



Original Research

Getting Workers to Engage in Organizational Citizenship Behaviors and Decrease Their Intention to Quit: A Sequential Mediation Process Model

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Abstract: This research investigated a mediation in sequence linking overall justice, values congruence, organizational identification, affective commitment, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and intention to quit. Relationships between these concepts seem established. However, most of the time, they were investigated separately. To the best of our knowledge, no previous study has focused on these concepts within an integrated model, despite the theoretical framework that supports its relevance. Therefore, the objective of this research is to shed light on the mechanisms leading workers to adopt/engage in extra-role behaviors, such as OCB, and to intend to quit the organization employing them. One hundred and ninety-three people responded to the questionnaire. We use structural equation modeling and the bootstrapping method. Results indicate that the perception of overall justice generates a feeling of congruence between the values of workers and those of their organization. This feeling, in turn, generates the development of a feeling of oneness with the organization, which, coupled with a feeling of obligation of reciprocity, allows the development of an emotional and affective attachment to the organization. This attachment subsequently results in a desire to implement positive and beneficial behaviors toward the organization such as organizational citizenship behaviors, as well as a decrease in the intention to quit.

Keywords: *Overall Justice, Person Organization Fit, Organizational Identification, Affective Commitment, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Intention to Quit*

Introduction

For decades, the management literature has supported the fact that organizations need employees who want to go beyond their prescribed work if they want to stand out in the marketplace. By now, it is evident that these kind of extra-role behaviors are more important than ever for organizations. Indeed, as underlined by Müller and Djuatio (2011), in a globalized economy, organizations must be able to adapt to changes in their environment, which presupposes having a quality workforce, mobile, and capable of adapting to changes. Employer expectations toward employees are therefore immense. Research has demonstrated that these extra-role behaviors had effects on various concepts crucial for the viability and success of organizations, such as organizations' efficiency and profitability, innovation and process

development, or customer satisfaction (e.g., Podsakoff et al. 2014). Moreover, extra-role behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are one of the central indicators of employees' work performance (Robbins and Judge 2012). Considering these effects, it is important to indicate to employers how they can foster employees' behaviors toward organizations that surpass official work requirements. Moreover, turnover is one of the most persistent problems facing organizations (Griffeth et al. 2012). The loss of qualified workers entails high costs. Indeed, turnover is not only costly in terms of time or money, but also harms the productivity of an organization (Hancock et al. 2013). In such a context, it is therefore relevant and interesting to question the determinants of these extra-role behaviors (i.e., OCB) and workers' intention to quit their organization (Apostel, Syrek, and Antoni 2018).

Previously, relationships were found between organizational commitment, OCB, and intention to quit (e.g., Gurbuz 2009; Haque, Fernando, and Caputi 2017; Shaikh et al. 2022; Tahir, Hadi, and Awan 2021). Other studies have shown a relationship between organizational identification and affective commitment (e.g., Marzucco et al. 2014; Nguyen et al. 2020). Others have also highlighted a positive relationship between values congruence and organizational identification (e.g., Cable and DeRue 2002; Cinar 2019; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson 2005). Some researchers have investigated the relationship between justice at work and congruence (e.g., Çelik and Damar 2017). Others have found that workers' perceptions of justice are linked to OCB (e.g., Farid et al. 2019) and to intention to quit (e.g., George and Wallio 2017).

Relationships between these concepts seem established. However, most of the time, they were investigated separately. In fact, to the best of our knowledge, no previous study has focused on these concepts within an integrated model, despite the theoretical framework that supports its relevance (e.g., self-categorization and social identity theory, Tajfel and Turner 1986; social exchange theory, Blau 1964; norm of reciprocity, Gouldner 1960). Therefore, the objective of this research is to shed light on the mechanisms leading workers to adopt/engage in extra-role behaviors, such as OCB, and to intend to quit the organization employing them. More specifically, the aim is to investigate a mediation in sequence linking overall justice, values congruence, organizational identification, affective commitment, OCB, and intention to quit. The research question of the present study concerns the underlying mechanisms between overall justice and OCB and intention to quit.

Literature Review

Overall Justice and Organizational Identification: The Mediating Role of Values Congruence

Justice at work has numerous benefits for organizations and individuals. Indeed, workers perceiving justice within their work environment have more trust toward their supervisor,

for example, and are more committed to their organization, are more productive, engage more in citizenship behaviors, and are more satisfied with their jobs (e.g., Elamin and Tlaiss 2015; Folger and Cropanzano 1998). Justice at work is often studied through its different dimensions, namely, distributive justice—fairness about outcomes, procedural justice—fairness about process used to allocate the outcomes, interpersonal justice—fairness about interpersonal treatment received, and informational justice—fairness about the information provided during decision making (see Colquitt 2001). According to some scholars (e.g., Lind 2001a, 2001b; Lind and Van den Bos 2002; Shapiro 2001), workers form their perception of justice holistically, and the impact of justice judgments depends on this overall perception of fairness. Overall justice refers to a global appraisal of the fairness of a social entity (e.g., organization) as a whole (e.g., Jones and Martens 2009). Fairness heuristic theory (Lind 2001a) specifically posits that procedural, distributive, informational, and interpersonal dimensions form overall perceptions of justice, which, in turn, influence employee attitudes. Beugre and Baron (2001), based on this theory, suggested that employees use these different dimensions as a basis for an overall assessment of organizational justice. Therefore, a measure of global justice could allow a better understanding of the attitudes and behaviors generated by the perception of fairness. Ambrose and Schminke (2009) have suggested that although workers are able to make a judgment of each dimension separately, focusing on these different dimensions does not provide a precise overview of how people use their perceptions of organizational justice. Moreover, Colquitt and Rodell (2015) noted that, compared to a specific dimension of justice, overall justice better reflects employees' personal experience of justice and is a better predictor of employees' attitude and behaviors.

Justice at work has been the focus of numerous empirical studies showing that a high perception of justice is associated with numerous positive attitudes and behaviors at work (e.g., Colquitt et al. 2001). Some studies have investigated the relationship between justice and the congruence between employees' values and those of their organization (i.e., person–organization [P-O] fit). Through their study, Çelik and Damar (2017) found that organizational justice has a positive and statistically significant effect on P-O fit. In other words, the more workers perceive pay and benefits as being fair; procedures as being consistent and precise; and they being treated in an honest, ethical way, having a voice in the organization where they work, the more they feel that they are important for the organization and that they are adequate in their jobs. In such a context of fairness, workers' self-confidence arises. Employees also use their talents and abilities on their jobs and see the importance of their efforts to achieve their organizational goals, thus leading them to perceive compatibility between them and their organization. Perceptions of congruence between workers and their organization appear when employees personal values, career aspirations, knowledge, skills, and ability are compatible with the organizational culture and with the requirements of their jobs (Zhang, Fried, and Griffeth 2012).

P-O fit refers to “the congruence between patterns of organizational values and patterns of individual values” (Chatman 1991, 459). Values are defined as “general beliefs about the importance of normatively desirable behaviors or end states” (Edwards and Cable 2009, 655). Workers “draw from their values to guide their decisions and actions, and organizational values systems provide norms that specify how organizational members should behave and how organizational resources should be allocated” (655). Most authors recognize that values in force within an organization have a profound effect on staff attitudes (O’Reilly and Chatman 1996). Indeed, numerous studies have examined the impact of P-O congruence in terms of values on employee attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Hoffman and Woehr 2006; Verquer, Beehr, and Wagner 2003; O’Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell 1991). The fundamental postulate of congruence theorists is that the more the individual’s preferences in terms of values come close to the values actually in force in their organization, the more the individual will develop positive attitudes toward it and will adapt easily to their situation (Chatman 1989). Organizational identification is often considered as one of its outcomes. Indeed, previous studies have highlighted the positive relationship between values congruence and organizational identification (Cable and DeRue 2002; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson 2005). When workers perceive congruence between their values and those of their organization, they are more likely to define themselves as a member of that organization (Cinar 2019).

Although many definitions exist, most of them have conceptualized organizational identification as a cognitive construct reflecting the incorporation of the organization into individuals’ self-concept (Ricketta 2005). Organizational identification is often defined as “the perception of oneness with or belongingness to an organization, where the individual defines him or herself in terms of the organization(s) in which he or she is a member” (Mael and Ashforth 1992, 104). Organizational identification also refers to “the degree to which a member defines him- or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes define the organization” (Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994, 239). Research on self-categorization and social identity describes how the self can be defined in terms of unique and individualizing characteristics that distinguish the individual from others and can also be extended to social groups (e.g., Tajfel and Turner 1986). The concept of social identification reflects the extent to which the self is defined collectively (Tajfel and Turner 1986). It involves a psychological “fusion” of the self and the group that causes individuals to regard their self as similar to the members of the collective, to attribute group-defining characteristics to their own self, and to take the collective interest to heart (Turner et al. 1987). This conception of the self in terms of “we,” rather than “I,” in which belonging to a social group becomes self-referential is called social identity (Tajfel and Turner 1986) or collective self (Turner et al. 1987).

In line with this perspective, several researchers have argued that the organization is one of the most relevant identification targets for workers (e.g., Bergami and Bagozzi 2000; Hogg and Terry 2000). Applying this approach to the organizational setting, organizational

identification therefore reflects the psychological fusion of the self and the organization, forming a “we” (Haslam and Platow 2001). The more people identify with an organization, the more its values, norms, and interests are incorporated into the self of the individual. Thus, collective interest is seen as personal interest, making individuals intrinsically motivated to contribute to the collective (Ashforth and Mael 1989). Organizational identification is not limited to group member status. Indeed, successes and failures of the group are perceived as being one’s own, and strongly identified individuals “are likely to consider those behaviors that benefit the organization as also benefiting themselves” (Dukerich, Golden, and Shortell 2002, 511). Organizational identification includes two basic concepts. The first is the need for self-categorization, referring to the degree to which employees perceive themselves as belonging to the organization, and, then, the need for self-enhancement, referring to the sense of pride in belonging to the organization (Smidts, Pruyn, and Van Riel 2001). According to self-categorization theory (Turner 1985), identification with a group is based on the fact that individuals can both reduce uncertainty about their social identity (self-categorization) and improve their self-esteem by categorizing themselves as members of a group they respect and for whom they have great esteem (self-enhancement).

Several studies have shown that justice at work can be seen as an important factor in encouraging employees to identify with their organization (e.g., De Clercq et al. 2021; Terzi et al. 2017). When an organization treats its employees fairly and equitably, it conveys the image that the organization respects and values its employees. Thus, employees can feel proud to be part of this organization, thereby reinforcing their identification as a member of this organization (Tyler and Blader 2000). Perceptions of justice affect organizational identification, given the positive information about social identity that justice communicates to individuals (Terzi et al. 2017). This idea echoes the theory of social identity and the concepts of self-categorization and self-enhancement mentioned previously. Therefore, based on the foregoing, we postulate that overall justice will increase the perception of values’ congruence, which, in turn, will positively affect organizational identification:

Hypothesis 1: Values congruence will mediate the relationship between overall justice and organizational identification.

Values Congruence and Affective Commitment: The Role of Organizational Identification

As previously mentioned, studies have highlighted that workers perceiving congruence between their values and those of their organization are more likely to define themselves as a member of that organization (e.g., Cinar 2019). In addition, values congruence has also been shown to be related to organizational commitment. Indeed, Verquer, Beehr, and Wagner (2003) have shown that P-O fit, including values congruence, is an important predictor of organizational commitment, and notably of affective commitment. Based on a sample

composed of 290 people working in the banking sector in Pakistan, Tahir, Hadi, and Awan (2021) found that by perceiving congruence between their own personal values and those of their organizations, workers are more committed to their organization. When a worker perceives a match between their values and those of their organization, they feel more attached to it.

Organizational commitment refers to “a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee’s relationship with the organization and (b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization” (Meyer and Allen 1991, 67). Meyer and Allen (1991) defined three dimensions of commitment. The first dimension, affective commitment, is defined as an “emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” (Meyer and Allen 1991, 67). The second dimension, normative commitment, refers to “a feeling of obligation to continue employment” (Meyer and Allen 1991, 67). The last one, continuance commitment, refers to “an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization” (Meyer and Allen 1991, 67). Therefore, employees may remain with the organization because they desire to, and they have developed positive emotions about the organization (affective commitment) because they internalized organizational values and objectives and an associated sense of obligation (normative commitment) or because of the perceived high cost of leaving (continuance commitment) (Meyer and Allen 1991). According to Meyer and Allen (1991), workers may experience each form of commitment to different degrees given that these forms of commitment are not mutually exclusive. Many authors consider the affective dimension to be the heart of the concept of organizational commitment (e.g., Mercurio 2015; Solinger, van Olffen, and Roe 2008). In a meta-analysis carried out in 2015, Mercurio demonstrated that this dimension is the greatest predictor, compared to the other two dimensions, of the different behaviors and attitudes of employees toward the organization. Affective organizational commitment is described as an emotional bond between workers and their organization. This link can be based on various elements, such as the sharing of organizational and ethical values, a desire to remain a member of the organization, or to contribute to its proper functioning (Meyer and Allen 1988; Meyer and Herscovitch 2001). According to Meyer and Allen (1997), the development of affective commitment can be explained by the social exchange theory (Blau 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner 1960). According to these theories, perceptions of favorable treatment create a sense of obligation to the organization, which, in turn, promotes positive attitudes and behaviors toward the organization. Thus, this social exchange relationship implies that individuals are motivated by the need to maintain a balance between investments and profits in order to avoid feeling indebted to the organization, therefore implying a desire for reciprocity (Eisenberger et al. 1986).

Organizational identification and organizational commitment share some similarities. Indeed, they both reflect a psychological bond between individuals and the organization

employing them. They also share common antecedents, such as values congruence (e.g., Cable and DeRue 2002; Verquer, Beehr, and Wagner 2003) and consequences, including organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., Feather and Rauter 2004) and intention to quit the organization (e.g., Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner 2000; Van Dick, Christ, et al. 2004). Despite these similarities, literature supports the idea that these two concepts are distinct, both theoretically and empirically (e.g., Wiener 1982; Ashforth and Mael 1989; Van Dick and Wagner 2002; Van Knippenberg and Sleebos 2006; Stinglhamber et al. 2015). The most fundamental difference between these two concepts relates to the self-referential character of organizational identification, a characteristic that organizational commitment lacks (Ashforth and Mael 1989). Indeed, when a worker identifies with their organization, they perceive a feeling of oneness with it. However, commitment is based on the social exchange theory, and the norm of reciprocity implies that a worker considers their self and the organization as two distinct entities (Van Knippenberg and Sleebos 2006). Another difference is that these concepts are formed differently. Organizational identification is formed as a result of the perceived similarity between the person and the organization, as well as through the perception of a shared destiny (Mael and Ashforth 1992). Based on the social exchange theory, organizational commitment appears as a result of an exchange relationship between the individual and the organization, the individual thus wishing to give back to the company from which they receive (Tyler and Blader 2000). Thus, organizational identification is considered specific to a particular organization, while organizational commitment is considered more transferable from one organization to another (Stinglhamber et al. 2015).

Although the literature suggests that organizational identification and organizational commitment are distinct (Mael and Tetrick 1992, as cited in Van Dick, Wagner, et al. 2004), very few researchers have investigated the relationship that exists between these two concepts. Although little empirical evidence is available, some studies suggest that organizational identification is an antecedent of affective organizational commitment (e.g., Meyer, Becker, and Vandenberghe 2004; Jones and Volpe 2010). According to several authors (e.g., Becker 1992; Meyer, Becker, and Vandenberghe 2004; Meyer, Becker, and Van Dick 2006), identifying with an organization increases affective commitment, thanks to the feeling of belonging and the vicarious experience that it would foster, thus creating an emotional connection with the organization. In line with this reasoning, through their study on Vietnamese pharmaceutical enterprises, Nguyen et al. (2020) found a strong positive relationship between organizational identification and affective organizational commitment.

Therefore, based on the foregoing, we postulate that the perception of values' congruence will increase organizational identification, which, in turn, will increase affective commitment:

Hypothesis 2: Organizational identification will mediate the relationship between values congruence and affective commitment.

Organizational Identification, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, and Intention to Quit Affective Commitment: The Role of Affective Commitment

As previously noted, studies have highlighted that organizational identification is an antecedent of affective commitment (e.g., Nguyen et al. 2020). In addition, organizational identification has also been related to OCB (e.g., Dukerich, Golden, and Shortell 2002; Van Dick et al. 2006; Zhao, Peng, and Chen 2014). Van Dick et al. (2006) have shown that the more employees identified with their organization, the more they were inclined to adopt OCB. According to social identity theory, organizational identification fosters individuals' motivation to engage in group-oriented actions (Haslam 2004), thereby fostering the prosperity of the group, which, in turn, increases individuals' own self-perception. OCB can be considered as group-oriented behaviors (Van Knippenberg 2000). More recently, based on a sample composed of 374 employees working in different industries in Pakistan, Cheema, Afsar, and Javed (2019) notably found that organizational identification mediated the effect of employees' corporate social responsibility perceptions (defined as "context-specific organizational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance"; Aguinis 2011, 855) on employees' organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment (defined as "discretionary acts by employees within the organization not rewarded or required that are directed toward environmental improvement"; Daily, Bishop, and Govindarajulu 2009, 246). In other words, by working in an organization perceived as socially and environmentally responsible, workers strongly identify themselves with this entity given that, by diffusing a positive image of itself, such organization is more attractive. By doing so, workers internalize values, beliefs, and goals of their organization and exert discretionary efforts to contribute to their organization's success.

Organizational commitment has also previously been found to be related to OCB (e.g., Chu, Lee, and Hsu 2006; O'Reilly and Chatman 1986; Schappe 1998). Gurbuz (2009) found that employees who have a positive attitude toward their job and who are committed to their organization engage more in OCB. He showed that the organizational commitment, and, in particular, the affective dimension, was the most important predictor of OCB. Indeed, organizational commitment is among the most commonly studied antecedents of OCB (e.g., Dalal 2005; LePine, Erez, and Johnson 2002; Meyer et al. 2002; Riketta 2002). More recently, through their study of the banking sector in Pakistan, Tahir, Hadi, and Awan (2021) found that affective commitment positively influenced OCB. According to the social exchange theory, employees who have satisfying experiences with the organization respond by behaving in ways that benefit the organization and/or other employees (i.e., OCB).

OCB refers to an "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and

effective functioning of the organization” (original definition by Organ 1988, as cited in Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie 2006, 3). The discretionary nature of these behaviors means that the behavior is not a requirement of the job description, and, therefore, OCB is more a matter of personal choice, so their omission is not generally considered punishable (Podsakoff et al. 2000). OCBs are thus extra-role and voluntary acts that, on the one hand, contribute to help other members of the organization to accomplish their work and, on the other, contribute to the proper functioning of the organization (Organ 1988). Researchers have often conceptualized OCBs in terms of the object to which they are related. Following this perspective, Williams and Anderson (1991) established a two-dimensional conceptualization suggesting that OCB can be either individual (OCBI) or organizational (OCBO) targeted. OCBO refers to behaviors that benefit the organization, in general (e.g., working overtime to complete work), while OCBI relates to behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly through these means contribute to the organization (e.g., helping absent people or taking a personal interest in other employees). However, the five-dimensional model of Podsakoff et al. (1990) represents one of the most widespread OCB models. This model encompasses five main classical OCB dimensions. Altruism refers to “behaviors on the part of employees that have the effect of helping a specific other with an organizationally relevant problem.” Courtesy refers to “discretionary behaviors on the part of an individual aimed at preventing work-related problems with others from occurring.” Civic virtue is defined as “behavior on the part of an individual that indicates that he/she responsibly participates in, is involved in, or is concerned about the life of the company.” Conscientiousness reflects “discretionary behaviors on the part of employees that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations, taking breaks, and so forth.” Sportsmanship is defined as the “willingness of the employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining” (Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie 2006, 251).

Organizational identification has also been found to be related to intention to quit. Riketta (2005) performed a meta-analysis on organizational identification and demonstrated that organizational identification was negatively related to intention to quit. Indeed, when self-definition is linked to the collective, people are more inclined to remain members of this collective, thus leading to a decrease in turnover (e.g., Van Dick, Wagner, et al. 2004; Van Knippenberg et al. 2002). More recently, Shaikh et al. (2022) found that organizational identification was negatively related to intention to quit.

Several studies have also investigated the relationship between affective commitment and intention to quit and found a negative relationship between these concepts (e.g., Christian and Ellis 2014; Haque, Fernando, and Caputi 2017; Lacity, Iyer, and Rudramuniyaiah 2008; Shaikh et al. 2022). Employees would be more willing to stay in an organization when they are emotionally involved with that organization. Indeed, workers with affective commitment

demonstrate positive intentions to serve their organization and are likely to think less about quitting their jobs.

Hypothesis 3: Affective commitment will mediate the relationships between organizational identification, OCB, and intention to quit.

Sequential Mediation Chain

Although the different relationships between the variables included in our study are well established in the literature, a model integrating them into a sequential mediation chain has never been tested to date. Therefore, how value congruence, organizational identification, and affective commitment mediate the relationships between overall justice and intention to leave/organizational citizenship behaviors remains to be tested.

Based on the aforementioned, we establish that being treated fairly at work increases workers’ perception that their values are congruent with those of their organization, which, in turn, leads them to identify more with their organization, thereby increasing their affective commitment toward their organization. Ultimately, this sequence of perceptions and attitudes leads workers to engage in “extra-role” behaviors such as those of organizational citizenship, as well as to reduce their intention to quit their organization. This reasoning is relevant to some well-known theoretical framework (e.g., self-categorization and social identity theory, Tajfel and Turner 1986; social exchange theory, Blau 1964; norm of reciprocity, Gouldner 1960). Figure 1 depicts the hypothesized theoretical model.

Hypothesis 4: The influence of overall justice on intention to quit and OCB are mediated by values congruence as the first mediator, organizational identification as the second mediator, and affective commitment as the final mediator.

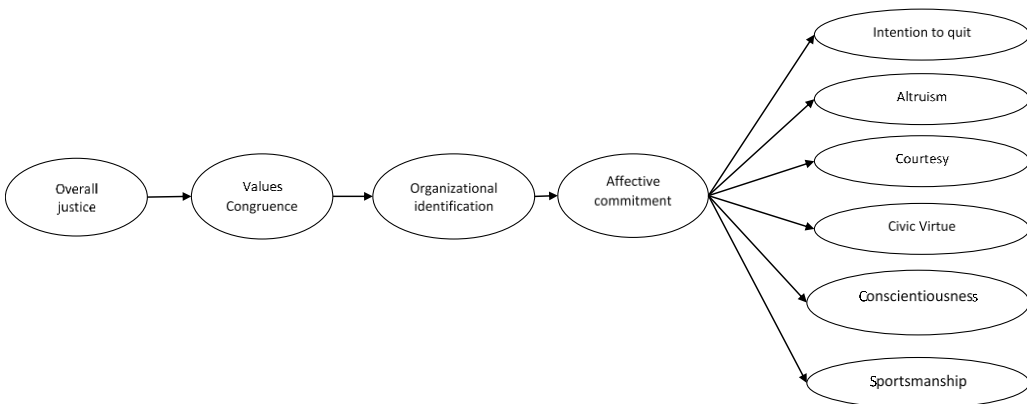


Figure 1: Hypothesized Theoretical Model

Method

Sample

In order to test our hypotheses, a self-reported questionnaire was diffused through an online survey. This study was carried out on an all-round sample. The questionnaire elicited responses from 193 people. Behavioral science studies that conduct regressions or SEM typically employ a median sample size of 200 (Tofighi and Kelley 2020), suggesting that the sample size of this study is reasonable. Most of the participants were female (55%). On average, participants were 34 years old. Twenty-three percent of respondents had a high school diploma, 45 percent had a short-type higher education diploma, and 29 percent had a long-type higher education diploma or a doctorate. Most of the respondents worked in the private sector (32%), in a company employing more than 1,000 employees (29%), and had an administrative function (17%). Fifty-five percent of respondents had no managerial responsibilities. Seventy-four percent had a permanent contract, and 77 percent worked full time. Respondents had been employed by their company on average for nine years and had been working within their function on average for nine and half years.

Using the full partial covariate effects (Little 2013), five socio-demographic variables (diploma, seniority in the company, seniority in the function, managerial responsibilities, and company size) were significantly related to the constructs of our model. Consequently, we included these five socio-demographic variables as covariates to control for their effects in our analyses.

Procedure

Data were collected through an online survey disseminated via different platforms such as social and professional networks. The link to the online questionnaire was posted along with a description of the research explaining the purpose of the study and emphasizing the confidentiality of the responses (anonymous participation). The informed consent of each participant was obtained. People were given four weeks to complete the survey.

Prior to launching the survey, the present study and its design were presented for approval to the ethical committee of the faculty of psychology of the researchers' university. The final decision of the ethical committee was positive, suggesting that the present study fulfils all the ethical rules regarding methodological design.

Measures

As participants speak French, original English questionnaires were translated following a translation back-translation procedure (Brislin 1980). For all scales, there was no major discrepancy between the original and translated versions, so the translation process was considered appropriate.

- **Overall justice** was estimated using Ambrose and Schminke's (2009) scale, which comprises six items (e.g., "Overall, I'm treated fairly by my organization"). People responded on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1: strongly disagree to 7: strongly agree).
- **Values congruence** was measured with the questionnaire developed by Cable and Judge (1996), which comprises three items (e.g., "My personal values fit with the values of my organization"). People responded on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1: strongly disagree to 7: strongly agree).
- **Organizational identification** was estimated using Mael and Ashforth's (1992) scale, which comprises six items (e.g., "When someone criticizes my organisation, it feels like a personal insult"). People responded on a five-point Likert-type scale (1: strongly disagree to 5: strongly agree).
- **Affective commitment** was estimated using the ad hoc subscale developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). This subscale contains eight items (e.g., "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization"). People responded on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1: strongly disagree to 7: strongly agree).
- **Organizational citizenship behaviors** were measured with the scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). This scale assesses five dimensions: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. For each of these dimensions, we used the three items with the highest loadings (e.g., "Helps others who have heavy work loads" for altruism; "Attendance at work is above the norm" for conscientiousness; "Always focuses on what's wrong, rather than the positive side" for sportsmanship; "Considers the impact of his/her actions on coworkers" for courtesy; "Reads and keeps up with organization announcements, memos, and so on" for civic virtue). People responded on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1: strongly disagree to 7: strongly agree).
- **Intention to quit** was estimated using the Turnover Intention Scale, developed by Bothma and Roodt (2013). This scale comprises three items (e.g., "I often think about quitting my organization"). People responded on a five-point Likert-type scale (1: strongly disagree to 5: strongly agree).

Data Analyses

Analyses were performed using Mplus 6 (Muthén and Muthén 2010). Data was analyzed through a two-stage process suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). First, we assessed the measurement model through a series of confirmatory factor analyses to evaluate the independence of constructs examined in our study. Second, we assessed the hypothesized structural relationships among latent variables. For the second stage, in order to limit the number of parameters to be estimated, we reduced the number of items per factor by

combining them to create a limited number of indicators per construct (Landis, Beal, and Tesluk 2000). Using the balancing technique, we generated aggregate indicators by averaging items with high and low loadings. We thus reduced the number of items to three for three of our constructs (i.e., overall justice, organizational identification, and affective commitment); the other constructs were already evaluated with three items. This parceling strategy preserves common construct variance while minimizing unrelated specific variance (e.g., Little et al. 2002, 2013). We used the bootstrapping technique to estimate indirect effects (Preacher and Hayes 2008).

Results

Discriminant Validity

We tested the distinctiveness between the variables included in our study by comparing several nested models (Bentler and Bonett 1980). First, we examined the fit of our hypothesized ten-factor model (i.e., overall justice, congruence, organizational identification, affective commitment, altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue, and intention to quit). The results indicate that this hypothesized measurement model fits the data reasonably well ($\chi^2(360) = 556.04, p < .001, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .95$). Moreover, loadings of all items were higher than .50, which is the recommended cut-off score for factor loadings (Kline 2011).

Starting from this ten-factor model, we tested a series of more constrained measurement models. In particular, we tested three nine-factor models, one seven-factor model, and one six-factor model. Chi-square difference tests were used to compare the fit of these nested models with that of the ten-factor model (Bentler and Bonett 1980). Results indicated that the ten-factor model was significantly superior to all alternative models. Consequently, we used this ten-factor model to test our hypotheses. Table 1 displays fit indices for some of these alternative models.

Table 1: Fit Indices for Measurement Models

#	Models	df	χ^2	RMSEA	CFI	Model Comparisons	$\Delta\chi^2 (\Delta df)$
1	Ten-factor model	360	556.035	.05	.95	—	—
2	Seven-factor model (OCB-I and OCB-O)	384	948.842	.09	.85	1 vs. 2	392.81(24)***
3	Six-factor model (OCB)	390	1,092.262	.10	.81	1 vs. 3	536.23(30)***
4	Nine-factor model (organizational identification and affective commitment)	369	764.044	.07	.89	1 vs. 4	208.00(9)***

5	Nine-factor model (organizational identification and values congruence)	369	1,102.474	.10	.80	1 vs. 5	546.439(9)***
6	Nine-factor model (overall justice and values congruence)	369	849.574	.08	.87	1 vs. 6	293.539(9)***

Note: $N = 193$. For the evaluation of the model fit, the following cutoff points were used: for the RMSEA, values of .08 or lower and for the CFI, values of .90 or higher (Kline 2011). OCB-I (Individual targeted OCB) = Altruism and Courtesy; OCB-O° (organizational targeted OCB) = Civic Virtue, Conscientiousness and Sportsmanship; OCB = Altruism, Courtesy, Civic Virtue, Conscientiousness and Sportsmanship; Df, degrees of freedom; χ^2 , minimum fit function Chi-square; RMSEA, root-mean-square error of approximation; CFI, comparative fit index; vs., versus; No., number. $\Delta\chi^2 =$ chi-square difference tests between the ten-factor model and alternative models ***, $p < .001$.

Relationships among Variables

Means, standard deviations, Cronbach’s alphas and correlations among variables are presented in Table 2. Internal consistency reliabilities ranged from .68 to .94.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics and Inter-Correlations among Variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 Qualification	--	--															
2 Company size	--	--	.11														
3 Managerial responsibility	--	--	-.01	.22**													
4 Function tenure	9.58	9.82	.05	-.11	-.06												
5 Organizational tenure	9.39	10.73	.09	-.03	.06	.81***											
6 Overall justice Values congruence	4.80	1.24	.05	-.04	.07	-.09	-.01	.89									
7 Organizational identification	4.47	1.48	-.01	-.11	.03	-.09	-.01	.58***	.94								
8 Affective commitment	3.39	.81	.14	-.12	.07	.07	.13	.35***	.52***	.88							
9 Altruism	4.43	1.22	.06	-.12	.18*	.00	.11	.44***	.61***	.61***	.80						
10 Conscientiousness	6.00	.83	-.06	.03	-.02	-.11	-.06	.12	.16*	-.06	.06	.80					
11 Sportsmanship	5.27	1.01	.05	-.05	.10	.08	.16*	.29***	.22***	.16*	.21**	.19**	.68				
12 Courtesy	5.24	1.32	-.03	-.05	.17*	.13	.13	.19**	.19**	.10	.34***	.18*	.24***	.77			
13 Civic Virtue	5.74	.87	.01	.06	.08	.02	.07	.08	.11	.12	.08	.37***	.30***	.14	.77		
14 Intention to quit	5.05	1.29	.05	-.07	.11	.01	.05	.26***	.40***	.38***	.41***	.11	.25***	.18*	.30***	.78	
15	2.56	1.29	.07	-.02	-.09	-.16*	-.25***	-.37***	-.50***	-.39***	-.39***	-.04	-.03	-.44**	-.10	-.29***	.92

Note: $N = 176$. Correlations among variables are provided below the diagonal, and Cronbach’s alphas are provided on the diagonal. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. Absence of means and standard deviations for qualification, company size, and managerial responsibility because the answers were categorized beforehand in the questionnaire.

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Based on the results of the confirmatory factor analyses, we examined the structural relationships among latent variables through a series of alternative models (Models 2–22). Table 3 presents the fit indices for these alternative models. Model 1 (i.e., the hypothesized theoretical model) fits the data reasonably well ($\chi^2(525) = 873.97, p < .001, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .91$).

To evaluate whether this model offered the best depiction of our data, we added a path from overall justice to organizational identification (Model 2), but Model 2 did not have a significantly better fit than Model 1. Starting with Model 1, we added a path from overall justice to affective commitment (Model 3). Model 3 presented a fit that was superior to Model 1 ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 27.86, p < .001$). However, starting with Model 3, we added a path from overall justice to intention to quit (Model 4), and this latter model had a significantly better fit than Model 3 ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 5.12, p < .05$). Starting with Model 4, we successively added paths from overall justice to altruism (Model 5), to conscientiousness (Model 6), to sportsmanship (Model 7), to courtesy (Model 8), and to civic virtue (Model 9), but these latter five models did not have a significantly better fit than Model 4.

Starting with Model 4, we added a path from values congruence to affective commitment (Model 10). Model 10 presented a fit that was superior to Model 4 ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 15.48, p < .001$). However, starting with Model 10, we added a path from values congruence to intention to quit (Model 11), and this latter model had a significantly better fit than Model 10 ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 14.35, p < .001$). Starting with Model 11, we successively added paths from values congruence to altruism (Model 12), to conscientiousness (Model 13), to sportsmanship (Model 14), to courtesy (Model 15), and to civic virtue (Model 16), but these latter five models did not have a significantly better fit than Model 11.

Starting with Model 11, we successively added paths from organizational identification to intention to quit (Model 17), to altruism (Model 18), to conscientiousness (Model 19), to sportsmanship (Model 20), to courtesy (Model 21), and to civic virtue (Model 22), but these latter six models did not have a significantly better fit than Model 11.

Standardized parameter estimates for Model 11 are shown in Figure 2. For ease of presentation, we show the structural model rather than the full measurement model. Regarding our first hypothesis, overall justice was positively related to values congruence, which, in turn, was positively associated with organizational identification. We used the bootstrapping technique to estimate indirect effects (Preacher and Hayes 2008). As shown in Table 4, the indirect effect of overall justice on organizational identification through values congruence was significant. Thus, values congruence totally mediates this relationship. This finding supports Hypothesis 1.

Table 3: Fit Indices for Structural Models

MNo.	Models	df	χ^2	RMSEA	CFI	Model comparisons	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δdf)
M1	Hypothesized theoretical model	525	873.973	.06	.91		
M2	M1 + path between overall justice and organizational identification	524	873.916	.06	.90	M1 vs. M2	.06(1)
M3	M1 + path between overall justice and affective commitment	524	846.105	.06	.91	M1 vs. M3	27.86(1) ^{***}
M4	M3 + path between overall justice and intention to quit	523	840.981	.06	.91	M3 vs. M4	5.12 (1) ^c
M5	M4 + path between overall justice and altruism	522	840.702	.06	.91	M4 vs. M5	.28 (1)
M6	M4 + path between overall justice and conscientiousness	522	840.018	.06	.91	M4 vs. M6	.96 (1)
M7	M4 + path between overall justice and sportsmanship	522	838.549	.06	.91	M4 vs. M7	2.43 (1)
M8	M4 + path between overall justice and courtesy	522	839.103	.06	.91	M4 vs. M8	1.88 (1)
M9	M4 + path between overall justice and civic virtue	522	840.914	.06	.91	M4 vs. M9	.07 (1)
M10	M4 + path between values congruence and affective commitment	522	825.503	.06	.92	M4 vs. M10	15.48 (1) ^{***}
M11	M10 + path between values congruence and intention to quit	521	811.155	.06	.92	M10 vs. M11	14.35 (1) ^{***}
M12	M11 + path between values congruence and altruism	520	808.515	.06	.92	M11 vs. M12	2.64 (1)
M13	M11 + path between values congruence and conscientiousness	520	808.987	.06	.92	M11 vs. M13	2.17 (1)
M14	M11 + path between values congruence and sportsmanship	520	809.515	.06	.92	M11 vs. M14	1.64 (1)
M15	M11 + path between values congruence and courtesy	520	810.450	.06	.92	M11 vs. M15	.71 (1)
M16	M11 + path between values congruence and civic virtue	520	810.132	.06	.92	M11 vs. M16	1.02 (1)
M17	M11 + path between organizational identification and intention to quit	520	811.152	.06	.92	M11 vs. M17	.00 (1)
M18	M11 + path between organizational identification and altruism	520	811.150	.06	.92	M11 vs. M18	.00 (1)
M19	M11 + path between organizational identification and conscientiousness	520	811.138	.06	.92	M11 vs. M19	.02 (1)
M20	M11 + path between organizational identification and sportsmanship	520	811.004	.06	.92	M11 vs. M20	.15 (1)
M21	M11 + path between organizational identification and courtesy	520	809.714	.06	.92	M11 vs. M21	1.44 (1)
M22	M11 + path between organizational identification and civic virtue	520	808.387	.06	.92	M11 vs. M22	2.77 (1)

Note: $N = 176$. For the evaluation of the model fit, the following cutoff points were used: for the RMSEA, values of .08 or lower and for the CFI, values of .90 or higher (Kline 2011). MNo., model number; df, degrees of freedom; χ^2 , minimum fit function Chi-square; RMSEA, root-mean-square error of approximation; CFI, comparative fit index; $\chi^2 =$ chi-square difference tests. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

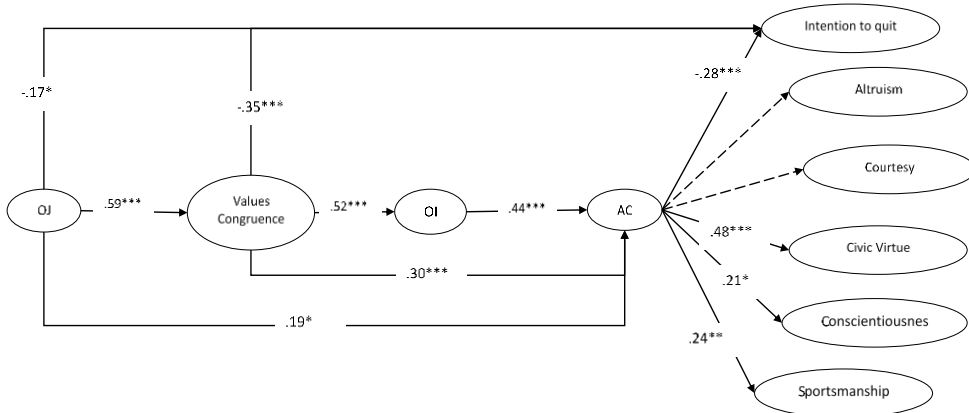


Figure 2: Completely Standardized Path Coefficients for the Retained Model (Model 11)

Note: OJ = overall justice; OI = organizational identification; AC = Affective commitment. For the sake of clarity, only structural relationships are shown. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Concerning our second hypothesis, results showed that values congruence was positively associated with organizational identification, which, in turn, was positively related to affective commitment. Values congruence was also directly and positively related to affective commitment. As shown in Table 4, the indirect effect of the values congruence on affective commitment through organizational identification was significant. Thus, organizational identification partially mediates the effect of values congruence on affective commitment. This result partially supports Hypothesis 2.

Concerning our third hypothesis, the results showed that organizational identification was positively associated with affective commitment, which, in turn, was negatively related to intention to quit and positively related to civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship. Affective commitment was not significantly related to altruism and courtesy. As shown in Table 4, the indirect effects of organizational identification on only intention to quit, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship through affective commitment were significant. Thus, affective commitment totally mediates the effect of organizational identification on these four outcomes. These findings support Hypothesis 3.

Concerning our fourth hypothesis, as indicated in Table 5, only the indirect effects of the overall justice on intention to quit, civic virtue, conscientiousness and sportsmanship through values congruence, organizational identification, and affective commitment were statistically different from zero. In sum, there is a triple mediation in sequence for these four outcomes only. As overall justice was also directly and negatively related to intention to quit, values congruence, organizational identification, and affective commitment partially mediate this relationship. The triple mediation is total in the case of the three other outcomes (i.e., civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship). These results partially support Hypothesis 4.

Results also showed that overall justice was also directly positively related to affective commitment and that values congruence was directly negatively related to intention to quit.

Table 4: Indirect Pathways Using Bootstrapping (Hypotheses 1–3)

	<i>Bootstrapping</i>		<i>Percentile 95% CI</i>	
	Effect	SE	Lower	Upper
Indirect effect: $x \rightarrow m \rightarrow y$				
Overall justice \rightarrow values congruence \rightarrow organizational identification	.304	.050	.206	.402
Values congruence \rightarrow organizational identification \rightarrow affective commitment	.228	.043	.143	.312
Organizational identification \rightarrow affective commitment \rightarrow intention to quit	-.125	.049	-.221	-.028

Organizational identification → affective commitment → altruism	.014	.031	-.048	.075
Organizational identification → affective commitment → courtesy	.094	.063	-.031	.218
Organizational identification → affective commitment → civic virtue	.213	.053	.110	.316
Organizational identification → affective commitment → conscientiousness	.089	.042	.006	.172
Organizational identification → affective commitment → sportsmanship	.107	.047	.015	.198

Note: N = 176; SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval; 5,000 bootstrap samples.

Table 5: Indirect Pathways Using Bootstrapping (Hypothesis 4)

Indirect effect: $x \rightarrow m1 \rightarrow m2 \rightarrow m3 \rightarrow y$	Bootstrapping		Percentile 95% CI	
	Effect	SE	Lower	Upper
Overall justice → values congruence → OI → AC → intention to quit	-.038	.016	-.068	-.007
Overall justice → values congruence → OI → AC → altruism	.004	.010	-.015	.023
Overall justice → values congruence → OI → AC → courtesy	.028	.019	-.009	.066
Overall justice → values congruence → OI → AC → civic virtue	.065	.019	.028	.101
Overall justice → values congruence → OI → AC → conscientiousness	.027	.044	.001	.053
Overall justice → values congruence → OI → AC → sportsmanship	.032	.016	.002	.063

Note: N = 176. OI = organizational identification; AC = affective commitment; SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval; 5,000 bootstrap samples.

Discussion

The main objective of this research was to shed light on some underlying mechanisms between overall justice, OCB, and intention to quit. More specifically, the aim was to investigate how the self-categorization and social identity theories (e.g., Tajfel and Turner 1986), the social exchange theory (Blau 1964), and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner 1960) could provide a better understanding of the underlying mechanisms of the relationships between overall justice, values congruence, organizational identification, affective commitment, OCB, and intention to quit the organization.

Consistently with previous studies, our results show that perception of overall justice generates a feeling of congruence between the values of workers and those of their organization (e.g., Çelik and Damar 2017). This feeling of congruence, in turn, gives rise to a feeling of oneness with the organization (e.g., Cinar 2019), which, coupled with a feeling of obligation of reciprocity, allows the development of an emotional and affective attachment to the organization (e.g., Nguyen et al. 2020). This attachment subsequently results in a desire

to implement positive and beneficial behaviors toward the organization, such as organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization (OCBO), as well as a decrease in the intention to quit (e.g., Shaikh et al. 2022; Tahir, Hadi, and Awan 2021).

Our study therefore shows that congruence between workers' values and those of their organization serves as a precursor to self-categorization as a member of their organization, subsequently promoting affective commitment toward it (e.g., Tahir, Hadi, and Awan 2021; Van Knippenberg and Sleebos 2006). This process joins the theory postulating that a fit offers individuals the possibility of satisfying certain needs (Murray 1981 as cited in Verquer, Beehr, and Wagner 2003), which subsequently generates favorable attitudes such as affective commitment.

Another issue concerns the relationship between identification with the organization and affective commitment. Some authors consider identification to be equivalent to the affective dimension of organizational commitment (e.g., Mathieu and Zajac 1990), while others see them as two very distinct concepts (e.g., Ashforth and Mael 1989; Van Dick and Wagner 2002; Van Knippenberg and Sleebos 2006; Stinglhamber et al. 2015; Wiener 1982). It is therefore interesting to underline that although these two variables are strongly correlated ($r = .61$), the comparison of the measurement models indicates that these two concepts are indeed distinct.

In addition to highlighting a process of a triple mediation in sequence between the concepts investigated, our study also demonstrates the existence of some direct relationships. Indeed, intention to quit was directly in a negative way influenced by overall justice and values congruence. These direct relations are in line with the results of previous studies. The more employees feel treated fairly and equitably by the organization, the less they will consider leaving the organization (e.g., George and Wallio 2017; Rai 2013). According to social exchange theory (Blau 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner 1960), perceptions of favorable treatment create a sense of obligation toward the organization, which, in turn, promotes positive attitudes and behaviors toward the organization. Through their study on employees in the retail supermarket chains in Kosovo, Berisha and Lajçi (2020) found that P-O fit had a negative effect on turnover intention. Individuals whose values correspond to those of their organization wish to remain in their organization.

Our study also shows that affective commitment was directly in a positive way influenced by overall justice and values' congruence. Here again, these direct relations are in line with the results of previous studies. Indeed, several studies have investigated the link between the perception of fairness and organizational commitment (e.g., Khaola and Rambe 2021; Marzucco et al. 2014) and have shown a positive relationship. Indeed, according to Ambrose and Schminke (2009), perceived global justice is a powerful predictor of affective organizational commitment. The more employees feel that they are treated fairly and equitably by the organization, the more they will feel emotionally attached to it. Employees treated fairly and equitably feel a sense of obligation, leading them to be more committed.

On the other hand, Tahir, Hadi, and Awan (2021) noted that when workers perceived congruence between their own personal values and those of their organizations, they grew more committed toward their organization, became more attached to it, and felt a stronger obligation toward it.

The fact that affective commitment was only related to three out of five OCBs is sobering. As a reminder, the five dimensions of OCB can be categorized into two more general sub-dimensions, respectively, OCBI (OCB oriented toward individuals—altruism and courtesy) and OCBO (OCB oriented toward organization—civic virtue, conscientiousness, sportsmanship). In our study, only OCBO was related to affective commitment. Our results suggest that a strong affective commitment in one's organization does not predispose an employee to adopt citizenship behaviors that directly benefit those present in their organization, but rather OCB that directly benefit their organization. Some authors have shown results congruent with our findings. Indeed, Huang, You, and Tsai (2012) found a significant relationship between affective commitment and OCBO but not with OCBI. Williams and Anderson (1991, as cited in Huang, You, and Tsai 2012) also obtained the same results.

A potential explanation for these non-significant results could come from social exchange theory (Blau 1964). This theory, adapted to the organizational context, suggests that, as previously mentioned, if employees perceive being well treated by their organization, they will feel obligated and adopt more positive attitudes toward it. However, OCBI, although beneficial for the functioning of the organization, are, above all, beneficial for colleagues and therefore indirectly beneficial for the organization, unlike OCBO, which directly targets the organization. However, Meyer et al. (2002) as well as Vandenberghe, Bentein, and Stinglhamber (2004) have shown that affective commitment toward a particular target predicts more strongly positive behaviors and attitudes toward the same target, compared to general affective commitment. On this basis, Lavelle et al. (2009) investigated the difference between the impact of affective work group commitment and affective organizational commitment on OCB. They demonstrated that affective commitment toward the organization has a greater impact on OCBO than affective commitment toward the work group, the latter influencing OCBI. As our study focused only on affective commitment toward the organization, the non-significance of the relationship between affective commitment, altruism, and courtesy in our model can therefore be explained by the elements put forward in these studies. Indeed, OCB directed toward individuals (OCBI) would rather come from an affective commitment toward a similar target, such as the working group (Huang, You, and Tsai 2012).

Limitations, Strengths, and Future Perspectives

Our study has several limitations, leading us to interpret its findings with caution. The first major limitation is the cross-sectional design, which precludes any inference of causality

among the variables. Therefore, future studies should aim at replicating the findings of the present study by using longitudinal designs with repeated measures to confirm the direction of causality in our model. A second limitation concerns our sample. Although a heterogeneous sample can have many advantages, it is undoubtedly a potential source of bias. In fact, the individuals composing our sample come from many different organizations. Although we have included some covariates (i.e., diploma, seniority in the company, seniority in the function, managerial responsibilities, and company size), other factors specific to organizations, such as organizational climate or human resources practices, could have influenced the investigated associations, making it impossible to guarantee that the relationships were isolated from spurious influences (Bollen 1989). Third, as we used self-reported data, common method variance may have biased our results (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff 2012). Nevertheless, considering that the single-factor model showed a poor fit to the data, this common method bias was partially treated (i.e., Harman's single-factor test; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff 2012).

Despite these limitations, our research also has several strengths. The first is that we tested a triple mediation model that has never been investigated in the literature before. Our study extends previous research focusing on OCB and intention to quit by proposing a more comprehensive model. The second strength of our study is that it is in line with theories/models largely acknowledged in the literature (e.g., the self-categorization and social identity theory, Tajfel and Turner 1986; social exchange theory, Blau 1964; norm of reciprocity, Gouldner 1960). The third is the fact that our study responds to the call for more research based on holistic and systemic visions of justice and examination of the effect of overall justice on workplace outcomes (e.g., Mohammad et al. 2019; Rodell, Colquitt, and Baer 2017).

Besides replication of this study through a longitudinal design in order to investigate causal relationships between different variables, future research could also investigate the model proposed here within a collectivist culture. Indeed, we might consider that our results would have been different if they had been tested in such a culture. Although the norm of reciprocity is a universal principle (Gouldner 1960), there is strong evidence in the literature supporting the existence of cultural differences in the degree of application of this norm (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro and Shore 2007; Shore and Coyle-Shapiro 2003). Therefore, it may be that attitudes and behaviors such as affective commitment and OCB would be more present in societies with a collectivist tendency than in those with an individualistic tendency (Huang, You, and Tsai 2012). Moreover, it would also be interesting to further investigate the relationships between organizational commitment and OCB. Indeed, our results indicate that affective commitment to the organization has no effect on individual-oriented OCB (i.e., altruism and courtesy). Therefore, it would be interesting to replicate this study to see if affective commitment to another target, such as the working group or colleagues, will affect OCBI and also OCBO.

Practical Implications

In order to get workers to engage in OCBO and decrease their intention to quit, our study shows that employers can act in different ways. Indeed, our research highlights the importance of good congruence between the values of the workers and those of the organization in which they work. However, it should be noted that promoting such congruence is not so simple, because values are not very flexible. Therefore, most employers assess this congruence as early as during the employee selection process (Cable and Judge 1997). Others rely on the socialization process to promote a certain congruence and try to get newcomers to adhere to the values of the organization (Cable and Parsons 2001). According to Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson (2005), the best way to promote congruence is to act directly on concepts influencing it, rather than on congruence itself.

According to our study, acting on the perception of overall justice would be a way of promoting congruence. Many authors have emphasized the importance of treating employees fairly and equitably (e.g., Brockner 2006; Choi 2008). Considering its benefits, we would expect managers to regularly practice or apply principles of fairness. However, these principles are often overlooked. Brockner (2006) explored reasons that cause managers to resist embracing process fairness. One of them is that managers tend to overestimate their ability to treat their teams fairly. However, such skills are undoubtedly part of managerial skills. Therefore, organizations could add this topic to the various training courses that managers can receive, particularly in matters of planning, communication, and implementation of decisions.

Another way to increase OCBO and decrease intention to quit is to act on organizational identification. Employers can, for example, develop employees' identification by creating a sense of pride and belonging to the organization. This can certainly involve the communication of values but also the goals and ambitions of the organization through newsletters or events (Scott and Lane 2000). The process of organizational socialization also plays a central role in the development of identification, a process in which the goals and values can also be communicated.

Employers wishing to strengthen OCBO and decrease workers' intention to quit can also focus their actions on developing affective commitment, by, for example, implementing a mentoring process within their organization (e.g., Craig et al. 2013; Payne and Huffman 2005) and fostering workers' social networks beyond their functional work units (e.g., Morrison 2002). Training and development are also key ingredients in fostering affective commitment (e.g., Vance 2006). The investment in training and development that builds knowledge and skill translates into self-efficacy, self-esteem, and, therefore, employee commitment.

Declarations

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Informed Consent

The author has obtained informed consent from all participants.

Conflict of Interest

The author declares that there is no conflict of interest.

Ethics Approval

Approval was obtained from the ethical committee of the faculty of psychology of the researchers' university. The procedures used in this study adhere to the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki.

Data Availability

The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

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