaction, such as the communication and personal conduct of management (Nabatchi *et al.* 2007:151). Moorman (1991:847) referred to interactional justice as the interaction between the source of the allocation and the people who would be affected by the allocation process and the way in which the procedure is carried out. Individual employees pay attention to the treatment they receive and the explanations made during the practice of procedures, rather than the procedures themselves (Ince *et al*. 2011:136). A person's action is interactionally fair if he/she appropriately shares information and avoids rude or cruel remarks (Cropanzano *et al.* 2007:38). Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter and Ng (2001:427) refer to two aspects of interactional justice. The first aspect reflects the degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity and respect by authorities or third parties involved in executing procedures or determining outcomes (Abasi *et al.* 2014:133). Al-Zu'bi (2010:103) explains this aspect of interactional justice as inclusive of various actions displaying social sensitivity, such as when supervisors treat employees with dignity, respect and an acceptable interpersonal manner during interactions and encounters. The second aspect focuses on the explanations provided to employees that convey information about why procedures were used in a certain way or why outcomes were distributed in a certain manner (Abasi *et al.* 2014:133). The core attributes that make interactions just are displayed in Table 2.1.

2.2.3   Theory underlying organisational justice

The social exchange theory (SET) is one of the most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behaviour (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005:874). One of the basic beliefs of SET is that relationships develop over time into trusting, loyal and mutual commitments. In order to achieve this, parties to the relationship must abide by certain

rules of exchange. The rules of exchange form a normative definition of the situation that develops among or is adopted by the participants in the exchange relationship (Emerson 1976:351). The SET states that, aside from the economic exchange relationship that employees form at work, which are short term and which focus on the exchange of concrete and often material resources, employees also form social exchange relationships within the organisation (Wang, Liao, Xia & Chang 2010:663). The SET deals with how people form relationships and how power is dealt with in those relationships (Konovsky 2000:493). West and Turner (2001:207-208) stated that the SET assumes that the relationships are interdependent. The exchange relationship consists of actions that are contingent on rewarding reactions from others (Blau 1964:91). The SET emphasises that these interdependent transactions have the potential to generate high-quality relationships (Cropanzano *et al.* 2005:874-875). The interdependent dimension of the SET suggests that employees invest such things as talent and effort in the organisation and seek favourable returns such as pay and self-esteem, among others. Essentially, the employer must provide for the needs of the employees in a manner that will benefit the organisation's need for productivity, as the employer provides the jobs, and the employees' need for satisfaction as they provide the labour in the social exchange relationship (Balogun *et al.* 2012:3). If resources of the organisation are perceived to be fairly allocated, employees will be more convinced about their favourable return in the long run (Wang *et al.* 2010:663). However, if the resources are perceived as being unfairly allocated, Colquitt *et al.* (2006:116) suggested, retribution against the source of the injustice is a "moral remedy" that is consistent with the SET of interaction. A moral individual should be more likely to respond to an injustice with less task-related effort as opposed to more overt forms of retaliation (Colquitt *et al.* 2006:116). The less task-related retribution might be in the form of a decline in OCB. Bies and Tripp (1995:258-259) went as far as describing the retribution against the source of the injustice as a "moral imperative", noting that individual retributionists often have a strong belief that they are "doing the right thing" and that they are themselves not being unfair. Thus, OJ may contribute to the improvement of the social exchange relationships, while a higher quality of social exchange relationships may contribute to better OCB by employees.

2.3   ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organisations want and need employees that are prepared to do more than what is mentioned in their job description (Alizadeh, Darvishi, Nazari & Emami 2012:494). Employees provide organisations with unique human resource capabilities that could create a competitive advantage, and OCB is one type of behaviour that might contribute to that advantage (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach 2000:559). Organisations that have employees that are willing to display OCB might outperform those organisations that do not have such employees (Greenberg 2009:181; Jain & Cooper 2012:155; Jung & Yoon 2012:369). Employees are more dependent on supervisors who are willing to contribute to successful change and are ready to help them and colleagues voluntarily (Zeinabadi & Salehi 2011:1472). Such employees' perception of OJ can be based on how their supervisors treat them and they could reciprocate through OCBs. Organisational citizenship behaviour is a useful term to illustrate these voluntary behaviours that are not performance expectations of employees' formal roles, but occur freely to help others achieve the task at hand (DiPaola & Hoy 2005:35).

2.3.1   Definition

Organisational citizenship behaviour is defined by Organ (1988:4) as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation. Discretionary behaviour is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, in terms of the person's employment contract with the organisation. The behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable". Batool (2013:647) refers to OCBs as activities that are not identified as an obligatory condition of the employee's job description, but rather as an employee's choice that does not result in penalty if the employee does not perform these activities. Organ (1997:95) refined this definition by conceptualising OCB as any form of performance that supported the social or psychological environment in which the work tasks are embedded. The refinement reflects the flexible nature of the workers' role in the modern workplace and acknowledges the fact that employees are recognised and rewarded for engaging in OCB. Tschannen-Moran (2003:159) defines OCB as going beyond minimum expected performance. Employees are expected to act in accordance with the organisational goals and their actions should exceed the requirements of duties

and official tasks (Taheri & Soltani 2013:65). Kinicki and Kreitner (2008:165) define OCB as employee behaviours that are beyond the call of duty. Focusing on OCBs is important because employees are the first and only representative of the organisation in the eyes of the organisation's clients (Balogun *et al.* 2012:5). Organisational citizenship behaviour is a volunteer behaviour of employees that ensures the improvement of the organisation (Ehtiyar, Alan & Ömüris 2010:47). Organisational citizenship behaviour therefore refers to individual behaviour on the basis of "volunteerism", thus serving the organisation without considering the formal gratification system, which helps the success and productivity of the organisation (Organ, 1997:85). This extra-role behaviour denoted organisationally beneficial behaviours and gestures that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal performance requirements nor elicited by a contractual guarantee of compensation (Balogun *et al.* 2012:2). According to the white paper on OCB (NZ 2011:3), Zhang defined OCB as anything that employees choose to do, spontaneously and of their own accord, which often lies outside of their specified contractual obligations. In other words, it is discretionary. OCB might not always be directly and formally recognised or rewarded by the organisation, through salary increments or promotions for example, though, of course, OCB might be reflected in favourable supervisor and co-employee ratings, or better performance appraisals. In this way it could indirectly facilitate future reward gain. For the purpose of this study, OCB is defined as a set of behaviours that are not captured within traditional role definitions and job descriptions. They represent "extra effort" by employees that is nonetheless essential for the effectiveness of the organisation, especially where the organisational performance is dependent on the interconnectedness and social networks of its employees (Balogun *et al.* 2012:11).

2.3.2   Dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour consists of informal contributions, e.g. contributions that are not inherent in formal role obligations, that participants choose to make or withhold without regard to considerations of sanctions or formal incentives (Balogun *et al.* 2012:3). OCB has been conceptualised as a multi-dimensional construct (Ravichandran & Gilmore 2007:19; Yildirim, Uzum & Yildirim 2012:2147). Kar and Tewari (1999:424) and Chiang and Hsieh (2012:374) refer to five dimensions of OCB: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue. The five

dimensions of OCB are illustrated in Figure 2.1. These constructs are elucidated in the following section.
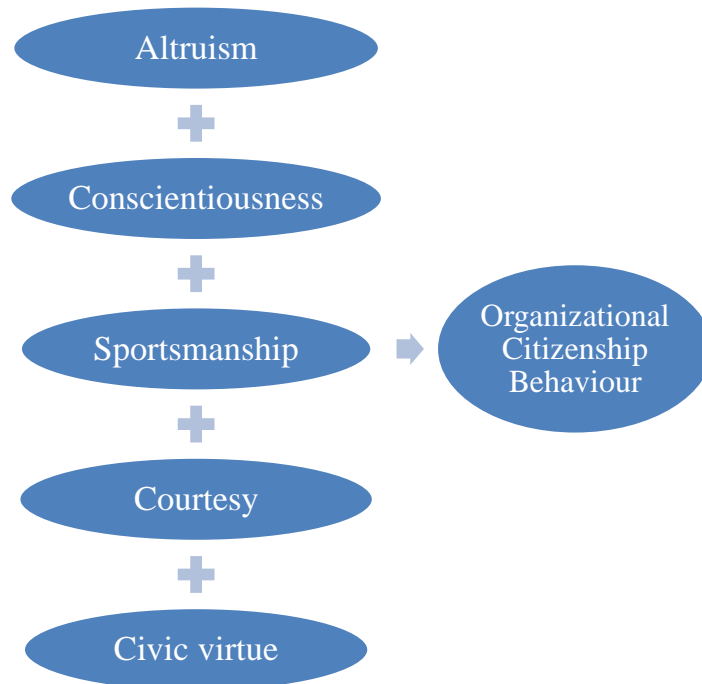
Figure 2.1   The five dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour

(Source: Adapted from Ahmadi, Daraei, Rabiei, Salamzadeh & Takallo 2012:24)

2.3.2.1   Altruism

Altruism means helping others without demanding anything in return (Ehtiyar *et al.* 2010:49). Goudarzvandchegini (2011:44) defines altruism as helping partners and employees to perform tasks in unusual circumstances. It refers to a situation whereby one person seeks to benefit another person even at an absolute cost to themselves (Cropanzano *et al* 2005:879). Heydari *et al.* (2014:153) refers to altruism as effective and beneficial behaviours among employees that directly or indirectly assist them with work-related problems. Organ and Ryan (1995:776) implied that this dimension refers to the voluntary support of an employee by his/her fellow employees in cases of work-related problems, such as helping them regardless of any personal inconvenience. Asgari *et al.* (2011:143) stated that it is these voluntary and optional behaviours which stimulate the employees to assist in the working problems and complexities of other employees. Batool (2013:646) refers to altruism as an attribute of employees with high collective values and togetherness that have more interest in group benefits, rather than individual benefits.

Thus, altruism refers to voluntary and optional behaviours that could assist in preventing further work-related problems. Examples of altruism as a key dimension of OCB in an organisational setting are provided in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2   Key dimensions of OCB

	Description	Organisational setting examples
Altruism	Displaying voluntary actions that help a fellow employee with work-related problems.	Help fellow employees to use equipment to complete a work-related task, complete work-related assignments, prepare a presentation for management, understand a newly installed computer software program, assist with sourcing information that is required for a new project.
Courtesy	Displaying discretionary enactment of thoughtful and considerate behaviours that prevent work-related problems for fellow employees.	The employee notifies the employer if he/she is going to be late or absent from work. Notifies fellow employees in advance if he/she commits to actions that will affect them. Informs fellow employees of delays in work progress. Informs fellow employees of possible stumbling blocks in the completion of a particular project.
Sportsmanship	Displaying a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions that result in an organisation without complaining and doing so with a positive attitude.	The employee refrains from complaining about having to work overtime to complete a project. Not complaining if a deadline for a specific task has been brought forward. Tolerating annoying, but not harmful working conditions, e.g. uncomfortably high temperatures. Acceptance when his/her ideas and suggestions have not been accepted.
Conscientiousness	Displaying a pattern of excelling above the minimum role and task requirements.	The employee arrives at work early and leaves late. Avoids prolonged and unnecessary breaks during working hours. The employee is punctual for meetings and appointments. Completes allocated assignments before the due date. Effectively and efficiently utilises the organisations resources. Makes constructive suggestions to improve organisational performance. Takes on added responsibilities to assist in increasing organisational performance.
Civic virtue	Displaying voluntary participation in, and support of, organisational functions of both a professional and social nature. In general the employee is looking out for the best interests of the organisation.	The employee participates in organisational policy making and operational issues. Attends optional meetings, forums, workshops and training sessions. Monitors risks and seeks opportunities for operational efficiency. Attends the organisation-sponsored social events, e.g. teambuilding sessions.

(Source: Adapted from Allison, Voss & Dryer 2001:283)

2.3.2.2   Courtesy

Courtesy refers to having positive relationships with other employees during operational processes within an organisation (Ehtiyar *et al.* 2010:51). Courtesy consists of actions that help prevent problems from occurring. It refers to the way in which an employee behaves towards fellow employees, supervisors and other role-players within the working relationship (Heydari *et al.* 2014:153). Goudarzvandchegini (2011:44) states that courtesy entails respectful behaviours that avoid creating problems and difficulties within the working environment, such as managers consulting with employees before executing any work-related activity. Asgari *et al.* (2011:143) defined courtesy as the sub-voluntary or sub-optional behaviours that prevent the creating of complexities that could result from working with other employees. The basic idea is to avoid practices that make other employees work harder and, when one has to add to their workload, to give them sufficient notice so that they will be prepared to deal with the additional responsibilities (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie 2006:24). Examples of courtesy as a key dimension of OCB in an organisational setting are provided in Table 2.2.

2.3.2.3   Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship refers to tolerating any negative occurrence within the working environment (Ehtiyar *et al.* 2010:51). Goudarzvandchegini (2011:44) is of the opinion that this requires placing more emphasis on the positive aspects within the employment relationship in the organisation and basically ignoring the negative aspects that might occur. Asgari *et al.* (2011:143) referred to sportsmanship as the analysis of unpredicted conditions in the working environment without any complaint or objection. Difficulties occur in any organisation and troubles are inevitable (Ince *et al.* 2011:137). An employee must be able to calm down a situation and create an environment where a solution can be found for the problem. Podsakoff *et al.* (2000:517) described "good sports" as people who do not complain when they are inconvenienced by others, maintain a positive attitude even when things do not go their way, are not offended when others do not follow their decisions, are willing to sacrifice their personal interest for the good of the work group and do not take the rejection of their ideas personally. Sportsmanship describes the ability to tolerate minor inconveniences and impositions accruing from work-related activities without complaining, filing trivial grievances and demanding compensation and relief (Balogun *et al.* 2012:3). It is about the tolerance pertaining to problems and

dissatisfaction among employees and managers who have direct and indirect relations with the organisation (Podsakoff *et al.* 2000:515). Lind and Van den Bos (2002:215) suggested that the tolerance of this problems and dissatisfaction among employees and managers could be an important determinant of the importance of justice. Examples of sportsmanship as a key dimension of OCB in an organisational setting are provided in Table 2.2.

2.3.2.4 Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness refers to the willingness of an employee to work more than is required (Ehtiyar *et al* 2010:49). Goudarzvandchegini (2011:44) states that conscientiousness refers to behaviours that guide the individual to do his/her duties at a higher than expected level. The employee thus displays a willingness and ability to perform above the minimum required level of performance of his/her current job description. Ince *et al.* (2011:137) refers to behaviours of employees that go beyond their responsibilities regarding their jobs, roles and voluntary contribution and are related to the effective functioning of the organisation. Asgari *et al.* (2011:143) stated that conscientiousness comprises optional behaviours that go beyond the requirements of the occupation, duties and working behaviour. Conscientiousness is a pattern in which employees engage in certain behaviours that go beyond minimally required duties (Heydari *et al.* 2014:153). These behaviors exemplify a particularly high order of compliance with constraints placed upon individuals and are necessary to create a cooperative system (Organ *et al.* 2006:19). Podsakoff *et al.* (2000:524) describes a conscientious employee as one who religiously obeys all rules and regulations even when no one is watching and whose task-related behaviour is at a level far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels. Examples of conscientiousness as a key dimension of OCB in an organisational setting are provided in Table 2.2.

2.3.2.5 Civic virtue

Civic virtue refers to full commitment to the organisation in which the employee is employed (Ehtiyar *et al*. 2010:49). Goudarzvandchegini (2011:44) states that civic virtue comprises behaviours that indicate the employee's responsible participation in organisational activities, for example where an employee will coordinate his/her duties with organisational events. Podsakoff *et al.* (2000:525) describes civic virtue as a person's recognition of being a member of a bigger group, in the same way that citizens

are members of a country and accept the responsibilities linked to being a part of it. An employee would thus exhibit maximum interest in anything that concerns the organisation in which he/she is employed. Civic virtue refers to practising constructive and suitable forms of involvement in the governance of the workplace (Balogun *et al.* 2012:3). It includes remaining attentive and proactive when participating in organisational activities (Chiang *et al.* 2012:181). A good employee should not only attend meetings, but also express his/her opinions and play an active role in solving problems within the working environment (Heydari *et al.* 2014:153). Civic virtue incorporates supporting the development of the organisation, learning about and exerting efforts to improve oneself with regard to recent developments, business methods and company policies (Yildirim *et al.* 2012:2147). Thus, civic virtue is constructive involvement in the functioning of the organisation while observing the workplace processes of the organisation. Examples of civic virtue as a key dimension of OCB in an organisational setting are provided in Table 2.2.

2.3.3   Antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour is motivated in employees who believe that they are being treated fairly and is induced through social exchange and reciprocity (Van Dijke, Cremer, Mayer & Quaquebeke 2012:235). Jain and Cooper (2012:155) state that OCB may be used by employees as a strong currency of reciprocity. Commonly studied antecedents of OCB are job satisfaction, perceptions of OJ, organisational commitment, personality characteristics, task characteristics and leadership behaviour (Alizadeh *et al.* 2012:500). Podsakoff *et al.* (2000:526) indicate that the antecedents of OCB consist of the following main categories: employee characteristics, task characteristics, organisational characteristics and leadership behaviours. Organ and Ryan (1995:794) refer to a study where a review was conducted of 55 studies in respect of the relationship between employee characteristics and OCB. In this study, job satisfaction, perceived OJ, organisational commitment and perception of leadership support were notable as the antecedents whose relationship with OCB was most investigated. The study found that OCB has a relationship with all of these characteristics to some extent. The notion of OJ as antecedent of OCB has received considerable attention in industrial psychology, human resource management and organisational behaviour sciences (Ismail 2014:86). Podsakoff *et al.* (2000:527-528) investigated the relationship of behavioural tendency

variables such as agreeableness, fairness, conscientiousness and positive affectivity with OCB and asserted on the basis of their findings that these types of variables affected OCB. Within this context, employees' perception of justice is a very important factor, which has been investigated as an antecedent of OCB (Songur, Basim & Sesen 2008:93). The findings of previous studies conducted on the relationship between OJ and OCB will be examined later in this chapter. The role of task characteristics, organisational characteristics and leadership behaviours will not be examined as they do not fall within the scope of this study.

2.3.4   Theory underlying organisational citizenship behaviour

The social exchange theory (SET) examines how social exchange relationships develop in engendering "feelings of personal obligation, gratitude and trust" (Blau 1964:94). A fundamental notion of the SET is that the exchange relationship can be produced through a series of interdependent transactions (Cropanzano *et al.* 2005:886). The transactions and relationships in social exchange are shown in Figure 2.2.
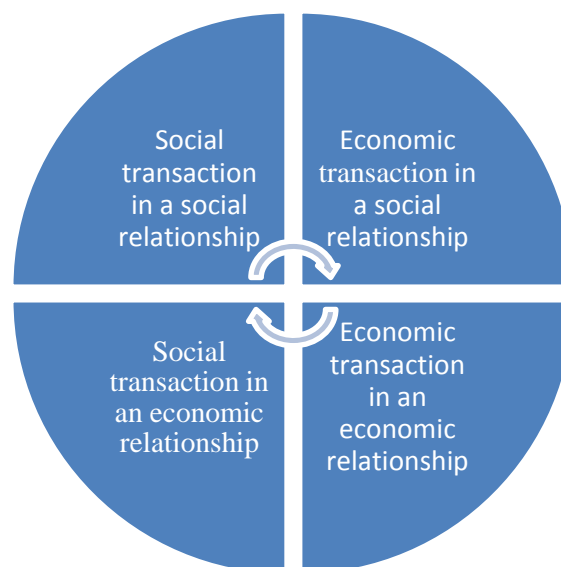
Figure 2.2   Transactions and relationships in social exchange

(Source: Adapted from Cropanzano *et al.* 2005:887)

Blau (1968:454) states that social exchange relations evolve in a slow process, starting with minor transactions in which little trust is required because little risk is involved and

in which both parties can prove their trustworthiness, enabling them to expand their relationship and engage in major transactions. The power lies in the relationship and not in the individual, because it resides implicitly in the other's dependency (Emerson 1962:32). Chibucos, Leite and Weis (2005:138) stated that at the heart of the SET lies the concept of reciprocity. Therefore, the exchange of economic and socio-emotional resources and compliance with the norm of reciprocity plays a crucial role. The social exchange relationship creates obligations on the part of the employee to reciprocate through OCBs, in other words, when the relationship is in social exchange, employees are more likely to engage in OCBs (Zeinabadi *et al.* 2011:1473). The action of one party is dependent upon the reactions of the other and it is this contingent interplay that characterises how social exchange is being applied to an employment relationship (Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall 2008:7). The performance of positive behaviours is based on the concept of exchange because workplace practices, such as fair and just treatment, have the potential to lead to the reciprocation of positive behaviours such as OCB in organisations (Badu & Asumeng 2013:149). The social exchange model with regard to OCB reveals that the relationship between procedural justice and OCB suggests that the citizenship behaviour occurs in the context in which social exchange characterises the quality of the employer-employee relationship (Konovsky en Pugh 1994:666). Chibucos *et al.* (2005:138) found that the SET suggests that individuals who perceive the presence of reciprocity in their relationships are more likely to feel satisfied with and maintain those relationships. Employees engage in a social exchange with their employers when they invest a high degree of effort in organisational activities, and in return, expect fairness in the distribution of rewards as part of the social exchange process (Balogun *et al.* 2012:3). Fair treatment by management can create feelings of trust by removing fears of exploitation (Konovsky 2000:494). When employees perceive a fair working environment, they will very likely respond in accordance with social exchange and perform more OCBs (Blakely, Andrews & Moorman 2005:262). Therefore, if employees perceive the presence of OJ within the working environment, they will be more likely to feel satisfied with the employment relationship and might therefore increase their OCBs.

2.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organisational justice is one of the most important issues for employees (Ince *et al.* 2011:138). Chegini (2009:173) stated that OJ, as one of the basic and most important qualities of successful organisations, increases OCB. A possible explanation might be found in the fact that the concept of OJ is found to be related to organisational output and OCB as a variable (Forret & Love 2008:248). The perceptions of OJ increase the trust of employees and increase their OCBs. Batool (2013:647) stated that if employees have trust in their manager, they are likely to exhibit OCB. Employees' perceptions of fairness affect their likelihood of performing OCBs and have an enduring effect on increasing extra-role work behaviours (Heydari *et al.* 2014:154). The higher the positive perception of OJ, the more positive is the employees' state of mind. Williams, Pitre and Zainuba (2000:54) found that the likelihood of performing OCB activities was increased when employees were placed in a more positive mood. In this context, the psychological conditions of employees were among the most important factors determining the relationship between perceptions of OJ and OCB (Ince *et al.* 2011:138). Asgari, Silong, Ahmed and Bahaman (2008:227) found that there was a positive and direct relationship between leadership behaviours, OJ dimensions and OCB, and therefore employees would behave more positively when they perceived just practices within the working environment. This finding provides support for Moorman's (1991:851) view that the decision to behave as an organisational citizen might be a function of the degree to which an employee believes that he/she has been treated justly by the organisation. Balogun *et al.* (2012:1) found that the perception of fairness in OJ seemed to motivate employees to exhibit more OCBs and this result implied that one way of improving OCB is to develop fair procedural, distributive and interactional justice at organisational level. Al Afari and Abu Elanain (2014:1093) posit that research on OJ showed that perceptions of OJ had a positive relationship with the desirable work outcome of enhancing OCB. The relationship between OJ and OCB is shown in Figure 2.3.
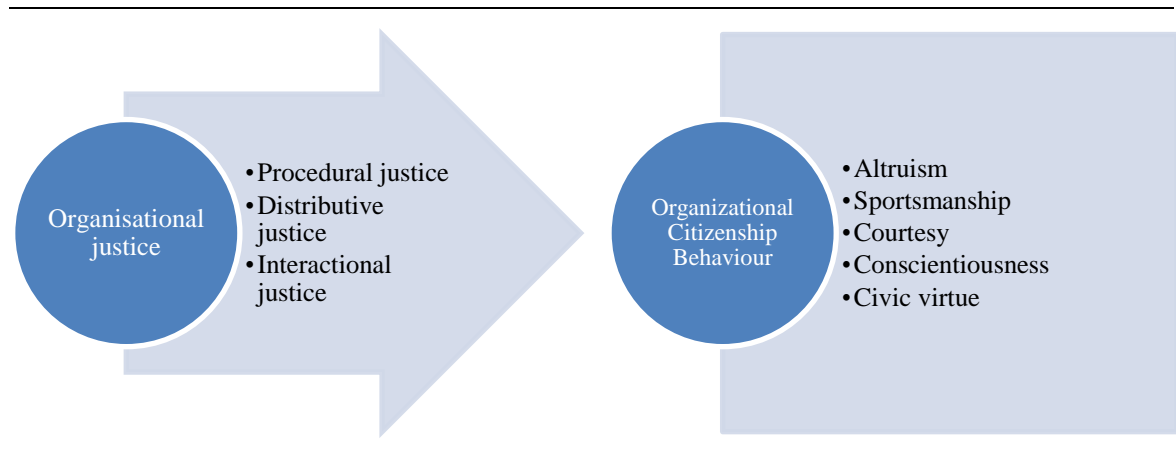
Figure 2.3 **The relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour**

(Source: Adapted from Goudarzvandchegini 2011:49)

2.4.1 The relationship between procedural justice and organisational citizenship behaviour

Procedural justice has been found to be an important predictor of the acceptance of and compliance with organisational rules (Kim & Mauborgne 1993:502) and the extent to which employees engage in extra-role activities on behalf of the organisations by which they are employed (Konovsky *et al.* 1994:667). Zeinabadi *et al.* (2011:1479) provided support for the claim that procedural justice is an important social exchange indicator when predicting OCB. Balogun *et al.* (2012:12) established that perceived OJ, in the form of procedural justice, contributed significantly to OCB and the study confirmed that the way an organisation treats its employees is positively related to OCB. An investigation into the relationship between procedural justice and OCB showed that there is a significant relationship between these two variables (Heydari *et al.* 2014:152). Rezaeian and Rahimi (2008:69) found that procedural justice had a positive effect on OCB and showed that, when employees perceive that organisational procedures are true, suitable and fair, their behaviour will display more OCBs. Thus, when employees perceived that they were treated based on fair procedures when determining outcomes, such employees tended to show better performance in the form of OCB (Rauf 2014:125). Such employees might feel that they are rewarded fairly, based on their actual performance. Thus, procedural justice seems to have a positive relationship with OCB.

2.4.2 The relationship between distributive justice and organisational citizenship behaviour

Ince *et al.* (2011:138) observed that, with the help of distributive justice, it is easy for employees to improve on their OCB as they feel that the organisation is more supportive when resources are distributed equitably among employees. Distributive justice is an important factor for any type of organisation that desires the effective functioning of the organisation (Tang & Sarsfield-Baldwin 1996:31). Rauf (2014:125) stated that individuals with a positive perception of distributive justice would show dedication to the development of the organisation, pay attention to their own development and would pay attention to their work. If such a situation transpires, it might boost the employees' morale and lead to the exertion of more effort to ensure organisational effectiveness. The extra effort might be observed in the form of OCB. Thus, distributive justice is more likely to have a positive relationship with OCB.

2.4.3 The relationship between interactional justice and organisational citizenship behaviour

Interactional justice refers to the fair or unfair treatment in a relationship (Rauf 2014:125). The quality of an individual's interpersonal relations will determine the level of perception pertaining to interactional justice. Goudarzvandchegini (2011:43) refers to interactional justice as the medium through which OJ is transferred from supervisor to subordinate in the employment relationship. Interactional justice focuses on aspects of interpersonal and group communication (Mirmohhamdi & Marefat 2014:1775). Moorman (1991:854) found that fairness perceptions, particularly those derived from interactional justice, are instrumental in predicting the occurrence of OCB. Employees who possess good interpersonal relations will engage in OCBs such as helping fellow employees and obeying the rules and regulations of the organisation even in the absence of supervisors. Since OCBs are behaviours that go beyond the role requirement of employees, such employees may tend to engage less in OCB when they experience unfair treatment in the relationship (Ince *et al.* 2011:138). Heydari *et al.* (2014:152) conducted an investigation into the relationship between interactional justice and OCB, and results showed that there is a significant relationship between these two variables. Thus, interactional justice seems to have a positive impact on OCB.

2.4.4 Organisational citizenship behaviour in the South African Police Service setting

The South African Police (SAP) was established on 1 April 1913 (Van Heerden 1994:35). The SAPS was formed by integrating the SAP with the police forces of the 10 ethic "homelands" that had been created under apartheid (Spierenburg & Wels 2006:60). The 10 ethnic "homelands that were integrated with the SAP were: Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda, Ciskei, Gazankulu, Kangwane, Kwandebele, Kwazulu, Lebowa and QwaQwa (SAPS History 2016). In terms of Section 236(7) of the Interim Constitution (1993) the various existing police forces shall be deemed to constitute the SAPS at the commencement of the Interim Constitution on 27 April 1994.

The placement of the top management of the SAPS is illustrated in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.4   Placement of Top Management

(Source: SAPS Organisational Structure 2016)

The Division: HRD resorts under the Deputy National Commissioner: Human Resource Management and provides training interventions to members of the SAPS through the different SAPS Academies. There are currently 22 SAPS Academies: All Saints, Bisho, Bishop Lavis, Chatsworth, Graaf Reinet, Mthatha, Oudtshoorn, Phillipi, Tswane, Ulundi, Moloto, Hammanskraal, Dive School, Bonkenhouts Kloof, Rietondale, Benoni, Mankwe, Thabazimbi, Roodeplaat, Tshwane, Thabong and Paarl (SAPS Academies 2016). The SAPS Academy, Paarl is responsible for Leadership and Management Development training interventions.

The establishment of the SAPS Academy, Paarl can be summarised as follows (SAPS Academy, Paarl 2014):

- The Academy, then known as a college, opened its doors on 2 January 1990 and were known as the SAP College for Advanced Training, Paarl.

- On 22 July 1996 the college's name was changed to the SAPS Training College, Paarl.

- November 2011 saw the training college going through yet another change and it transformed to the SAPS Management and Leadership Development Institute, Paarl.

- On 12 September 2006 the name of the Institute changed to the SAPSTraining Institution, Paarl.

- During October 2010 the SAPS Training Institution, Paarl became the SAPS Academy, Paarl.

Most of the studies on OCB were conducted in a business and educational context and limited literature is available in the policing context. Hoath, Schneider and Starr (1998:337) focused on police job satisfaction as a function of career orientation and position tenure. Brunetto and Far-Wharton (2003:43) focused on factors that affect the job commitment and satisfaction of lower-ranked police officers within Western democracies in Australia. Crow, Lee and Joo (2012:402) explored South Korean police officers' perception of OJ in relation to their level of organisational commitment. Rus, Ratiu, Vonas and Baban (2013:531) investigated the organisational image of a Romanian police force from the viewpoint of citizens and found that a strong organisational identification was positively associated with high levels of organisational performance. No empirical data could be found that explored the relationship between OJ and OCB in the policing context.

2.5   CONCLUSION

This chapter explored the definition and dimensions of OJ and OCB. The literature revealed various interpretations of OJ and what it involves, implying that OJ could mean different things to different people. Although, as a relatively narrow definition, OJ could help explain why employees retaliate against inequitable distribution of resources or inappropriate processes and interactions, it could be argued that the willingness of employees to engage in OCB is always driven by the employees' perception of how their rights are observed and the fairness they experience within the working environment. Nevertheless, the consensus appears to converge upon caring for all employees in order to increase their degree of organisational belonging, commitment and engagement in OCB.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a literature review of the two main constructs of the study, namely OJ and OCB in an organisation. The dimensions of these two constructs, the SET and the antecedents of OCB were explained and discussed. The construct of OCB was explored in the SAPS setting. The preceding chapter explained and discussed how OJ and its dimensions affect OCB in an organisation.

This chapter describes the research design and methodology employed in the study. The study design, the population and sample are also described. The instrument used to collect data and the steps and actions taken to ensure reliability and validity of the study are described and the procedures used to collect, capture, process and analyse data are discussed.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGNS

Research design addresses the planning of a scientific inquiry; it has to do with designing a strategy to find out more about a phenomenon (Babbie & Mouton 2012:72). Research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data (Singh & Bajpai 2007:12). Maree (2007:24) indicates that a research design is a plan or strategy which moves from underlying philosophical assumptions to specifying the selection of respondents, the data gathering techniques and the data analysis that must be done. There are three types of research design, namely exploratory research, descriptive research and causal research designs. These types of research design are illustrated in Figure 3.1. A discussion of the research designs and the design employed in this study and the motivation and reasoning behind the choice of design is undertaken in the following section.

Uses	Types	Instrument
Exploratory Research	Formulate problem more precisely Develop hypothesis Establish priorities for research Eliminate impractical ideas	Literature search Experience survey Analysis of select cases Focus groups
Descriptive Research	Describe segment characteristics Estimate proportion of people who behave in a certain way Make specific predictions	Longitudinal studies True panel Omnibus panel
Causal Research	Provide evidence regarding causal relationships by means of concomitant variation Time order in which variables occur Elimination of other explanations	Laboratory experiment

Figure 3.1   Different research designs

(Source: Adapted from Churchill & Iacobucci 2005:76)

3.2.1   Exploratory research design

Exploratory research is conducted to explore a topic and to provide a basic familiarity with that topic (Babbie *et al.* 2012:79). This research design is used when one is seeking insight into the general nature of a problem, the possible decision alternatives and relevant variables that need to be considered for the research (Aaker, Kumar, Leone & Day 2013:65). The main aim of exploratory research is to identify the boundaries of the environment in which the problems, opportunities or situations of interest are likely to reside, and to identify the salient factors or variables that might be found there and be of relevance to the research (Van Wyk 2012:8).

3.2.2   Descriptive research design

Penwarden (2014a:1) states that descriptive research is conclusive in nature, as opposed to exploratory. This means that descriptive research gathers quantifiable information that can be used for statistical inference on a target audience through data analysis. According to Churchill *et al.* (2005:74), it is concerned with determining the frequency with which something occurs, or the relationship between constructs. Babbie *et al.* (2012:81) mention that a descriptive research design may be used to emphasise the frequency with which a specific characteristic or variable occurs in a sample.

3.2.3   Causal research design

Causal research falls under the category of conclusive research because of its attempt to reveal a cause and effect relationship between two variables (Penwarden 2014b:1). The purpose of the causal research design is to indicate the causality between variables or events (Babbie *et al.* 2012:81). Churchill *et al.* (2005:74) state that causal research is usually undertaken through statistical analysis.

This study made use of an exploratory research design to provide insights into whether the phenomenon of OJ and OCB exists within the policing environment and whether the dimensions of OJ influence OCB within the policing context. This study also contains elements of a descriptive and causal research design as it made use of quantifiable information to explore the frequency with which the dimensions of OJ influences OCBs.

A discussion of the research approaches and the approach employed in this study and the motivation and reasoning thereof is undertaken in the next section.

3.3   RESEARCH APPROACHES

Two approaches can be followed when conducting research, namely qualitative and quantitative research (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport 2011:91). Maree (2007:145) defines quantitative research as a process that is systematic and objective in its ways of using numerical data from only a selected subgroup of a population to generalise the findings to the universe that is being studied. Quantitative research places emphasis on the quantification of constructs in that the researcher believes that the best way of measuring the properties of the phenomenon is through quantitative measurement, i.e.

assigning numbers to the perceived qualities of variables (Babbie *et al.* 2012:49). Maree (2007:265) refers to qualitative research as an inquiry process of understanding, where a researcher develops a complex, holistic picture, analyses words, reports detailed views of informants and conducts the study in a natural setting. The qualitative researcher is therefore concerned with describing and understanding rather than explaining and predicting human behaviour (Babbie *et al.* 2012:53). The characteristics of quantitative and qualitative approaches are outlined in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1   Characteristics of quantitative and qualitative approaches

Quantitative research approach	Qualitative research approach
Measurement of objective facts	Construction of social reality and cultural meaning
Focus on variables	Focus on interactive processes and events
Reliability as the key criterion of scientific excellence	Authenticity as the key criterion of scientific excellence
A value-free stance	Values are present and explicit
Research conducted independently of context	Situationally constrained
Many cases or subjects involved	Few cases or subjects involved
Statistical analysis is the method of choice	Thematic analysis is the method of choice
Researcher maintains detached attitude	Involvement of the researcher

(Source: Kreuger & Neuman 2006:16)

The differences between a quantitative and qualitative approach are outlined in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2   Differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches

Quantitative research approach	Qualitative research approach
Epistemological roots in positivism	Epistemological roots in phenomenology
Purpose is testing predictive and cause-effect hypotheses about social reality	Purpose is constructing detailed descriptions of social reality
Methods utilise deductive logic	Methods utilise inductive knowledge
Suitable for a study of phenomena which are conceptually and theoretically well developed; seeks to control phenomena	Suitable for a study of relatively unknown terrain; seeks to understand phenomena
Concepts are converted into operational definitions; results appear in numeric form and are eventually reported in statistical language	Participants' natural language is used in order to come to a genuine understanding of their world
The research design is standardised according to a fixed procedure and can be replicated	The research design is flexible and unique and evolves throughout the research process. There are no fixed steps that should be followed and the design cannot be exactly replicated
Data are obtained systematically and in a standardised manner	Data sources are determined by information richness settings; types of observation are modified to enrich understanding
The unit of analysis is variables which are atomistic (elements that form part of the whole)	The unit of analysis is holistic, concentrating on the relationships between elements, contexts, etc. The whole is always more than the sum of the parts

(Source: De Vos *et al.* 2011:66)

Taking into account the nature and strengths of both approaches, a quantitative research approach was used in the current research to address the research objectives and the hypothesis stipulated in Chapter 1.

3.4   SAMPLING DESIGN PROCEDURE

Sampling is the process of selecting observations (Babbie *et al.* 2012:164). Most empirical studies involve making a selection from a group for which propositions will be advanced at the end (Flick 2011:70). Sampling means taking a portion or a smaller number of units of a population as representative or having particular characteristics of

the total population (Denscombe 2008:141). The following steps in the sampling design procedure, as elucidated by Tustin, Lighthelm, Martins and Van Wyk (2005:339), were applied in the study:

- Define the population of interest

- Select data collection method

- Specify sample frame

- Select sampling method

- Determine sample size

- Develop operational sampling

- Execute operational sampling

3.4.1   Target population

Flick (2011:71) refers to the population as the mass of individuals, cases and events to which the statements of the study will refer and which has to be delimited unambiguously beforehand with regard to the research question and operationalisation. A population is the totality of persons, events, organisation units, case records or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned (Maree 2007:223). The population for this study consists of employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. The current population of the study is 457 employees. The categories of employees that are included are outlined in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3   Categories of employees at SAPS Academy, Paarl

Female managers

Male managers

Permanent employees appointed under the Police Service Act

Permanent employees appointed under the Public Service Act

Students studying the Bachelor of Police Science degree who are for a period of three years considered to be employees of the SAPS Academy, Paarl

3.4.2 Sampling frame

A sampling unit is a set of elements considered for selection in some stage of the sampling procedure (Babbie *et al.* 2012:174). A sample frame is a complete list on which each unit of analysis is mentioned only once (Welman & Kruger 2001:47). The sample frame consists of employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl, as outlined in Table 3.3. An alphabetical name list of these employees was obtained from the human resource department at the SAPS Academy, Paarl.

3.4.3 Sampling technique

The ultimate purpose of sampling is to select a set of elements from a population in such a way that descriptions of those elements (statistics) accurately portray the parameters of the total population from which the elements are selected (Babbie *et al.* 2012:175). Sampling methods can be divided into two broad categories: probability and non-probability sampling. A probability sample is one in which each person in the population has the same known probability of being representatively selected, which permits the researcher to compute an estimate of accuracy of the sample even before the study is done (De Vos *et al.* 2011:228). With probability sampling, statistical projections of the sample are generalised to represent the total population although there might be a sampling error. A sampling error is the degree to which the sample results might differ from those of the whole population. Probability theory, however, permits the researcher to estimate the degree of error to be expected for a given sample design.

In non-probability sampling, the odds of selecting a particular individual are not known because the researcher does not know the population size or the members of the population (Gravetter & Forzano 2003:118). This method does not make use of random selection of population elements and it would therefore be dangerous to draw important conclusions about the population (Maree 2007:176).

Methods of probability and non-probability sampling are outlined in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4   Methods of sampling

Probability sampling methods	Non-probability sampling methods
Simple random sampling	Convenience sampling
Systematic sampling	Quota sampling
Stratified sampling	Snowball sampling
Cluster sampling	Purposive sampling

(Source: Maree 2007:172-178)

For the purpose of this study, a probability sampling, namely a systematic sampling technique was used because each individual case in the population theoretically has a known and equal chance of being selected from the sample. Systematic sampling is appropriate because it is simple to apply; the name list of the SAPS Academy, Paarl employees was used and each employee within the population was given a unique number from number 1 on the list and every second employee was selected and became a research participant.

3.4.4   Sample size

Sample sizes are influenced by practical considerations, such as time and the cost of the collection of data for a study (Maree 2007:178). In determining the sample size for this study, the historical evidence method was used, where the researcher was guided by past research studies on the influence of OJ on OCB. A total of 220 was deemed sufficient to conduct the study. Table 3.5 demonstrates various sample sizes for different studies of the influence of OJ on OCB from which the chosen sample size was derived. Hence a sample of 226 participants will be selected from the population for the study.

Table 3.5   Determining the sample size

Year	Author(s)	Subject of the study	Sample size
1991	Moorman, R.H.	Relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviours: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship?	225
2006	Colquitt, J.A., Scott, B.A., Judge, T.A. and Shaw, J.C.	Justice and personality: using integrative theories to derive moderators of justice effects	238
2009	Karriker, J.H. and Williams, M.L.	Organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour: a mediated multi-foci model	217

(Source: Moorman 1991:848; Colquitt, Scott, Judge & Shaw 2006:117; Karriker & Williams 2009:112)

3.5   DATA COLLECTION METHOD AND MEASURING INSTRUMENT

Aaker *et al.* (2013:69) state that there are many data collection methods that can be considered, either singly or in combination. One of these methods is the use of questionnaires. The basic objective of a questionnaire is to obtain facts and opinions about a phenomenon from people who are informed on the particular issue (De Vos *et al.* 2011:186). A questionnaire is a printed list of questions that respondents are asked to answer (Goddard & Melville 2011:34). Though the term *questionnaire* suggests a collection of questions, an examination of a typical questionnaire will probably reveal as many statements as questions (Babbie *et al.* 2012:233). The purpose of a questionnaire is to ensure that all participants are asked similar questions in exactly the same way (Brace 2008:4).

3.5.1   Data collection

The data collection method for this study was a fully structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was hand-delivered to all participants. The purpose of delivering the questionnaires by hand is to ensure that all participants get them on time. The questionnaires were handed to respondents who were present in a group and each

respondent had to complete a questionnaire on his/her own. The researcher remained in case problems were experienced. The researcher chose this data collection method to save costs and time.

3.5.2 Questionnaire design

The questionnaire is designed to solicit information that is appropriate for analysis (Babbie 2007:246). The main advantage of an individually administered questionnaire in a group setting is that a significant amount of time and cost are saved since a whole group of respondents completes the questionnaires at the same time, hands them in simultaneously and, consequently, all members of the group are exposed to the same stimulus (De Vos *et al.* 2011:189). When designing a questionnaire for the current study, the process as illustrated in Figure 3.2 was followed.

1	• Determine survey objectives, resources and constraints
2	• Determine the data collection method
3	• Determine the question response format
4	• Decide on the question wording
5	• Establish questionnaire flow and layout
6	• Evaluate the questionnaire
7	• Obtain approval of all relevant parties
8	• Pre-test and revise
9	• Prepare final questionnaire copy
10	• Implement the survey

Figure 3.2 Questionnaire design process

(Source: McDaniel & Gates 2008:292)

The questionnaire comprised five sections:

Section A: This section solicits demographic information of respondents such as:

- Gender

- Marital status

- Age category

- Educational level

- Income category per month

- Length of time in the police service

Section B: This section comprises questions on procedural justice.

Section C: This section contains questions on distributive justice.

Section D: This section entails questions on interactional justice.

Section E: This section includes questions on organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.5.3 Questioning format and layout

Section A consists of six dichotomous and multiple-choice types of questions. Sections B to E consist of seven-point Likert scale questions, anchored with 1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree. Section B consists of six questions, Section C, five questions, Section D, nine questions and Section E, five questions.

Questions for Section B, C and D were adapted from Niehoff and Moorman (1993:538) and questions for Section E were adapted from Jung and Yoon (2012:376).

3.6 PRE-TESTING AND PILOT TESTING

Pre-testing a measuring instrument consists of carrying out all aspects of the total data-collection process on a small scale (Grinnell & Unrau 2008:336). Pre-testing is crucial and the surest protection against errors in the questionnaire is to pre-test the questionnaire in full and/or in part (Babbie *et al.* 2012:244). The questionnaire was pre-tested with academics in human resource management to check for suitability and whether the questions measure the relevant constructs in the study.

Barker (2003:327-328) defines a pilot study as a procedure for testing and validating an instrument by administering it to a small group of participants from the intended test population. The ones who participate in the pilot study should not participate in the main

inquiry (Unrau, Gabor & Grinnell 2007:179). Pilot testing was done with 40 respondents who are employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. These respondents did not form part of the main inquiry. A pilot study was conducted to test whether some changes were needed on the questionnaire before using it for the study. In addition, the reliability of the questionnaire was assessed. This was assessed by the computation of Cronbach alpha coefficient for sections B, C, D and E. The results of the pilot study are reported in Chapter 4.

3.7 DATA PREPARATION

The raw data obtained from the questionnaire must undergo preliminary preparation before they can be analysed by using statistical techniques (Kumar, Aaker & Day 2004:433). The data preparation process involves the reduction of data from unmanageable details to manageable summaries (Babbie *et al.* 2012:460). Editing, coding and entering data are the main aspects in data preparation. A discussion of these aspects of data preparation follows in the next section.

3.7.1 Editing

Sam and Sam (2011:178) state that editing is the first step in data processing; it is defined as the process of examining the data collected in the questionnaire to detect errors and omissions and to see that they are corrected and that the schedules are prepared for tabulation. Khan (2011:189) defines the editing of data as the process of examining the raw data collected to determine errors and omissions and to make corrections prior to the analysis of data. Thus, the purpose of editing is to ensure the completeness, consistency and readability of the data to be transferred to storage.

For this study, the wording of the questionnaire was thoroughly checked and proof-read by the research supervisor and co-supervisor. The necessary corrections were made for readability and understanding by employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. Collected data were also carefully examined to ensure accuracy. During the completion of the questionnaire by employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl, editing of the questionnaire data was done and checked by the researcher by quickly running through the pages of the completed questionnaire. This was done to determine any omitted or unanswered questions within the sections of the questionnaire so that the necessary corrections could

be made and fully completed questionnaires collected from employees at SAPS Academy, Paarl. This assisted in the assessment of the accuracy, completeness and usability of the questionnaire.

3.7.2 Coding

Coding is the process whereby raw data is transformed into standardised form suitable for computer processing and analysis (Babbie *et al.* 2012:640). It is the process of conceptualising research data and classifying them into meaningful and relevant categories for the purpose of data analysis and interpretation (Singh 2007:82). Coding errors were eliminated with the use of both pre-coding and hand coding. The questionnaire was hand coded from 1 to 40 for the pilot test and from 1 to 226. for the final study by giving a code number to each respondent. Section A (biographical information) of the questionnaire was also hand coded from question A1 to A6 by giving numbers to each response, for example; gender was coded as 1=male and 2=female. The pre-coding procedure was used throughout the questionnaire by providing a set of response options to the respondents and by assigning a code number to each respective question and response for Sections B, C, D and E of the questionnaire. A seven-point Likert scale was used ranging from "Strongly disagree" on one end to "Strongly agree" on the other. Codes were entered from 1 to 7 for each question. This method was helpful for computer tabulation, as presented in Chapter 4.

3.7.3 Entering data

The numerical codes that were allocated through hand coding or pre-coding were entered in a Microsoft Office Excel spreadsheet in a format that could be used with a statistical computer package. A row was allocated for each respondent and the columns represented the responses to the various questions or statements that were provided by the respondents when completing the questionnaire.

The following section addresses the statistical approach and analysis employed in converting the data collected from respondents into meaningful research output.

3.8   STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analyses are mathematical methods for systematically organising and analysing data once the data have been entered into the computer (Stangor 2007:326). Singh (2007:125) identifies two methods of statistical analysis, namely descriptive and inferential methods. These methods are depicted in Figure 3.3.
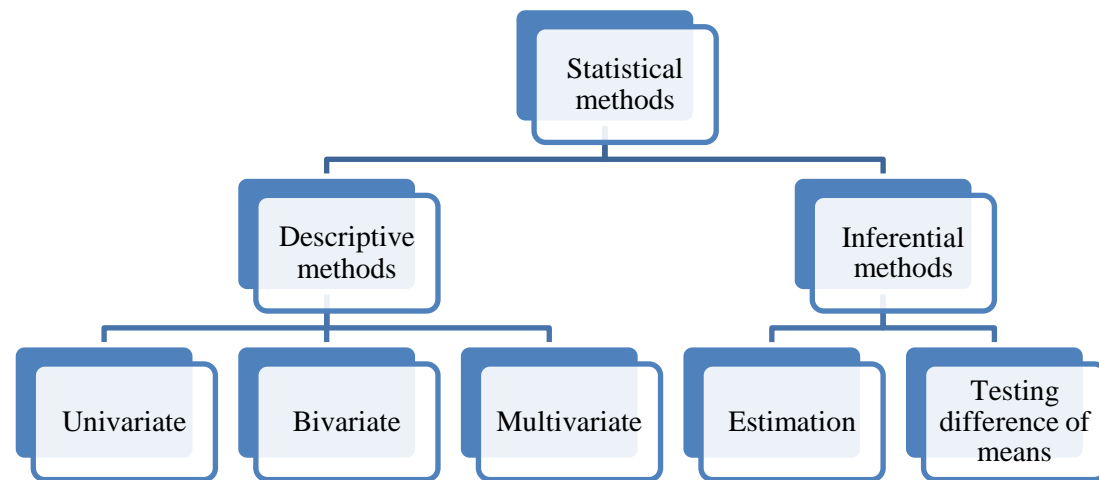
Figure 3.3   Statistical methods

(Source: Singh 2007:125)

For the purpose of this study, descriptive and inferential statistics were undertaken and the following types of analyses were used:

- Exploratory factor analysis

- Correlation analysis

- Regression analysis

These types of analyses are discussed in the next section.

3.8.1   Descriptive and inferential statistics

Descriptive statistics are procedures that describe numerical data in that they assist in organising, summarising and interpreting sample data (Monette, Sullivan & DeJong 2008:414). Stangor (2007:114) defines descriptive statistics as numbers that summarise

the pattern of scores observed on a measured variable. This pattern is called the distribution of the variable. Inferential statistics use probability theory to test hypotheses, permit inferences from a sample to a population and test whether descriptive results are likely to be due to random factors or to a real relationship (Kreuger *et al.* 2006:350). Descriptive statistics can be used with data from all levels of measurement, but it is only data from interval and ratio levels that are amenable to analysis using inferential statistics (De Vos *et al.* 2011:252). Descriptive statistics will be used for Section A of the questionnaire and inferential statistics will be used for Sections B, C, D and E.

3.8.2 Exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis is a general term used to denote a class of procedures used primarily for data reduction and summarisation. Aaker *et al.* (2004:448) state that factor analysis is the process used to analyse the resulting data to determine which statements belong together in sets that are uncorrelated with other sets. Cooper and Schindler (2006:633) refer to it as a technique for discovering patterns among the variables to determine if an underlying combination of the original variables can summarise the original set. Matsuaga (2010:98) states that factor analysis provides an indicative tool to evaluate whether the collected data are in line with the theoretically expected pattern or structure of the target constructs and thereby to determine if measures used have indeed measured what they are purported to measure. Malhorta and Birks (2006:573) outline the following situations in which factor analysis can be used:

- To identify underlying dimensions or factors that explain the correlations among a set of variables

- To identify a new, smaller set of uncorrelated variables to replace the original set of correlated variables in subsequent regression analysis

- To identify a smaller set of salient variables from a larger set for use in subsequent multivariate analysis

Exploratory factor analysis is reported in Chapter 4 of the study.

3.8.3 Correlation analysis

Singh (2007:146) states that correlation analysis, which signifies the relationship between two or more variables, is one of the most widely used measures of association between two or more variables. Correlation means that a change in the value of one variable is associated with a change in the other variable (Flick 2011:144). A positive correlation reflects a tendency for high value in one variable to be associated with a high value in the second variable. A negative correlation reflects an association between a high value in one variable and a low value in the second variable. An absence of a correlation means that one cannot say what the value of variable two will be if the value of variable one is high or low. Correlation analysis is the analysis of the degree to which changes in one variable are associated with changes in another (McDaniel & Gates 2002:560). Correlations are reported in Chapter 4 of the study. These were computed to examine the nature of the relationship between:

- Procedural justice and OCB

- Distributive justice and OCB

- Interactional justice and OCB

3.8.4 Regression analysis

Khan (2011:187) defines regression analysis as a mathematical measure that expresses an average of the relationship between two or more variables. This means that the value of one variable can be explained in terms of the variations in the value of another variable (Babbie *et al.* 2012:464). Malhorta and Birks (2006:519) state that regression analysis can be used in the following ways:

- To establish whether there is a relationship between constructs

- To detect the strength of the relationship between variables

- To determine the type or structure of the relationship between the variables

- To predict the value of the dependent variable

- To control the constructs when evaluating the contributions of the specific variable or set of variables

In this study, regression analysis was done for Sections B, C, D and E. It was used to detect the relationship between procedural, distributive, and interactional justice and OCB.

In addition to the various types of statistical procedures outline above, the study also used reliability and validity techniques. These techniques are described in the next section.

3.9 RELIABILITY

The reliability of an instrument refers to whether the same instrument used at different times or administered to different subjects from the same population produces the same results (Maree 2007:215). Reliability is assessed by computing the extent to which measured variables correlate with each other. Clow and James (2014:267) state that three approaches can be followed for assessing reliability, namely:

- Test-retest reliability: An approach where the measurement process is repeated with a similar instrument with the same set of participants

- Equivalent form reliability: This is an approach to assessing reliability where two equivalent forms of the scale are developed and the same respondent is measured at two different times using the alternate forms.

- Internal consistency: This approach entails using one measurement instrument and assessing its reliability through different samples. It consists of two types of measurement: split-half reliability and Cronbach's alpha

The most commonly used reliability measure is Cronbach's alpha coefficient (De Vos *et al.* 2011:177). The Cronbach alpha was used to enhance the reliability of the measuring instrument for Sections B to E respectively.

3.9.1 Cronbach alpha coefficients

Cronbach alpha refers to the measurement of internal consistency of a multi-item scale where the average of all possible split-half coefficients results in different ways of splitting scales (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2007:652). This coefficient ranges between 0 and 1, and figures closer to 1 (0.8-0.9) generally indicate a highly reliable scale (De Vos *et al.* 2011:177-178).

3.10   VALIDITY

Validity means that the instrument that you are using actually measures what you need to measure (De Vos *et al.* 2011:172-173). In the current study, content, construct, convergent and predictive validity were used.

3.10.1   Content validity

Content validity is concerned with the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content of the instrument (De Vos *et al.* 2011:173). Maree (2007:217) refers to content validity as the extent to which the instrument covers the complete content of the particular construct that it is set out to measure. Clow *et al.* (2014:270) state that the following can be used to develop content validity:

- Panel of experts

- Scale reduction through data analysis

- Literature review

To ensure the content validity of the research instrument, a review of relevant literature was undertaken to see how other researchers measured the concept and different sources of evidence were used. In addition, a draft questionnaire was sent to experts at the human resource management department to scrutinise the instrument for suitability; exploratory factor analysis was also used as an indirect measure of content validity. Content validity is reported in Chapter 4 of the study.

3.10.2   Construct validity

Construct validity deals with the question of what variables the scale is measuring and attempts to answer why a scale works and what deductions can be made concerning the underlying theory (Malhorta *et al.* 2006:737). It determines whether a measured variable actually measures the conceptual variable that it is designed to measure (Stangor 2007:88). Maree (2007:217) states that construct validity is needed for standardisation and that it has to do with how well the construct covered by the instrument is measured by different groups of related items. Thus, it includes how well the constructs are captured by the measurement instrument (Aaker *et al.* 2004:724). For this study, construct

validity was undertaken by pilot testing the questionnaire. The pilot test is reported in Chapter 4 of the study.

3.10.3 Predictive validity

Predictive validity is concerned with how well a scale can predict future results (Malhorta *et al.* 2006:733). Aaker *et al.* (2004:303) give a simple definition of predictive validity, stating that if the measure can predict some future events then predictive validity has been established. Predictive validity is judged by the degree to which an instrument can forecast the results (Kumar 2005:155).

The study used regression analysis to assess the predictive validity of the scale. Predictive validity is reported in Chapter 4 of the study.

3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The most important principle that guides the relationship between science and the rest of society is that of accountability (Babbie *et al.* 2012:527). It is this accountability that requires all researchers to behave in an ethically acceptable manner towards research participants. The fact the human beings are the objects of study in the social sciences brings unique ethical problems to the fore and data should never be obtained at the expense of human beings (De Vos *et al.* 2011:113). The following ethical issues were taken into account for the study:

- Respondents were at all times informed of the purpose of the study

- No harm will be brought to any participants to the study

- No participant was forced to participate in the study

- There was no misleading of participants, misrepresentation of facts or withholding of information from participants

- There was no violation of the privacy or anonymity of any respondent

- Responses by research participants were confidential

3.12   CONCLUSION

One of the cornerstones of an empirical study is the research design. In this study a quantitative approach was used. An exposition of the sampling design procedure was given in this chapter. The target population, sampling methods, sampling frame, sample size and data collection were clearly described.

A questionnaire was used for the collection of the data. Pilot testing was undertaken to ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Statistical analysis and its components were also discussed.

The next chapter covers the analysis, interpretation and evaluation of the research findings.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined the methodology and the design of the study. It stated the baseline for data gathering and provided details pertaining to the population, the size of the sample, the sampling techniques, the measuring instrument and the procedure used to collect data. A description of the statistical techniques and the measures to ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire was also given. This chapter reports on the analysis of data and discusses the results. To achieve this, SPSS version 21.0 for Windows was used to analyse the data. The following aspects are addressed in this chapter: results of the pilot study, descriptive statistics of the sample, factor analysis, correlation analysis and regression analysis.

Data analysis and interpretation involves making sense of the data and discovering the "lessons learned" from the study (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport 2011:416). To progress from data to information, researchers need to analyse data using appropriate statistical techniques (Singh 2007:122). After data processing and analysis in accordance with the outline laid down for the purpose of the study, it is essential that all relevant data used for analysis are available (Sam & Sam 2011:177). In this study, the term analysis refers to the numerical representation of responses for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those responses reflect (Babbie & Mouton 2012:646).

Prior to the final study, a pilot study was conducted, and the following section represents the results of the study.

4.2 PILOT STUDY RESULTS

To test the reliability of the measuring instrument in this study, a structured questionnaire was used to survey a pilot sample of 40 respondents in order to refine the measurement instrument (questionnaire) in terms of wording, clarity, layout and relevance of the questions and ambiguity of item content. Subsequently, changes were made to the questionnaire, where an additional category was added under Section A, education level.

The internal consistency of Sections B, C, D and E was further examined by calculating the reliability values for the four sections of the questionnaire. The results obtained are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1   Reliability statistics of the four sections of the questionnaire

Sections	N of Items	N of Items deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
Procedural justice (Section B)	6	0	0.896
Distributive justice (Section C)	5	0	0.871
Interactional justice (Section D)	9	0	0.967
Organisational citizenship behaviour (Section E)	5	0	0.898

No items were deleted because none of the items reported low item-to-total correlations (<0.50). The resultant coefficient alphas indicated that the scale items performed adequately in capturing the elements of the perceptions of employees towards procedural justice, distributive justice, interactional justice and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Cronbach's alpha values for the individual scales ranged from 0.871 to 0.967, which were all above the acceptable benchmark levels of 0.70 (De Vos *et al.* 2011:177), so there was no need to remove any other items from the scales. Therefore, the reliability of the scale was verified and deemed acceptable (Dhurup & Mofoka 2011:160).

4.3   MAIN STUDY RESULTS

A total of 226 questionnaires were distributed to respondents. Questionnaires were handed to respondents in groups and they were given an opportunity to complete it in their own time. Completed questionnaires were then handed to the researcher. The fact that questionnaires were not posted to respondents or handed over for completion to return to the researcher at a later stage resulted in all questionnaires being returned. No questionnaires were discarded because they were incomplete, resulting in a total of 226 questionnaires being used for the analysis of data. The next section presents the results of the descriptive statistics obtained from Section A of the questionnaire.

4.4   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics quantitatively summarise a data set. This study makes use of graphical representations (pie charts and graphs) and statistical commentary (a discussion of the results) on the six questions in the biographical section (Section A) of the questionnaire. An analysis of the general employees' profile is discussed in the following sections.

4.4.1   Gender

Figure 4.1 depicts the distribution of the sample in terms of gender.
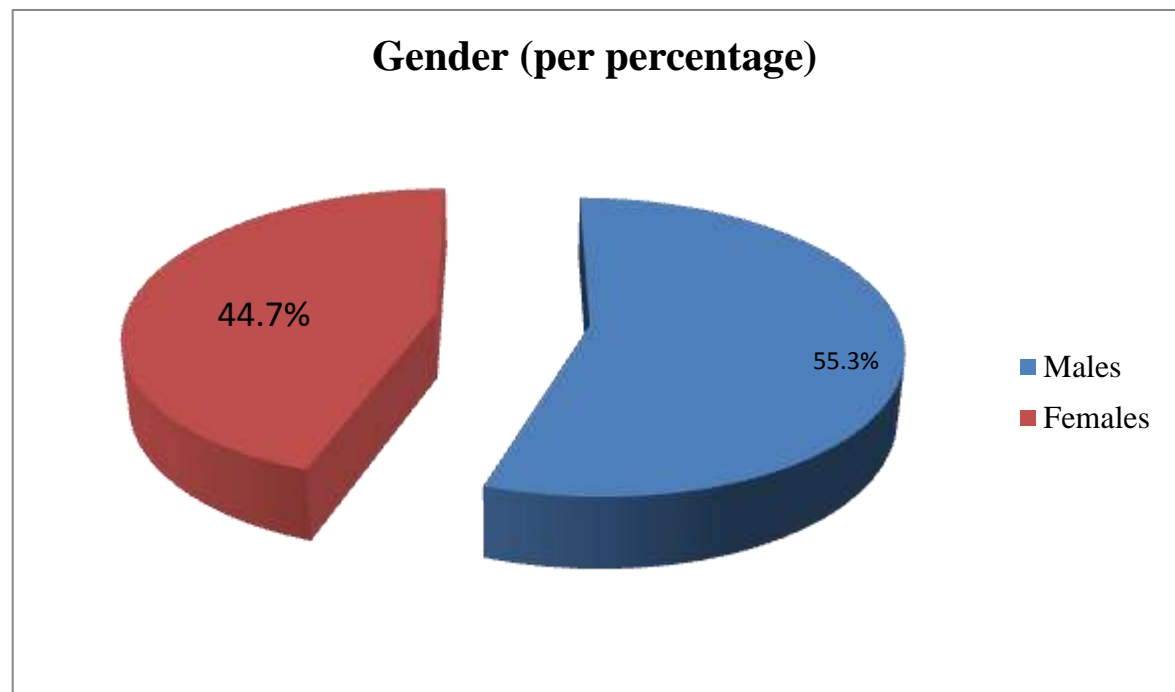
Figure 4.1   Gender of respondents

Figure 4.1 indicates that there were more males (n=125; 55.3%) participating in the study than females (n=101; 44.7%).

4.4.2   Marital status

Figure 4.2 provides the distribution of the sample in terms of marital status.

Marital status (per percentage)

43.8%

56.2%
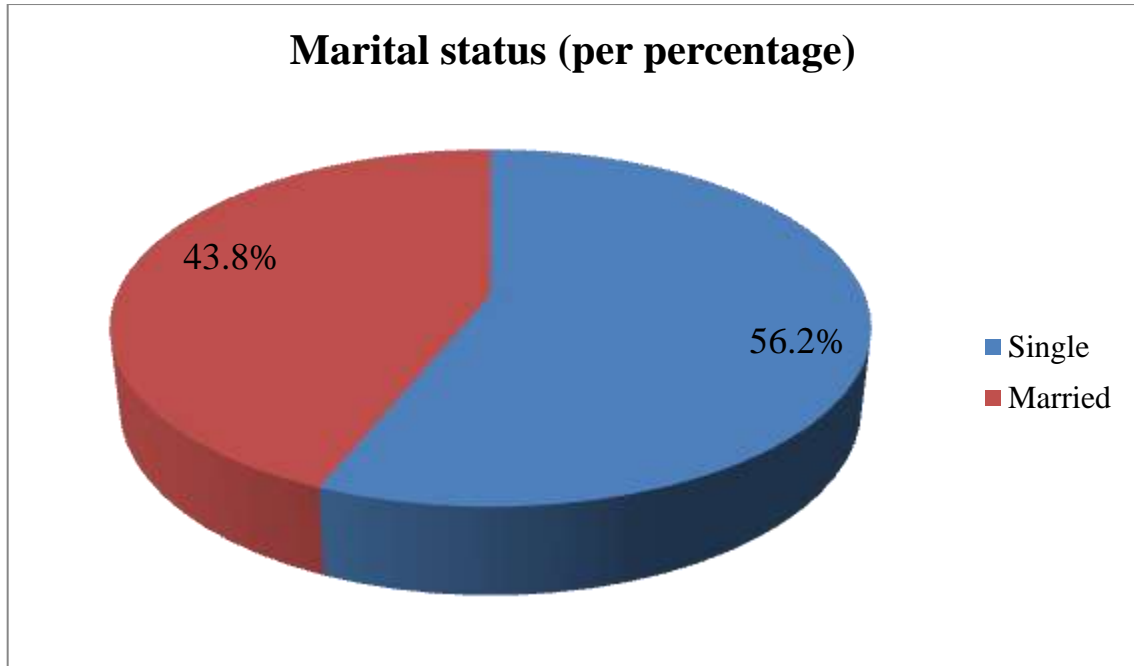
■ Single
■ Married

Figure 4.2   Marital status of respondents

Figure 4.2 indicates that there were more single respondents (n=127; 56.2%) in the study than married respondents (n=99; 43.8%).

4.4.3   Age

Respondents were asked to provide information on their age and Figure 4.3 presents the percentages of the responses.

Age category

2.2%   58%   22.1%   14.2%   3.5%

Under 25 years   25-35 years   36-45 years   46-55 years   Over 55 years
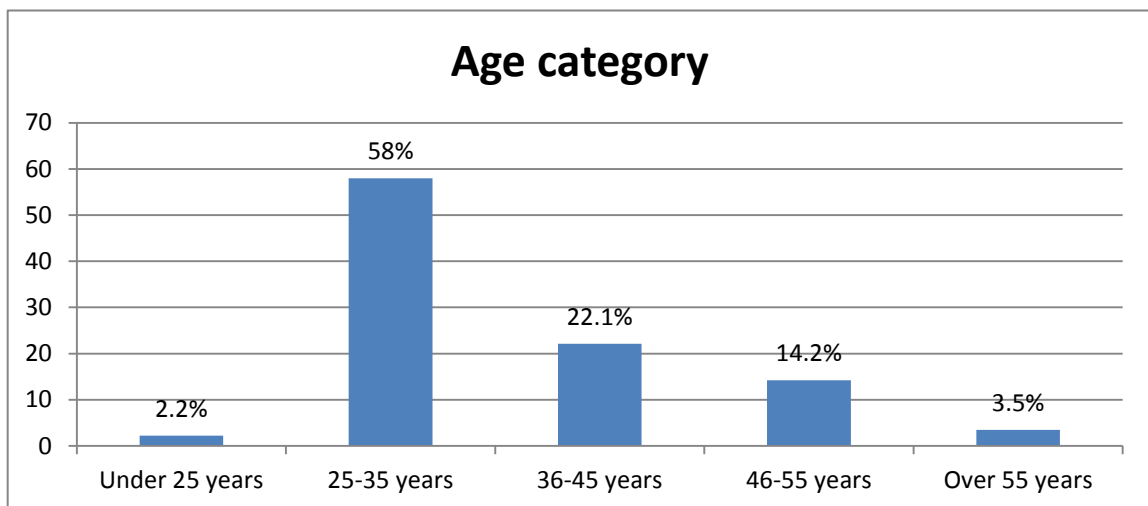
Figure 4.3   Age of respondents

The majority of respondents were between 25 and 35 years of age (n=131; 58.0%), followed by respondents who were between 36 and 45 years of age (n=50; 22.1%), respondents of 46-55 years of age (n=32; 14.2%), respondents over 55 years of age (n=8; 3.5%) and respondents under 25 years of age (n=5; 2.2%).

4.4.4 Education level

Respondents were asked to provide information on their education level and Figure 4.4 presents the percentages of the responses.
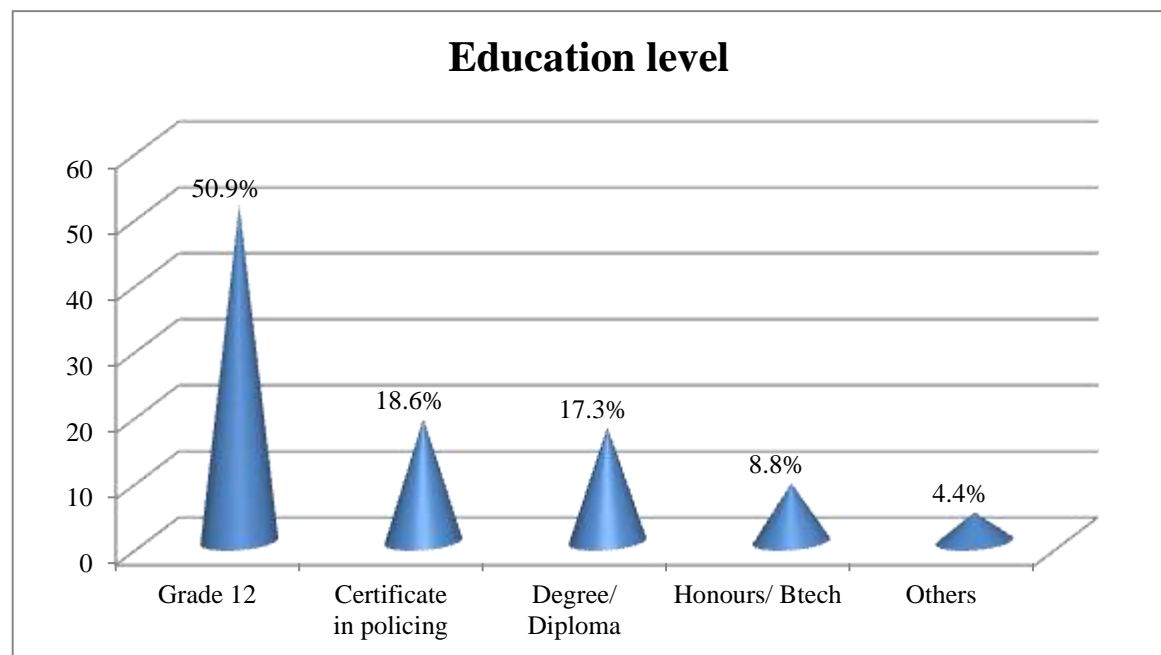
Figure 4.4   Education level of respondents

The majority of respondents (n=115; 50.9%) were in possession of a grade 12 qualification. The balance of the respondents were in possession of a certificate in policing (n=42; 18.6%), a degree or diploma (n=39; 17.3%), honours or B-Tech qualification (n=20; 8.8%) or other qualification (n=10; 4.4%). The other qualifications included the following: D-Tech (1), M-Tech (1), National Certificates, but not in policing (3) and qualifications below grade 12 (5).

4.4.5 Income category per month

Respondents were asked to provide information on their income category per month and Figure 4.5 presents the responses as percentages.
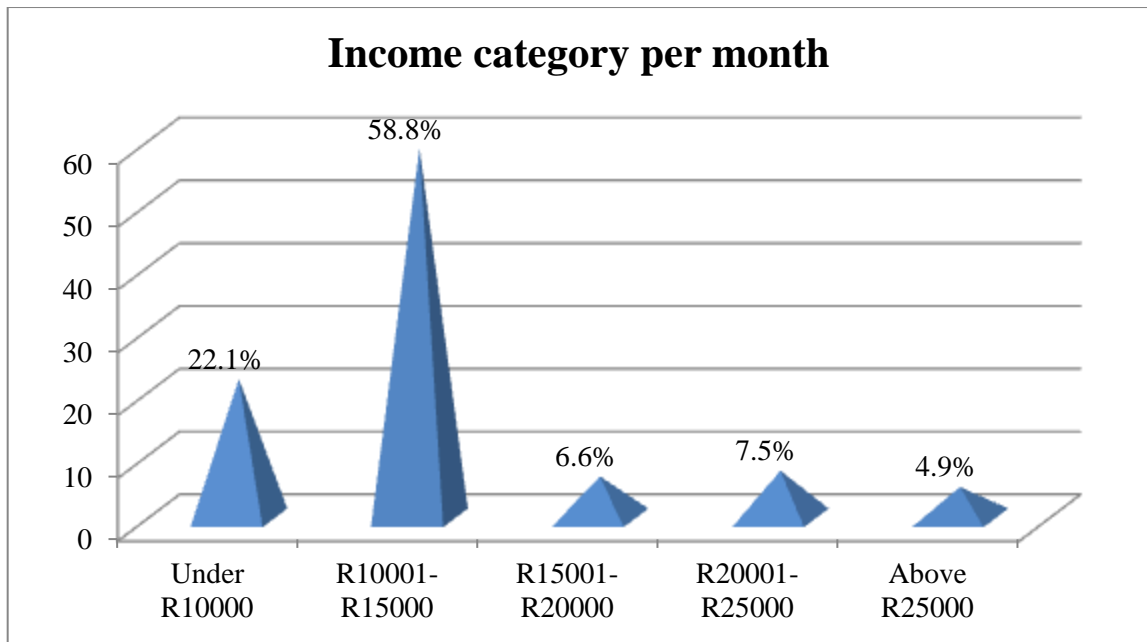
Figure 4.5   **Income category per month of respondents**

The majority of respondents (n=133; 58.8%) had a monthly income of between R10 001 and R15 000. The balance of the respondents fell within the following income categories: under R10 000 (n=50; 22.1%), between R15 001 and R20 000 (n=15; 6.6%), between R20 001 and R25 000 (n=17; 7.5%) or above R25 000 (n=11; 4.9%).

4.4.6   Length of time in the police service

Respondents were asked to provide information based on the length of time served in the police service and Figure 4.6 presents the responses as percentages.
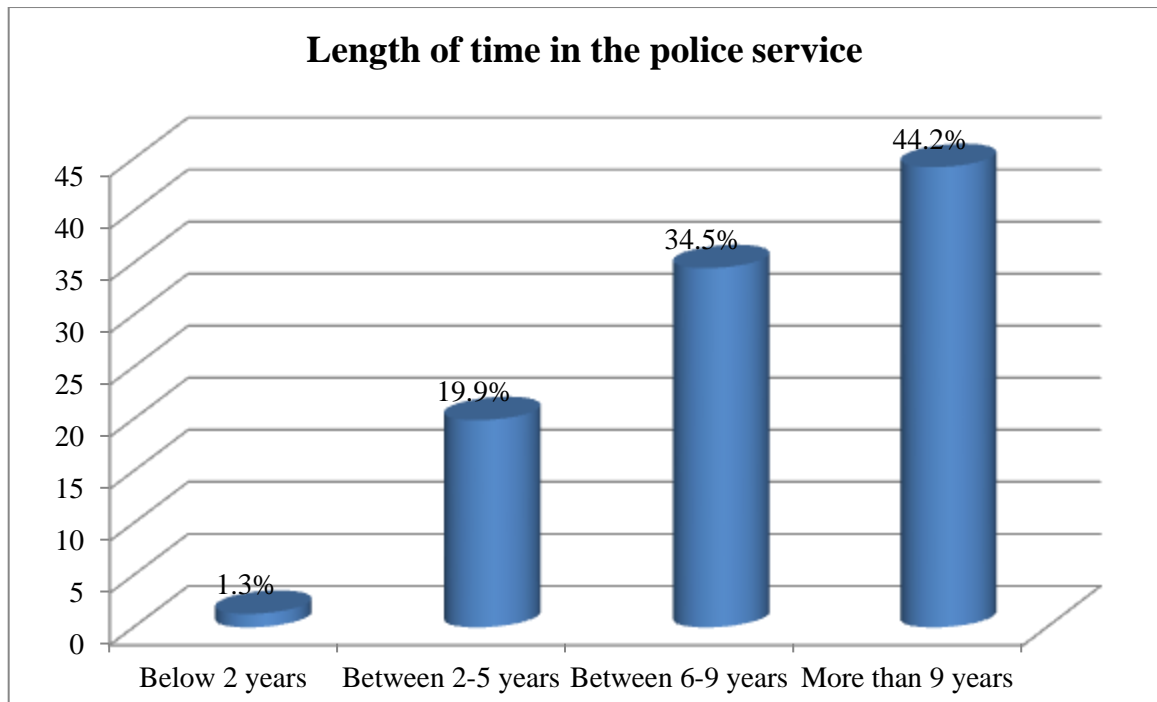
Figure 4.6   **Length of time in the police service**

The majority of respondents (n=100; 44.2%) had been employed by the SAPS for more than 9 years. The balance of the respondents fell within the following categories of length of time in the police service: below 2 years (n=3; 1.3%), between 2 and 5 years (n=45; 19.9%) or between 6 and 9 years (n=78; 34.5%).

4.5   OVERALL MEANS OF THE CONSTRUCTS IN THE STUDY

The mean scores of the items in sections B to E derived from the questionnaire are discussed in the next sub-sections. The purpose of the mean scores was to examine the perceptions of the employees of the SAPS Academy, Paarl of procedural justice, distributive justice, interactional justice and OCB.

4.5.1   Section B: Procedural justice

Table 4.2 provides an overview of the mean scores of the procedural justice scale. The means for this section ranged from 2.53 to 3.15. The lowest mean reported was 2.53 for item B2 (Management makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made), followed by 2.70 for item B3 (To make job decisions, management collects accurate and complete information), which is an indication that the majority of respondents strongly disagreed that management ensures that all employee concerns are

heard before job decisions are made and that job decisions are made by management after collecting accurate and complete information. Nabatchi, Bingham and Good (2007:150) emphasise that procedural justice suggests that satisfaction is a function of process; therefore if management does not listen to employees' concerns and collect accurate and complete information before making job decisions, employees' perceptions of procedural justice are negatively influenced.

For items B5 (All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees) and B4 (Management clearly communicates and provides additional information when requested by employees), the scale means ranged from 2.83 to 2.84, which means that respondents were in strong disagreement that management applies job decisions consistently across all affected employees and that they communicate clearly and provide additional information when it is requested by employees. Ince and Gül (2011:136) stated that employees react to decisions that affect them and are affected by processes that lead to these decisions; therefore, if management applies inconsistent decision-making processes that influence employees and do not clearly communicate such decisions, it could lead to negative perceptions pertaining to procedural justice.

Item B1 (Job decisions are made by management in a fair manner) had the highest scale mean of 3.15; nevertheless, it still indicated that employees were in disagreement with the statement that management made job decisions in a fair manner. Cropanzano, Bowen and Gilliland (2007:38) posit that fair processes lead to intellectual and emotional recognition, which in turn creates the trust and commitment that build voluntary cooperation in the execution of an organisation's strategy. Therefore, if employees perceive the process as not being fair, they will show decreased loyalty and less willingness to behave in the organisation's best interest, and this could lead to decreased OCB.

Table 4.2   Means for Section B (Procedural justice)

Descriptive	N	Min	Max	Std dev	Mean
B1 (Job decisions are made by management in a fair manner)	226	1	7	1.724	3.15
B2 (Management makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made)	226	1	7	1.595	2.53
B3 (To make job decisions, management collects accurate and complete information)	226	1	7	1.502	2.70
B4 (Management clearly communicates and provides additional information when requested by employees)	226	1	7	1.518	2.84
B5 (All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees)	226	1	7	1.526	2.83

4.5.2   Section C: Distributive justice

Table 4.3 provides an overview of the mean scores of the distributive justice scale which ranged from 3.52 to 4.76. The lowest means reported was 3.52 for item C4 (overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair), which is an indication that the majority of respondents disagreed that the rewards that they receive within the working environment are perceived to be fair. Bakhsi, Kumar and Rani (2009:146) stated that employees determine whether they have been treated fairly at work by comparing their own payoff ratio (such as pay or status) to inputs (such as effort or time) to the ratio of their co-employees, therefore if employees perceive that the rewards that they are receiving within the working environment is not quite fair, it can lead to negative perceptions pertaining to distributive justice.

For items C3 (I consider my workload to be quite fair) and C5 (I feel that my job responsibilities are fair) the scale means ranged from 4.27 to 4.34, which means that respondents were in agreement that their workload and responsibilities are fair. Al-Zu'bi (2010:103) posits that outcomes may be distributed on the basis of equality, need or contribution and individuals determine the fairness of distribution through comparison to

others. Therefore if employees experience that their workload and responsibilities are fair, it would have been determined through comparison with co-employees and it can lead to positive perceptions pertaining to distributive justice.

Item C1 (my work schedule is fair) had the highest scale mean of 4.76, which indicated that employees were in agreement that the work schedule is fair. Bhal (2006:109) found that distributive justice is related to the individual's conceptions about the results of the process and perceived via fairness in social interactions in a way that employees compared their shares with those of others and perceive justice or injustice according to it. Therefore, if employees perceive their work schedule as fair in comparison with those of co-employees, they will have a positive perception of distributive justice.

Table 4.3   **Means for Section C (Distributive justice)**

Descriptive	N	Min	Max	Std dev	Mean
C1 (My work schedule is fair)	226	1	7	1.859	4.76
C3 (I consider my workload to be quite fair)	226	1	7	1.919	4.27
C4 (Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair)	226	1	7	1.933	3.52
C5 (I feel that my job responsibilities are fair)	226	1	7	1.965	4.34

4.5.3   Section D: Interactional justice

Table 4.4 provides an overview of the mean scores of the interactional justice scale. The means for this section ranged from 2.81 to 3.31. The lowest means reported was 2.81 for item D6 (concerning decisions about my job, management discusses implications of the decisions with me), followed by 2.83 for item D7 (management offers adequate explanations for decisions about my job), which is an indication that the majority of respondents strongly disagreed that management offers adequate explanations pertaining to job decisions and discuss the implications of job decisions with affected employees. Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001:181) states that interactional justice emerged as an extension of procedural justice and pertains to the human side of organisational practices, in other words to the way that management is behaving towards the employee who is the

recipient of justice. Therefore, if management omits to discuss the implications of job decisions and fails to offer adequate explanations for such decisions, it could lead to negative perceptions of interactional justice.

For items D8 (when decisions are made about my job, management offers explanations that makes sense to me), D9 (management explains clearly any decisions about my job) and D3 (when decisions are made about my job, management is sensitive to my personal needs) the scale means ranged from 2.92 to 2.98, which means that respondents were in strong disagreement that management provides clear explanations pertaining to job decisions that makes sense and that is sensitive to the employees needs. Interactional justice, in general, reflects concern about the fairness of the non-procedurally dictated aspects of interaction, such as the communication and personal conduct of management. Therefore, if management does not communicate clear explanations and is insensitive to the personal needs of employees, it will have a very negative influence on the perceptions of interactional justice among employees within the working environment.

For the rest of the items (D1, D5, D4 & D2), the scale means ranged from 3.05 to 3.31, which means that respondents were in disagreement that management makes job decisions in a kind, considerate, respectful, dignified and truthful manner whilst showing concern for the rights of the affected employee. Heydari and Gholtash (2014:153) stated that interactional justice is related to some aspects of the communication process, such as respect and politeness between the addressor and the addressee. Therefore, if management does not apply an effective communication process, it could lead to negative interactional justice perceptions.

Table 4.4   Means for Section D (Interactional justice)

Descriptive	N	Min	Max	Std dev	Mean
D1 (When job decisions are made about my job, management treats me with kindness and consideration)	226	1	7	1.690	3.05
D2 (When decisions are made about my job, management treats me with respect and dignity)	226	1	7	1.721	3.31

Table 4.4   Means for Section D (Interactional justice) (Continued)

Descriptive	N	Min	Max	Std dev	Mean
D3 (When decisions are made about my job, management is sensitive to my personal needs)	226	1	7	1.705	2.98
D4 (When decisions are made about my job, management deals with me in a truthful manner)	226	1	7	1.726	3.27
D5 (When decisions are made about my job, management shows concern for my rights as an employee)	226	1	7	1.742	3.08
D6 (Concerning decisions about my job, management discusses implications of the decisions with me)	226	1	7	1.682	2.81
D7 (Management offers adequate explanations for decisions about my job)	226	1	7	1.639	2.83
D8 (When decisions are made about my job, management offers explanations that make sense to me)	226	1	7	1.671	2.92
D9 (Management explains clearly any decisions about my job)	226	1	7	1.721	2.95

4.5.4   Section E: Organisational citizenship behaviour

Table 4.5 provides an overview of the mean scores of the OCB scale. The means for this section ranged from 5.75 to 6.26. The lowest mean reported was 5.75 for item E4 (I do my work even after working hours to achieve organisational goals), followed by 5.77 for item E2 (I conscientiously follow organisational rules and procedures), which is an indication that the majority of respondents strongly agreed that employees conscientiously follow organisational rules and procedures and even work after working hours to achieve organisational goals. Alizadeh, Darvishi, Nazari and Emami (2012:494) posit that organisations want and need employees who are prepared to do more than what is mentioned in their job descriptions. The willingness of employees to work even after working hours to achieve organisational goals could indicate that they are prepared to do more than what is listed in their job descriptions.

For items E3 (I never neglect to follow managers' instructions) and E5 (I am always ready to help those around me) the scale means ranged from 5.85 to 6.26, which means that respondents were in strong agreement that employees never neglected to follow managers' instructions and were always ready to help those around them. Employees are more dependent on supervisors who are willing to contribute to successful change and are ready to help them and colleagues voluntarily (Zeinabadi & Salehi 2011:1472).

Table 4.5   Means for Section E (Organisational citizenship behaviour)

Descriptive		N	Min	Max	Std dev	Mean
E2	(I conscientiously follow organisational rules and procedures)	226	1	7	1.295	5.77
E3	(I never neglect to follow managers' instructions)	226	1	7	1.350	5.85
E4	(I do my work even after working hours to achieve organisational goals)	226	1	7	1.445	5.75
E5	(I am always ready to help those around me)	226	1	7	1.118	6.26

4.6   CORRELATION ANALYSIS

The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to measure the degree of linear association between constructs (Oleckno 2008:241). This was necessary in order to achieve the empirical objectives of ascertaining employees' perceptions of the practice of the various types of OJs at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. The strength of the relationship between procedural justice, distributive justice, interactional justice and OCB was examined. The correlation measures the strength between two or more variables (De Vos *et al.* 2011:96). The correlation describes the direction and strength of the relationship between two interval variables and it is a general principle that a value ranging from 0.1 to 0.3 would be classified as a weak correlation, and one above 0.4 would be regarded as a moderate to strong correlation (Greasley 2008:77). The closer to values are to +1, the stronger the correlation will be (Maree 2007:240). Table 4.6 provides the correlations among constructs.

Table 4.6   Correlations among constructs

Constructs	Procedural justice	Distributive justice	Interactional justice	OCB
Procedural justice	1			
Distributive justice	.393**	1		
Interactional justice	.629**	.471**	1	
OCB	-0.32	.120	.049	1

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

4.6.1   Correlations: procedural justice and distributive justice

Positive correlations were found between procedural justice and distributive justice (r= 0.393; p<0.000). This indicates that if employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl perceive fairness in the process by which decisions are made, they will perceive fairness in the distribution of resources among the employees. This accords with the findings of Folger and Greenberg (1985:143), who stated that the fairness of procedures provides employees with information about the "rules" of the relationship, i.e. how the resources will be distributed.

4.6.2   Correlations: procedural justice and interactional justice

Positive correlations were found between procedural justice and interactional justice (r= 0.629; p<0.000). This indicates that if employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl perceive fairness in the process by which decisions are made, employees will experience fairness in treatment during the enactment of procedures when management makes job decisions. Abasi, Mohammadipour and Aidi (2014:133) found that people must be treated with a degree of politeness, dignity and respect by authorities or third parties involved in executing procedures or determining outcomes.

4.6.3   Correlations: procedural justice and organisational citizenship behaviour

Procedural justice is associated negatively with OCB (r=-.032; p<0.630), meaning that employees who do not perceive fairness pertaining to the decision-making process by

management are more likely not to display behaviour that promotes the effective and efficient functioning of the organisation. This is consistent with the findings of Rezaeian and Rahimi (2008:69), who found that when employees perceive that organisational procedures are true, suitable and fair, they will display more OCBs.

4.6.4 Correlations: distributive justice and interactional justice

Positive correlations were found between distributive justice and interactional justice (r= 0.471; p<0.000). This indicates that if employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl perceive fairness in the distribution of resources, employees will experience fairness in treatment during the enactment of procedures when management makes decisions concerning their jobs. This is affirmed by Abasi *et al.* (2014:133), who stated that explanations provided to employees must convey information about why procedures were used in a certain way or why outcomes were distributed in a certain manner.

4.6.5 Correlations: distributive justice and organisational citizenship behaviour

Weak positive correlations were found between distributive justice and OCB (r=0.120; p<0.071), meaning that employees who perceive fairness pertaining to the distribution of resources by management might display behaviour that promotes the effective and efficient functioning of the SAPS Academy, Paarl. Rauf (2014:125) affirms that individuals with a positive perception of distributive justice would show dedication to the development of the organisation, and would pay attention to their own development and their work.

4.6.6 Correlations: interactional justice and organisational citizenship behaviour

Weak positive correlations were found between distributive justice and OCB (r=0.049; p<0.465), meaning that employees who perceive just treatment during the enactment of procedures by management might display behaviour that promotes the effective and efficient functioning of the SAPS Academy, Paarl. This is consistent with the findings of Heydari *et al.* (2014:152), who found that there is a significant relationship between interactional justice and OCB.

4.7   REGRESSION ANALYSIS

The correlation analysis established the strength of correlations between the variables. A regression analysis was also conducted as correlation analysis measures only the strength of a relationship but does not determine predictive relationships between variables. Regression analysis is also used to understand which of the independent variables are related to the dependent variable, and to explore the strength of these relationships (Gray 2009:485). Regression analysis was performed to test whether the independent variables, namely procedural justice, distributive justice and interactional justice predict, the dependent variable OCB.

Table 4.7 represents the regression analysis regarding the dimensions of OJ and OCB. In total, the three factors (procedural justice, distributive justice and interactional justice) explained approximately 2.4 percent (R^2 =0.024) of the variance in employees OCBs at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. In terms of the beta weights, distributive justice (β =.141) is the strongest predictor of OCB, followed by interactional justice (β =.063); the absence of distributive and interactional justice, *inter alia*, cause employees to display behaviour that does not support OCB. Procedural justice had a beta weight of -.127, which indicates that the absence of procedural justice might not impact on OCB. A possible explanation for this finding might be that procedures, being determined by rules, policies and regulations, are not the result of a managerial decision and are accepted in such a light by the employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. This is in agreement with the findings of Balogun, Ojedokun and Owoade (2012:4), who found that the dimensions of OJ are linked to the concept of fairness and have implications for employees' behaviour as a result of the employee's perceptions of just treatment.

Table 4.7   Regression analysis: dimensions of organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour

Independent variables: dimensions of OCB	Dependent variable: OCB				
	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		
	B	Std. error	Beta	t	Sig
Procedural justice	-.104	.071	-.127	-1.472	.142
Distributive justice	.093	.050	.141	1.853	.065
Interactional justice	.046	.067	.063	.696	.487
R=.155[a]	R^2=.024		Adjusted R^2=.011		

4.8   ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA)

The ANOVA technique is used where there are more than two independent variables that need to be compared with a single dependent variable (Maree 2007:229). The independent variable for the study is the dimensions of OJ, namely procedural, distributive and interactional justice. The dependent variable for the study is OCB. The ANOVA was computed to detect whether there were any statistically significant differences between the dimensions of organisational justice and OCB. Table 4.8 presents the results of the ANOVA.

Table 4.8   ANOVA: dimensions of organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour

Dimension	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Organisational justice	Between groups	6.022	3	2.007	1.824	.144
	Within groups	244.244	222	1.100		
	Total	250.265	225			

The ANOVA will indicate statistically significant differences among the means if the p-value is less than 0.05. In Table 4.8, p=.144; therefore there are no statistically significant

differences among the three dimensions of organisational justice found in the current study. It was thus not necessary to perform a post hoc test to determine in which of the groups there were significant differences.

4.9 RELIABILITY

The reliability results are provided in Table 4.9. De Vos *et al.* (2011:177) state that Cronbach Alpha coefficients above 0.8 and closer to 1 generally indicate a highly reliable scale. The Cronbach alpha coefficient test provided a satisfactory indication of reliability of the instrument, with Cronbach alpha values varying from 0.827 to 0.946.

Table 4.9   Overall reliability of the instrument

Sections of the questionnaire (scale)	Cronbach alpha (α)	Number of items
Section B: Procedural justice	.874	5
Section C: Distributive justice	.854	4
Section D: Interactional justice	.946	9
Section E: OCB	.827	4

The various forms of validity established for this study are discussed in the following section.

4.10 VALIDITY

The term validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concepts under consideration (Babbie *et al.* 2012:122). The measures of validity that will be discussed in the next sub-sections are face/content, construct, and convergent validity methods.

4.10.1 Face/content validity

Prior to the main survey, content validity was ascertained through pre-testing of the questionnaire. It was pre-tested and reviewed by a panel of experts, including experts in human resource management, to check the suitability of questions and whether the questions measured the relevant constructs in the study.

A pilot-test stage was also undertaken to determine if any changes had to be made to the questionnaire, such as the removal or addition of items or the rewording and rephrasing of questions through the computation of the Cronbach alpha reliability. The result of the pilot study was discussed in Section 4.2.

4.10.2 Construct validity

De Vos *et al.* (2011:174) describe construct validity as the degree to which an instrument successfully measures a theoretical construct. Construct validity is needed for standardisation and has to do with how well the constructs covered by the instrument are measured by different groups of related items (Maree 2007:217). The construct validity of the scale was ascertained through the computation of the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the scale, which was acceptable, and more particularly, the item-total correlations. All item-total correlations were > 0.50, thus affirming the construct validity of the scales.

4.10.3 Convergent validity

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to assess convergent validity to measure the degree of linear association of variables. The correlations are shown in Table 4.6. The factor correlation showed a positive correlation between:

- Procedural justice and distributive justice (r= 0.393; p<0.000);

- Procedural justice and interactional justice (r= 0.629; p<0.000); and

- Distributive justice and interactional justice (r= 0.471; p<0.000), thus providing evidence of convergence between variables.

4.10.4 Predictive validity

Predictive validity of the measuring instrument was ascertained through linear regression analysis of scales items (refer to Section 4.6). The results of the regression analysis conducted for this study indicate that approximately 2.4 percent of the variance in OCB is accounted for by the dimensions of OJ. Furthermore, the results of this study show that, in terms of the beta weights, distributive justice (β =.141) is the strongest predictor of OCB, followed by interactional justice (β =.063).

4.11   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter reported on the empirical results of the study. It contains a discussion of the pilot study and the results of the main survey findings. The results were found reliable, as indicated by the Cronbach alphas achieved in Section B, Section C, Section D and Section E.

A descriptive analysis of the biographical information of the respondents was provided. Correlation and regression analyses were performed. The ANOVA was undertaken to establish whether there were statistically significant differences between the groups' mean scores regarding OCB. Reliability and validity assessment procedures were also conducted.

In the next and final chapter, a general overview of the study is provided. The achievement of the theoretical and empirical objectives is discussed. Recommendations, limitations, and implications for future research arising from the study are provided. Finally, the concluding remarks are presented.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The analysis of the collected data and the interpretation of results were discussed in the previous chapter. This chapter provides the conclusions that were drawn from the main research findings. The recommendations that flow from the findings, as well as the limitations and implications for future research, are included.

5.2   SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH

The main purpose of the study was to provide an analysis of the influence of procedural justice, distributive justice and interactional justice on OCB among employees within a policing environment.

Chapter 1 presented the theoretical framework of the SET, and the dimensions of OJ and OCB. The problem statement was discussed and, in addition, the theoretical and empirical objectives of the study were formulated.

Chapter 2 provided an overview of the literature on the dimensions of OJ and OCB. This chapter also provided an analysis of the dimensions and antecedents of OCB.

Chapter 3 presented an in-depth analysis of the research design adopted for this study. The sampling design procedure, the data collection method and data preparations were discussed. The method of data analysis and statistical techniques were also outlined.

Chapter 4 dealt with presenting, analysing and interpreting the data collected. The sample was described and the results of correlation and regression analysis were presented. This chapter also included an analysis of the reliability and the validity of the questionnaire.

5.3   EVALUATION OF OBJECTIVES

The following sections indicate the extent to which the formulated objectives of the study have been achieved.

5.3.1 Theoretical objectives

The following theoretical objectives were formulated for this study:

5.3.1.1 To review the literature on organisational justice

The literature review revealed many definitions of the concept, as discussed in Section 2.2.1 of Chapter 2. OJ was referred to in this study as the ways in which employees determined if they had been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which this perceived fairness influenced other work-related variables (Moorman 1991:845). Crino (1994:315) asserts that, if an employee should feel that he/she has been treated unfairly by a fellow employee or management, such an employee would find himself/herself in a state of dissatisfaction. This state of dissatisfaction could influence employees' perception of justice within the working environment. Understanding what could influence employees' perception of justice requires an understanding of the dimensions of OJ. Batool (2013:648) stated that OJ was conceptualised as consisting of three dimensions: procedural justice, distributive justice and interactional justice. These dimensions are linked by the concept of fairness and have implications for employees' behaviour as a result of the employees' perceptions of just treatment (Balogun, Ojedokun & Owoade 2012:4).

5.3.1.2 To review the literature on procedural justice

The literature revealed that perceptions of procedural justice have strong effects on attitudes about the organisation or authorities within the organisation (Lind & Tyler 1988:179). The literature on procedural justice was discussed in Section 2.2.2.1 of Chapter 2. The authorities within the organisation are primarily responsible for making decisions regarding work-related activities. Abasi, Mohammadipour and Aidi (2014:133) stated that procedural justice establishes certain principles, specifying and governing roles of participants within the decision-making process. Failure to follow these principles could result in employees having a negative perception of procedural justice. Employees react to decisions that affect them and are affected by the processes that lead to these decisions (Ince & Gül 2011:136). Fair processes lead to intellectual and emotional recognition, which in turn creates the trust and commitment that build voluntary cooperation in the execution of strategies within the working environment (Cropanzano, Bowen & Gilliland 2007:38). Kim and Mauborgne (2005:183) argued that procedural

injustice produces intellectual and emotional indignation, resulting in distrust and resentment, which reduces voluntary cooperation in the execution of the organisation's strategy.

5.3.1.3 To review the literature on distributive justice

While several types and definitions of the construct have been suggested in the literature, this study's conceptualisation of the construct assumes that distributive justice is related to the employee's perceptions about the results of the process and is perceived through fairness in social interactions, with individuals comparingtheir shareswith those of others and perceiving justice or injustice accordingly (Bhal 2006:109). The SET has been selected as a theoretical framework for this study, as discussed in sections 2.2.3 and 2.3.4 of Chapter 2. Colquitt, Scott, Judge and Shaw (2006:110) stated that distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of decision outcomes. The formation of positive perceptions of distributive justice by employees depends upon just organisational performance pertaining to the distribution of organisational resources (Ince *et al.* 2011:136). The distribution of organisational resources would flow from the outcome of a decision-making process. It seems that employees' perception of the justice of management is influenced primarily by their perception of distributive justice (Brashear, Brooks & Boles 2004:87).

5.3.1.4 To review the literature on interactional justice

The literature review revealed many definitions of the concept, as discussed in section 2.2.2.3 of Chapter 2. Interactional justice was referred to in this study as the quality of interpersonal treatment received during the enactment of organisational procedures. Nabatchi, Bingham and Good (2007:151) stated that it reflected concerns about the fairness of the non-procedurally dictated aspects of interaction, such as the communication and personal conduct of management. Interactional justice encompasses two aspects (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng 2001:427). The first aspect relates to the degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity and respect by authorities involved in executing procedures or determining outcomes (Abasi *et al.* 2014:133). The second aspect focuses on the explanations provided to employees that convey information about why procedures were used in a certain way or why outcomes were distributed in a certain manner (Abasi *et al.* 2014:133).

5.3.1.5   To review the literature on organisational citizenship behaviour

Organ (1988:4) defined OCB as discretionary individual behaviour, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, which promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation, as mentioned in Section 2.3.1 of Chapter 2. Ehtiyar, Alan and Ömüris (2010:47) referred to OCB as a volunteer behaviour of employees that ensures the improvement of the organisation. Balogun *et al.* (2012:2) maintain that these organisationally beneficial behaviours and gestures cannot be enforced on the basis of formal performance requirements nor elicited by a contractual guarantee of compensation. Organ *et al.* (1995:794) revealed that perceived OJ became notable as an antecedent of OCB, and whose relationship with OCB has been frequently investigated. OCB has been conceptualised as a multi-dimensional construct (Yildirum, Uzum & Yildirum 2012:2147). Chiang and Hsieh (2012:374) refer to five dimensions of OCB; these include altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue. These dimensions were discussed in Section 2.3.2 of Chapter 2. These dimensions were not investigated individually in this study, but collectively under the construct of OCB as dependent variable. Therefore, only a brief description of each dimension is provided hereafter.

Organ and Ryan (1995:776) describe altruism as the voluntary support of an employee by his/her fellow employees in cases of work-related problems, such as helping them regardless of any personal inconvenience. Goudarzvandchegini (2011:44) stated that courtesy indicates respectful behaviours that avoid creating problems and difficulties within the working environment, such as managers consulting with employees before executing any work-related activity. Balogun *et al.* (2012:3) described sportsmanship as the ability to tolerate minor inconveniences and impositions accruing from work-related activities without complaining, filing trivial grievances and demanding compensation and relief. Conscientiousness refers to behaviours of employees that go beyond their responsibilities regarding their jobs, roles and voluntary contribution and is related to the effective functioning of the organisation (Ince *et al.* 2011:137). Yildirim *et al.* (2012:2147) stated that civic virtue incorporates supporting the development of the organisation, learning about and exerting effort to improve oneself with regard to recent developments, business methods and company policies. Therefore, OCB was referred to in this study as voluntary support by one employee to a fellow employee, which goes

beyond the responsibilities of the job; it is behaviour that avoids the creation of work-related problems and that supports the development of the organisation.

5.3.1.6 To review the literature on the relationship between procedural, distributive and interactional justice and organisational citizenship behavior

The study of Al Afari and Abu Elanain (2014:1093) posited that the dimensions of OJ had a positive relationship with the desirable work outcome of enhancing OCB, as shown in Section 2.4 of Chapter 2. Asgari, Silong, Ahmed and Bahaman (2008:227) found that there was a positive and direct relationship between OJ dimensions and OCB, and that employees would therefore behave more positively when they perceived just practices within the working environment. To establish the link between employees' perceptions of OJ and OCB, Heydari and Gholtash (2014:154) argue that employees' perceptions of fairness affect their likelihood of performing OCBs and have an enduring effect on increasing extra-role (voluntary) work behaviours.

The literature on the relationship between the individual dimensions of OJ and OCB revealed the following:

- Balogun *et al.* (2012:12) established that perceived procedural justice contributed significantly to OCB and the study confirmed that the way an organisation treated its employees was positively related to OCB.

- Rauf (2014:125) stated that individuals with a positive perception of distributive justice would show dedication to the development of the organisation, and would pay attention to their own development and their work.

- The study of Heydari *et al.* (2014:152) showed that there was a significant relationship between interactional justice and OCB.

In the literature, positive perceptions of the dimensions of OJ have always been associated with increased OCBs. Thus, it appears that an employee's increased OCB is simply the result of positive perceptions of procedural-, distributive- and interactional justice in the working environment, as discussed in sections 2.4.1 to 2.4.3 of Chapter 2.

Having discussed the theoretical objectives, the next section contains a summary of the empirical objectives that were previously formulated in this study.

5.3.2 Empirical objectives

The following empirical objectives were addressed in this study:

5.3.2.1 To ascertain employees' perceptions of the practice of the various types of organisational justices in the SAPS Academy, Paarl

This objective was achieved in Section 4.5 (overall means of the constructs in the study) of Chapter 4. The means obtained in Section 4.5.1, when analysing participants' responses on procedural justice, ascertained that individuals have a negative perception of the current procedural justice practices at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. Based on these findings, therefore, it can be concluded that, according to the participants' perception of current procedural justice practices, management does not make job decisions in a fair manner and fails to implement the following practices: ensuring that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made, making decisions only after collecting accurate and complete information, applying job decisions consistently across all affected employees and communicating and providing additional information when it is requested by employees. This is in line with the conclusion of Nabatchi *et al.* (2007:150), which suggests that satisfaction is a function of process, i.e. the steps taken to reach the decision.

The analysis of participants' responses on distributive justice was discussed in Section 4.5.2 of Chapter 4. The means obtained on three of the four questions ascertained that individuals have a positive perception of the current distributive justice practices at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that current perceptions of distributive justice of employees at the SAPS Academy, Paarl, reflect that the allocated work schedule, workload and responsibilities allocated to the employees by management are perceived to be fair. The mean obtained for the fourth question indicated that there is a negative perception among employees pertaining to the rewards received within the working environment. Based on this finding, it can be concluded that although the distribution of work-related responsibilities is perceived to be fair, the rewards received for the work that had been done by employees are not perceived to be fair. This is in line with the finding of Abasi *et al.* (2014:133) that not all employees are treated alike; the allocation of outcomes is differentiated in the workplace, where some employees get and others do not.

The means obtained in Section 4.5.3 in the analysis of participants' responses on interactional justice ascertained that individuals have a negative perception of the current interactional justice practices at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that management does not offer adequate and clear explanations when it discusses the implications of job decisions; it is also not sensitive sensitive to the rights of affected employees and shows little concern for these rights. This is in line with the conclusion of Ince *et al.* (2011:136) that individual employees pay attention to the treatment they receive and the explanations made during the practice of procedures, rather than the procedures themselves.

5.3.2.2 To determine the influence of procedural justice on organisational citizenship behaviour among employees in the SAPS Academy, Paarl

Conclusions were drawn based on the findings in Section 4.6.3 (correlations: procedural justice and OCB). Negative correlations were found between procedural justice and OCB ($r=-0.032$; $p<0.630$), indicating that employees who do not perceive procedural justice practices by management positively are likely not to display OCBs. The regression analyses as discussed in Section 4.7 indicated that procedural justice had a beta weight of -.127. Therefore, the absence of procedural justice might not impact on OCB.

5.3.2.3 To determine the influence of distributive justice on organisational citizenship behaviour among employees in the SAPS Academy, Paarl

This objective was achieved in Section 4.6.5 (correlations: distributive justice and OCB) where it was found that there was a weak positive correlation between distributive justice and OCB ($r=0.120$; $p<0.071$). This indicated that employees that have a positive perception of distributive justice practices by management might display behaviours that promote OCBs. In Section 4.7 it was found that distributive justice had a beta weight of .141. Distributive justice is the strongest predictor of OCB. Therefore, the absence of distributive justice will cause employees to display behaviour that does not support OCB.

5.3.2.4 To determine the influence of interactional justice on organisational citizenship behaviour among employees in the SAPS Academy, Paarl

The above empirical objective was achieved in Section 4.6.6 (correlations: interactional justice and OCB). Weak positive correlations were found between interactional justice and OCB ($r=0.049$; $p<0.465$), indicating that employees who have a positive perception

of interactional justice practices by management are likely to display OCBs. Interactional justice had a beta weight of .063, as indicated in Section 4.7. Although the beta weight of interactional justice is not as strong as that of distributive justice, the absence of interactional justice, *inter alia,* will have a negative influence on the OCB of employees.

The recommendations derived from the findings of this study are provided in the next section.

5.4   RECOMMENDATIONS

In order to address the negative perceptions of OJ, it is of paramount importance for the SAPS Academy, Paarl, to engage policy makers, core management and employees to assist in the formulation of a strategy to ensure that employees are treated fairly in terms of the various components of OJ, which may subsequently increase the ability of the Academy to provide excellent services. Regardless of the results obtained in this study, which showed that the ways in which employees perceive OJ literally affects their OCBs, there are some theoretical and empirical findings that are worth mentioning in the formulation of such a strategy. These may assist in determining the best approach, making it more effective by taking into account employees' needs and wants, as well as economic, ethical and legal issues. Hence the following recommendations are made:

The mean scores for procedural justice in Section 4.5.1 ranged from 2.53 to 3.15, which indicate that respondents disagreed that procedural justice is practised appropriately at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. It is of utmost importance to change employees' perceptions about procedural justice as such perceptions have a strong effect on attitudes to the organisation or authorities within the organisation (Folger & Greenberg 1985:143). It is recommended that the barriers below should be addressed as they hinder effective procedural justice practices.

- **Accurate and complete information for job decisions**

    Making job decisions is essential in any working environment. Making job decisions without having accurate and complete information that pertains to the decisions that must be made should be avoided as it hinders the implementation of effective procedural justice practices. Therefore, it is recommended that an information database should be created at a central point, where employees could provide such

information that could then be made available to managers when decisions are to be made. The maintenance and expansion of such a database is essential to ensure that information remains relevant and current at all times to avoid job decisions being based on outdated information.

- **Information dissemination on job decisions**

  Job decisions influence employees directly or indirectly. Making job decisions without informing employees of the rationale that leads to such a decision should be avoided at all costs as it further hinders the implementation of effective procedural justice practices. It is recommended that immediate supervisors be sensitised to the importance of keeping employees informed of the reasons for the decisions that are taken, as well as the implications of such decisions for both the employee concerned and other employees, and should not inform them only on the decision outcome.

Based on the findings in Section 4.5.2 (means for distributive justice) it is further recommended that the rewards programme at the SAPS Academy, Paarl, be reviewed by core management to ensure that rewards allocation is practised successfully. Employees determine whether they have been treated fairly at work by comparing their own payoff ratio (such as pay or status) to inputs (such as effort or time) with the ratio of their co-employees (Bakhshi, Kumar & Rani 2009:146). The beta weights as discussed in Section 4.7 revealed that distributive justice (ß=.141) is the strongest predictor of OCB. Therefore, the review and amendment of the rewards programme to a more effective rewards programme could greatly assist in establishing just distributive justice practices at the Academy.

The mean scores for interactional justice ranged between 2.81 to 3.31, which suggest that respondents disagreed on whether interactional justice practices were appropriately applied. According to Asgari, Nojabee and Arjmand (2011:142), interactional justice includes the way in which organisational justice is transferred from the manager to the subordinates. Therefore, it is recommended that core management formulates a "Code of good practice - Communication" policy for the Academy, highlighting crucial aspects of the communication process. This document should then be discussed with and circulated to all managers and immediate supervisors. Interactional justice practices should then include these aspects, such as displaying social sensitivity and granting employees

dignity, respect and acceptable interpersonal treatment during interactions and encounters (Al-Zu'bi 2010:103). The mean scores for item E2 (I conscientiously follow organisational rules and procedures) and E3 (I never neglect to follow managers' instructions) of 5.77 and 5.85 respectively, substantiate the workability of this recommendation.

The limitations and future research opportunities emanating from the findings of the research are discussed in the next section.

5.5 STUDY LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

The study advances and contributes to the literature on OJ and OCB, especially as regards the current understanding of what OJ practices are being used within a policing context at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. However, as with every study of this nature, the study was subject to certain limitations that may pave the way for further research opportunities, as presented below.

One might expect that certain biographical traits of this study, such as gender, marital status, age, education level, income and length of service in the SAPS would have an influence on how employees perceive OJ and OCB. A comparative study in order to test for differences between groups could give a clearer indication whether or not values of a particular variable differ among groups through an analysis of variance. Researchers need to investigate the possible effect of biographical attributes on employees' perceptions of OJ and OCB. Despite the positive relationship among the dimensions of OJ and OCB, the fact remains that procedural, distributive and interactional justice practices should be transparent and visible to employees.

The sample was drawn from employees stationed at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. This Academy falls under the Division: Human Resource Development of the SAPS. There are twenty two (22) academies in total that contribute to the educational development of employees of the SAPS. A broader national sample would have offered additional insights not limited to only one Academy.

Because the data were collected from only one Academy falling under the Division: Human Resource Development, the results obtained in this study can therefore not be generalised to all the existing Divisions within the SAPS.

5.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The literature reveals that justice affects all employees and strikes a chord with anyone who has experienced unfairness (Jahangir, Haq & Ahmed 2005:13). However, maintaining justice in relation to OCB in the policing context has been overlooked as far as research in any policing environment is concerned. Based on the discussion in Section 2.4.4 of Chapter 2, the literature indicated that research in the policing context focused on job satisfaction, factors that influence job commitment and satisfaction and police officers' perception of OJ in relation to their level of organisational commitment. New knowledge, new competencies and new insight will transform and complement what has come before, and consequently lead to the provision of services that is beyond predictability (Omisore 2013:27). This study aimed at increasing managers' awareness of the influence of OJ on OCB. In addition, the findings of this study support the view that employees' perceptions of procedural, distributive and interactional justice influence the way in which they behave within the organisation and have a definite impact on OCB. The study established that there are major differences between the expectations of employees and managerial actions, which suggest that there are a large number of areas to explore and different types of activities to undertake in order to successfully enhance employees' perceptions of OJ and reinforce OCBs.

Research on OJ and OCB is still limited, especially in the policing context, and this represents opportunities for both academics and human resource practitioners to engage further in research in the police sector.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

AAKER, D.A., KUMAR, V. & DAY, G.S. 2004. *Marketing research.* 8th ed. Singapore: John Wiley & Sons.

AAKER, D.A., KUMAR, V. LEONE, R.P. & DAY, G.S. 2013. *Marketing research.* 11th ed. Singapore: John Wiley & Sons.

ABASI, E., MOHAMMADIPOUR, R. & AIDI, M. 2014. An investigation of the impact of organisational justice dimensions on job satisfaction. A case study: An Iranian Bank. *Universal Journal of Management*, 2(3):132-137.

AHMADI, S.A., DARAEI, M.R., RABIEI, H., SALAMZADEH, Y. & TAKALLO, H. 2012. The study on relationship between organisational justice, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and turnover intentions: a comparison between public sector and private sector. *Medwell Journals: International Business Management*, 6(1):22-31.

AL AFARI, T.S. & ABU ELANAIN, H.M. 2014. Procedural and distributive justice as mediators of the relationship between interactional justice and work outcomes: An empirical study of the UAE Public Health Care Sector. *The Journal of Applied Business Research,* 30(4):1091-1108.

ALIZADEH, Z., DARVISHI, S., NAZARI, K. & EMAMI, M. 2012. Antecedents and consequences of organisational citizenship behaviour. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business,* 3(9):494-505.

ALLISON, B.J., VOSS, R.S. & DRYER, S. 2001. Student Classroom and Career Success: The role of organisational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Education for Business*, 76(5):282-289.

AL-ZU'BI, H.A. 2010. A study of the relationship between organisational justice and job satisfaction. *International Journal of Business Management*, 5(12):102-109.

AMBROSE, M.L. 2002. Contemporary justice research: a new look at familiar questions. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 89(1):803-812.

AMBROSE, A., HESS, R.L. & GANESAN, S. 2007. The relationship between justice and attitudes: An examination of justice effects on event and system-related attitudes. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 103(1):21-36.

ASANTE, M.K., MIKE, Y. & YIN, M. 2008. *The Global Intercultural Communication Reader*. New York: Routledge.

ASGARI, A., SILONG, A.D., AHMAD, A. & BAHAMAN, S.A. 2008. The relationship between transformational leadership behaviors, organisational justice, leader-member exchange, perceived organisational support, trust in management and organisational citizenship behaviours. *European Journal of Scientific Research*, 23(2):227-242.

ASGARI, M.H., NOJABAEE, S.S. & ARJMAND, F. 2011. The relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour of the employees. *Middle-Eastern Journal of Scientific Research,* 10(2):141-148.

BABBIE, E. 2007. *The practice of social research*. 11th ed. Belmont: Thomson Wadsworth.

BABBIE, E. & MOUTON, J. 2012. *The practice of social research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

BADU, C.A. & ASUMENG, M. 2013. Perceived organisational justice and employees' organisational citizenship behaviour in Ghana. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 5(19):144-150.

BAKHSHI, A., KUMAR, K. & RANI, E. 2009. Organisational justice perceptions as predictor of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 4(9):145-154.

BALOGUN, S.K., OJEDOKUN, O. & OWOADE, O.A. 2012. Influence of perceived organisational justice on performance of organisational citizenship behaviour among employees of a Nigerian organisation. *International Review of Business and Social Sciences*, 1(2):1-16.

BARKER, R.L. 2003. *The social work dictionary.* 5th ed. Washington, DC: NASW Press.

BRACE, I. 2008. *Questionnaire design: How to plan, structure & write survey material for effective market research.* 2nd ed. London: Kogan Page.

BATOOL, A. 2013. Developing organisational commitment and organisational justice to amplify organisational citizenship behaviour in the Banking sector. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences,* 7(3):646-655.

BHAL, T.K. 2006. Lmx-citizenship behaviour relationship: justice as a mediator. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 27(2):106-117.

BIES, R.J. & MOAG, J.S. 1986. Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. *In* Lewicki, R.J., Sheppard, B.H. and Bazerman, M.H., eds. *Research on Negotiation in Organizations,* 1(1):43-55. JAI Press, CT:Greenwich.

BIES,R.J. & TRIPP, T.M. 1995. Beyond distrust: "Getting even" and the need for revenge. *In* Kramer, R.M. and Tyler, T.R., eds. *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research,* 1(1):246-260. Thousand Oaks, CA:Sage.

BLAKELY, G.L., ANDREWS, M.C. & MOORMAN, R.H. 2005. The moderating effects of equity sensitivity on the relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 20(2):259-273, Winter.

BLAU, P.M. 1964. *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: John Wiley.

BLAU, P.M. 1968. *Interaction: Social exchange, In* Sills, D.E., International Encyclopedia of the Social Science. NY: Free Press, Macmillan.

BRASHEAR, T.G., BROOKS, G.C. & BOLES, J.S. 2004. Distributive and procedural justice in a sales force context: scale development and validation. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(1):86-93.

BRUNETTO, Y. & FARR-WHARTON, R. 2003. The commitment and satisfaction of lower-ranked police officers: lessons for management. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 26(1):43-63.

CHEGINI, M.G. 2009. The relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour. *American Journal of Economics and Business Administration*, 1(2):173-176.

CHIANG, C.F. & HSIEH, T.S. 2012. The impacts of perceived organisational support and psychological empowerment on job performance: The mediating effects of organisational citizenship behaviour. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 31(1):180-189.

CHIBUCOS, T.R., LEITE, R.W. & WEIS, D.L. 2005. *Readings in family theory.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

CHINOMONA, R. 2013. The fostering role of information technology on SME's strategic purchasing, logistics integration and business performance. *Southern African Business Review*, 17(1):76-97.

CHURCHILL JUNIOR, G.A. & IACOBUCCI, D. 2005. *Marketing research: methodological foundations.* 9th ed. Mason: Thomson.

CLOW, K.E. & JAMES, K.E. 2014. *Essentials of marketing research: Putting research into practice.* California: SAGE.

COHEN-CHARASH, Y. & SPECTOR, P.E. 2001. The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 86(1):278–321.

COHEN, L., MANION, L. & MORRISON, K. 2007. *Research methods in education*. 6th ed. New York: Routledge.

COLQUITT, J.A., CONLON, D.E., WESSON, M.J., PORTER, O.L.H. & NG, K.Y. 2001. Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organisational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3):425-445.

COLQUITT, J.A., SCOTT, B.A., JUDGE, T.A. & SHAW, J.C. 2006. Justice and personality: using integrative theories to derive moderators of justice effects. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes,* 100(1):110-127.

CONSTITUTION **see** REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA. 1996.

COOPER, C.R. & SCHINDLER, P.S. 2006. *Marketing research.* New York: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

COYLE-SHAPIRO, J.A-M. & PARZEFALL, M. 2008. Psychological contracts. *In* Cooper, C.L. and Barling, J., eds. *The SAGE handbook of organisational behaviour.* SAGE Publications, London: UK, pp. 1-36.

CRINO, M.D. 1994. Employee sabotage: A random or preventable phenomenon? *Journal of Managerial Issues,* 6(1):311-330.

CROPANZANO, R., BOWEN, D.E. & GILLILAND, S.W. 2007. The management of organisational justice. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 21(4):34-48.

CROPANZANO, R. & GREENBERG, J. 1997. Progress in organisational justice: Tunnelling through the maze. *International Review of Industrial and Organisational Psychology*, 12(1):318-372.

CROPANZANO, R. & MITCHELL, M.S. 2005. Social Exchange Theory: an interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31:874-900.

CROW, M.S., LEE, C. & JOO, J. 2012. Organisational justice and organisational commitment among South Korean police officers: an investigation of job satisfaction as a mediator. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 53(2):402-423.

DENSCOMBE, M. 2007. *The good research guide for small-scale social research projects*. 3rd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

DENSCOMBE, M. 2008. *Ground rules for good research: A 10-point guide for social researchers.* London: Open University Press.

DE VOS, A.S., STRYDOM, H., FOUCHE, C.B. & DELPORT, C.S.L. 2005. *Research at grass roots for the social sciences and human service professions*. 3rd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

DHURUP, M. & MOFOKA, M.A. 2011. A factor analytical study of the dimensions of sportscapes in selected soccer stadia in Gauteng, South Africa. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance (AJPHERD),* 1(17):156-171.

DIPAOLA, M.F. & HOY, W.K. 2005. Organisational citizenship of faculty and achievement of high school students. *The High School Journal*, 88(1):35-44.

EHTIYAR, V.R., ALAN, A.A. & ÖMRIS, E. 2010. The role of organisational citizenship behaviour on university student's academic success. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 16(1):47-61.

EMERSON, R. 1962. Power-dependence relations. *American Sociological Review,* 27(1):31-41.

EMERSON, R.M. 1976. Social exchange theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 2(1):335-362.

FLICK, U. 2011. *Introducing research methodology.* London: Sage Publications Ltd.

FOLEY, S., KIDDER, D.L. & POWELL, G.N. 2002. The perceived glass ceiling and justice perceptions: An investigation of Hispanic Law Associates. *Journal of Management*, 28(4):471-496.

FOLGER, R. & GREENBERG, J. 1985. Procedural justice: an interpretive analysis of personnel systems. *In* Rowland, K. & Ferris, G., eds. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 3(1):141-183.

FORRET, M. & LOVE, M.S. 2008. Employee justice perceptions and co-worker relationships. *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 29(3):248-260.

GILL, J. & JOHNSON, P. 2010. *Research methods for managers.* 4th ed. India: Sage Publications Limited.

GODDARD, W. & MELVILLE, S. 2011. *Research methodology: An introduction.* 2nd ed. Lansdowne: Juta.

GOUDARZVANDCHEGINI, M. 2011. Organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour, case study: Rasht public hospitals. *International Journal of Business Administration*, 2(4):42-49.

GRAVETTER, F.J. & FORZANO, L.B. 2003. *Research methods for the behavioural sciences.* Belmont: Wadsworth/Thompson Learning.

GRAY, D.E. 2009. *Doing research in the real world*. 2nd ed. London: SAGE.

GREASLEY, P. 2008. *Quantitative data analysis using SPSS: An introduction for health and social science.* New York: McGraw Hill.

GREENBERG, J. 2009. Everybody talks about organisational justice, but nobody does anything about it. *Industrial and Organisational Psychology*, 2*(1):*181-195.

GRINNELL, R.M. & UNRAU, Y.A. 2008. *Social work research and evaluation: Foundations of evidence-based practice.* New York: Oxford University Press.

HAIR, JR. J.F. BUSH, R.P. & ORTINAU, D.J. 2007. *Marketing research: a practical approach for new millennium.* Singapore: McGraw Hill.

HEIDARI, M., RAJAEEPOOR, S., DAVOODI, S.M.R. & BOZORGZADEH, N. 2012. Investigating the relationship between perceptions of organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour among teachers of Abadeh. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 18(1):113-122.

HEYDARI, M. & GHOLTASH, A. 2014. An investigation in to the relationship between procedural and interactive justice with organisational citizenship behaviour. *Asian Journal of Humanities and Social Studies,* 2(1):152-157.

HOATH, D.R., SCHNEIDER, F.W. & STARR, M.W. 1998. Police job satisfaction as a function of career orientation and position tenure: Implications for selection and community policing. *Journal of Criminal Justice,* 26(4):337-347.

IBRAHIM, M.E. & PEREZ, A.O. 2014. Effects of organisational justice, employee satisfaction, and gender on employees' commitment: evidence from the UAE. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 9(2):45-59.

INCE, M. & GÜL, H. 2011. The effect of employees' perceptions of organisational justice on organisational citizenship behaviour: An application in Turkish public institutions. *International Journal of Business Management*, 6(6):134-145.

ISMAIL, H. 2014. Organisational justice and citizenship behaviour, the mediating role of trust. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies,* 5(1):86-96.

JAHANGIR, N., HAQ, M. & AHMED, E. 2005. Progress in procedural justice: tunnelling through the maze. *BRAC University Journal*, 2(1):13-31.

JAIN.A.K. & COOPER, C.L. 2012. Stress and organisational citizenship behaviours in Indian business process outsourcing organisations. *IIMB Management Review*, 24*(1):*155-163.

JUNG, H.S. & YOON, H.H. 2012. The effects of emotional intelligence on counterproductive work behaviours and organisational citizenship behaviour among food and beverage employees in a deluxe hotel. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 31(1):369-378.

KAR, D.P. & TEWARI, H.R. 1999. Organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 34(4):421-433.

KARRIKER, J.H. & WILLIAMS, M.L. 2009. Organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour: a mediated multi-foci model. *Journal of Management*, 35(1):112-135.

KHAN, J.A. 2011. *Research methodology*. New Delhi: APH Publishing Corporation.

KINICKI, A. & KREITNER, R. 2008. *Organisational Behaviour. Key Concepts, Skills and Best Practices*. MacGraw Hill companies. New York.

KIM, W.C. & MAUBORGNE, R.A. 1993. Procedural justice, attitudes and subsidiary top management compliance with multinationals' corporate strategic decisions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(1):502-526.

KIM, W.C. & MAUBORGNE, R.A. 2005. *Blue ocean strategy: How to create uncontested market space and make competition irrelevant.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

KONOVSKY, M.A. 2000. Understanding procedural justice and its impact on business. *Journal of Management,* 26(3):489-511.

KONOVSKY, M.A. & PUGH, S.D. 1994. Citizenship behaviour and social exchange. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(3):656-669.

KREUGER, L.W. & NEUMAN, W.L. 2006. *Social work research methods: Qualitative and quantitative applications.* Boston: Pearson Education.

KUMAR, R. 2005. *Research methodology. a step by step guide for beginners.* 2nd ed. London: SAGE.

KUMAR, R. 2011. *Research methodology: a step-by-step guide for beginners*. 3rd ed. London: Sage Publications.

LIND, E.A. & TYLER, T.R. 1988. *The social psychology of procedural justice*. New York: Plenum.

LIND, E.A. & VAN DEN BOS, K. 2002. When fairness work: Toward a general theory of uncertainty management. *In* Straw, B.M. and Kramer, R.M., eds. *Research in Organisational Behaviour*, 24(1):183-223. Boston, MA: Elsevier.

MALHOTRA, N.K. 2004. *Marketing research: an applied orientation*. 4th ed. New Jersey: Pearson Education.

MALHORTA, N.K. & BIRKS, D.F. 2006. *Marketing research: An applied approach.* 3rd ed. Harlow: Pearson Education.

MALIK, M.E. & NAEEM, B. 2011. Impact of perceived organisational justice on organisational commitment of faculty: Empirical evidence from Pakistan. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Research in Business*, 1(9):92-98.

MAREE, K. 2007. *First steps in research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

MATSUAGA, M. 2010. How to factor analyse your data right: Do's, don'ts and how-to's. *International Journal of Psychological Research,* 3(1):97-110.

MCDANIEL, C. & GATES, R. 2002. *Marketing research: The impact of the internet.* 5th ed. Cincinnati: Thomson learning.

MCDANIEL, C. & GATES, R. 2008. *Marketing research essentials*. 6th ed. Danvers: John Wiley & Sons.

MIRMOHHAMDI, S.M. & MAREFAT, A. 2014. The effect of perceived justice on organisational silence on organisational commitment. *International Review of Management and Business Research,* 3(3):1773-1789.

MONETTE, D.R., SULLICAN, T.J. & DEJONG, C.R. 2008. *Applies social research: A tool for the human services.* 7th ed. Belmont: Thompson Wadsworth.

MOORMAN, R.H. 1991. Relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviours: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(6):845-855.

MUIJS, D. 2011. *Doing quantitative research in education with SPSS*. 2nd ed. California: Sage Publications.

NABATCHI, T., BINGHAM, L.B. & GOOD, D.H. 2007. Organisational justice and workplace mediation: A six factor model. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 18(20):148-176.

NATIONAL PLANNING COMMISSION. 2011. National Development Plan: Vision for 2030. Pretoria: Government Printer.

NIEHOFF, B.P. & MOORMAN, R.H. 1993. Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organisational citizenship behaviour. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(1):527-556.

NORUZY, A., SHATERY, K., REZAZADEH, A. & HATAMI-SHIRKOUNI, L. 2011. Investigation the relationship between organisational justice, and organisational citizenship behaviour: the mediating role of perceived organisational support. *Indian Journal of Science and Technology*, 4(7):842-847.

NZ **see** New Zealand.

NEW ZEALAND. 2011. Deww Zhang's White Paper on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. [Online]. <https://cdn.auckland.ac.nz/assets/psych/about/our-people/documents/Deww%20Zhang%20-20Organisational%20Citizenship%20Behaviour%20-%20White%20Paper.pdf>. Accessed: 23/09/2014.

OLECKNO, W.A. 2008. *Epidemiology: Concepts and methods.* Waveland Press.

OMISORE, B.O. 2013. Strategies to improve the competence of public service officials in Nigeria. *Journal of Public Administration and Governance,* 3(4):15-30.

ORGAN, D.W. 1988a. *Organisational citizenship behaviour: the good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

ORGAN, D.W. 1988b. A restatement of the satisfaction-performance hypothesis. *Journal of Management*, 14(1):547-557.

ORGAN, D.W. & RYAN, K. 1995. A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organisational citizenship behaviour. *Personnel Psychology*, 84(1):775-802.

ORGAN, D.W. 1997. Organisational citizenship behaviour: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance*, 10(2):85-97.

ORGAN, D.W., PODSAKOFF, P.M. & MACKENZIE, S.B. 2006. Organisational Citizenship Behavior. Its Nature, Antecedents, and Consequences, Foundations for organisational science. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

OWOLABI, A.B. 2012. The effects of organisational justice and the organisational environment on turn-over intentions of health workers in Etiki State Nigeria. *Research in World Economy*, 3(1):28-34.

PENWARDEN, R. 2014a. July 18. Descriptive research: Defining your respondents and drawing conclusions. [Online]. Available at: <http://fluidsurveys.com/.../descriptive-research-defining-respondents-drawing-conclusions/>. Accessed: 21/06/2015.

PENWARDEN, R. 2014b. August 20. Causal Research: Identifying relationships and making business decisions through experimentation. [Online]. Available at: <http://fluidsurveys.com/university/causal-research-identifying-relationships-making-business-decisions-experimentation/>. Accessed: 21/06/2015.

PODSAKOFF, P.M., MACKENZIE, S.B., PAINE, J.B. & BACHRACH, D.G. 2000. Organisational citizenship behaviour: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 26(3):513-563.

RAUF, F.H.A. 2014. Perceptions of organisational justice as a predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour: an empirical study at schools in Sri Lanka. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 6(12):124-130.

RAWLS, J. 1971. *A theory of justice*. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press.

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA. 1996. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, No 108 of 1996. Pretoria: Government Printer.

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA. 1993. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, No 200 of 1993. Pretoria: Government Printer.

REZAEIAN, A. & RAHIMI, F. 2008. Investigating the effectiveness of procedural justice on organisational citizenship behavior considering the role of organisational justice. *The Journal Management Perspective,* 29(1):69-87.

RUS, C.L., RATIU, L., VONAS, G. & BABAN, A. 2013. Police organisational image and performance: the citizen's view. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 78(1):531-535.

SAM, P.G. & SAM, A.G. 2011. *Research methodology*. New Delhi: Gyan Publishing House.

SAPS *see* SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE.

SINGH, K. 2007. *Quantitative social research methods*. New Delhi: Sage Publications.

SINGH, Y.K. & BAJPAI, R.B. 2007. *Research methodology: Techniques and trends.* APH Publications: Prentice Hall.

SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS). 2012-2013. Annual report. Pretoria. [Online]. Available at: <http://www.SAPS_Annual_Report_2012-2013_FullDoc_a_PartA.pdf>. Accessed: 18/07/2014.

SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS). 2014. SAPS Academy, Paarl. Pretoria. [Online]. Available at: <http://www.saps_gov_za/paarl/index.php>. Accessed: 06/05/2016.

SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS). 2016. SAPS History. Pretoria. [Online]. Available at: < http://www.saps.gov.za/about/about.php>. Accessed: 29/06/2016.

SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS). 2016. SAPS Academies. Pretoria. [Online]. Available at: <

http://intranet.saps.gov.za/training_site/education/default.php?doc=training_display>. Accessed: 25/05/2016.

SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS). 2016. SAPS Organisational Structure. Pretoria. [Online]. Available at: < http://www.saps.gov.za/about/about.php>. Accessed: 29/06/2016.

SPIERENBURG, M. & WELS, H. 2006. *Culture, organisation and management in South Africa.* New York: Nova Science Publishers,Inc.

STANGOR, C. 2007. *Research methods for the behavioural sciences*. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.

SONGUR, N., BASIM, H.N. & SESEN, H. 2008. The antecedent role of justice perceptions in organisational citizenship behaviour. *Todaie's Review of Public Administration,* 2(4):87-111.

TAHERI, F. & SOLTANI, E. 2013. The study of organisational justice effect on job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour; (case study: organisation of roads and urban development of Golestan State). *World of Sciences Journal*, 1(15):64-73.

TANG, T.L. & SARSFIELD-BALDWIN, L.J. 1996. Distributive and procedural justice as related to satisfaction and commitment. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 61(3):25-31.

TSCHANNEN-MORAN, M. 2003. Fostering organisational leadership: Transformational leadership and trust. *In* Hoy, W.K. & Miskel, C.G., eds. *Studies in Leading and Organizing Schools* (157-159). Information Age Publishing: Greenwich CT.

TUSTIN, D., LIGTHELM, A., MARTINS, D. & VAN WYK, J. 2005. *Marketing research in practice*. South Africa: UNISA University Press.

UNRAU, Y.A., GABOR, P.A. & GRINNELL, R.M. 2007. *Evaluation in social work: The art and science of practice.* London: Oxford University Press.

VAN HEERDEN, T.J. 1994. *Introduction to police science.* 5[th]ed. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

VAN WYK, B. 2012. Research design and methods: Part 1. [Online]. <www.uwc.ac.za/Students/Postgraduate/.../**Research**_and_**Design**_I.pdf>. Accessed: 16/06/2015.

WANG, X., LIAO, J., XIA, D. & CHANG, T. 2010. The impact of organisational justice on work performance: Mediating effects of organisational commitment and leader-member exchange. *International Journal of Manpower*, 31(6):660-677.

WELMAN, J.C. & KRUGER, S.J. 2001. Research methodology for the business and administration sciences. 2nd ed, Oxford: University Press.

WEST, R.L. & TURNER, L.H. 2007. *Introducing communication theory: analysis and application*. 3rd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

WILLIAMS, S., PITRE, R. & ZAINUBA, M. 2002. Does mood influence organisational citizenship behaviour intentions? An experimental manipulation of the affective state. *Research and Practice in Human Resource Management,* 8(2):49-59.

YILDIRIM, Y., UZUM, H. & YILDIRIM, I. 2012. An examination of physical education teachers in terms of their organisational citizenship behaviours and organisational loyalty according to some demographic variables. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences.* 47(1):2146-2156.

ZEINABADI, H. & SALEHI, K. 2011. Role of procedural justice, trust, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment in organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) of teachers: Proposing a modified social exchange model. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 29(1):1472-1481.

ANNEXURE A - QUESTIONNAIRE

The influence of procedural, distributive and interactional justice on organisational citizenship behaviour at SAPS Academy, Paarl

We would like to find out a little more about the effects of procedural, distributive and interactional justice on organisational citizenship behaviour at the SAPS Academy, Paarl. Furthermore we would like to find out your opinion on what is really happening at the SAPS Academy, Paarl.

SECTION A- Demographic profile

In this section we would like to find out a little more about the characteristics of the participants. Please place a cross (x) in the appropriate block.

A1	Gender	Male	Female

A2	Marital status	Single	Married

A3	Age category	Under 25 years	25-35 years	36-45 years	46-55 years	Over 55 years

A4	Education level	Grade 12	Certificate in policing	Degree/ diploma	Honours/ B. Tech	Other (specify)

A5	Income category per month	Under R10 000	Between R10 001-R15 000	Between R15 001-R20 000	Between R20 001-R25 000	Above R25 000

A6	Length of time in the police service	Below 2 years	Between 2-5 years	Between 6-9 years	More than 9 years

Section B: Procedural justice

Please indicate the extent to which you experience any form of procedural justice in your organisation. Please indicate the extent of your disagreement or agreement with the statements by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly disagree) and 7 (Strongly agree).

CIRCLE ONLY ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT

B1	Job decisions are made by management in a fair manner	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B2	Management makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B3	To make job decisions, management collects accurate and complete information	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B4	Management clearly communicates and provides additional information when requested by employees	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B5	All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
B6	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions by management	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

Section C: Distributive justice

Please indicate the extent to which you experience distributive justice in your organisation. Please indicate the extent of your disagreement or agreement with the statements by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly disagree) and 7 (Strongly agree).

C1	My work schedule is fair	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
C2	I think that my level of pay is fair	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
C3	I consider my workload to be quite fair	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
C4	Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
C5	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

SECTION D – Interactional justice

Please indicate the extent to which you experience distributive justice in your organisation. Please indicate the extent of your disagreement or agreement with the statements by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly disagree) and 7 (Strongly agree).

CIRCLE ONLY ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT

D1	When decisions are made about my job, management treats me with kindness and consideration	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
D2	When decisions are made about my job, management treats me with respect and dignity	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
D3	When decisions are made about my job, management is sensitive to my personal needs	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
D4	When decisions are made about my job, management deals with me in a truthful manner	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
D5	When decisions are made about my job, management shows concern for my rights as an employee	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

D6	Concerning decisions about my job, management discusses implications of the decisions with me	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
D7	Management offers adequate explanations for decisions about my job	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
D8	When making decisions about my job, management offers explanations that make sense to me	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
D9	Management explains clearly any decisions about my job	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

SECTION E – Organisational citizenship behaviour

Please indicate the extent to which you experience organisational citizenship behaviour in your organisation. Please indicate the extent of your disagreement or agreement with the statements by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly disagree) and 7 (Strongly agree).

CIRCLE ONLY ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT

E1	I try to implement solutions to pressing organisational problems	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
E2	I conscientiously follow organisational rules and procedures	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
E3	I never neglect to follow managers' instructions	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
E4	I do my work even after working hours to achieve organisational goals	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
E5	I am always ready to help those around me	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree

Thank you for time and your cooperation. Your views are much appreciated