Review of Literature

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature broadens knowledge about the subject matter and they provide a foundation for a new research. It seeks to describe, review, evaluate, clarify and summarize the content of earlier studies. Literature review helps to avoid reinventing the wheel by identifying the gap in the literature, to identify information, ideas and methods that could be relevant to the research, to carry on from where others have already reached to construct on the platform of existing knowledge and ideas.

The purpose of this study is to review the existing literature and research works on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour and summarize the same, followed by the theoretical frame work.

2.1 ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour is an individual's conduct at work place, recently emerging as an important human behaviour. An individual or employee voluntarily helps or assists co-workers at work place without expecting any reward for such behaviour. Global competition stresses the importance of innovation, adaptability to newer technology, flexibility, awareness and cooperativeness on the part of an employee for a stable organizational success. Spontaneous willingness on the part of employees to work beyond the normal job requirements helps an organization to further its progress and attain its goal in an ever varying situation. The productive, voluntary work behaviour of an employee which is beneficial to the organizations well-being and profitability can be termed as OCB (Organizational Citizenship Behaviour). These behaviours are not restricted to the individual's defined job role and are contributed by the employee as a result of his personal choice in addition to his normal duties. Presently jobs in organizations have moved away from the earlier day's definition of tasks and responsibilities and have evolved into much more undefined and ambiguous roles. With an increasingly competitive job market, employees are expected to contribute more and more. Generally, minimal efforts put in by individual results in receiving minimal results. Everything of real value will come through with added efforts. In order to derive such extra contributions by employees which add to the overall benefit of the organization, the same

should be met with rewards and incentives, which will encourage OCB. Further, as a necessity organizations have been forced to seek and retain employees who are sincere and willing to contribute more regardless of their formal job description. Studies reveal that Employee behaviours like Organizational Citizenship Behaviour are vital and crucial for the survival of the organization. (Kernodle & Noble, 2013; Sahafi et al., 2013; Chi-Cheng, MengChen & Meng-Shan, 2011; Yaghoubi, Salehi & Moloudi, 2011; McAllister et al., 2007; Khalid & Ali, 2005; Turnipseed & Rassuli, 2005; Jahangir, 2004; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

The concept of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour was first formally articulated by Chester Barnard (1938) as the willingness on the part of individuals in organizations to cooperate. He defined it as a voluntary service offered genuinely by an employee without anticipating any reward in return. Dennis Organ and his colleagues (Bateman & Organ, 1983, Smith, Organ & Near, 1983) coined the term "Organisational Citizenship Behavior (OCB's). Further developing the concept, Organ defined OCB in (1988) as 'individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the proper reward system, and in the combined, promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation' (Organ, 1988: 4). According to Shahin et al. (2014), voluntary behaviour is not part of job descriptions and is not an employment commitment. It is a kind of behaviour that does not lead to reward and failure to display it will not lead to punishment (Daly, Owya & Alloughani, 2014) and that it cooperatively promotes the successful functioning of the organization".

In 1938 Barnard's, impression of the "enthusiasm to cooperate" has directed major attention from management towards that primary of job performance other than formal role requirement or task performance which has significant impact on the capacity of an organization to achieve its long term goals. In today's unstable worldwide economy, every organisation desires its members to not only fulfil their prescribed activities and commitments alone, but also initiate to help their colleagues. Katz (1964) and Katz & Kahn (1966) explored the behavioural requirements necessary for organizational working as creative and spontaneous activity aimed at achievement of organizational objectives, but that go beyond normal role requirements, thus leading to superior conditions for development of OCB construct. Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

refs to employee behaviour that is extra-role (Organ,1988), in contrast to intra-role behaviour (Seyed et al., 2012), that promotes effective organisational performance (Sevi, 2010; Vondey, 2010; Yalmiz & Tasdan, 2009) and that is not clearly recognized by an organisation's reward system (Organ, 1988, 1990; Awwad & Agti, 2011) Today, these behaviours are considered as inseparable element of performance management and have entered various organisational aspects (Jahanshahi et al., 2011). Katz 1966, argued that an organization unable to depend upon employee extra-role behaviour is 'a very fragile social system' (p. 132) that will 'soon grind to a halt' (1964, p. 269).

While expanding and refining this idea, several authors have made significant contributions thereafter to describe employees' positive and cooperative gestures as those extra role behaviours that are instrumental to the organizational effectiveness (Katz & Kahn, 1978, 1966). In addition, the anxiety for the cooperative efforts on part of employees in terms of sharing information among them to make the organisation function smoothly prefigures that willingness of individuals to occupy in spontaneous and cooperative motions are influential for the strength of organizations (Waltz & Niehoff, 2000) and is voluntary, going beyond the influence of the formal incentive mechanism (Turnipseed & Wilson, 2009; Organ, 1990).

Bolino et al. (2010); Bolino & Turnley (2005); Bateman and Organ (1983); Bolino (1999), express those who engage in OCB's as "good soldiers". Successful organizations need employees who will contribute more than their common job duties, and deliver performance outside expectations. Employees engaging in "virtuous citizenship" behaviours benefit others in their team, volunteer for additional work, avoid needless conflicts, respect the rules and regulations and gracefully accept occasional work (Cho & Johanson, 2008). According to Jung & Yoon (2012) organizational behaviours such as reduced workplace absenteeism, turnover intentions and extraordinary behaviour at workplace are associated with organizational commitment. The same sentiments have been echoed by Jain & Cooper (2012) who found that organizational citizenship behaviour leads to organizational commitment. OCB is regarded as one of the most important attitudes that influences employees' behaviour (Pourkiani, Farokhian & Gheisari, 2014), will encourage for organizations' effectiveness (Gholami et al., 2015; Rasheed et al., 2013), employee performance (Asiedu, Sarf, & Adje, 2014; Chiang &

Hsieh, 2012), group performance (Sevi, 2010), and organizational commitment (Zayas-Ortiz et al., 2015; Peterson, 2004). In an organisation, the behaviour and attitude of the employees may positively or negatively influence the perception of the customers on the quality of services offered (Yaffe & Kark, 2011).

According to Farahbod et al. (2012), managers can build up organizational behaviour of his employees by promoting a positive work environment which will in due course develop a feeling of commitment and satisfaction and generating employees' loyalty. Yahya et al. (2011) also affirmed that employees who perform OCB are prepared to do extra tasks without anticipating anything from their organizations, yet they will be happy with the development of their organization. According to McKenna (2012), maintaining punctuality, helping others and volunteering for extra activities that are not required are the characteristic of OCB.

The linkage between OCB and the employee-employer bond is the importance that Organisational Citizenship Behavior theory harmonies to the exchange relationship between employees and employers and to thoughts of reciprocity and equity. A basic foundation of OCB theory is that employees engage in OCB only when they identify their employment relationship as one based on social exchange (Elstad, Christophersen & Turmo, 2011; Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1990). Organizational Citizenship Behaviour cannot be invoked by formal rewards or incentives (Yu-Chen Wei, 2014; Podsakoff & Mac Kenzie, 1997).

According to Organ, OCB's, enhance the effectiveness of the performance of organization. It is established that when employees complete multirole tasks that help co-workers, supervisors, and the organization to achieve results, organizations advantage in the form of enhancements in productivity and overall performance (Wright, 2008). Given the rationality for a significant relationship between OCB and organizational effectiveness (Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Organ, 1988; Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), it has been observed that employee's extra efforts in the form of citizenship behaviour allow supervisors to devote more time in planning organizational activities, promote the best utilization of organizational resources, enhances co-workers' and managerial productivity, make organization a better place to work and thereby resulting in better functioning and smooth running of the organization.

Engaged and committed employees are positive and spontaneous, they tend to exhibit positive attitudes and proactive behaviours at work place (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008) with low absenteeism, helpful attitude towards co-workers and observance to company rules etc. (Organ, 1988). (Katz and Kahn, 1978; Katz, 1964; Barnard, 1938) in their study state that it is generally believed that organizations could not survive unless employees were willing to occasionally engage in OCB. In fact, increased employee satisfaction and employee retention, are some other contributions of OCB towards increased organizational performance and efficacy (Chahal & Mehta, 2010; Khalid & Ali, 2005; Podaskoff & Mackenzie, 1997).

According to Jahanshahi et al. (2010); Zareie et al. (2006) in order to achieve high efficiency and profitability, organizations should formulate and implement various strategies. To do this, they should have characteristics of organizational citizenship behaviour such as sacrifice, dutifulness, respect, participation, loyalty and tolerability between employees.

There is no general agreement on the various dimensions of OCB. According to Okurame (2011), there are five dimensions which form the structure of OCB. The five dimensions of OCB include: conscientiousness, altruism, politeness, sportive, and community virtue. In future, this study adopts the collection of Organ's initial explanation of Organizational Citizenship Behavior with five dimensions and each dimension is conferred more in detail here under.

Conscientiousness

Diligence is the behavior aspect of an individual being thorough, careful and meticulous in the job he undertakes, it implies an intention to perform a task well. Conscientious people are efficient and well organized and are not the easy-going or disorderly type. They display an inclination to demonstrate self-discipline, act dutifully, and aim to achieve something. It is the quality of being well planned, organized, spontaneous and generally being dependable.

Conscientiousness is used to point out that an individual is organized, responsible and hard-working. In short, it refers to the meticulous job performance of the particular individual. Organ (1988) defined it as commitment to the job which exceed prescribed

requirements, like working extended hours, and volunteer to perform additional jobs in addition to his assigned duties. Conscientiousness is an optional behaviour that goes well beyond the minimum role requirement level of the organisation, such as abiding to the prescribed rules and regulations, avoiding extra breaks during work hours, working extended work hours (Mac Kenzie et al., 1993). According to Law, Wong & Chen (2005), conscientiousness comprises of behaviors that goes outside the minimum role requirements of the organisation. Individuals who are conscientious are goal oriented and are driven by success and achievement. They always go with the social activities, are law abiding and not anti-social. According to Daly et al. (2014) Conscientiousness is a behaviour that are easily accepted by managers as employees are inclined to be encouraging, dedicated and fair in their act. More conscientiousness for an employee means more responsibility and less supervision by the managers (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Begum, Zehou & Sarker (2014) viewed conscientiousness as a behaviour that indicates employees' acceptance and observance to the rules and regulations of the organisation and following the given procedures to achieve organizational goals even when they are not under the supervision of a superior.

Altruism

Altruism is the opposite of selfishness. The word was coined in the 19th century by a French philosopher Auguste Comte in French, as altruism, for an antonym of egoism. It means selflessness and concerns for the welfare of others. It is an act of individual performing an action sacrificing their own happiness and time for the benefit of another individual, without expecting any favour in return. Altruism can be called basically helping or helpfulness (Organ, 1997).

Altruism consists of voluntary actions that help others with an organizationally relevant job such as voluntarily helping orientation of a new employee, sharing sales strategies, teaching other employees useful knowledge or skills, showing them how to complete difficult tasks (Borman et al., 2001). Bukhari et al. (2009), refer to altruism as a selfless behaviour for the well- being of others. Steinberg (2010) offers a definition for altruism as "intentional and voluntary actions that aim to enhance the well-being of another person in the absence of external rewards".

Smith, Organ & Near (1983) defined humanity as voluntary behaviors where an employee provides assistance to an individual with a particular problem to finish his or her task under unfamiliar situations. It refers to a member helping other members of the organisation in their work. Podsakoff et al. (2000) has established that altruism is significantly related to performance evaluations and similarly, positive affectivity. Altruistic employees are concerned in the sustainability of a good environmental organisation as they are willing to reveal their capability and time in helping new employees to adjust and understand the performance of the task (Philip, Kumar & Choudhary, 2012).

Courtesy

Most of us want and expect our work place to be congenial and cooperative. In the absence of such an atmosphere many of the employees and managers experience lack of courtesy and respect from co-workers which result in stress at work place. Courtesy or gestures are demonstrated in the interest of preventing creations of troubles for co-workers (Organ, 1997). A courteous employee avoids creating problems for co-workers which will reduce intergroup conflict so managers do not fall into a pattern of crisis management (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Courtesy has been defined as discretionary behaviours that aim at preventing work-related conflicts with employees (Law et al., 2005). The element is a form of helping behaviour, but one that works to prevent from raising problems. It also includes the precise definition of being polite and considerate of others (Organ et al., 2006). Examples of courteous behaviours are asking fellow employees if they would like to have a cup of coffee while the individual getting for oneself, arranging additional copies of the meeting agenda for your teammates, and giving a coworker sufficient notice when you modify something that will affect their activity.

Some of the suggestions to improve courteous behaviour of employees are celebrating birthdays and wedding anniversaries of employees at work place. Even employers can honor employees for their long service in the organization by gifting a memento. Employees at work place can demonstrate courtesy by taking interest in the

health and well-being of co-workers. At times inviting co-workers for a lunch or other social functions demonstrates genuine interest in them and which will undoubtedly contribute for the commitment of the employees.

Civic Virtue

Civic virtue is the nurturing of habits of individual living that are claimed to be significant for the success of society. Civic virtue at work place is the dedication of workers to the common welfare of their colleagues at the cost of his own interest. Civic virtue is a voluntary behaviour on the part of an individual that indicates that as an employee he responsibly participates in, is involved in, or concerned about the life of the company (Lam, Liang & Ashford, 2011; Podsakoff et al., 1990). The aspect signifies a high level interest in or commitment to the organization. According to Maria et al. (2014) the synchronization of activities among members of the functioning group may also get better when employees voluntarily attend and actively take part in meetings, as evidence of civic virtue. When employees have a cooperative character, willing to avoid problems and to abstain from complaining about trivial matters, giving the model of putting the interests of the organization or working group ahead of their own interest, the sense of loyalty and commitment is strengthened. This behaviour shows willingness to participate actively in decision-making events, to observe organisation's environment for threats and opportunities, to pay attention for organization's best interest. According to Hutahayan et al. (2013) the best way to perk up OCB is by improving the level of conscientiousness and civic virtue of employees in organizations. Civic virtue could be viewed as a principled behaviour in which employees' ethical norms perceptions is positively related to OCB (Rich, Lepine & Craford, 2010). Rehan & Islam (2013) argued that civic virtue is positively related with organizational commitment in the sense of the benefit it provides to employees and customers. Rich, Lepine & Craford (2010), found that civic virtue consist of employees involvement in the welfare of the organisation by giving ideas to improve its image which will enable to improve its effectiveness and employees reasonable outputs. These behaviours reflect an employee's recognition of being a part of organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship at work place refers to being polite to co-workers, not showing off that you know everything at work place, listening to supervisors and not blaming others if you are unable to perform a job well. Sportsmanship is also not cheating and taking advantage of others weakness. Sportsmanship also views mistakes committed as opportunities to learn and build up new skills and strategies. Sportsmanship marks the quality of employees who are willing to tolerate difficult situations and state of affairs at workplace that are intended to improve the organisation, refraining from making unnecessary complaints and criticisms. Sportsmanship has been defined as a readiness on the part of the employee that indicates the employee's acceptance of lower ideal conditions prevailing in the organization without complaining and blowing problems out of proportion. Normally any change in the prevailing working condition and environment is resisted by the employees initially. Organ et al. (2006) further define sportsmanship as an employee's "ability to roll with the punches" even if one does not like or correspond with the changes that are taking place within the organization. Exhibition of Sportsmanship qualities by the employees conserve time and energy of supervisors by reducing the number of complaints from employees. In other words, Sportsmanship demonstrates the readiness to tolerate minor and brief inconveniences and perform their job without expressing grievances, complaints, appeals, accusations, or protest by employee, thus conserving managerial energies for task accomplishment and reducing the burdens of managers (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Organ, 1990).

The above discussion throws light on the various dimension of Organizational citizenship behaviour and that OCB plays a very significant role for an organization to be successful. Therefore, it becomes essential for every organization to create an environment and provide opportunities for the employees and encourage them to contribute beyond their normal call of duty.

This necessitates identification of how to stimulate Citizenship behaviours in employees at work place. This section throws light on the accessible literatures in the study area. The following section presents the background of factors influencing Organizational Citizenship Behaviour namely Job Content, Organizational Justices

namely Distributive Justice, Practical Justice & Interactional justice, Formal Mentoring Support, Career Growth prospects, Organizational Climate, practices of Human Resource Management and Intention to Stay, in relation with OCB (Organizational Citizenship Behaviour).

Initially, the topic of OCB did not evince a major impact on the field. Reviews indicate that quite a few factors influence the OCB of employees namely, such as extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995), pro-social organizational behaviours (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), Organizational Spontaneity (George & Jones, 1997; George & Brief, 1992), Contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, 1993; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994), Leader Member Exchange (Teoh, 2013; Yunus et al., 2010; Ilies, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007), Empowerment (Teoh, 2013; Jin-Liang & Hai-Zhen, 2012; Bhatnagar & Sandhu, 2005), Competency (Teoh, 2013; Markus, Thomas & Keith, 2005), Organization Commitment (Randhawa & Kuldeep Kaur, 2014; Allameh, Amiri & Ali Asadi 2011), Job Content (Marjorie Armstrong-Stassen, 2008; Michael Robinson, 2005), Organizational Culture (Chamdan Purnama, 2013; Mohanty, 2012; Chamdan Purnama, 2013), TQM (Firmansyah et al, 2014; Javad Mehrabi, 2013; Jung & Hong, 2008), Career Growth Prospects (Fiona Patterson, 2013; Ahmad, Sarfraz 2012; David Okurame, 2011), Procedural Justice (Achmad Sani 2013, Ung Hee Lee et al., 2013), Transformational Leadership (Nasra & Heilbrunn, 2015; Ung Hee Lee, 2013), Organizational Justice (Herman, 2013; Mohammad Roohi et al., 2012; Ali Noruzy, 2011), Formal Mentoring Support (Son & Kim, 2016; Eby et al., 2015; David Okurame, 2011), HRM Practices (Dikshit, 2014; Elise & Sophie, 2013; Benjamin, 2012), Job involvement (Zhang, 2014; Talat et al., 2011; Chiu, 2006).

Studies also reveal that there are a number of benefits which an organization gain due to OCB exhibited by the employees. Organization Performance (Muhammad Aslam Khan, 2010, Mac Kenzie & Podsakoff, 1993; Podsakoff & Scott, 1997), Job Satisfaction (Pavalache-Ilie, 2014; Dina Shragay & AharonTziner, 2011; David & Thomas, 2008), Intention to stay (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010; Chen, 2001), Performance orientation (Dikshit, 2014; Jung & Hong, 2008). Employee engagement (Sangya & Rabindra, 2014; Dorothea, 2013; Rurkkhum & Bartlett, 2012), Organizational Effectiveness (Yen &

Niehoff, 2004; Koys, 2001), has increased significantly during the past few years. The concept of OCB does not entirely relate to manufacturing sector alone, it extends into service industry also such as banking, insurance, hospital and hospitality services, communication, marketing etc. The growth of OCB research also extends into other interrelated organizational domains, such as HRM, labour relations and welfare, leadership development and strategic management etc. Understanding the factors that have an effect on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour would facilitate an organization to focus more on those factors that influences employees Organization Citizenship Behaviour. Therefore, this study considers the factors Job Content, Organizational Justice, Organizational Climate, Human Resource Management Practices, Career Growth Prospects, Formal Mentoring Support that influence the OCB of employee. The studies related to the above mentioned variables are discussed in detail in the following section.

2.2 JOB CONTENT

A job is usually understood to be a means to earn one's living. Job is essential for each and every individual to manage himself and his family financially. Some individuals choose any job they come across, while others choose a particular field in which they are interested in like doctors, engineers, teachers, bankers, lawyers, IT professionals etc. In order to achieve satisfaction from the chosen job an individual has to be satisfied with the job contents**.** Job content in the context of the study relates to the perception an employee holds about his job such as the nature of job allocation, option given to him to choose his job, work load aspect, job rotation, opportunities to utilize his own talents, acceptance of his ideas & initiatives by the management and his contribution to the goal of organization. Job content describes the characteristics and factors that are directly related to individual's job (Murrells & Michael Robinson, 2005), achieving stability between the "fullness" of process of work, accountable, autonomy, and worker's multiplicity of skills, Trist & Bamforth (1951). Michael (2005) expresses that Job content can be a worry for beginners as they enter an organization. Herzberg (1987) submitted that job content aspects were the satisfiers or motivators. He found that on-the-job events considered as attainments, gratitude, responsibility, progression, and growth led to higher job satisfaction. Buckley et al. (1998), found that the application of realistic job

performances that are job specific and job-content loaded serves to reduce the expectations of organizational new recruits. This process results in a lower attrition rate and a more honest attitude toward job satisfaction.

Stress is often mentioned as an issue in job content. In their study, Decker & Borgen (1993) establish that higher stress leads to higher job tension and lower job satisfaction. Job stress is often associated with health risks, including signs for cardiovascular disease. High job stress is consistently associated with poor health among men and women who self-rate their health (Ibrahim et al., 2001).

Job content is affected by the ability of the manager to cope with organizational change, according to a study by Judge et al. (1999). Judge (1993) researched the theory that the more positive the outlook of the individual, the stronger the relationship is observed between job content and voluntary turnover. Tremblay & Roger (2004) noted that assigning challenging job content can be accepted as a signal of providing organizational support and confidence in the minds of an employee. The understanding that their contribution to the organisation is appreciated and that the organization has confidence in them encourages senior workers' readiness to engage themselves in learning and development activities which, in turn, would lessen the risk of job content plateauing. The job content plateau is the situation at which a job becomes routine and uninteresting (Allen et al., 1998), with the possibility of not getting further assignments of enhanced responsibility (Feldman & Weitz, 1988). It has been found that most of the workers master their jobs within a period of three years, after which it is suggested that they be provided with new challenges if the job is to remain satisfying. Jobs and assignments of longer duration in the same position, with too little prospects for possible vertical or horizontal mobility in the hierarchy within the organization, may raise the rate of job content plateau experiences (Bardwick, 1986). Therefore, it is foretold that senior workers who observed their organization as supportive would be less likely to experience job content plateauing than those who lacked such support.

Some studies have pointed to a negative relationship between job plateau and withdrawal intentions, signifying that some employees may prefer immovability and certainty over the stress coupled with frequent mobility (Feldman & Weitz, 1988;

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Judge et al., 2000; Mc Cleese et al., 2007). For instance, Van Dam et al. (2009), suggest that many employees postpone retirement when they predict working in a challenging and rewarding environment.

Generally speaking, reaching a job content plateau is viewed as undesirable and worrying, and is coupled with negative work attitudes, such as decreased job and career satisfaction, which lead to reduced job performance, absenteeism, and voluntary turnover (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008; Allen et al., 2005; Lee, 2003; Chao, 1990). Job content plateauing has been found to be notably connected with reduced job performance (Allen et al., 1998), decreased job satisfaction (Mc Cleese & Eby, 2006; Lee, 2003; Nachbagauer & Riedle, 2002; Allen et al., 1998), decreased career satisfaction (Lee, 2003), reduced organizational commitment (Mc Cleese & Eby, 2006; Nachbagauer & Riedle, 2002), and increased turnover intentions (Lee, 2003; Allen et al., 1998).

The significance of the job content plateau as a contributor to withdrawal decisions may be relevant for elderly workers who can afford to retire early, or for any worker whose job content plateau is linked to a long-term reduction in career prospects (Herrbach et al., 2009; Van Veldhoven & Dorenbosch, 2008). Heilman et al. (2008), suggest that employees may react more negatively to a disappointing organisational background and may likely to choose for voluntary turnover or early retirement when they undergo a job content plateau. Briefly it may acknowledged that the job content plateau may be to blame for the final thrust reason to take early retirement or to shift to a more rewarding work environment. Hence, the job plateau may be a facilitator for moves to detachment from an organizational job.

In order to avoid job plateau, the organisation should define the job content clearly by providing them with challenging tasks and responsibility so that it gives the employees the opportunity to undertake challenging assignments that in turn enhances their knowledge and skills. This gives the employee a feeling that the organization is really concerned about their personal development and in turn they get a sense of satisfaction in their respective job, as the opportunity to use their personal talents and initiatives in the job is provided. The organisation should also provide them with the opportunity for job rotation in order to avoid job content plateau. Therefore, employees

who feel contended with their job content possess a sense of attachment and belongingness towards the organisation and they reciprocate by means of performing more than what is required in their formal job description. This results in exhibiting OCB characteristics.

2.3 ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

Simple meaning of justice is just behaviour or treatment. "Justice is the loveliest, holiest and most perfect word since the vocabulary of human civilization and that its observation is considered the most essential affairs in term of every human perspective" (Farzin et al., 2013). Tabibnia, Satpute & Lieberman (2008) states that evidently employees attach more importance to justice factor at work place. Employees respond either positively or negatively to actions and decisions taken by the management in day today work life. Individual's opinion about the decision as fair or unfair influences his attitude and behaviour. Therefore, an organisation in order to be successful and achieve its goal has to give importance to organizational justice.

The major challenge faced by the present day Organisations, is how to manage the main resource i.e. Human Capital effectively and efficiently. Possible way of successfully managing Human Capital is to ensure that every employee is treated fairly.

Greenberg (1987) is one of the earliest authors to apply Organisational Integrity theory for evaluating the performance. Organizational Justice refers to the perceptions workers hold about the organization as being fair or unfair towards them. These perceptions on justice have been united to important processes such as citizenship behaviours, satisfaction, and performance (Colquitt 2001). Greenberg (1990) explains that the term Organizational Justice refers to personal assessment about the ethical and moral standing of managerial conduct that fairness is being considered in the organization.

Organizational Justice is the term used to describe the role of fairness on the part of management as it directly relates to the work place. Organizational Justice is concerned with the methods in which employees determine they have been treated fairly in their jobs. Present day work force has a thorough knowledge of their rights and responsibilities. They assess the employer's wisdom of justice. They also look forward to the employer to be fair and just at all times. If, they find no sense of justice from their

employer they will not be sincere in their work and responsibilities. The quote below highlights this fact. "Justice denied anywhere diminishes justice everywhere." Martin Luther King. According to Shruti (2013) organisations are relentlessly working upon their utmost limit to retain the best talent and surpass their competitors by doing the identical things in a different way.

According to (Adams, 1965, 1963), the theory of equity is the basis and foundation for organizational justice, which put forward the judgments of equity and inequity are resultant from comparisons between one's self and others based on inputs such as knowledge and efforts, while outcomes are what an individual receives as pay and recognition.

Fairness towards the employees is a most significant aspect for organizations to take a serious thought into - as it directly affects workplace attitudes, behaviours and performance. Practical evidence has supported that Organizational justice is linked with a variety of positive work attitudes and behaviours (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991). The relationships between perceptions of fairness and employee behaviour might be found includes nontraditional types of job behaviour. These non-traditional behaviours are on-the-job behaviors are not frequently caught by traditional job descriptions and thus are more likely to be under personal control (Organ, 1977). One such example of non-traditional job behaviour is organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Organ has recommended that Organzational Citizenship Behaviour should be considered a vital component of job performance because citizenship behaviours are part of the natural and innovative behaviours noted by Katz & Kahn (1966) as being instrumental for effective organisations.

According to Greenberg (1990) research done on organizational justice has focused less on Organizational Behaviour. It is believed that Organizational Citizenship Behaviour can craft an organization more effective across people and over a period (Organ, 1988). The bond between Organizational Justice and OCB has the potential to step up the welfare of an organization and to smoothly handle the negative work attitude of employees. It is essential for an organization to formulate human resource practice that support fair treatment of employees and direct the supervisors in the fair performance of these practices Wan (2011).

There are plentiful researches that have evinced keen interest at the relationship between Organizational Justice and OCB (Young, 2010; Karriker & Williams, 2009; Liu, 2009; Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1990). Almost all of them have proved that there is a positive and remarkable relationship between Organizational Justice and OCB. Moorman, 1991; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; confirmed that Organizational Justice appears to be the key determinant of Citizenship behaviour. Blakely et al. (2005), in a study carried out in different organizations; found that when employees have a positive perception of their superior's fair behaviour, the possibility of OCB increases. Moorman's (1991) research on Organisational Justice and Organisational Citizenship Behavior reveals a fundamental association between the two. Based on a research done by Lambert et al. (2008), they concluded that workers, who have a higher perception of Organizational Justice, show a greater propensity to comprise and contribute in Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. Employees who view their workplace as fair are more satisfied and content with their job, are more committed to the organization, are more likely to rely on their superiors, and show a greater need to maintain their jobs, e.g. Loi, Yang & Diefendorf, 2009. Specifically, research has time and again pointed to a positive relationship between perception of Organizational Justice and OCB, demonstrating higher OCB manifestations among employees who supposed that the organization and its leaders treated them fairly (while the converse relationship also held true). In service industry, Citizenship behaviours are reflected in customer interactions to a very high level and they in turn, enhance the image of the organization in the minds of the customers, thereby increasing customer satisfaction and ultimately benefiting the organization. Organ (1988) observes positive justice perceptions have shown to promote what is known as employee Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB's) or behaviours that go beyond the call of duty. Study by (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001) has found that employees who are treated fairly are more likely to comply with workplace policies, show extra diligence, and behave unselfishly toward others. Employee's perception of Organizational Justice was found to be definitely linked to extra-role behaviours towards the organization as well as the customer. (Lichtenstein et al., 2008). Cohen-Charash et al. (2001), states that Organizational Citizenship Behaviour is one of the most commonly associated outcomes of Organizational Justice.

The justice perception in the workplace is widely recognized as an influential factor in shaping employees attitude at workplace. Employees are more likely to exhibit Organizational Citizenship Behaviours when they recognize that their supervisors personally treat them fairly Wan (2011).

This widespread conclusion is in tune with a string of previous findings across many years (Colquitt et al., 2001; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Moorman, 1991), which significantly determine how workers who notice organizational decision-making and implementation processes as fair consequently benefit the overall efficiency of the organization.

Tyler & Belliveau (1995) argued that fair procedures tend to arouse feelings of loyalty to one's team or group, legitimize the command of leaders, and help to make sure voluntary compliance with the rules. Greenberg (1993) also found that organizations which go against the norms of fair treatment receive negative reactions. Employee with the feeling of unfair organization will show the negative attitude and perform the negative Organisational Citizenship Behavior (Skarlicki et al., 2008) such as pilfering of materials in organization (Greenberg, 1990), performing negligent behaviour, i.e. acquiescence, absenteeism, and omission (Kernan & Hanges, 2002), revenging organization (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), sueing organization (Wanberg et al., 1999) and exhibiting aggressive behaviour in the workplace (Dietz et al., 2003). Employees could relate their performance and consequent treatment with those of their coworkers and often produce envy or frustration that influences their job performance and work engagement (Young & Corsun, 2009; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Employees with negative emotions are more prone to lower self-esteem and are less motivated toward their work because they receive less supervisors' affirmation or supports (Nandedkar & Deshpande, 2012; Vecchio, 2000). The negative emotion may lead to retaliatory behaviours (Stecher & Rosse, 2005). Thus, negative emotions are more likely to make employees engage in workplace deviant behaviours (Shahzad & Mahmood, 2012; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007) and have high turnover intention (Yang et al., 2012) in the working environment.

According to Latham & Pinder (2005) the perceptions of injustice not only reduce constructive outcomes but also increase retaliatory and vengeful behaviour. All the above

stated behaviours affect organizational performance. According to Greenberg, (1990) as for as organizations are concerned, justice is the application of employees' rights as proportionate to their contributions to the organization and the application of a suitable penalty when they violate the rules.

Failure to carry out OCB is less likely than failure to perform a duty in the job plan which may end up in official sanctions or in the sacrifice of incremental rewards provided by the official reward system. As a reaction to supposed unfairness, an employee may refuse to give voluntary behaviours to adjust his contribution part of the equity ratio calculation. (Williams, Pitre & Zainuba, 2002). In contrast, employees who perceive injustice at work, exhibit negative attitudes toward their organizations, suffer from reduced personal welfare and achieve lower levels of daily functioning (Bobocel & Hafer, 2007).

Research literature has consistently shown that perceptions of organizational justice or injustice are a key factor affecting the attitudes and behaviours of individuals in organizations (Cole et al., 2010).

In an organization environment, employees to analyze their relationship with the organisation, use economic exchange and social exchange (Blau, 1964). Reasonably, employees are more likely to be in a mutual social exchange relationship with the organization as OCB is reflected more in social exchange (Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Employees are inclined to swing to more economic exchange views when their perception of justice is low. For example when employees feel that they are not treated in a justice way, they do not take any efforts to perform beyond their formal job description whereas when they are treated fairly they reciprocate with discretionary behaviours (Organ, 1997). As far as Organization Justice is concerned employees in the organization are more likely to view their relationship as social exchange. Thus compared to economic exchange, social exchange has more importance to the use of OCB (Organ, 1988b, 1990; Organ & Konovsky, 1989).

Wan (2011) expresses that the presence of OCB among employees is more likely to enhance succession management and improve organizational performance. However due to monotonous work environment in banking sector, instilling OCB would probably

be more challenging comparatively. Additionally, perception of injustice may further reduce the spirit of OCB and probably result in much discontentment among employees which then translates into undesirable work attitudes, which may affect the bottom line of an organization.

Few studies states that one of the major predictors of Organizational citizenship behaviour is the perception of Organizational justice (Zolfaghari, 2009; Erturk, 2007; Williams, Pitre & Zainuba, 2002; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ & Paine, 1999; Moorman, Blakely & Niehoff, 1998; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Konovsky & Folger, 1991; Moorman, 1991; Farh et al., 1990; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Dittrich & Carrell, 1979).

Moorman (1991) stated that when employees observe a culture of fairness in the organization that leads to global organizational appraisal, the employees respond by displaying OCB. Organizational justice involves fair treatment of employees, which will enhance the level of OCB and will likely encourage the employees to engage in unrewarded, extra role behaviours that would benefit the organization (Eskew, 1993).

The construct 'Organizational Justice' generally refers to three specific components, namely, Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice, and Interactional Justice. Traditionally, the notion of distributive justice is built on a general theory of equality, which offers a broad explanation of the motives underlying the actions of individuals.

2.3.1 Distributive Justice

Defining exactly what distributive justice concept means is very difficult. At times "justice" is defined as conditions of equality that everyone should get the same benefit or reward, regardless of their job contribution, whereas others define "justice" in terms of equity principle, i.e. employees should get benefits in proportion to what they contributed to achieve those benefits. In other words, the harder and better you contribute to the organization, the more you should get as a reward.

The concept of equality in organisations occurred from the social-psychological literature on distributive justice (Deutsch, 1985, 1975; Adams, 1965, 1963). As distributive

justice deals with the perceived fairness of outcomes, it has the prospective to have strong inferences in the organizational context, of which distribution of outcomes is an important part. There is a general agreement among researchers that distributive justice leads to organizational effectiveness and efficiency (Cohen & Spector, 2001; Tang & Sarsfield, 1996).

Distributive Justice affects performance where efficiency and productivity are involved (Cohen & Spector, 2001). Improving perceptions of justice increases performance (Karriker & Williams, 2009). OCB depends on the degree to which an organization is perceived to be distributive just (Karriker & Williams, 2009; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). As organizational actions and decisions are perceived as more just, employees are more likely to engage in OCB.

Perception of fairness about job equity and pay equity by an employee are significantly interrelated with extra role, discretionary behaviour, which are the major characteristics of OCB (Folger, 1993, Dittrich & Carrell 1979). Similarly, Organ & Ryan (1995) state that fairness in pay has a meeting with the factors of OCB namely humanity and general compliance. Moorman (1991) asserted that commitment to citizenship is likely to be limited if the employees perceive unfairness, whereas when employees who perceive equity will contribute continued citizenship. Perceptions of distributive justice are also strongly related to the withdrawal of employees from the organization (Adams, 1965; Austin & Walster, 1974; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Distributive justice is concerned with employees' satisfaction with their work outcomes. Thus, while an actual outcome is professed to be unfair, It is likely to affect the person's emotions (e.g., experience, annoyance, joy, smugness, or guilt) Weiss, Suckow & Cropanzano, 1999, cognitions (e.g., cognitively distort inputs and outcomes of the others. Adams, 1965; Austin & Walster, 1974, ultimately their behaviour (e.g., performance or withdrawal).

2.3.2 Procedural Justice

Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness or equity of the procedure used in making decisions concerning the distribution of rewards such as promotion (Lemons & Jones, 2001). The extent to which employees are treated with politeness, dignity, and

respect by managers when applying formal procedures to determine outcomes and the explanations offered to them that suggest information about why and how procedures were used in a certain way or why consequences were distributed in a certain fashion (Abdallah, 2015). Procedural justice establishes definite principles requiring and governing the roles of participants within the decision making process. Procedural justice seems to be important to maintain institutional legitimacy (Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gillilan, 2007). Study by Folger & Konovsky (1989) shows that procedural justice explains a larger variance in organizational commitment associated to distributive justice.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, the degree to which the individual behaves in ways that are not specified in role descriptions but are beneficial to the organization (Organ, 1988) is related to procedural justice (Farh, Earley & Lin, 1997; Moorman, 1991). Similarly, Procedural justice relates to perceived fairness in the processes through which decisions are reached. No longer is the perceived fairness of outcomes is considered as the only determinant of perceived Organizational justice, but rather, the perceived fairness of the process by which the outcomes are achieved is also important and in some cases even the most important determinant of perceived organizational justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Procedural justice influences Citizenship behaviour, similarly, it enhances a person's trust in his or her supervisor and organization which in turn leads to display of Citizenship behaviour. (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994).

Studies about the association between procedural justice and OCB have found a robust relationship between perceptions of Procedural justice and OCB. Konovsky & Folger (1991) reveal a correlation between Procedural justice and altruism, while (Farh, Podsakoff & Organ (1990) state that Procedural justice accounts for unique variance with respect to altruism dimension of OCB. Likewise, few (Moorman & Byrne, 2005; Le Pine, Erez & Johnson, 2002; Colquitt, et al., 2001; Cohen-Charash & Spector 2001; Farh, Earley & Lin, 1997; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Moorman 1991; Folger, 1987) studies show a positive relationship between procedural justice and four OCB dimensions, namely; Altruism, Courtesy, Sportsmanship, and Conscientiousness. Additionally, Tepper (2001) conceived that the relationship between Procedural Justice and OCB is strong for people who define OCB as extra role than for those who define OCB as in role. Tansky (1993) suggests that Procedural justice and fair

treatment from managers and supervisors seem to be the most significant component for the relationship between justice and OCB. Elsewhere, Robinson & Morrison (2002) have claimed that employees are less likely to engage in civic behaviour if they perceive employers had failed to satisfy employment obligations. Lind & Tyler (1988) in their study state that procedural justice is important in determining factors that are inherent to OCB.

For organizational commitment, trust in supervisors (Folger & Konovsky, 1989), and trust in management and rating supervision (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987) are better predicted by procedural justice. Fair procedures move people to support the needs of the group and enhance Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Moorman & Blakely 1995), and parallel studies found that procedural justice was an antecedent of perceived organizational support, which consequently, fully mediated the relationship to OCB (Moorman et al., 1998, Materson et al., 2000). Even when the outcome of the appraisal is fair, procedures used to arrive at those outcomes may be unfair. Procedural justice has been accepted as the strongest predictor of organizational outcomes. For example, Folger & Konovsky (1989) showed that procedural justice explained a larger variance in organizational commitment compared to distributive justice. Procedural justice is negatively related to turnover intentions (Taylor et al., 1995; Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991).

2.3.3 Interactional Justice

The third notion of justice known as Interactional justice deals with the interpersonal factors that administer procedures (Cropanzano et al., 2007) In other words, it mainly refers to how one person treats another. If a person shares information and avoids any kind of negativity, the interaction is regarded as just. It is observed as the social side of organizational practices or the way the management deals with the receiver of Justice. (Cohen-Charash et al., 2001) Accordingly, Colquitt (2001), Bies & Maog (1986) defined Interactional Justice as being sensitive to the quality of interpersonal treatment which are sensitive and one receives during the performance of organizational procedures.

Williams et al. (2002), Moorman (1991), Greenberg (1990), stated that perception of justice interactional justice which is influential in forecasting Organizational

Citizenship Behavior. Moorman (1991) coped that interactional justice is the sole dimension of fairness that significantly relates to OCB. Giap et al. (2005) emphases that even though there exists a correlation between OCB and Organizational justice the only significant correlation is between altruism and interpersonal justice. This perception indicates that employees would perform extra role work when they feel that they are treated respectfully by their supervisors. Greenberg (1990), observed that employees exhibit vengeful behaviour (commit theft) in order to fulfill contractual obligations if there is no explanation or confessions offered for the unfair treatment.

In accordance with Masterson et al. (2000), study by (Lazar, 2007) proved that interactional justice is related to OCB that is directed at the supervisor. Tansky (1993) affirms that there exists a positive relationship between supervisor relationship and all the five dimensions of OCB.

Additionally, De Coninck (2010) states that in order to increase interactional justice, it is imperative for the supervisor to explain the procedures as well as to take the queries from the employees regarding the process. The supervisor had to determine that the employees perceive that the procedures adopted are impartial. Improved employees trust in supervisor induces employees to respond with increased level of OCB (Konovsky & Pugh 1994) and employees probably engage in civic behaviour if their perception is fair (Robinson & Morrison 2002). Likewise, Erturk (2007) proved that all the justice dimensions are significantly and positivity correlated to supervisor's trust, which has strong positive influence on OCB that benefits the organisation and individual as well. Studies by Giap et al. (2005) and Erturk (2007) indicates that supervisor trust mediates the relationship between Organizational Justice and OCB. Furthermore, Dirks & Ferrin (2007) approves that trust in organisation correlates positively with OCB. Thus Organizational justice is able to produce citizenship behaviours in several cases and citizenship behaviours are the mainstay in many organisations with high Organizational justice

It is proposed that Interactional Justice consists of two specific types of interpersonal conduct: Interpersonal Justice and Informational Justice (Greenberg, 1990; Organ & Moorman, 1993; Colquitt et al., 2001; Bies & Moag, 1986).

Interpersonal Justice

Refers to treatment with politeness, dignity, and respect by those who execute procedures or determine outcomes. Interpersonal treatment includes interpersonal communication (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Greenberg, 1990). Interpersonal justice reflects the degree of which people are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect by authorities. It is important that a high degree of interactional justice exists in a subordinate/supervisor relationship in order to reduce the likelihood of counter productive work behaviour. If a subordinate perceives injustice which are interactional that occurs, earlier the subordinate will hold feelings of resentment toward either the supervisor or institution and will track to even the score (Aryee et al., 2007). A victim of interaction injustice will increase expressions of aggression toward the offender which can manifest in actions of counter productive work behaviour and reduce the effectiveness of organisational communication (Baron et al., 1996).

Abuse directed towards a subordinate from a supervisor often arises from displaced aggression. In this case, the supervisor is reluctant to retaliate against the direct source of mistreatment and will hence abuse a less threatening target such as a subordinate who is unable to retaliate (Marcus et al., 2000).

Informational Justice

Sam Fricchione (2006) categorized Informational justice as concentrations on the explanations given to people that communicate information about why certain procedures were adopted or why outcomes were circulated in a certain style. Where more appropriateness and sufficiency of explanation is predominant, the perceived level of informational justice is higher. It also relates to the extent of adequate explanations given in terms of their timeliness, specificity and truthfulness and sharing of relevant information with employees (Cropanzano et al., & Colquitt, 2001). Sanchez (1999) contended that two-way communication is a vital factor in today's business environment.

Many practical studies observed the association between Organizational Justice and OCB. The findings of the study indicate that there is significant positive impact of various dimensions of Organizational Justice on OCB. However, researchers have generally agreed mainly on three sources of Organizational Justice; distributive,

procedural and interactional justice (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). It has also been found that employee's awareness of various dimensions of justice positively predict employees' OCB. Organizational justice would encourage employees' commitment to the organization and they would demonstrate more emotional attachment to the organization which will result in added OCB to reciprocate the fairness shown the organization.

2.4 FORMAL MENTORING SUPPORT

"The mediocre teacher tells. The good teacher explains. The superior teacher demonstrates. The great teacher inspires."

― William Arthur Ward

"Tell me and I forget, teach me and I may remember, involve me and I learn."

― Benjamin Franklin

Mentoring involves interventional strategy which has the ability to promote certain habits and helps to prevent undesirable ones. Mentoring is a developmental process which helps increase academic achievement, promote self-identity and positive self-image, lessen risky behaviours and facilitate career development. Mentoring process also helps managers in the organization to identify what are the issues and problems faced by junior employees. Through the mentoring programme new recruits get an opportunity to learn from senior employees who can shape the future of the organization by imparting positive aspects about the organization.

Mentoring is normally a formal or informal relationship between two people. It is a developmental relationship between a younger, less experienced individual and an older, more experienced person (Kram, 1985). Formal mentoring relationships are those that are formed through a planned matching of mentors and protégé's by an organization, while the informal types are those that evolve naturally (David Okurame, 2011).

Mentoring is a key developmental practice for individuals in organizations (Noe, Greenberger & Wang, 2002). Generally, mentoring has been described as "the most intense and powerful one-on-one developmental affiliation, involving influence, identification, and emotional involvement" (Wanberg et al., 2003). Mentoring has been recognized as an important influence in professional development in both the public and

private sector organizations. Individuals and organizations make use of mentoring relationships to improve learning along with professional and personal development in the workplace (Wanberg et al., 2003).

Mullen (1994) defined mentoring as a one-on-one relationship between an inexperienced person (i.e., mentee) and a more experienced person (i.e., mentor), and is intended to advance the individual and professional development of the less experienced individual. To distinguish formal and informal mentoring, formal mentoring happens in a organized environment where a third party pairs the mentor and protégé together. While informal mentoring develops naturally and willingly. Most formal mentoring relationships are structured with certain requirements and time frames.

Mentoring can also be defined as a goal-focused process that is aimed toward better knowledge and skill development (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). Thus, formal mentoring can be a strategic learning tool in the organization. Many researchers argued that formal and informal mentoring relationships differ in terms of the surrounding structure (e.g., having guidelines for how often to meet and topics to discuss), the motivation and skills of the mentors, and the willingness of mentors to noticeably support their mentees (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). If mentees in both programs are satisfied with their mentoring relationships, however, they do not differ in terms of important satisfaction, procedural justice, organizational responsibility, promotion fulfillment, and intentions to quit (Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000). Therefore, it suggests that Formal mentoring relationships have the potential to be as beneficial as Informal mentoring relationships in terms of results, but they may not always deliver (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005). Although the purpose of mentoring ranges from socialization of newly hired employees to management development, mentoring typically involves a committed, long-term relationship between a more seasoned senior-level employee and a less experienced employee.

Mentors give their protégés career-related assistance (e.g., sponsorship, coaching, challenging assignments, and high visibility) and psychosocial support (e.g., advice, encouragement) (Noe, 1988; Kram, 1983). Role-modeling may be a third distinct function mentors provide (Johnson & Scandura, 1994; Burke, 1984). Receiving support from a mentor is associated with higher performance ratings, more recognition, greater

compensation, more career opportunities, and more promotions (Hezlett & Gibson, 2001; Burke & Mc Keen, 1997; Chao, 1997; Turban & Dougherty, 1994; Scandura, 1992; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Fagenson, 1989). According to the dynamic process model of formal mentoring developed by Wanberg et al. (2003), mentoring affects proximal outcomes (e.g., satisfaction with the mentoring relationship, protégé change, learning outcomes) and distal outcomes for both mentors (e.g., recognition, job satisfaction) and protégés (e.g., career satisfaction, promotions, performance) (Egan, 2005). Wanberg et al. (2003) also suggested three areas of protégé change (reasoning, skill base, and effective learning) that were derived from Kraiger, Ford & Salas's (1993) cataloging of learning outcomes that arise out of training intervention. Among these, learning informal mentoring would be focused on cognitive and affective learning.

Developing and implementing a formal mentoring program involves making decisions about program objectives, policies, guidelines, and activities (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005). Formal mentoring relationships are arranged or facilitated by third parties (i.e., HR department) other than the mentor and protégé. It is known that about one third of large companies in the United States are estimated to have formal mentoring programs (Axel, 1999). According to McCauley & Hezlett (2001), characteristics for successful mentoring programs are categorized around five themes: (a) organizational support for the program (b) clarity of purpose, expectations and roles (c) participant choice and involvement (d) careful selection and matching procedures, and (e) continuous monitoring and evaluation. In formal mentoring, mentors perform five specific career development functions—exposure, protection, coaching, sponsorship, and challenging assignments. The common goal of mentoring is to help protégés progress in their careers. The four psychosocial functions of a mentor are counseling, friendship, role modeling, and acceptance/confirmation (Kram & Isabella, 1985; Kram, 1983).

Successful mentor-protégé relationships can lead to increases in career mobility, job and career satisfaction, compensation, and performance (Egan, 2005; Kram, 1985; Ragins, 1997). While a number of authors have offered advice or shared their experiences about running formal mentoring programs, very little research has evaluated how different program characteristics affect program effectiveness (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005; Wanberg et al., 2003). Although evaluations of formal mentoring programs have

demonstrated positive results (Gaskill, 1993; Noe, 1988; Portwood & Granrose, 1986), there is some evidence that protégés participating in formal mentoring programs benefit less than those who have informal mentoring relationships (Chao, Walz & Gardner, 1992). Formal mentoring offers valuable attributes for all involved in the process: organization, mentor, and mentee. The advantages of formal mentoring platform comprise competitive advantage, retention, development and growth of less experienced employees, and producing a new generation of employees that have the necessary skills to shift the organization to the next level (Scandura & Williams, 2001).

Some benefits of a formal mentoring program include competitive advantage, retention, assisting in the development and growth of less experienced employees, and construction up a new generation of employees that have the basic skills to take the organization to the subsequent level (Scandura & Williams, 2001). A formal mentoring plan promotes upward advantages for the organization, including increased communication, as well as individual and professional progress through knowledge sharing (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Chao et al., 1992, Ragins, 1989).

The positive benefits from mentoring can influence employees to be committed beyond job requirements. Formal Mentoring support would definitely motivate employees to go past the minimal level of attendance, complying with the rules and regulations at work place and regularly keeping themselves update on job activities.

Central to the social discussion of the process through which prescribed mentoring support may impact OCB and its dimensions is the norm of reciprocity – a tendency for employees to respond positively to favourable treatment received from their organizations (Eisenberger et al., 1997). Employees form an overall perception concerning the extent to which their organizations value their contributions (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Such perceptions are derived from company policies considered beneficial, and from actions of agents of the organization who are regarded as representatives of the organization itself (Levinson, 1965; Goulder, 1960). On the basis of the norm of mutuality, the workforce perception that an organization cares for its employees through favourable actions by its agents generates a need to respond with equally favourable actions. Mentors are agents of an organisation; their actions have the potential to be viewed as

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proof of the organization's care and concern for employees. As such, employees who receive mentoring support should feel thankful to reciprocate a mentor's actions, not essentially straight towards the mentor, but towards the organization through pro-social behaviour such as OCB (David Okurame, 2011). This position is supported by social exchange theorists (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 1997) who argue that the acceptance of resources from another person within an organization, is highly valued by employees and incurs an obligation to repay. According to Kram (1985), psychosocial and career development roles signify two essential categories of resources provided by mentors. The psychosocial tasks of mentors include serving as role models, extending friendship, and counseling on personal disputes that may weaken the productivity of an employee. This boosts a protégé's self-efficacy; and enhances a sense of ability and self-worth, as well as in-role efficiency (Ramaswami & Dreher, 2007). Career functions involve assignment of challenging duties, sponsorship, protection and other activities that improve the possibility that protégé's will invest in their own career.

Mentors are agents of socialization within organizations, facilitating confident work behavior and training skills, which employees can apply in various professional conditions (Okurame, 2009; Allen et al., 2004; Kram, 1985). Mentors provide proper direction towards workplace values (Payne, 2006), generate opportunities for employees to make productive use of knowledge, and make available more incentives for them to be active members of their organization (Dawley et al., 2008; Kram, 1985; Hunt & Michael, 1983). These are numerous sources of support which uphold the theory that the value of the benefits received in a mentoring relationship creates a greater commitment to give in return among individuals with high levels of mentoring support. Given the assumption of the norm of reciprocity, resources extended by the mentor aimed at meeting the requirements of employees should lead to an increased reciprocation commitment. On the strength of this argument, employees who get mentoring support in the formal mentoring programme of their organizations will exhibit significant levels of OCB.

Consistent with the view that an employee who receives mentoring support in a mentoring relationship will determine considerable levels of OCB, authors of the few studies (i.e. Kwan et al., 2011; Allen et al., 2009; Donaldson et al., 2000) on this issue found that employees who benefitted high levels of overall mentoring functions produced

more Organizational Citizenship Behavior. This supports the argument that mentoring support will forecast overall Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Moreover, research has shown that mentoring creates better opportunities, builds faith within an organization, and enhances employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Okurame, 2009, 2008; Scandura, 1992; Whitely et al., 1991; Fagenson, 1989). These variables which mentoring engenders have been found in several studies (e.g. cited in Chahal, 2010; Jahangir, Akbar & Haq, 2004) to be crucial predictors of OCB.

Specifically, it is expected that sportsmanship, conscientiousness, courtesy, altruism and civic virtue will each be positively linked to formal mentoring support in various ways. For example, official mentoring support may be expected to relate positively with sportsmanship, since employees who have been assisted by mentors are more likely to accept work changes without complaining as their mentors make it appear less challenging (Okurame, 2011), and because they may view the receiving of such inconveniences as a way to repay the organization for providing them mentoring assistance. Likewise, formal mentoring support may be expected to relate positively with conscientiousness, because careful observance to an organization's rules and procedures could be viewed by protégé's as an input to be utilized in paying back the organization for providing mentoring resources. Thus, formal mentoring support should make employees go beyond minimal levels of attendance, obeying work rules and staying up-to-date on their work activities. Formal mentoring support would also be likely to relate positively with altruism and courtesy, for the reason that it affords a protégé´ a chance to assist other people with support in the same manner that they have benefited from their mentors. These extents, which represent the willingness to go beyond job requirements to providing selfless assistance to co-workers, may also be seen as means of "giving back", because it prevents the occurrence of work-related problems in an organization. Donaldson et al. (2000) reported that relationship quality relates to Organizational Citizenship Behavior, and newly, Kwan et al. (2011) found that quality of mentoring bond moderates the association between components of mentoring functions and OCB.

Therefore, the study summarizes that Organizations choose mentoring programs as part of the On-boarding process for new recruits and trainees to settle in the organization. It also enables existing experienced and competent staff to pass on their

proficiency to the new entrants. Organisations also realize that mentoring helps to pass on the values, vision and mission of the management. It also helps exchange of information and pass on knowledge between members within the organization

Thus, formal mentoring support enables employees improve on minimal levels of attendance, adhere to job rules and regulations and staying up-to-date about their job requirements. Formal mentoring support is also positively related with altruism and courtesy, for the reason that it provides a protégé´ a chance to give assistance and guidance in the same manner that they have benefited from their mentors. Such attitude prevents the occurrence of work-related problems in an organization. Donaldson et al. (2000) reported that relationship quality relates to OCB, and more recently, Kwan et al. (2011) found that quality of mentoring relationship moderates the association between components of mentoring functions and OCB.

Organisations may benefit through formal mentoring programs implemented as a human resource intervention in the socialization of new comers. Formal Mentoring programs help organizations to increase employees' OCB. Also it is found to be important that formal mentoring support is positively related to emotional commitment and organizational aimed OCB. The perceived mentoring support would be optimistically associated to employee satisfaction, which in turn would be linked with the act of citizenship behavior.

2.5 CAREER GROWTH PROSPECTS

"Helping your employees grow will ultimately help the organization grow" (Sean Conrad, 2013). Today's employees are more conscious in career than ever, they are well studied and are aware of the latest labour rules and service conditions prevailing all over the world. They demand more in terms of personal growth and development. Organizations that fail to meet the basic needs of its employees will be losing them in the long run.

Employees attach their perceptions of opportunities for growth and development to promotions, increased pay, and progression prospects. In other words, career development and promotions are what employees see as giving them growth and development opportunities. This may help individual worker to gain new skills, ability

and knowledge. Leadership Insight (2010) the talent and career management expert, in their research found that organizations that provide career development occurrences are 6 times more likely to engage their employees than organizations that do not provide similar opportunity.

The human aspiration for growth is perhaps manifested most in the area of career growth prospects. Most organisations give importance to career growth prospects in their mission statements or in their performance review statements. The notion that a career "is just a career" has misplaced as companies are extending career development programs to help meet employees' needs. The process of organizational career development is essential for both employees and employers. Employees constantly need to upgrade their skills and competencies to meet the recent demands whereas organizations must be ready with those employees who can handle the pressure ably and stop the risk of falling victim to the changing situation. Therefore, understanding the importance of career development is very essential for both the parties.

Various studies reveals the importance of career growth prospects (Okurame, 2014 & 2012; Wei, Liu, Wu, 2010; and Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1993) Career growth prospects, has in essence captured the imagination of growth-minded employees in their heart and mind in which they will consider whether they will enjoy a bright future with their current organisation. Career growth prospects is defined as the possibility that an employee will be promoted and will gain career development experiences from bigger responsibilities and demanding assignments (Weer, 2006). According to Weng & Hu (2009), organizational career growth can be explained by career goal progress, development of professional ability, swiftness of promotion, and increase in remuneration.

Okurame & Balogun (2005), states that employees often hope to grow in their profession and to achieve a notable career. The probability that this will come to realization is the basic force of career growth prospect. Career growth prospect is defined as the chances of getting promoted and obtaining career development experiences; career growth prospect is possibly an important foundation of motivated work behavior (Weer, 2006; Okurame, 20012a). The simple belief of moving up in an organization's chain of command through promotion and obtaining gainful career development

experiences increases an employee's effort and influences a strong attachment in Organizational and career actions (Eisenberger, Lieberman & Williams, 2003; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Indeed, empirical investigations have revealed that such hopefulness is complemented by job efficiency (Avey, Nimnicht & Pigeon, 2010), improved job attendance (Eisenberger et al., 1986), a greater willingness to stay in an organization, and pro-social actions from employees (Okurame, 2012a; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Meyer & Allen, 1984). Employees tend to be more willing to go along with job modifications and try to keep up-to-date on their work procedures even when it is not mostly convenient for them, when they have favourable perceptions of prospects of career growth (David Okurame, 2014).

According to David Okurame (2014) given the importance of career growth visions for employee performance, many organizations have made efforts to be open to the career needs of employees through education, mentoring, training and upward promotion for deserving employees. This would increase the chance of career growth and persuade employees to go the extra mile in discharging their assigned duties. However, in the present day situations in organizations career growth has become a key challenge for employees due to sweeping changes taking place in an organization. In the present global economic environment, organizations are reorganizing staff and traditions, breaking up organizational layers, downsizing, and engaging in mergers or acquisition to remain competitive. Unfortunately, this tendency tends to reduce opportunities for hierarchical advancement among existing employees (Heslin, 2005) and creates doubts in the minds of employees which has increased the need to focus realistic attention on career growth and development (Whiston & Blustein, 2010). Although (Brutus et al., 2000) suggests that these changes may give opportunities experiencing development and content improvement, limited opportunities for hierarchical elevation which essentially occur (Heslin, 2005) may obstruct favourable perceptions of career growth prospects. London & Stumpf (1983) states that a promotion within an organization's chain of command generally mean increased responsibility and status improvement, reflects an appreciation of an employee's value in the organization, a better pay, and creates opportunities for even further advancement. Bedeian et al. (1991), states that as the career growth policy of an organization is very important, organization should build psychological contracts

with the employees through their career development policies. The relation based on a psychological contract between an employee and his organization depends upon the capability of the organization in motivating the employee and also the employee's desire to attain his organization's goals (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Thus, the career growth policy of an organization should generate real sentiments of a psychological contract among employees (Bedeian et al., 1991) who anticipate progress and growth in their careers (Okurame, 2012; Okurame & Balogun, 2005).

The social exchange theory provides the conceptual basis for considering the process by career growth prospects may shape overall OCB and its five dimensions. The theory suggests that employees and their employers survive in a swap over relationship that is strengthened to the stage that both parties are willing to satisfy the desires of each other. This involves planning, managing and rising employee's careers in the organisation. Howard and Foster (1999) argue that career planning signals career safety to employees, threats are reduced in the external control. Additionally, this practice may satisfy the need for similarity by indicating employees that they are cherished and that the company is willing to invest in a long-term relationship with them (Suazo et al., 2009).

A study by Ken Blanchard Companies (2009) emphasized that career growth must be offered if an organization desires for employee enthusiasm to take place and extend maximum impact and output. However, their study found that career growth is given the least importance in the many companies. It shows that organizations have not given much attention on employees' career growth plan which will generally ensure positive behaviours at work.

Most of the employees tend to show greater interest towards their individual development rather than the development of any particular organization. The worth of this growth process significantly determines the nature and quality of individuals' lives and the kind of citizens they become (career growth), the sense of purpose they have, the income at their clearance and it also determines the social and economic contribution (OCB) they make to the communities they are part of (Watts, 2009). This illustrates as to how actually career growth impacts people lives and how it contributes to individual and

organization as a whole and to perform organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). In order to extract the benefits of Organization Citizenship behaviour it is vital to focus on career growth prospects among the employees.

According to Organ (1988), employees recognize increased forecast for career growth with the outlook that the organization would fulfill its obligations contained in its career growth policy and when this happens the employee's perception of their importance in the organization becomes positive, and they tend to extend such gestures which leads to dedicated and quality performance. One way through which it can be achieved is Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Ishak, 2005; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Positive perception of career development views can therefore be said to raise the chances that an employee will engage in career associated behaviour (such as OCB) required to achieve career step up because they view their employment as a mutual exchange relationship (Rousseau, 1990, 1989). On the other hand, if employees feel that the organization is seen as going back on its promises, they as a result avoid to work beyond explicit job requirements (Turnley & Feldman, 2000; Robinson & Morrison, 1995). Actual or perceived failure of an organization to fulfill the terms of contract with the employee represents a breach that dampens their feeling of obligation to engage in OCB (Osland et al., 2007; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000). Undoubtedly too, an employee who performs poorly or is unable to meet standards expected by their organization has little chances of utilizing a career growth policy. High and positive performance assessments are established requirements for hierarchical advancement in a career. Indeed, research shows that job performance provides behavioral clues from which management rewards an employee with advancement and growth opportunities that impacts their career advance prospects (Van Scotter et al., 2000). Poor performing employees may experience restricted advancement within their organization, creating a sense of contract breach. Besides, employees have judgments of their capacity to perform particular levels of performance (Bandura, 1986), and by implication, to make use of a career growth policy. Such views are not essentially hinged on actual abilities that an employee may possess, but on what is assumed in a prevalent circumstance (Pajares & Urdan, 2006). Career Growth initiatives of an organisation are one of the most important tools of retaining talented human resources in the organization (Gulsah, 2014).

Employees in the banking sector have great expectations of their organizations but prevailing circumstances such as mergers, downsizing and restructuring make meeting such prospects a difficult task. Indeed, in organisations where these problems exist, result in decreased employee participation, negative performance and reduced OCB (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2003). These are examples of how a psychological contract breach might take place from conditions beyond the control of an organization (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Porter et al., 1998). In particular, it is expected of employees to adopt the characteristics of OCB such as sportsmanship, conscientiousness, courtesy, altruism and civic virtue will each be positively affected by career growth prospects in many ways. According to David Okurame (2011) an employee with the qualities of sportsmanship is likely to be more willing to accept work changes even when such changes are inconvenient for them. Again, career growth prospects may be expected to relate positively with conscientiousness, because prospects for career growth could stimulate a careful observance to an organization's rules and procedures without waste of supervision time and energy to watch over employees. Thus, career growth prospects should make employees go beyond minimal levels of attendance, abiding to rules in work, and keeping themselves up-to-date on their job activities. Career growth prospects would also be expected to relate humanity with positivity and courtesy for one convincing reason. These dimensions symbolize the enthusiasm of employees to go beyond job requirements to helping co-workers, and providing unselfish assistance to others in order to prevent the happening of work-related problems. Acting uncooperatively may darken a foreseeable prospect for an employee's career growth in an organization. A parallel case can be made for civic virtue, which involves suggesting productive suggestions about how work groups and the organization as a whole can improve effectiveness.

Willingness to engage in career development may be interpreted as a sign of competence, fulfilling their basic need. A simple expectation increases employee effort and committed involvement in the organisation in ways that go beyond the call of duty (Mowday et al., 1982). Certainly, research has found that hopefulness increases performance (Avey et al., 2010): a trustworthy policy for growth in an organization leads to increased job attendance (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Hence a Career Growth policy should strongly

generate a mind-set of a psychological contract among employees of the organization, particularly when the career growth policy is a valued proposal for employees (Bedeian et al., 1991) who expect progress and growth in their career (Okurame & Balogun, 2005).

The present generations of employees' are more career and growth oriented. They anticipate more in terms of personal growth and individual development. Organizations that does not recognize and create an atmosphere to meet the employee aspirations will be losing experienced work force. Employee turnover will have a discouraging effect on an organization, and it will severely influence the overall efficiency of the organization. Career Development is not just getting promotions but is about getting to the best an individual could contribute and finding a suitable position in the organization where they can show excellence and contribute to the goals of the organization.

In the present competitive environment, it is very important that all organizations develop a work environment which promotes growth and development. This work atmosphere can be developed by implementing Career Development Programs at the workplace. This will improve loyalty among employees towards the organization, which in turn result in, reduction in employee turnover, and lesser employee complaints, and increased voluntary activities, which is one of the important characteristics of OCB (Werther & Davis, 1992). This kind of career growth prospects inculcates the OCB of an employee to a greater extent. Availability of Career growth prospects in organizations encourages employees to show improved attendance, follow prevailing work rules, and adjust to the available working conditions and keeping up-to-date on their job activities. Career growth prospects are an important factor which positively relate to OCB of the employee. These dimensions encourage the inclination of employees to go beyond normal job requirements by extending assistance to co-workers.

2.6 ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

Climate of an organization is to some extent similar to the personality of a person. Just as each individual has a unique personality that makes him distinctive and differentiates from other persons, each organization has a distinctive organizational climate that clearly

differentiates it from other organisations. Basically, the Organizational Climate reflects a person's perception of the organisation to which he belongs. It is a set of unique characteristics and structures that are perceived by the employees about their organizations which serves as a driving force in influencing their behaviour. Thus, organizational climate in an absolute sense can be understood as the social setting of the organization.

Reichers & Schneider (1990) suggest that climate denotes the "way things are around here". Another view of organizational climate is that 'it represents the worker's perceptions of his objective work situation, including the distinctiveness of the organization he works for and the nature of his relationships with others while performing his job' (Churchill, Fordand & Walker, 1976). Proper Organizational climate creates a difference to organizations' performance because 'it indicates how stimulating the work environment is for employees'. Watkin & Hubbard (2003) states that high-performing organisations have climates with particular assessable uniqueness, which has shown that organizational climate alone, can directly interpret for up to 30% of the variance in key performance measures.

The origin of the concept 'climate' falls back to the late 1930s, with Lewin, Lippitt & White (1939) who carried out study on "social climates in the workplace". In 1951, Lewin stated that 'climate is a description of the important environmental stimuli and is a vital determinant of motivation and behaviour.' Interest in the study of organizational climate is renewed in the early seventies (Schneider and Snyder, 1975; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973) and still draws interest (Jain et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2004; Davidson, 2003).

Moran & Volkwein (1992) defined Organizational Climate as "a relatively steady feature of an organization which distinguishes it from other organisations; and (a) embodies members' shared perceptions about their organization with respect to such dimensions as self-rule, trust, cohesiveness, support, appreciation, innovation, and fairness; (b) reflects the prevailing norms, values and approaches of the organization's culture; and (c) acts as a source of influence for shaping behavior". According to Suresh & Venkatammal (2010), Organizational Climate refers to a collection of attitudes of an organization that result in individuals and groups, like rewards and interpersonal relations.

Gholami et al. (2015) regarded Organizational Climate as perceptions of employees connected to the leadership style, decision-making process, as well as work norms prevailing in an organization. Organization Climate embraces many aspects such as employee empowerment, work-place layout, style of management functioning, behavioural aspect of the leader, his contribution and support, all factoring into the climate of an organization (Crawford, 2008).

Organizational climate has positively been associated to many behavioural outcomes such as commitment and job satisfaction (Bhaesaj, 2010; Castro & Martins, 2010), employee behaviours and outcomes (Ferris et al., 1998) leadership behaviours, job performance, productivity, and quality of work group interaction (ElKassar & Messarra 2010; Laschinger, 2001; Pritchard and Karasick, 1973; Friedlander & Greenberg, 1971).

Litwin & Stringer (1968) viewed Organizational Climate as "a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by people who stay and survive in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behaviour". Patterson, Warr & West (2004) states that the 'climate' of the organization is connected to the atmosphere prevailing in the organization which employees feel to be genuine within the organizational limits and is related to innovative, creative, supportive, developmental, team climate, etc. Based on the work of Golembiewski (1979) and Issac & Pitt (2001), the construct of Organizational Climate with the sub scales of a) Risk Taking b) Trust c) Openness & d) Ownership of Ideas (Gold et al., 2001; Detert et al., 2000) are explained below

Risk-taking

Risk taking by employees represents a readiness to accept mistakes as he explores new ideas, advocates varied or disliked proposals, or tries to solve difficult situations or problems without visible solutions, in order to achieve some result. Lack of encouragement on the part of management or fear of the personal cost of failure may add to decrease employee risk taking, thus creating an "irony of companies that know too much and do too little" (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000). These authors argue that an environment of trust and safety is essential to give confidence to individuals to question

traditional knowledge and engage in remarkable breakthroughs. Fear creates knowing-doing gaps, where employees have novel ideas and solutions but do not put them in practice because they feel they may be punished for any failure. As such organizational support is necessary for risk taking.

Ownership of ideas

Unless employees believe that they have legally recognized ownership of their ideas, they may not be keen to disclose their ideas to others in the organization (Hannah, 2004). However, even when an organization does have firm legal ownership of ideas, a backup system of recognition and reward can further encourage development of organizational Intellectual capital. Hannah (2004) also defines climate, as one in which employees believe that they will still receive recognition when sharing their designs and will not be penalized if their ideas are unsuccessful.

Openness

Openness supports contributing and sharing knowledge and developing positive knowledge management behaviours (Alavi et al., 2005; Starbuck, 1992). However, Openness or free flow of job related information may not be encouraging in all circumstances, such as labour negotiations, crisis circumstances, or tactical plans when conveyed to competitors. The transmission of knowledge and the development of innovative ideas depend upon the discussion taking place through the interaction of employees (Gold et al., 2001).

Trust

Mayer et al. (1995) defined trust as the readiness of an individual to be at risk to the actions of the other party based on the value and belief that the other will perform a particular action essential to the trust or, irrespective of the ability, to monitor or control that other party. If the trust is violated, the result is some form of harm that is likely to occur.

In today's organizational world higher work productivity by employees is the expectation. It is not surprise that organization wants their employees to perform beyond their normal call of duty and desires a performance that exceeds the expectation i.e. engage in Organization citizenship behaviour. Bowen & Ostroff (2004) argued that a

strong organizational climate may influence the way the employees share a common understanding of behaviours which are desired of them and are rewarded by the organization. According to Suifan (2016), Employees' engagement in OCB behaviour can be increased in organizations by ensuring a healthy Organizational Climate through focus on team spirit, devotion, thoughtfulness, enthusiasm, distance, harassment, and by keeping hope, optimism, self-efficacy, as well as resilience in mind. According to Subramani (2015), Organizational Climate is a relatively stable quality of the internal condition of an organization that is experienced by its employees, influences their behaviour. He also states that Organizational Climate refers to the emotional environment as reflected in attitudes and perceptions of the employees. According to Pitchard (1973) & Steers (1997), Organizational Climate can be explained as an important feature of the internal organizational environment that can apply pressure to direct the activities and behaviours of employees. According to Miller (2003), a successful manager in the organization needs to create an environment which will support changes. It means promoting Organizational Climate as a factor to manipulate Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. Stringer (2002) concluded that diverse organizational climate can arouse different kinds of motivation.

Proper Organizational Climate effects motivation, performance and satisfaction. According to Choi (2007), Perceptions of Organizational Climates for creativity will be positively related to change-oriented OCB. To understand the employees' needs, concerns, perceptions and Organizational Climate must be assessed. Individuals in an organization have certain expectations and fulfillment of these needs depends upon their perception as how the organization climate provides a nature of work environment in which individual feels satisfied or dissatisfied.

The positive association between OC and OCB has been well-documented in the literature (Taghrid, 2016; Gholami et al., 2015; Ghasemi & Keshavarzi, 2014; Hajirasouliha et al., 2014; Suifan, 2016 ; Pourkiani et al., 2014; Hajirasouliha et al., 2014).

In the current scenario, the changes in economy and the chaotic competition demands energetic working environment in organizations, which urges to knock upon new ways of motivating and retaining performing employees within the organizations.

The term 'Organizational Climate' plays an important role, by providing the congenial climate in the organization, 'Organizational Citizenship Behaviour' can be shaped among the employees. Employees in the organizations have different attitudes that affect their behaviour at work place. Prevalence of proper Organizational Climate is an important determinant which may have the impact on their psychological environment and work related attitude. Organizational Citizenship Behaviour has a determinant role in the organizational process which puts emphasis upon employees and climate of the organization and in altering the traditional setting into an active and efficient environment. It is proved that a proper organizational climate raise the positive attitudinal outcome of the employees, which in turn generate organizational citizenship behaviour among its employees.

According to Perry et al. (2005) a positive organizational climate creates an environment which is reliable and delivers service of high quality. Therefore, the study advocates the importance and prevalence of positive organizational climate in the organization to derive the best of employees' OCB and performance.

2.7 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

An organization cannot build an excellent team of performing employees without sincere Human Resources. The important functions of the Human Resources Management (HRM) team consist of recruitment and training of people, appraise individual performances, motivating employees and also facilitate workplace communication, workplace safety, and better work environment. Promoting a large company has much to do with how people work together. Adoption of proper policies and practices can improve the way your employees work together, while minimizing the employee's obstacles and problems that normally break out in today's workplaces.

Schuler & Jackson (1987) define HRM practices as organizational activities that are directed at managing the pool of human resources and approving that resources are employed for the fulfillment of organizational goals. Delery & Doty (1996) conceptualized HRM practices as a set of internally reliable policies and practices planned and implemented to ensure the firm's human capital contribute to the achievement of its business objectives. Human Resource Management (HRM) practice is getting more

significance in this age of knowledge economy in order to remain competitive in global market, since employees are the key foundation of competitive advantage for business organization and pioneering and dedicated workers can make impressive changes in business performance and sustainability (Agarwala, 2011; Nankervis & Compton, 2002). Purcell (2003) revealed that well managed HRM practices and accomplishment of organizational goals have positive associations. The importance of managing human resources, the soul of the organization, has been growing over the past years in academia and in practice because the HRM practices help employees to shape their attitudes and behaviours (Meyer & Smith, 2000). Management scholars and practitioners have exerted continuous efforts in learning more about human resource practices and how these practices boost employees' performance and achieve organizational goals (Ahmad & Schroeder, 2003; Boselie et al., 2001; Guest, 1997; Huselid, 1995). Human capital can provide viable advantage to an organization and its employees are essential to its success. Hence, researchers interested in human capital have more and more focused on human resource practices as it is instrumental in building the human capital that makes up resources and capabilities (Wright & Kehoe, 2008).

HRM is considered as a critical organizational resource that helps an organization to remain competitive and sustainable (Marchington & Wilkinson, 2008; Lloyd & Leslies, 2000; Schuler, 1990). It is one of the important areas that influence a number of employee's attitudes and behaviour such as intention to leave, levels of job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Sarker, 2014b; Lee & Heard, 2000). Study by Guthrie (2001) found that proper execution of HRM practices lead to a positive relationship between retention and productivity. Delery & Doty (1996) found that, HRM practices positively related to profitability.

Luthan & Sommers (2005) states that for an organization to be successful it should improve its performance by reducing cost, innovating new products, improving quality and productivity, increasing product distribution to the market. In this regard HRM practices occupy an important role in motivating employees of the organization to engage themselves in more productive behaviours (Bambale, 2008). Harter, Schmiat & Hayes (2002) argued that the efficient management of human resource possibly increases knowledge, motivation, synergy and commitment, resulting in sustained competitive

benefit for the organization**.** Similarly, Huselid (1995) argues that HRM practices can be applied as a means by organizations to shape the attitude and behaviour of its employees. In general, Human Resource Management policies may be seen as an input into the social exchange process as it is evidenced that they promote positive effects of 'high performance' or 'high commitment' work practices on employee attitudes, behaviour, and turnover. According to Snape & Tom (2010) and Dariusz Turek (2015), HRM practices which demonstrate that the organization is dedicated to employees in the long term, desires to invest in them, and is concerned about their well-being and progress are likely to result in employees feeling that the organization is being supportive, and so be surely associated with OCB.

Studies provide evidence that HRM is concerned with the skills of the work force and the prospect to use those skills and providing initiatives to encourage commitment and involvement (Applebaum et al., 2000; Delery & Doty, 1996; Mac Duffie, 1995). Attention has turned to the effects of systems of HRM practices on individual employee attitudes and behaviours (Tan & Nasurdin, 2010; Kuvaas, 2008; Zacharatos et al., 2005; Allen et al., 2003; Wright et al., 2003). Study by Lee & Kim (2010) and Turek & Agnieszka (2015) reveal that good HRM practices are positively related to OCB's.

Gupta & Singh (2010) has identified seven HR practices which contribute to improved performance of organizations. These HR practices are empowerment, merit based promotion and performance-based pay, competency development, information sharing, selective staffing, flexible job design and formal grievance procedures. According to Organ, Podsakoff & Mac Kenzie (2006), these HR practices are significantly related to employee OCB. During the last decade, there has been considerable interest in the concept that employees are key source of competitive advantage for firms (Pfeffer, 1994; Barney, 1991) and, as a result, that it is important for firms to adopt HRM practices that make the best use of their employees. The continual globalization of large corporations and an increased awareness of the importance of employees for business competitiveness, the question of how to manage people in organisations have become increasingly significant. Scholars have discussed that Human Resource management (HRM) practices aimed at the acquisition, development and inspiration of firm employees help produce human assets that are valuable, rare, non-substitutable, and difficult to

imitate, thus providing a source of competitive advantage (Barney, 1991; Becker & Huselid, 1998). The current literature shows that in the field of HR the HRM practices are associated with positive operational (employee's productivity and firm's flexibility) and quality performance outcomes (Sang, 2005; Kuo, 2004; Ahmad & Schroeder, 2003; Chang & Chen, 2002). Effective HRM practices can have generous impact on business performance (Ichniowski, Shaw & Prennushi, 1995).

Many studies show that human resources are the key determinants of establishing competitive advantage, and the overall success or failure in organizations (Guthrie, 2001; Wood & De Menezes1998; Huselid, 1995). Both discretionary and non-discretionary HR practices are posited to influence employees' behavioural outcomes such as OCB and turnover intention and organizational outcomes such as performance, customer commitment, and organizational commitment. It is reasonable to guess that employees might have the tendency to become more dedicated when they believe that their organization supports equity and fairness. Subsequently, employees respond their perceptions accordingly through positive attitudes and behaviours to the organization, which in turn improve their willingness to engage in high level of OCB. Study by Snape & Redman (2010); Sun et al. (2007); Sun, Arya & Law (2007); Organ, Podsakoff & Mac Kenzie (2006); Podsakoff et al. (2000), reveal that HR practices in the form of training and development, performance management, and employee participation and involvement notably influence employees' feeling of psychological contract fulfilment, and subsequently their extra-role behaviours.

Morrisson (1996), states that an organization's approach to HR management is influential in inducing OCB. Wee, Ahmad & Fen (2014), states that strong identification with organizational objectives shaped in the early stage of selection itself fosters the social machinery among employees and bring out helping behaviour. Lee (2001) pointed out that employees must have the knowledge, skills, capability, and opportunity to perform both their prescribed and their extra-role behaviour. Steel et al. (2002) states that such knowledge, skills and capability are attained through continuous training and development programmes by which OCB can be elicited. Bond (2004); Anderson & Ostroff (1997) stated that a proper connect between HRM practices and OCB will certainly facilitate positive work related attitude and behaviour which are the fundamentals of OCB (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986), reduced turnover (O'Reilly et al., 1991; Tziner, 1987).

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Swann (1983) and Morse (1975), states that an organization that adopts HRM practices in tune with the preferences of their workforce might benefit to enhance OCB of an employee. According to Morrison (1996), the extent to which an organization's HRM practices create a social exchange relationship with employees, those employees will be more likely to engage in OCB's.

On the basis of arguments put forth by previous scholars (e.g. Sun et al., 2007; Young, & Meurs, 2007; Whitener, 2001; Zerbe et al., 1998), it is evident that HRM practices are positively related to employees' service-oriented OCB's. For example, training enhances employees' skills and abilities, thereby, increasing their job satisfaction. This, in turn, will lead them to deliver better service-oriented OCB's.

Blau (1964), states that employees are likely to become motivated to reciprocate with service-oriented OCB's. Zerbe, Dobni & Harel (1998), argued that the relationship between HRM practices and planned outcomes is strongest in service organisations as opposed to manufacturing firms. Schneider & Bowen (1985) proposed that when employees feel well treated by their firm's HRM practices, they are likely to devote their energies and resources to serve their customers effectively. In a study by Allen, Shore & Griffeth (2003) it is found that the lack of training and promotional opportunities resulted in high performers' turnover, which will have an impact on OCB. According to Okurame (2012), when employees observe career development in an organization and recognize that the company will be helpful in their career prospects, they try to give in return such gestures by substantial work performance and behaviour. Providing career development chances to employees encourages the OCB delivery.

Paré & Tremblay (2007) states that Procedural Justice and Citizenship Behaviours to some extent mediate the effect of HR practices on the turnover intentions of employees. Liao (2004) states that effective HRM practices tend to enhance a firm's service climate, which in turn, motivates service sector employees to display discretionary behaviours such as meeting customers' demands, delivering higher service quality and increasing employees' willingness to go beyond their normal call of duty. Good HRM practices can support job satisfaction and increase the organizational success while reducing the intention to quit and negative word of mouth of employees

(Bond, 2004; Burke, 2003; Pare et al., 2001). Yogesh (2000) found that HR practices do not directly affect organizational performance; rather, these practices help build intellectual capital, which in turn leads to improved organizational value build up. Human capital have to be organized and led, trained and developed in ways that leads to the development of competencies and organizational capabilities. Lankesh (2009), claim that Organisations need to be intended to make human capital a source of competitive advantage. High-performance human resource practices consist of a set of consistent practices that enhance OCB, employee skills, participation in decision making and motivation for flexible effort. High performance work system (HPWS) forms a significant organizational level impact on innovativeness. To enhance innovation, HRM practices need to confirm that creativity and new information and skills can be created in the firms. Firms also need to maintain an environment that supports the implementation of these new ideas in the workplace (Becker, 1998). Service sector industry such as banks operates in extremely tough financial and consumer markets and it is imperative that they have a professional approach to their human resources.

HRM practice is one important area that influences a number of employees' attitudes and behaviour such as intent to leave, job satisfaction level, and organizational commitment (Lee & Heard, 2000).

The effect of human resource practices on performance at organizational level, individual level, or group level is a key issue in the area of human resource management and organizational psychology. In this regard, positive perceptions of human resource practices cause employees to believe in social exchange relationship between employees and the organization (Lee & Bruvold, 2003; Wayne et al., 1997). Generally, employees who are satisfied with the organization are willing to contribute to the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Earlier studies by Kiniki, Carson & Bohlander (1992), found that perceptions of human resource practices are more important than the actual practices in developing employee commitment. Human resources are the key determinants of establishing competitive advantage and the overall success or failure in organizations (Guthrie, 2001; Wood & De Menezes, 1998, Huselid, 1995).

Similarly, study by Dittmer (2002) regarding selection and socialization practices reveals long-term commitment on the part of the organization such as job security, advancement, continuous training and development, and individualized orientation programs, leading to greater OCB's. It is assumed that employees get more committed to the organization when they believe they are treated with equity and fairness, Cropanzano et al. (2007). Subsequently, employees reciprocate their perception through positive behaviour and attitude to the organization, which in turn enhance their willingness to engage in high level of OCB (Ahmad et al., 2013). Janz et al. (1997); Ulrich (1997); Lado & Wilson (1994) and Butler, Ferris & Napier (1991) conclude that when top management values human capital as a source of competitive advantage, it will enhance its association to HR management function, where the flow of practices are more integrative and invites reciprocity, and consequently its employees are more likely to promote commitment and trust which are the main ingredients for OCB. According to Morrison (1996), an organization's approach to its human resource management is instrumental in encouraging high levels of OCB's. Basically, how an organization manages its human resources sets the tone and conditions for the employee employer relationship (Rousseau & Greller, 1994). Mac Duffie (1995) further supported the idea that HRM practices influences the psychological agreement between employees and their employing organization. HRM practices that are supportive will be perceived as inducements provided by the employer. Likewise, Sun et al. (2007) proposed that high-performance human resource practices, such as provision of job security, extensive skills training, and promotion from within, constitute an organization's inducements that, by satisfying employee goals, create a supportive work environment.

Employees tend to leave the organization if they are not satisfied with factors related to the company. Branham (2005) stated that there are seven major reasons for an employee to quit, which may be due to the following reasons: poor management practices, limited career growth prospects, lack of recognition, low pay scale, unsatisfactory jobs, untrustworthy leadership and dysfunctional work culture. These factors have a close relation with the HRM practices. Therefore, there should exist a good relationship between the HRM practices and employees intention to stay, this will ensure the organization to take corrective decisions in achieving the organizations goal by

maintaining economical or optimum level of resources. It is vital to ensure effective and efficient use of limited resources and a harmonious safe work place which will make certain the employees to remain within the organization. Prediction of intention to stay among employees in an organization is done through giving importance to HRM practices.

Husin et al. (2012, p. 151), illustrate that the strongest dimension of HRM practices encouraging the demonstration of citizenship behaviour is the "support" in the performance of professional tasks. Employees mostly depend on the human resource department, e.g. in reducing unusual obstacles or difficulties, or in activities related to the development of their competence, and, therefore, they react positively and are more willing to perform citizenship acts. Therefore, HRM practices are directly related to citizenship behaviours of employees in the organization and increases OCB.

2.8 INTENTION TO STAY

According to Dalessio et al. (1986) the attainment of an organizational goal is determined by its human resources. This is particularly important in the present day service industry. Human resource is a fundamental competitive tool for organizations.

Industrialization has undergone dramatic changes and has created fierce competition all over in every field. Globalization has shrunk the economic world. Jobs are plenty all over the world. The dictum "Rolling stones gather no mass" has to be re-written. Present day work force is ready to shift jobs at every available opportunity. As a result, industry is facing frequent challenges in recruiting and retaining qualified and efficient employees. Presently, employee turnover is a foremost issue in most of the organisations as it damagingly affects the prospects of the organizations. According to Lim, Mathis & Jackson (2010), many organizations have found that turnover is a major problem for organizations. Employee turnover, although it is generally a concern of human resource managers (Peterson, 2004), academics and organisational managers have evinced much interest to this current phenomenon (Ton & Huckman, 2008) due to its damaging effects on the organizations. It can clearly be argued that the term 'turnover' represents the actual turnover behaviour, the departure of the employees' to other organizations (Price, 2001), while the term 'turnover intention' represent the employees' behavioural

intention which is employees' perceived chances of leaving the current organization (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Hence, it becomes important to identify the factors that will retain an employee within the organisation Employees, who intend to stay, feel it like home and have extra sense of belongingness to the organization. In an organization, when employees presume that their loyalty to the organization is respected by the management, he is encouraged to continue in the firm. It has become a challenge for managers to acknowledge the value of their employees by motivating them to remain within the firm and also to discourage them to look out somewhere else for better opportunities.

Intention to Stay produces the employee's level of dedication to their organization and the willingness to remain employed in the organisation. (Hewitt, 2004). Johanim et al. (2012) define Intention to Stay as employees' intention to remain with their current employer on long term basis. It is sometimes referred to as the inclination not to leave, intent not to quit, behavioural commitment and attachment (Mueller et al., 1999; Halaby, 1986). Intention to Stay however is simply the opposite of the turnover intention. According to Mobley (1982); Steers & Mowday (1981); Black & Stevens (1989) Intention to Stay is significantly negatively associated with turnover. Since Intention to Stay is referred to as employees' willingness to stay with an organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993), it consistently shows a stronger relationship with turnover than did other turnover precursors (Van Der Vlist & Steensma, 2004; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Igharia & Greenhaus, 1992; Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992; Price & Mueller, 1981).

Organization Citizenship Behaviour is important for any organization as the same is associated with Intention to Stay among employees. Organisations should create work environments that increase the feeling of responsibility among work groups, such as fostering a culture of friendliness among co-workers that compel the employees to fulfill their obligations and responsibilities to their fellow workers so that they stay with the organization for a long time, since considerable time and money are invested on these employees to orient them towards achieving the goals of the organization. As people are the most valuable asset for the organizations (Szamosi, 2006), the organizations invest unlimited resources to attract and retain talented employees. Practically, among all the organizational resources, employees are the most vital resources, while on the other hand, they are most difficult to control as well (Szamosi, 2006; Rodriguez Perez & Ordonez, 2003). Thus, it is

definitely unfortunate and costly when employees leave organization willingly or voluntarily. Firth, et al. (2004) define employee turnover as the individual who may be thinking about quitting a job. Employee turnover is demonstrated to have a common negative impact on organizational effectiveness and reduces profitability.

The assessment of factors related with intention to stay is very important because there is a great potential for managers and administrators to develop mediations and processes that may help the intention to remain in organisations and subsequently prevent from facing two kinds of costs. The first one is the direct cost. It consists of replacement, recruitment and selection, hiring of temporary staff, and management time costs. The second one is the indirect cost. It consists of decreasing confidence and pressure on remaining staff and cost of training and their motivation. On an average, it costs one third of a new workers' annual salary to replace an employee (Will, 2001). Turnover of employees can be costly for an organization due to hiring, training and maintaining staffs (Chou and Lopez-Rodriguez, 2013; Jain, Giga & Cooper, 2012; Nicole, 2006).

Organizations' structures and management and also relations with employees have changed (Coyle-Shapir et al., 2004; Arthur, Inkson, & Pringle, 1999). According to some researchers, resignation by employees is an indicator that the organization is in trouble (Kristensen & Wastergard, 2004; Clark, 2001) with its human resources. To retain valuable employees, organizations should motivate and reward its employees. For doing this, organizations should formulate plans and take accurate steps to enhance favourable measures among their employees (Seta et al., 2000). Mostly employees are satisfied if they have confidence for a bright future in their existing organizations (Drafke & Kossen, 2002). Otherwise, employees may be thinking of quitting the organization. Organizations usually prefer to have stable employees, therefore, it is of vital importance to determine the variables that are involved in the intention to remain with an organization or leave it (Boshoff et al., 2002). According to Robbins & Couldter (2002) and Comm & Mathaisel (2003), HRM practices dimensions, primarily compensation and benefits, and performance appraisal, training and development, career improvement, are very important in enhancing employees' motivation, commitment and satisfaction, which will involuntarily impact their intention to stay.

Many organisations are challenged with the tasks of retaining their employees but at the same time the employers have to ensure that employees are loyal and committed to the organization (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003). The reasons for dissatisfaction are particularly associated to organizational stress and depression, loss in production and employee's intention to leave (Tzeng, 2002). Employee turnover is demonstrated to have an overall negative impact on organizational effectiveness and profitability (Price & Mueller, 1986).

Social Exchange Theory (SET) developed by Thibaut & Kelley (1959) suggested that good performance should be reciprocated (Blau, 1964). Mossholder, Settoon & Henagan (2005) had pointed to Social Exchange Theory which proposed that persons who felt that they had received benefits from others would later feel a responsibility and obligation that would compensate through effort and loyalty. Their effort and loyalty generally could be understood from their simple commitment to their job and strong intention to remain with the present employer. Employee's loyalty clearly fits within the framework of social exchange theory since it is focused on citizenship behaviour whereby employees stop looking for a new job as they felt indebted to stay and recompense the organization for the support they had received (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Social Exchange Theory offers an opening of contract between sense of obligation and responsibility in compensating what had been given by another party which in turn would inspire positive psychological responses as suggested by several researchers (e.g. Bunderson, 2001; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000). Bunderson, 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000 reveals that employees with high commitment and loyalty to their organisation had a stronger intention to stay with their job and were less likely to quit.

According to Harold Andrew Patrick (2012) intention of employees to stay within the organization will strengthen the relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour. Relatively, Shaiful Annuar Khalid (2013) feels that much attention have not been given to empirically tested consequences of OCB on individual effectiveness or indirect measures of usefulness such as employee withdrawal behaviours.

Employee loyalty has long been an issue in the field of human resource since it is related to behaviours such as attendance, turnover, organizational citizenship, loss of

organizational memory and effectiveness (Schalk & Freese, 1997). To enhance sustainability, in addition to having talented managers it is important to have employees who recognize the organization as a place with which they want to be associated. Wan (2011) states that feeling of Intention to Stay along with OCB is important. However, there are very limited studies that investigate the influence of OCB on employees, Werner (2006). In relation to this there are very few studies that focus on relationship between OCB and withdrawal behaviour (e.g., Shaiful Annuar Khalid, 2013; Khalid et al., 2009; Chen et al., 1998). Study by Chen et al. (1998) and Khalid et al. (2009) found that dimensions of OCB namely civic virtue, sportsmanship and helping behaviours benefits the organization from employees turn over intention. Employees, who exhibit good civic virtue and sportsmanship look into the positive actions of an organization, this in turn results in building cordial relationship with others, provide fruitful ideas, attend functions that are outside the formal job description. Employees with such OCB characteristics endeavor for the progress of the organization, exhibit strong intention to stay. It is believed that when an employee engage in OCB dimensions it benefits the organization as a whole and may in effect determine the individual's preference to stay within the organization. The relationship between OCB and intention to stay operates on a simple mechanism based on Cognitive Consistency Theory (Festinger, 1957), which states that people try to maintain an agreement with their behaviours, beliefs, and attitudes. Noor, Khalid & Rashid (2013) states, employees with elevated level of OCB, helps in shaping their attitude and behaviour which results in reporting of lower intention to leave the current job, than those who do not possess OCB.

According to Jain (1998), existence of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (especially sacrifice, sincerity and patience) will decrease the turnover and absence of employees, employees committed to the stay in the organisation for a long period will offer high quality services and try to help company status by abundant and different approaches. So, this finally improves work environment in the organization (Nawaser et al., 2015; Snow et al., 2013; Gholam Hosseini et al., 2010).

The study provides extensive support for the assumption that workers who exhibited lower level of OCB are found to be more likely to leave an organization than those who exhibited higher OCB characteristics. Organizations should recognize the

importance of human resources, in order to accomplish the goals of the organization. A profitable company may possess the strongest edge, in terms of technology, financial support, market location etc., but without its strong workforce to execute their respective roles and responsibilities, the company would not be able to progress to meet any of its business or organizational goals (Taylor, 2002; Mobley, 1982). Hence, it is imperative on the part of management to implement proper HR policies which would improve the OCB levels of its employees as the same is positively related to Intention to stay.

2.9 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Understanding the significant relationship of factors influencing OCB and OCB on Intention to stay in the organizational context forms the base for proposing the theoretical model and developing hypotheses.

Human resources are the key determinant in organizations for gaining competitive advantage, in the current dynamics business environment. Human Resources Management eases both personal and professional development of employees. It aids employees to work efficiently and effectively in a group or team in well-organized manner. In recent times organizations are becoming increasingly de-jobbed and hence it is becoming more difficult to define job descriptions, and employees are also voluntarily taking up tasks beyond their specified job descriptions, which paves way for enhancing the productivity of employees. Organizations are also implementing new techniques to increase the productivity of the employees and constantly rewarding them equitably and integrating their goals with that of the organizational goals through suitable policies. Organizational Citizenship Behaviour is the voluntary behaviour of employees going beyond the formal incentive mechanism, the positive and cooperative gestures, and the extra role behaviours that are influential and important for organizational effectiveness. Organizations prefer to have stable employees because of the reason that whenever employees' leave, organizations have to incur the cost of recruiting and training employees to fit in the respective roles. By considering the importance of OCB, the present study considers the factors equally essential that influence OCB, and investigates the influence of OCB's on Intention to stay among the bank employees.

To better understand the extent of influence of the identified factors on OCB and the influence of OCB on Intention to stay, a framework is established which describes the relationships between the factors influencing OCB and the impact of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour on Intention to Stay.

Background of the study

The foundation for this study is Social Exchange Theory and Psychological Contract Theory. The Social Exchange Theory was proposed in the late 1950s and early 1960s by the psychologists John Thibaut & Harold Kelley (1959), sociologists George Homans (1961) Peter Blau (1964) and Cherry (2016). According to Blau (1964) Social Exchange Theory suggests that "the exchange relationship between two parties often goes beyond pure economic exchange and entails social exchange"

Accordingly, organizational researchers argue that the exchange between employers and employees not only consists of impersonal resources such as money, services, and information, but also certain socio - emotional resources such as regard, respect, and support (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

The Psychological Contract is an aspect of workplace relationship and wider human behavior. Primarily, the Psychological Contract refers to the relationship between an employer and its employees, and specifically concerns common expectations of inputs and outcomes. The psychological contract between the employer and employee refers to the unwritten set of expectations of the employment relationship as different from the formal, codified employment contract. Psychological Contract – definitions and descriptions first emerged in the 1960s, particularly in the works of organizational and behavioral theorists Chris Argyris and Edgar Schein.

In the workplace context, the Psychological Contract is the fairness or balance between

- How the employee is treated by his employer? and

- What the employee contributes into the job?

In management theory, employee attitudes such as trust, faith, tolerance, commitment, enthusiasm, satisfaction and flexibility depend on a fair and balanced

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Psychological Contract. Where the employee regards the Psychological contract to be fair and genuine the above positive attitudes will flourish. When the employee regards such contract to be unfair, these important attitudes will diminish quickly. Generally both the employer and employee should adopt give and take policy. The basic assumption of exchange theory is that individuals establish and continue social relations on the basis of their hope that such relations will be mutually advantageous. When one party to the exchange does something for the other, or provides benefits for the other, there is an expectation of some form of valued, future return that is both non-specific and not tied to an explicit market value (Morgeson, Reider & Campion 2005; Rubin, Bommer & Bachrach 2010) On the part of employer he should extend proper work environment, supportive work culture, fairness in justice factors, fair remuneration, recognition and rewards, likewise the employee should put in his best efforts into the job eliciting Organizational Citizenship Behavior to improve the organizational performance. Furthermore, as a result of this perceived fair treatment and in agreement to Social Exchange Theory, employees' workplace fair play will be improved thereby contributing to organizational commitment and eventually citizenship behaviors improved in reciprocation. For that reason, the employees' commitment and citizenship behavior will eventually lead to improved job performance, and intention to stay in the organization in the long term. People stay if they are satisfied with their jobs and committed to their organization and leave if they are not.

Figure 2.1 shows the factors that influence OCB and the impact of OCB on Intention to stay. The following section provides the theoretical support for each hypothesis.
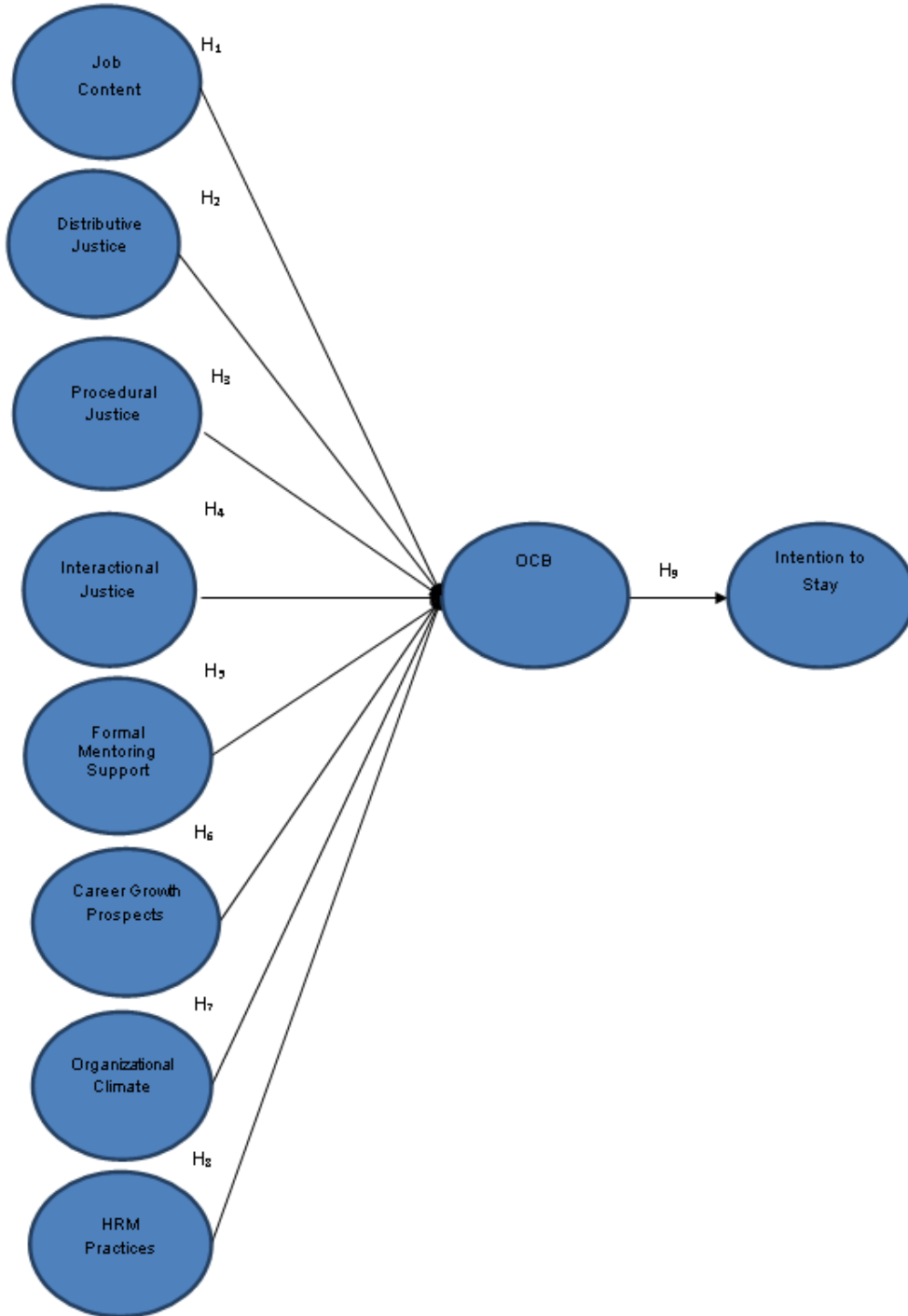

Figure 2.1 Theoretical frame work

Research Hypothesis 1- (Job Content and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour)

Job content in the context of the study relates to the perception an employee holds about his job such as nature of job allocation, choice given to him to choose his job, work load aspect, job rotation, opportunities to utilize his own talents, acceptance of his ideas & initiatives by the management and his contribution to the goal of organization. Job content describes the characteristics and factors that are directly related to individual's job (Hausknecht, Rodda & Howard, 2009) achieving balance between the "wholeness" of the work process, responsible, autonomy, and worker's multiplicity of skills, Trist & Bamforth (1951).In order to achieve satisfaction from the particular job an individual has to be clear with the job contents. Herzberg (1987), submitted that job content aspects were the satisfiers or motivators. It was proposed that the more knowledge, awareness about this job helps an employee to work efficiently, and this creates a feeling of interest in his job role and he is motivated to form beyond what is expected as a result individuals are more likely to engage in OCB. Considering the above mentioned content it is concluded that Job Content is an important factor that influence the instigation of OCB, among the employees. Based on the literature discussion the following hypothesis is proposed.

H_{01}: "Job Content does not have a significant influence on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour."

H_1: "Job Content has a positive significant influence on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour."

Research Hypothesis 2 - (Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour)

Organizational justice appears to be the key determinant of Citizenship behaviour. Employees who perceive the workplace as fair are more satisfied with their work are more committed to the organization, are more likely to rely on their superiors, and display a greater desire to retain their jobs. Therefore, it is necessary for an organization to understand the importance of treating employees in a justice way in order to in order to foster citizenship behaviour among employees.

Organisational justice has a significant influence on the extra role behavioural initiatives characteristics of an employee. Thus, it is vital for organisations to manage fairness efficiently. Thus, organisational justice is able to elicit citizenship behavior in various cases and they are the backbone in many organisations with high organisational justice. As discussed this study considers Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice and Interactional Justice as the component of Organisational Justice.

H_{02}: "Distributive Justice does not have a significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour."

H_2: "Distributive Justice has a positive significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour."

H_{03}: "Procedural Justice does not have a significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour."

H_3: "Procedural Justice has a positive significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

H_{04}: "Interactional Justice does not have a significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour."

H_4: "Interactional Justice has a positive significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

Research Hypothesis 5- (Formal Mentoring Support and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour)

Consistent with the view that an employee who receives mentoring support in a mentoring relationship will demonstrate considerable levels of OCB, authors of the few studies (i.e. Kwan et al., 2011; Allen et al., 2009; Donaldson et al., 2000) on this issue found that employees who received high levels of overall mentoring functions produced more OCB. This strengthens the argument that mentoring support will predict overall OCB and its dimensions in the present population. Besides, research has shown that mentoring creates greater opportunities, builds trust within an organization, and enhances employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Okurame, 2008, 2009; Whitely et al., 1991; Scandura, 1992; Fagenson, 1989). These variables which mentoring

engenders have been found in numerous studies (e.g. Nadim et al., 2004; cited in Chahal, 2010) to be crucial predictors of OCB.

H_{05}: "Formal Mentoring Support does not have a significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behavior."

H_5: "Formal Mentoring Support has a positive significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour."

Research Hypothesis 6 - (Career Growth Prospects and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour)

The present generations of employees' are more career and growth oriented. They anticipate more in terms of personal growth and individual development. Organisations that does not recognize and create an atmosphere to meet the employee aspirations will be losing experienced work force. Employee turnover will have a discouraging effect on an organization, and it will severely influence the overall efficiency of the organization. Career development is not just getting promotions but is about getting to the best an individual could contribute and finding a suitable position in the organisation where they can show excellence and contribute to the goals of the organisation. This kind of career growth prospects inculcates the OCB of an employee to a greater extent. Availability of Career growth prospects in organizations stimulates employees to show improved attendance, follow prevailing work rules, and abide to the available working conditions and keeping up-to-date on their job activities. According to Ishak (2005) and Organ & Konovsky (1989) career growth prospects are an important factor which positively relate to OCB of the employee. These dimensions encourage the inclination of employees to go beyond normal job requirements by extending assistance to co-workers.

H_{06}: "Career Growth Prospects does not have a significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behavior."

H_6: "Career Growth Prospects has a positive significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behavior."

Research Hypothesis 7 - (Organisational Climate and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour)

Organizational Climate can be explained as an important feature of the internal organizational environment that can apply pressure to direct the activities and behaviours' of employees. Bowen and Ostroff (2004) argued that a strong organizational climate may influence the way the employees share a common understanding of behaviours which are desired of them and are rewarded by the organization.

According to Taghrid S. Suifan (2016) employees' engagement in OCB can be increased in organizations by ensuring a healthy Organisational Climate. The positive association between Organizational Climate and OCB was well-documented in the literature (Taghrid S. Suifan, 2016; Gholami et al., 2015; Ghasemi & Keshavarzi, 2014; Hajirasouliha et al., 2014; Ahmadizadeh et al., 2014; Hajirasouliha et al., 2014; Pourkiani et al., 2014).

Hence, to be successful in the workplace and the organization, managers need to create an organizational climate that enhances organizational citizenship behaviour of its employees.

H_{07}: "Organizational Climate does not have a significant influence on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour."

H_7: "Organizational Climate has a positive significant influence on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour."

Research Hypothesis 8 - (HRM Practices and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour)

Harter, Schmiat & Hayes (2002), argued that the efficient management of an organizations human resource may increase information, enthusiasm, interaction and obligation, resulting in sustained competitive advantage for the organization. Similarly, Huselid (1995) argues that HRM practices can be applied as a tool by organizations to profile the attitude and behaviour of its employees. In general Human resource management policies may be seen as an input into the social exchange process as it is evidenced that they promote positive effects of 'high performance' or 'high commitment' work practices on employee approaches, behavior, and turnover. According to Snape &

Tom (2010), HRM practices which demonstrate that the organization is dedicated to employees in the long term, desires to invest in them, and is anxious about their well-being and progress results in employees feeling that the organization is being supportive, and so be surely associated with OCB.

H_{08}: "HRM Practices does not have a significant influence on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour."

H_8: "HRM Practices has a positive significant influence on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour."

Research Hypothesis 9 - (OCB and Intention to Stay)

Patrick (2012) states, intention of employees to stay within the organization strengthens the relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour. Relatively, not much attention has been given to empirically tested consequences of Organisational Citizenship Behavior on individual effectiveness or indirect measures of usefulness such as employee withdrawal behaviours Khalid et al. (2013). Organization Citizenship Behaviour is important for any organization as the same is associated with intention to stay among the employees. Employees who possess high OCB are likely to be committed to the organization and remain with it for a long time and render high quality service and help to improve the organizations standing in the competitive market.

H_{09}: "Organizational Citizenship Behaviour does not have a significant influence on Intention to Stay."

H_9: "Organisational Citizenship Behavior has a positive influence on Intention to Stay."

2.10 CONCLUDING REMARKS

To conclude literature review, in respect of factors influencing OCB and Intention to Stay, Social Exchange Theory which anticipated that individuals who feel that they have received benefits from others would later sense a feeling of responsibility and obligation and then they would give back through their extra effort and loyalty. Their effort and loyalty generally may well be understood from their undemanding commitment to their job and strong intention to remain with the organization. The positive behavior as revealed through a high level of OCB should always shape other

attitudes and behavior, for example, by reporting lower intentions to leave the present job, whereby employees stop eyeing for an alternative job elsewhere as they would feel indebted to stay and recompense the organization for the support they have received. Based on reviews the study proposes a theoretical framework and relevant hypothesis are framed to examine the significant relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behaviour and Intention to Stay.