#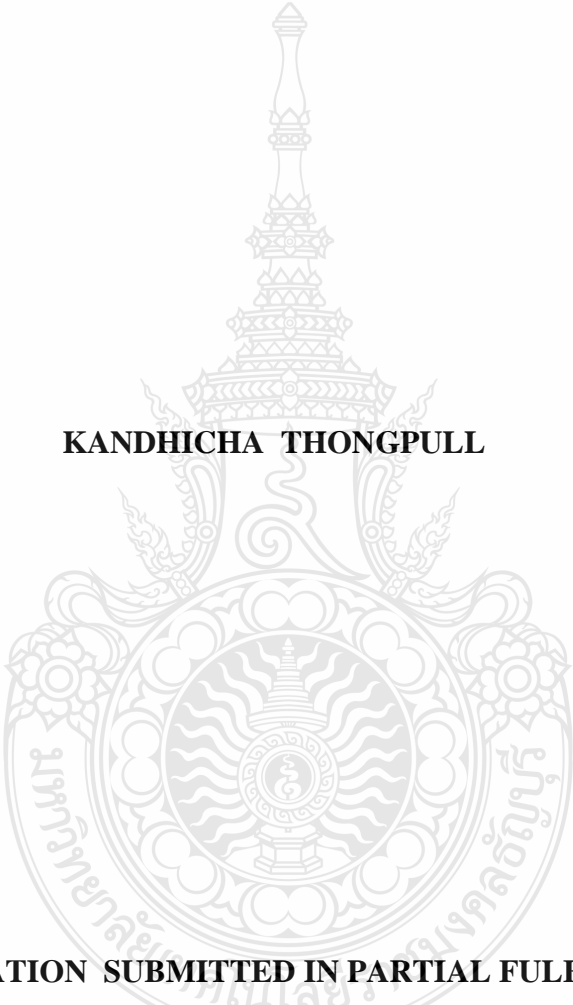 CAUSAL MODEL OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT EFFECTS ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR
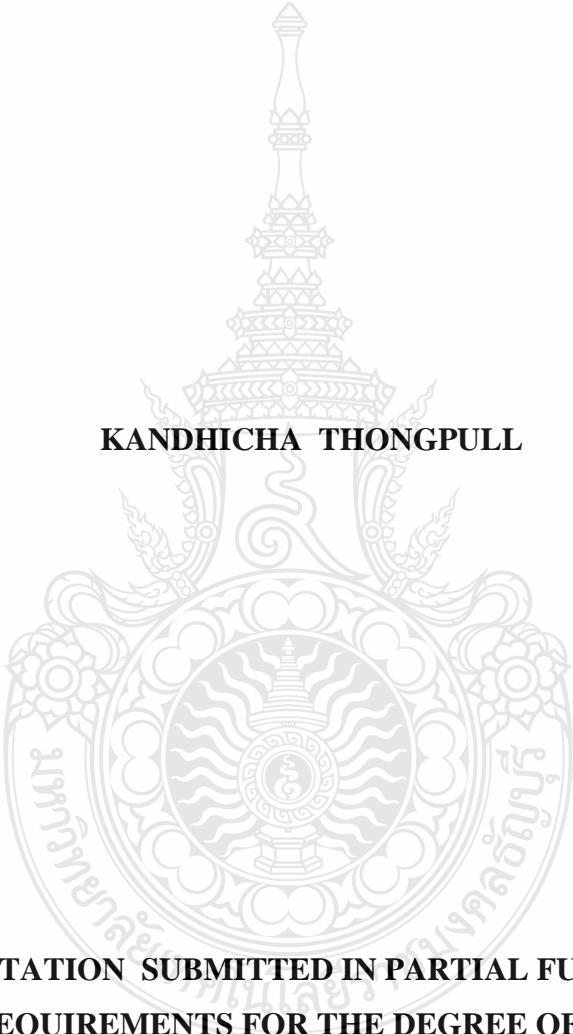
KANDHICHA THONGPULL

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Name – Surname	Miss Kandhicha Thongpull
Program	Business Administration
Dissertation Advisor	Assistant Professor Khemaree Rugchoochip, Ph.D.
Dissertation Co-Advisor	Assistant Professor Khahan Na-Nan, Ph.D.
Academic Years	2014

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were (1) to investigate the effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, and (2) to explore the difference effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior between generation Y model and generation X model. Data collection was done by using surveys, and the samples consisted of 504 employees who had worked in 48 hotels under Thai Hotels Association. The analysis employed confirmatory factor analysis and the structural equation modeling at the statistical significant level of 0.05.

The findings indicated that skill variety, task autonomy, and perceived organizational support had positive effects on organizational commitment. Perceived organizational support and organizational commitment had positive effects on organizational citizenship behavior. The result of multiple-group path analysis showed that the validation of the proposed model was fit to the empirical data since there was similarly effect on variables between generation X model and generation Y model on the organizational citizenship behavior.

Indeed, the results signified that task feedback affected the organizational commitment in generation Y model more than generation X model. Perceived organizational support affected the organizational commitment in generation X model more than generation Y model. Task identity had effect on organizational citizenship behavior in generation Y model more than generation X model. Task feedback had positive effect on organizational citizenship behavior in generation Y model, but had negative effect in generation X model. Finally, the study indicated that organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior of generation X and generation Y were indifferent which implied that generation X and generation Y employees could adapt themselves to fit with the organizational culture.

Keywords: job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior

Acknowledgements

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List of Abbreviation

AGFI	Adjusted Goodness-of Fit Index
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CMIN/DF	Chi-square statistic comparing the tested model and the independent model with the saturated model
C.R.	Critical Ratio
df	Degree of freedom
Gen	Generation
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
GPI	Graph-Theoretic Power Index
IOC	Item-Objective Congruency
JCM	Job Characteristics Model
JDS	Job Diagnostic Survey
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
MPS	Motivating Potential Score
NAPE	Newfoundland Association of Public Employee
NFI	Normed Fit Index
OC	Organizational Commitment
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OCQ	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

List of Abbreviation (Continued)

P   p-value

POS   Perceive Organizational Support

RMR   Root Mean Square Residual

RMSEA   Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

S.E.   Standard Error

SEM   Structural Equation Modeling

SPOS   Survey of Perceived Organizational Support

TLI   The Tucker Lewis Index

VIF   Variance Inflation Factor
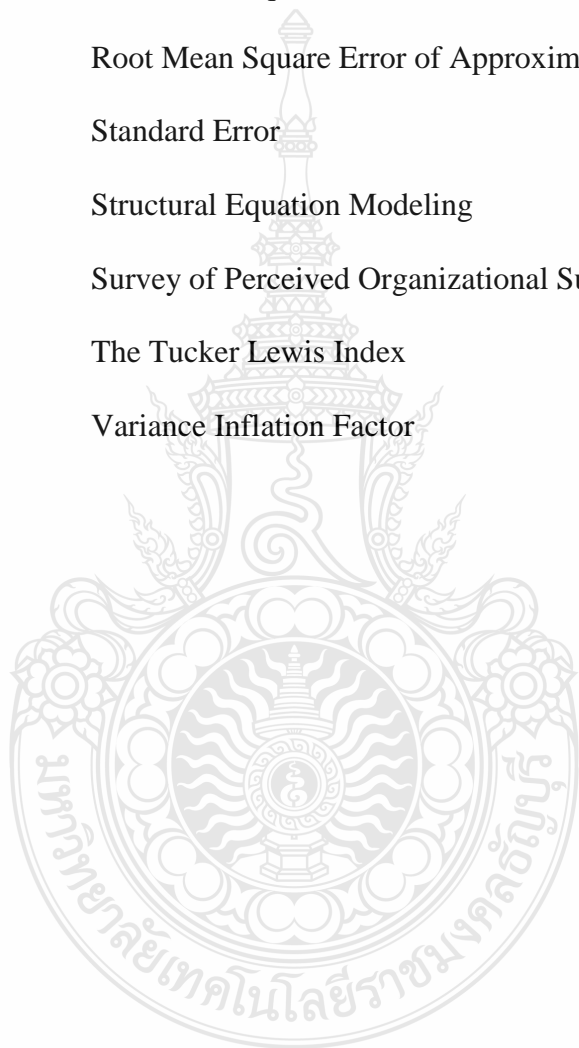
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and Statement of the Problem

Background

In the competitive realm today, to maximize the endeavor and efficiency of their personnel, the organizations have never stopped seeking for the new methods. At present, there are different conditions in the organizations that boost their competitions rate and the effects from these conditions result on the organizations to have new personnel generation, a generation that so called as the organization's soldiers. Definitely, the affective and non-affective organizations are differentiated by these personnel (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). At first the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) was introduced to the science world by Batman and Organ (1983). According to Organ (1988), OCB was considered as arbitrary and individual behaviors that had not been accurately defined by the organizational formal remuneration system while it could increase the productivity of the organization in general. Arbitrary was referred to as the behavior external from the behavioral role or occupational duties that are not among the commitment in employees' recruitment and it is not required to perform by the employees (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Organizations' success relies on the employees' performance when they act beyond their roles and duties where these efforts beyond the management literature and organizational roles and expectations are referred to as practical or OCB (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

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The definition of the term organizational citizenship behavior means some phrases like arbitrary behavior, good soldier, practical behavior and volunteer behavior that create the new phrase of organizational science particularly on the remarkable role in organizational behavior for the organizational affection (Garg & Rastogi, 2006). There is a tight relationship between OCB and the organizational commitment. Organizational commitment in the two recent decades was considered by the researchers as a dominant attitude that subjected for ultra-analyses. While modern attitude is a multi-dimensional attitude toward organizational commitment, so the focuses of other researchers' works are on various kinds of commitments in regard of work environment specifying behavior (Dickinson, 2009). Organizational commitment is one among the key factors to foster on the organizational citizenship behavior (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). It is shown by the previous research results that commitment can predict the organizational citizenship behavior since the significant impacts found on OCB (Ahmed, Ramzan, Muhammad, & Islam, 2011; Liu, 2009; Islam, Khan, Shafiq, & Ahmad, 2012). Undoubtedly, the OCB and the organizational commitment relationships have been extensively explored in the past.

Distinction in the present workplace is usually made among four generations, known in common as traditionalists (born before 1945), baby boomers (born 1945–1964), generation X (born 1965–1980), and generation Y (born after 1980) (Eisner, 2005). Although some variation can be seen on these generations' exact naming and the classified starts as well as each of these generations' end date, among academics and practitioners, there is a general descriptive consensus regarding to these generations (Eisner, 2005; Martin & Tulgan, 2001; Raines, 2003).

Generational effect on organizational and organizational citizenship behavior: We can define generation as ''a group of cohorts or people who move through time together by sharing birth years and experiences, being influenced and influencing by a variety of critical factors'' (Strauss & Howe, 1991, 2007; Kupperschmidt, 2000). As stated in Mannheim (1952), the specifically experiences during the formative phase (age 17–25) of individual can determine individual's behavior and value. It is also suggested from Mannheim (1952) that the more presence of critical life events, or the more environmental dynamic in which a generation grows up, the greater the differences will be between generations. It is suggested that for the older generation, they seem to face with difficulties in adapting to changes of dynamic environments whereas in the formative phase, new generations seem much easier to adapt with changes.

In the social sciences, the topic of existence of the generations phenomenon has become a hot debate where the core issues for opponents are inter depended on the effects of age or life-stage and the generational effects, as well as tenure or experience that could provide the generational effects choice of explanation (De Meuse, Bergmann, & Lester, 2001; Giancola, 2006; Macky, Gardner & Forsyth, 2008). The argument was made by Strauss and Howe (1991); Howe and Strauss (2007) that each generation has their own way to move into the new life stage when their values and expectations have changed. This supports the hypothesis of Mannheim that the values of a generation are formed in the formative phase. Claim is made by Kupperschmidt (2000) that generations possess the ''relatively enduring values'' that the generational characteristics are formed within their cohort, even though there is the apparent existing of individual generations.

At the most recent, tourism industry is the popular sector in most of the urbanizing Southeast Asia countries in particular Singapore, Malaysia, Indonesia, Brunei and Thailand. Tourism industry has played the significant role for Thailand's economy growth just like in many Asian countries as a result that there is the potential from tourism industry to create the earnings from foreign exchange, employment, and development in various parts of the nation. Moreover, it reduces the regional income and employment disparities, strengthens linkages among many of the national economy sectors and helps lessening poverty. Hotel industry is one of the sector in tourism industry wherein the third quarter of 2013, the country's GDP pointed out that hotels services grew faster by 25.1% from the previous quarter of 21.4%. The expansion was in conformity with the inbound tourists figures that accelerated from 21.3% of growth in the previous quarter to 26.1%. Tourists from East Asia and America went up by 36.5% and 12.0% compared to 31.7% and 2.5% rise in previous quarter, respectively. Tourists from Europe rose by 13.2% compared to a 20.1% growth in previous quarter whereas those from Oceania decreased by 0.7%, improving from a 15.2% fall in previous quarter. Partly, it resulted from the ongoing tourism-promotion campaigns by the government. Comparing to similar period of the previous year the occupancy rate of the hotel stood at 62.5% which is higher than 57.5% (Office of the national economic and social development board, 2013).

Thailand has become a rapidly growing tourism destination since 1980. However, there is a fall in foreign tourist arrivals and tourism revenue in a few periods. The various crises have had negative effects on the tourist arrivals such as financial crisis in Asian 1997, Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) epidemic in 2003,

Tsunami disaster in December 2004, the global economic and financial crisis in late 2007, disturbance in the three southern provinces, state of emergency and airport blockage in November – December 2008, flu pandemic or swine flu of HN influenza virus in 2009, flooding disaster in 2011, oil spills in 2013, and the lack of stability political image of the government by the consistently integration of people that demonstrates the violence results. These problems formed a negative impact on the tourists' confidence and the number of tourist decreased also impact on the hotel industry with the deceased number of visitors accordingly.

Thailand has abundant and varieties of tourism resources available which make the cost of living lower than its competitors in many countries. As a result, the tourists are travelling, taking a vacation or living after retirement in Thailand. The distinguished service quality is recognized and impressed as a competitive advantage in hotel business of Thai entrepreneurs. When bad situations are over, tourists will have the confidence to tour back in Thailand. The competition of the hotel business proactive would create a competitive advantage for the business owners. The good service of employees resulting in the return of visitors and spreading this good impression via social media can boost the tourism industry. Good employees' service behaviors result from the organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

Statement of Problem

The problem caused by inappropriate behaviors in workplace is a major problem that affecting on the organization performance. According to Vardi and Weiner (1996), they explains that abusive behavior is the behavior of the members who willfully to

disobey or violate the norms that expected to work on core values and social rules, regulations, standards of the organizations, such as avoiding work, substandard performance, abuse on corporate assets, behavior disrupts the progress of the organization, narcissistic personality, the trait anger and stress stimuli to work, frequent willful absence, come to work late, take a break over due, theft for company equipment, pretend to run slow or malfunction of irony to assist colleagues, obscure important information, and so forth. Problems caused by these behaviors affect the organization's success. Inappropriate behavior is a small problem that recurred until becomes a habit and can quickly spread to other employees causing a serious disadvantage to the organization, or for the organization to compete in effectively firing, recruiting new employees, or may have repeatedly failed until dissolution.

Generation and organizational citizenship behavior are moderated by organizational commitment according to Neil et al., (2010) it is explained that gen X are more closely parental mimic, the behavior causes them to have the ability to solve problems, work well with team, have a passion on organizational obligations, a higher commitment to the organization but with less enthusiastic to work, less creative, less technological capability, and slowly adapt with societal changes. In contrast, gen Y was born in the era of globalization, media, and immediate technology that these affect their working habits, that is, to pay particular attention to their assigned tasks, heightened creative, preferred on convenience, high self-confidence, have the ability to use high technology, preferred with work competition, lack of communication skills and less commitment to the organization since they believe in their own talent. They tend to change to any organization that they can yield a better or a more challenging.

According to Nate-tra and Kaewta (2013) they study the preferred work paradigm for generation Y in Thailand's hotel industry and suggest that gen Y students share similar views on the influential factors to work effectively. They identified five key factors: effective leaders, a friendly environment, good pay and benefits, a flexible policy and culture and great facilities.

Business operations rely on human resources to succeed. If organizations encounter inappropriate behavior or less, the organization commitment needs to control or fire. Recruiting new staff and training to create a new corporate culture, which takes time and costs, making work halted can effect on competitive advantage. In this study, the researcher concentrated on the effect of the antecedent variables (job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support) on the hotel industry employees' organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior in Thailand.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

1.2.1 To explore the relationship between job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior.

1.2.2 To investigate the effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

1.2.3 To investigate the difference effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment on

organizational citizenship behavior between generation Y model and generation X model.

1.3 Research Questions

1.3.1 How are the relationship between job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior?

1.3.2 Are there any effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior?

1.3.3 Are there any difference effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior between generation Y model and generation X model?

1.4 Research Hypothesis

Influence of Job Characteristics effects on Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Katz (1964) mentioned on the possible relationships that exist between job characteristics and OCB prior to the formally conceptualized on either of these constructs. The importance of the job characteristics enhancement on work context and work environment was emphasized by Katz as the performance of employees were beyond the requirements of role in organizational functions accomplishments.

Providing the intrinsic motivation within the work atmosphere is considered as the organization responsibility towards its employees. Intrinsically motivated staff as stated by Katz is "gratifications grow from accomplishments and the expression of his own abilities to exercise his own decisions". Katz also described the work atmosphere that contributes toward intrinsic motivation that the job must sufficiently provide with the skill, variety, complexity, and challenge in order to engage with worker ability. Again as stated by Katz, work quantity and quality increases through job demanding on higher responsibility because such jobs will foster the intrinsic motivation. Job enrichment or redesign can create the work atmosphere that offers the appropriate context for the innovative development and impulsive behaviors. Later on, such behaviors were referred to as the organizational citizenship behaviors.

Although much of researches were found on the task effects related variables over the related work outcomes while there was no sufficient exploration on the relationships between job characteristics and the construct of multidimensional OCB such as Farh, Podsakoff and Organ (1990). Evidence can be found on the empirical research, especially the studies examining on leadership substitutes that support the correlations between OCB and some job characteristics (Podsakoff , Mackenzie, & Fetter, 1993; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). However, it seems not clear about the nature and extent of these relationships (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). With the attempt to remedy this limitation, this research investigates on job scope as job characteristics' composition to predict for OCB and the work attitudes influence on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The sense of responsibility and ownership of employees toward the outcomes of work are enhanced via the autonomy in job characteristic (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Thereby, in order for them to accomplish the task, the willingness to exhibit OCB will be increased (Organ et al., 2006). The increased OCB is associated with the greater autonomous tasks controlling. For a job incumbent, a job is important if there is the significance, identity, and variety in job characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). It seems these job characteristics effect on OCB through the increasing of perceptions among employees on the meaningfulness of their work (Organ et al., 2006). As a result of job enhancement, the motivated employees would pay more effort and energy in OCB form. Employees expect to know the results of their effort conveyed through feedback which can have the largest impact on their performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). The essential of feedback is for people who committed to accomplish the task and feedback from task is anticipated to be more closely associated to assist people that have work related problems. For the civic virtue aspect, it involves making constructive recommendation on performance improvement; since greater knowledge about task accomplishment contributing factors is required in these behaviors rather than other OCB forms (Organ et al., 2006). Thus, the author purposes the hypotheses as follows:

H1: There is a positive effect of skill variety on organizational citizenship behavior.

H2: There is a positive effect of task identity on organizational citizenship behavior.

H3: There is a positive effect of task significance on organizational citizenship behavior.

H4: There is a positive effect of task autonomy on organizational citizenship behavior.

H5: There is a positive effect of task feedback on organizational citizenship behavior.

Influence of Job Characteristics effects on Organizational Commitment

It is important for the author to explore on the relationship between the job characteristics and organizational commitment, since the individual and the organization characteristics itself are equivalence. Such an organization-person fit can have impact on job incumbents' attitudes and behavior. Argument is made that the congruent experience to the need and values of employees can have impact over the organizational commitment. Between individual and organization, there is the greater fit and it is the greater commitment for the organization (Finegan, 2000). There are the strong correlations between person-job fit and organizational commitment (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005).

It can be said that person-job fit can influence on the organizational commitment while the author considers on job characteristics as the organization commitment as antecedents according to the meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990). In this study, the author found positive correlations between job characteristics and organizational commitment. Comparing to any of job characteristics, job scope shows more highly correlation ($r = .50$) and more consistently with the organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). It seems that the enriched and jobs can yield higher organizational commitment (Steers, 1977). In particular, the aggregate form of enhanced job characteristics provides the promise as organizational commitment

developing antecedent (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). According to these findings, the author proposes the hypotheses as follows:

H6: There is a positive effect of skill variety on organizational commitment.

H7: There is a positive effect of task identity on organizational commitment.

H8: There is a positive effect of task autonomy on organizational commitment.

H9: There is a positive effect of task feedback on organizational commitment.

Influence of Transformational Leadership on Organizational Commitment

By the critical thinking encouragement from the uses of new approaches, the transformational leaders can influence on their followers' organizational commitment. For instance to ask the followers to participate in the decision-making processes and inspiring their loyalty while trying to appreciate and recognize on different needs from each of them to develop the followers' personal potential (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Yammarino, Spangler, & Bass, 1993). Transformational leaders can motivate for more job involvement among the followers by supporting them to find the novel ways to approach with challenges and problems as well as identifying their needs which will result on the better levels of organizational commitment (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). The previous research supported on this view by presenting that there seemed to be the higher organizational commitment among the staff that encouraged by their leaders to participate in the decision-making process (Jermier & Berkes, 1979; Rhodes & Steers, 1981), emphasized consideration (Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995), and with the concerned and supportive on the development of followers (Allen & Meyer, 1990, 1996).

Although there is the empirical and conceptual link between the transformational leadership and organizational commitment, but few of empirical researches have focused on the processes of transformational leaders influence on the organization commitment level of followers (Bono & Judge, 2003). It must be recognized that transformational leadership can be involved with various processes in exploring the possible psychological role of empowerment regarding the present research on the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Moreover, to investigate on the structural distance of potential moderator within the transformational leadership and organizational commitment relationship; here the hypothesis is proposed as follows:

H10: There is a positive effect of transformational leadership on organizational commitment.

Influence of Transformational Leadership on Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Very few researches have sought to determine on the indirect or direct relationship between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior (Kim 2012; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001; Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). For instance, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter, (1990) employed job satisfaction as a mediating variable and reported the indirect association between the transformational leadership and the organizational citizenship behavior. Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) indicated the association between the transformational leadership and two organizational citizenship behavior dimensions; helping and compliance. Moreover

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Organ et al., (2006) emphasized that the leadership style is associated with two types of organizational citizenship behavior (altruism and conscientiousness), with job satisfaction serving as a mediating variable. They also reported that transformational leadership was indirectly associated with civic virtue, sportsmanship, and conscientiousness through job satisfaction and trust, and that transformational leadership was associated with altruism.

Several studies have addressed on the affiliation between leadership (both transformational and transactional) and organizational citizenship behavior in Korean public sector context. Kim (2009) empirically demonstrated that leadership was associated with three types of organizational citizenship behavior (altruism, civic virtue, and conscientiousness). Moreover, Jung and Lee (2000) statistically explained that transformational and transactional leadership were directly and positively related with four types of organizational citizenship behavior (altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship). Such findings indicated indirect or direct relationships between the dimension of transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

Specifically, the more transformational leader serves as the proper role model (idealized influence); the more special attention pay to employees' needs of growth and achievement through coaching and mentoring (individualized consideration); articulates a vision (inspirational motivation); and the efforts to encourage employees toward creative and innovative behavior via questioning on assumptions, reframing problems, and old situations approaching in novel ways (intellectual stimulation) (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Moreover, the more for the employee to define organizational values, norms and

goals (i.e., affective commitment) (Dick, 2010). When employees associate the success of themselves with the organization's identified values, norms, and goals, they are more likely to participate in the organization with positive contributions that in turn make them more likely to be more supportive to their colleagues (altruism), present positive ideas for the organizational development (civic virtue), conform to the organization's rules and procedures (conscientiousness), avoid practices that make other employees' work more difficult (courtesy), and be tolerant to the problems in organization (sportsmanship) (Lavelle, Brockner, Konovsky, Price, Henley, & Taneja, 2009). In this regard, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H11: There is a positive effect of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behavior.

Influence of Perceived Organizational Support on Organizational Commitment

Although, there is the empirical and conceptual difference between POS and organizational commitment (Bishop, Scott, Goldsby, & Cropanzano, 2005; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Shore & Tetrick, 1991), these two notions are somewhat comparable. Indeed, POS concerns on the organization commitment toward employees, and the organization commitment means the degree that employees commit to the organization they are working for (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). To be specific, organizational commitment is a three-dimensional concept that consists of affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Affective commitment is the identification of employee and their attachment to an organization

that make the employees with the high affective commitment level keep working for the organization as they want to. Normative commitment is the moral obligation to keep working for the organization where the staff with high normative commitment level believes on their responsibility and duty to continue working for the current employer. Finally, continuance commitment means the degree that keeps employees remain with an organization since the high leaving costs. Those who are essentially bound to their organization from the continuance commitment basis remain with the place since they recognize on things invested in the organization (e.g., time, energy) would be "lost" if resign from the current organization or, they have limit access to the external options. In comparison with the affective and normative commitment that constructively correlated with various types of productive behaviors and workplace performance and (e.g. extra-role, organizational citizenship behaviors, work attendance). As indicated in many studies, the continuance commitment normally has negative correlation with similar variables (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer et al., 1993). Consequently, from a managerial standpoint, in common we consider on continuance commitment as less desirable compared to the affective and normative commitment.

Perceived organizational support seems affect each forms of the organizational commitment while Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) conducted meta-analysis which showed that POS was strongly and positively correlated with the affective commitment. Fuller, Barnett, Hester, & Relyea (2003) referred to Tyler's (1999) and explained this relationship by social identity theory where individuals felt recognized within an organization if their contributions to the organizational function were valued by the employer. Recognition on their status and work enhance the organization to know the

socio-emotional needs of the employees; their esteem, approval and affiliation needs (Shore & Shore, 1995). It seems organization can enhance the employees' pride and sense of belonging by filling these needs that will create the social identity of their employees (Meyer & Allen, 1991). On the other hand, POS relationship with the affective commitment can be explained by the social exchange theory according to Blau's (1964) that all human relationship development and maintenance are based on the resources exchanging that valued by the interacting by individuals with one another. In regard of POS and affective commitment relationship, the exchange of socio-emotional and symbolic aspects seems to be mainly considered (Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003; Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006). To be specific, the organizational support related behaviors such as the increasing salary, promotions, training, and tangible help seem to be considered as marks of respect by employees on their employer part that in turn increasing their trust and the relationship quality with the place (Chen, Aryee, & Lee, 2005; Cheung, 2000; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H12: There is a positive effect of perceived organizational support on organizational commitment.

Influence of Perceived Organizational Support on Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The perceived organizational support level of employees reflects their intimate feelings toward the emphasis and care from their organization. Those who have the sense of POS seem to feel that the organization is attempt to lend them the assistance during the circumstances that they requires for life or career support; personally,

employees may feel care, recognize and respect which in turn they reflect through the performance with more cooperation, diligent, appreciation, identification and mutuality among the colleagues. According to the reciprocity principle, POS employees will not just assist their coworkers, but they tend to have more satisfaction on job and organizational commitment that can boost their job performance, while show less absenteeism and resignations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). The higher the level of POS feel by employees according to Eisenberger et al., (1986) was derived from the benevolent care of the organization with the more humane and intimate personnel management. Note is made by Shore and Wayne (1993) that employees' OCB can be accurately predicted by POS. The investigation of Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997) on the perception influences on the attitudes and behavior of workers found that when employees perceive that they are valued by the organization, they seem to trust on the organization and attempt to provide the constructive suggestions for the organization; we can observe these self-initiated manifestation in OCB. It is denoted by the presence literature that POS is vitally related to OCB (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne et al., 1997; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). POS in the social exchanging context can stimulate the employees to behave on their obligations according to the goals of the organization. When they feel attached with the great importance by their organization, employees feel they are valued and will share via extra OCB (Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Piercy, Cravens, Lane, & Vorhies, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). Therefore, the author proposes the hypothesis as follow:

H13: There is a positive effect of perceived organizational support on organizational citizenship behavior.

Influence of organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior

Different models were charted out from Scholl (1981) with the indirect connection between commitment and OCB. From the perspective of Scholl's model, commitment was "a stabilizing force performed to remain on the behavioral direction when there was a dysfunction in expectancy/equity conditions" (Scholl, 1981). OCB as stated in the model means the employees' behavioral demonstration when they have less anticipated for the formal reward from the organization. In the previous studies, high commitment employees were shown to have stronger interested to engage in OCB; this was defined as voluntary behavior which was productive for the organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

The highly affective commitment employees' exhibit more intention on OCB performance compared those without affective committed (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It was revealed by many of researches related to behavior that they observed the strong association between affective commitment and citizenship behavior (Meyer & Allen, 1986). The strong relationship was pointed out by Organ and Ryan (1995) between two types of OCB; altruism and compliance and affective commitment.

The negative relationship was found by Shore and Wayne (1993) among the continuance commitment and citizenship behavior. Moorman et al., (1993) revealed the weak but crucially positive correlation of continuance commitment and citizenship behaviors.

Meyer et al., (1993) researched on the relationship between citizenship behavior and various of commitment types, namely, normative and affective commitment among workers. As revealed by the results, either affective commitment or normative commitment had the positive relationship with the citizenship behavior. While the normative commitment and extra-role behavior relationship showed in weaker level compared to those associating affective commitment. Therefore, the author proposes the hypothesis as follow:

H14: There is a positive effect of organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior.

Influence of Generation on Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In the coming years, the organizations have one of the biggest challenges from more than 75 million retirements of older workers that will be replaced by the equivalent number of young generation accessing the workforce. In order to manage on this new employees cohort with most attractive and effective ways, it requires for the organizations to have clear understanding on the new generation' values of work and the way they are diverse from the previous generations' values.

Generation X (gen X) (born during 1965 to 1980) is recently leading in the workforce since the Boomers are retiring. The characteristics of this generational cohort are shaped via the precarious political events such as after the Cold War ended and a series of economic recessions in timely and late 1970s as well as the early 1980s. They witnessed on such economic instability from the family relocations and high unemployment (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). That is the reason for

gen X to be individualistic and independent where they place more value on their own career rather than being with organizations loyalty (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008). They seem to pursuit on better opportunities and challenges in developing their own career instead of seeking for job security (Kupperschmidt, 2000). They also value for the workplace autonomy and free from supervision (Jurkiewicz, 2000). Though the quick job advancement is required by gen X compared to Boomers, but gen X are not the work-centric and value for balance of work-life compared to the earlier generations (Smola & Sutton, 2002; Twenge, 2010). Also, gen x reported to have better external locus of control (Twenge, Zhang, & Im, 2004) and self-esteem (Twenge & Campbell, 2001) than Boomers.

Generation Y (gen Y) (born during 1981 to 1999) are the youngest cohort of generation cohort to replace for the older generation. They are characterized by the economic prosperity, instant communication technologies advancement through social networking, internet and globalization where they are the same with gen X on the millennial value freedom and more balance on work-life compared to those from Baby Boomers age (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Smola & Sutton, 2002; Twenge, 2010). They tend to have the strong leisure work values and love a job that allows them for more times to vacation rather than the older generations (Twenge et al., 2010). Despite the lower work centrality of them, millennial tend to anticipate for more pay rises and promotions in the workplace (Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons, 2010). In addition, greater values are placed on the work fulfilling and meaningfulness and they will not tolerant to the work with fewer challenges (Corporate Leadership Council, 2005; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). In spite of the millennia's prevailing beliefs, they tend to have the high

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expectations on work status and work environment since the previous research found the similar satisfaction of millennial on their job like the older generations. Moreover, it is marginally reported with higher job satisfaction, and more optimistic toward their career development (Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010). Regarding the generations' personality traits, the previous research found that millennial seem to have different personality traits from the older generations (Twenge & Campbell, 2001; Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Campbell, & Bushman, 2008). Comparing to the older generation, it is found that millennial show with higher self-esteem, narcissism, and assertiveness (Twenge & Campbell, 2003; Twenge et al., 2008). Therefore, the author proposes the following hypothesis:

H15: Effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support and organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior in model X are greater than model Y.

1.5 Conceptual Framework

The purpose of this study was to investigated relationship and effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. Conceptual framework for this study drawn from the empirical previous evidence, job characteristics with five dimensions base on Hackman and Oldham, (1980); transformational leadership with four dimensions base on Bass and Avolio, (1993); perceived organizational support with three dimensions base on Eisenberger (2002); organizational commitment with three dimensions base on Mayer and Allen (1997) and

organizational citizenship behavior with four dimensions base on Organ (1988);

Podsakoff et al., (1993); Lepine et al., (2002).
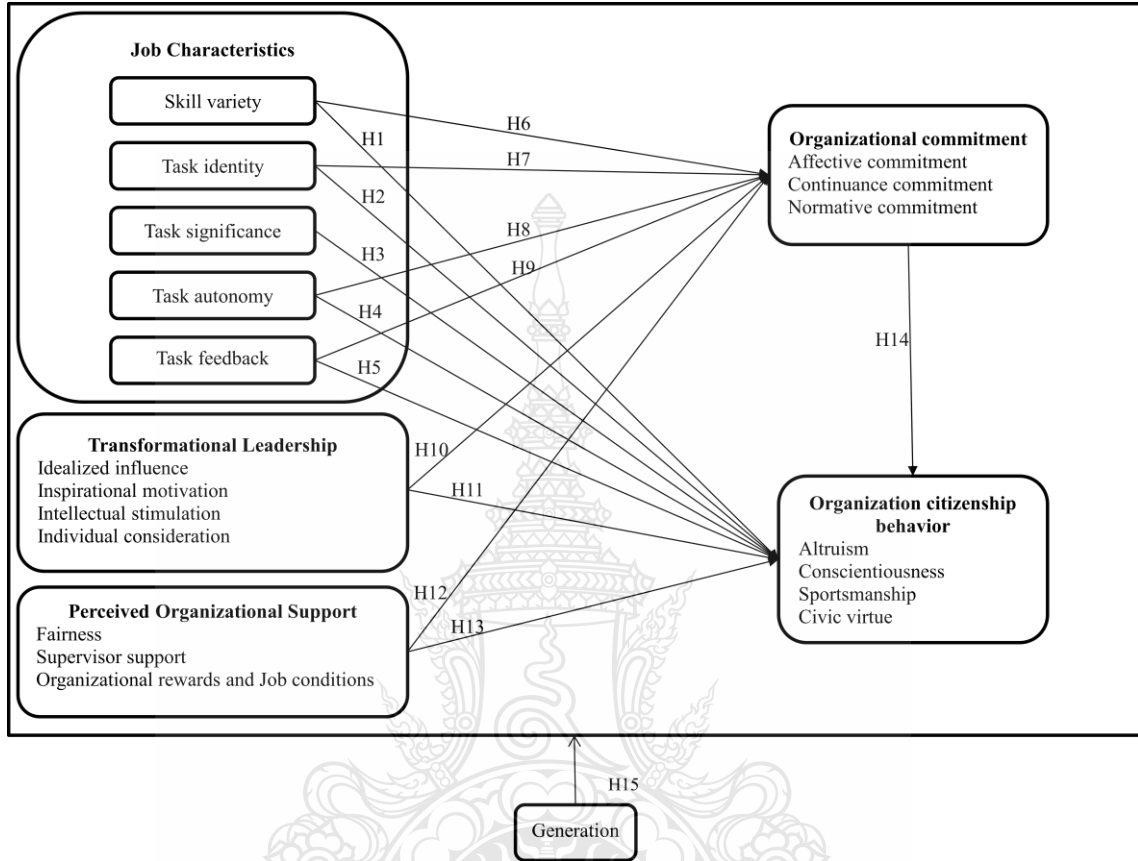
Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework in this Study

This study conceptual framework was illustrated in Figure 1.1; the overall
concepts, theories, and related research were integrated. According to the conceptual
framework, the relationship between variables can be explained as follows:

1.5.1 Job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived
organizational support effects on the organizational commitment.

1.5.2 Job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived
organizational support effects on the organizational citizenship behavior.

1.5.3 Organizational commitment effects on the organizational citizenship behavior.

1.5.4 Comparing the effect of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior between generation Y model and generation X model.

1.6 Definition of Terms

Organizational citizenship behavior represents the discretionary of individual behavior, but not explicitly and directly recognized by the formal reward system. Moreover, it promotes the organizational efficient and effective functions (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Altruism has been defined as a discretionary behavioral type that consists on the specific other person helping habit (Omer & Umut, 2007) and to motivate the staff to help other employees in dealing with work problems. Whereas courtesy is one of the discretionary behaviors that does not cause the work-related problems to others (Joo & Soonkwan, 2008).

Civic virtue refers to a kind of behavior that employees attend to the organizational practices with the firm's life concerning (Joo & Soonkwan, 2008). Civic virtue is defined as a commitment or macro-level interest toward the entire organization (Omer & Umut, 2007).

Conscientiousness reflects the discretionary in extra-role behaviors above the task requirements and job ethics (Joo & Soonkwan, 2008).

Sportsmanship refers to the employee's willingness on the part that signifies their own tolerance on the organization events with less-than-ideal with no complaining and problems blowing external of proportion (Alizadeh, Darvishi, Nazari, & Emami, 2012).

Organizational commitment refers to the psychological stabilizing or obliging force that produces the behavioral direction (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). This is also termed as the state of multidimensional psychological that characterizes the relationship of organization personnel in question with the implications toward their decision to persist in the organization involvement (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Including as the multidimensional forms are affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment.

Affective commitment refers to the identification, emotional attachment, and employee involvement with the organization and its goals (Mawday, Steers, & Porter 1979; Meyer et al., 1993; O'Reily & Chatman, 1986).

Continuance commitment means the intention of employee to stay with the organization since they refer to it as the non transferable investment. Non transferable investments can be the relationships with colleagues, something special with the organization and the retirement (Reichers, 1985).

Normative commitment is the person commitment from their belief in the organization and their sense toward the work obligation (Bolon, 1993).

Job Characteristics refer to the characteristics of each job that designed to provide an intrinsic motivation on work, job characteristics are including with five

dimensions: skill variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and task feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Skill variety means the degree that job requires for diverse activities to carry out the task. This involves the use of numbers of skills and person talents to achieve the job completion (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Task identity refers to the degree of completion that job required from the "whole" and identifiable work pieces; to process the job from the beginning to end with the productive result (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Task significance means the degree that job has a substantial effect on individual lives no matter those of them will be in the immediate organization or in the big global (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Task autonomy refers to the degree when job offers substantial independence, freedom and discretion to staff on the work schedule and in the procedures for task achieving (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Task feedback refers to the degree that work activities are carried out as required by the job allows the staff with clear and direct information for the effectiveness of their performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Transformational Leadership a leadership style that intended to raise leader and member toward high moral, ethical, and performance levels through the leader inspiration and motivation (Bass & Avolio, 1994). There are four dimensions of transformational leadership: idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration and inspirational motivation.

Idealized influence comes from the vision and sense of mission sharing from the leader to the followers. Thoroughly, leader proposes the innovative solutions to critical problems to deal with the problems from followers. The leader is respected by follower with trust and faith and the followers need to be identified by the leader. The leader should present with conviction and determination (Bass, 1997).

Inspirational motivation refers to optimism and enthusiasm boosting from the leader on their followers. It is the leader fluency and confidence communication by the simple language with the metaphors and appealing symbols (Bass, 1997).

Intellectual stimulation refers to an encouragement from the leader to approach the novel ways to look at the old methods and problems. It is when the leader provokes the reexamination and rethinking on the assumptions based on the strategies, possibilities, and capabilities (Bass, 1997).

Individual consideration refers to when the person attention is given by the leader to followers that makes each on them feel important and be valued. Moreover, when the leader coaches and gives follower advice on the personal development (Bass, 1997).

Perceived Organizational Support means the belief of employees on their organization in concerning of the extent to which their contribution is valued by the organization with cares on their well-being. There are four forms of perceived favorable treatment from the organization in general, which are supervisor support, organizational reward, fairness and job condition (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Fairness refers to the procedural justice that concerns on the determination on the resources distribution either the interpersonal/material among staff (Rhoads & Eisenberger, 2002; Greenberg, 1990).

Supervisor support means the common degree when the employees perceive that their contribution is valued by their respective supervisors with good care on their well-being (Rhoads & Eisenberger, 2002; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988).

Organizational reward and job condition refers to such of recognitions, promotions, job security, pay, stressors, training, and autonomy (Rhoads & Eisenberger, 2002).

Generation X are those who born during the period of 1965 and 1981 (Egri & Ralston, 2004).

Generation Y are those who born after 1982 (Eisner, 2005).

1.7 Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

The study consists of delimitations and limitations. Regarding the nature of this study, a number of limitations were addressed as follows:

1.7.1 The studying area only focused on 742 hotel members of Thai Hotel Association.

1.7.2 The study also had a limitation on the period of data collection which was specifically conducted only from March 2014 to May 2014.

1.7.3 The limitation of data collection was that it only focused on fulltime employees (Excluding daily workers, training, foreign labor and outsourcing employees).

1.7.4 The sampling data collection and result of this study were not come from all employees.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 Social Exchange Theory

In the social psychology field, including as one of the main theoretical perspectives was the exchange theory since the early written work of Homans (1961); Blau (1964); Emerson (1962; 1972). Based on the initial philosophical and psychological orientations, this theoretical orientation derived from the utilitarianism on one hand and on the other hand behaviorism. Both of these theoretical foundations vestiges remain as the evidence in the current exchange theory version. The focus here was mainly on the exchange theory theoretical contributions to the social psychological and sociological phenomena analysis on the crucial to understand on the exchanging micro-level processes and the macro-structures generated by them in the society.

Social Behavior as Exchange. The key emphasis by Homans (1961) was on the individual actor behavior during the interaction with one another. The primary aim for his research as to describe on the fundamental social behavior processes (status, power, conformity, justice and leadership) up from the bottom. It was believed by Homans that nothing was emerged in the social groups and could not be described from the individual propositions; together with the condition given that they happened to have the interaction. In his attempt to embrace this reductionism form, he clearly be paired the firm with the work of Blau (1964) who formed an analysis of "emergent" properties in social system through his social exchange and social structure theory.

Social exchange according to Homans (1961) was defined as the exchange of tangible or intangible activity, and more or less costly or rewarding between two persons at least. Primarily, cost was seen as the activities choice or opportunities inevitable from the involved of actors. Principles reinforcement came from the popular behaviorism kind of the early sixties (e.g., the work of B. F. Skinner) that used to explain the exchange relations persistence by Homans. Behavior is a payoffs function, whether the payoffs are offered from other humans or nonhuman environment. Subsequently, psychological basis for exchange was developed by Emerson (1972a) based on these similar principles of reinforcement.

Social behavior and social organization forms were described by Homans as created by the social interaction through reflecting the behavior of A could reinforce on the behavior of B (the relation of two parties between actors A and B), and how the behavior of B in turn reinforced on the behavior of A. This basis was apparent for the continued social interaction as described on the level of "sub-institutional". The historical and structural existing was taken as given. Actor's reinforced history was used to determine for the value and thus, it was taken as a given from entry into an exchange relation. The primary focus of Homans was on the emerged social behavior that resulted from the social mutual reinforcement process (and the lack of it). Also, relations could end on the failure of reinforcement basis.

From the key emphasis of his work on the dyadic exchange, where the basis was formed on much of his theoretical consideration on other critical sociological concepts like status, balance, distributive justice, leadership, power, authority, and solidarity. Usually, the works by Homans were criticized on two major reasons: it was too

reductionist (i.e., it took the psychology principles as the sociological phenomena basis) and to analyze on the sub-institutional social behavior level. It under played the importance of the institutional as well as the social structures and processes that emerge out of social interaction. Regarding to this, it was ironic since among the lasting contribution of Homans toward social psychology was his initial treatment on the distributive justice issue in the social exchange relations. The irony came from the actual that explicitly Homans was much less interested on norms as he was preoccupied by the "sub institutional" analysis level in his elementary social behavior research. The elementary behavior focusing efforts by him came on the large part of his opposition for the heavily system-oriented and Parsons' normative views that held sway in time that his treatise was written on the social behavior. Homans (1984) refers to the main work of Parsons in his autobiography related to the social system so called "yellow peril". Cook and Rice (2003) discussed on the distributive justice concepts by Homans on the greater detail in exchange relations fairness section.

The main proposition according to Homans framed the social behavior study in terms of punishments and rewards. In common, behavior that is rewarded continues up to the diminishing marginal utility limit. His first proposition was on the success proposition which stated that it was likely for the behavior that led toward positive consequences would be repeated. The stimulus proposition, the second proposition stated that rewarded behavior in such of the past occasions would be shown in the same situations. The third proposition, value proposition specified that the more valuable the actions result is to the actor, the more likely the actor performs on that action. The deprivation-satiation proposition, the fourth proposition qualified the stimulus

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proposition introducing the common diminishing marginal utility idea: the more frequent individual has recently obtained a specific reward to their action, the less valuable is an additional reward unit. Lastly, the fifth proposition specifies when a person emotionally reacts to dissimilar reward situations. Individuals would become aggressive and angry when they do not reach to their expectation. Later on, it was argued by Homans (1974) that they can become angry if the fair rate of return is not provided, introducing the normative concept of distributive justice into his dyadic exchange analysis.

Blau (1964) wrote on the same time in his micro-exchange theory framing regarding the costs and rewards, however, decided to go more with the view toward economic and utilitarian of behavior rather than forming upon the reinforcement principles as a result from the experimental behavioral analysis. Between these two broad perspectives, Heath (1976) pointed out the key distinction which was whether the actor was forward-looking or backward looking on his consideration on next action. Utilitarianism normally looked forward. Actors were seen as acting with the expectation of rewards that had benefit to them and they tended to select the choice of action that could lead to more benefits (and with cost economize, but see Molm, Takashashi, & Peterson, 2000). While reinforcement theories looked backwards as the actors valued on things rewarded to them in the past. In the work of Blau, the micro-level exchange theory was embryonic and underdeveloped; however, it was one of the very initial attempts to use utilitarianism that rose from the economics to social behavior.

Social exchange was seen by Blau as the central significance process in social life and underlying between the groups as well as between individuals. Primarily, his focus was on the extrinsic benefits' reciprocal exchange and the forms of association and social structures emergent in which created this kind of social interaction. Blau (1964) referred to "Social exchange" as the individual's voluntary actions motivated by the returns that expected by them and typically to bring from others". On the contrary, he stressed on social and economic exchange by the fact that it was more likely for social exchange in the obligations nature associated to the exchange to remain unspecified, at least initially. He argued that social exchange, involved the principle that an individual make another a favor, while there is a common expectation for the future return, the truly nature is absolutely not restricted in advance" (Blau, 1986).

The nature of the social processes was specified by the 1/3 of the book which led to the associations between individuals (e.g., attraction). He defined two conditions as the crucial for the assessment on whether or not the involved behavior led to the exchange. The behavior "should be oriented toward ends that can only be accomplished via the interaction with others, and it must try to adjust means for the of these ends achievement" (Blau, 1986). The process of social exchange offered the rise of social status and power distinction on the dependence basis of some actors upon others for the valued products and services provision. Many among the remaining focused on this book as the social exchange and emergent social processes structure at the level of organization and group. His explicit attempt to form the social structure theory on micro-level theory basis of exchange was also significant in the work of Emerson, though different theoretical strategies were applied.

The crucial contributions of Emerson were on the exchange theory which was an interesting working styles mixed from both Homans and Blau. The underpinning behavior on his micro-level theory of exchange was based on the principles reinforcement on the type that animated in 1960s' work of Homans. According to his theory in Part I, Emerson adopted the experimental analysis on the Skinner behavior and others as formal exchange behavioral theory basis (Emerson, 1972a). In Part II, he formed up the dyadic exchange analysis to generate the analysis framework for the exchange network structures (Emerson, 1972b). Our discussion on exchange and power reviewed this work since the dominant emphasis of the power in the early exchange structures study. This was the major focus in Blau and Emerson's studies where until now it is still the central topic among many of empirical work in social exchange networks.

The Structure of Social Exchange one of Blau's (1964) distinguishing features from his influential book on social exchange was the primary emphasis on the association's structure in which bigger than the dyad. The apparent goal of Blau was to form the theoretical formulation that could generate the macro-social structures theoretical basis. With this attempt to create the connection between a micro-sociological theory of behavior and a macro-social theory of social structure, we can observe them in many respects of the sociological efforts prophetic during 1980s and 1990s. This was emerged to closely examine on what came to be called as the "micro-macro link" (Alexander, Munch, Smelsev, & Giesen, 1990; Huber, 1991). Moreover, in effort to propose the a macro-social theory of structure in regard of the micro-social theory of behavior basis, the generic social processes and mechanisms were identified

by Blau since he considered them as the multi levels operative of social organization. These included conflict, cooperation, collective action, opposition, and legitimacy. This work set for number of development stages in exchange theory that much later on collective action, justice, coalition formation, and status, among others but Blau has never been offered the full credit to this broader effect, until recently.

For example, Montgomery (1996) had reformulated the model of social exchange by Blau (1964) to show the dynamic nature of interaction and the possible of opportunistic behavior. He showed the way that can be formalized the social exchange as the repeated game and how to use the game theoretic models to forecast for the certain exchange network structures stability. The theory of Blau's (1964) could not use to clarify the strong and reciprocal relationships among the workgroup advice network (Blau, 1955). A plausible explanation was provided from Montgomery's model (1996) with addressed only for the exchange network stability as noted by Blau (1955) and did not mention the emergence and potential structural transformation in real time. The work of Blau primary stressed on the exchange structures such as advice networks which were on its causal link with the network influence and power distribution.

Exchange and Power. Beginning from the early of Blau (1964; 1986) and Emerson (1962; 1972a; 1972b) theoretical works on the exchange research focused on the connection between the use of power and social structure. It was believed by Blau (1964) that power distributions and inequality were the emergent properties of the continual social exchange relations. He argued that inequalities could result from the exchange since some actors had more control toward highly valued resources compared

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to others. As a result, they incur social debts which were easily discharged most via the social debtors' subordination. This was argued by Blau (1964) that such of subjugation and domination relations adopted self-perpetuating character and created the power inequality micro-foundations.

The relationship between power and social structure according to Emerson was the core theoretical problem in the theory of social exchange as can be seen on his earliest work in social exchange; Emerson (1962) termed the power in relation as the an actor dependence function upon another. Especially, dyad (A, B) of exchanging partners, the power of actor A (one) over actor B (another) was a function of B dependence on A for valued behaviors and resources. Dependence and power thus were the function of the value placed by one actor on the resources that another controlled and the relative availability of source choices of those resources supply. There were two central features of relational concept that could form the large body of social exchange research existing at recent. First, the explicitly treated on power as a relational, however not a simply given actor's property. Second, power referred to the potential power that derived from the links of resources among actors that may be used or not used.

The move of Emerson into the conceptualize power as a social relations function had opened the door for the subsequent micro-theories development in connecting with the power of social networks. Similar to Blau (1964; 1986), Emerson seen the core social exchange theory task to be the framework creation in which the chief dependent variables were the structural changes and social structure. He moved on to enlarge his power treatment and dependence as a social relations function to the extensive social

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exchange relations theory and outcomes (Emerson, 1972a; 1972b). The possible

potential power was argued as the direct impact from the structural arrangements on the

valued resources controlled actors. In his work with Cook (Cook & Emerson, 1978),

the social exchange theory had been brought by Emerson into its contemporary

empirical and theoretical domain in which the argument was made with the

experimentally demonstration that power was a function of relative dependence. In

addition, dependence was seen as the interconnected networks of exchange partners

feature where the relative social power was the outcomes from the social network

shaping and their occupied positions (Cook & Emerson, 1978). While the concerned of

Cook and Emerson (1978) was on themselves and other exchange outcomes, especially,

the formation of commitment formation that was the link between power using and

social networks structure in which became the main focus of social exchange theorists

in this generation.

Among the scholars who studied on the social exchange, the most consistent

finding was that the relative position in an exchange relations network that forms the

differences in the relative use of power, obvious in the unequal rewards distribution

across the social network positions (Cook & Emerson, 1978; Markovsky, Wilier, &

Patton, 1988; Skvoretz & Wilier, 1993). While many of rivalry micro-theories

connecting network structure and power-use had emerged over the past two decades and

all of these perspectives converge on one point: "Power differentials between actors are

associated with the different positions of actor in the exchange relations network"

(Skvoretz & Wilier, 1993). However, the theories considered on different causal

mechanisms as working on the differentials converting in network position into power

differentials. The Graph-theoretic Power Index approach applied the elementary theory to focus on the networks role of exclusion (Markovsky et al., 1988; Markovsky, Skvoretz, Wilier, Lovaglia, & Erger, 1993; Skvoretz & Wilier, 1993). The fundamental theory had borrowed the concepts and solutions from game theory to focus on the crucial coalitions among partners (Bienenstock & Bonacich, 1992; 1993; 1997). Based on power-dependence reasoning and centers on equilibrium points, Equal-dependence theory reached to the balance of the dependence between partners (Cook & Yamagishi, 1992). Finally, expected value theory was developed on the basis of probabilistic logic to consider on the anticipated value of exchanges as weighted from the probability of manifestation (Friedkin, 1992; 1993).

The argument was made by Bienenstock and Bonacich (1992; 1993; 1997) on the way that structural arrangements influence on the exchanging frequency. They proposed the core concept that developed from game theorists into the social exchange concept. By arguing that intuitively the core as a solution implied "no group of players to gain the outcome, they could make better through forming a coalition" (Bienenstock & Bonacich, 1992). Different power of distributions was not only produced from the different network structures, but also the different coalitions emerge or core as the exchange "solutions". What implied by this argument was that the actors' structural arrangement in relative position to one another could be an impetus for some actor's sub-sets to more frequently exchange than others. Indeed, this implication was aware by Bienenstock and Bonacich (1993) and it explicitly tested to find out the core typically made effective predictions of exchanges frequency as well as the differences in relative power.

Also, structural arrangement was proposed by Cook and Yamagishi (1992) as it could impact on the exchange patterns among social network actors. Exchange was argued to proceed toward an equilibrium point where equally the partners depend on each other for valued resources. The implication from this equip-dependence principle was on the partner selection. The argument was that three different relation types could emerge from a potential exchange relations network in which being referred to as the opportunity structure. Exchange relations referred to those relations that the exchanges had routinely occurred. Non-relations are potential partnerships within the never been used network that if we removed them from the network, there would not be any impact of the power distribution prediction. Lastly, latent relations were the potential relations that remained without use and if removed, it would affect the subsequent power distribution prediction across network positions.

Likewise, this was argued in Friedkin (1992; 1993) that the focuses of some relation were more on the frequent interaction than are others, this relied on the alternative relations structure as shown in the exchange network. He considered networks as the potential relations space and calculated for the probabilities occurrence of that particular exchange. Payoffs referred to the expected value function for particular exchange weighted by the potential occurrence of that exchange. In fact, Friedkin said some relations were used more than others in central to his description on how power becomes distinctly distributed across social network position. Central to actor behavior in exchange networks theory were the forecasting on how frequent some exchange relations took place and, in addition, how some relations tended to take place within a given structure rather than others.

For the case of Expected Value Theory, the Graph-Theoretic Power Index (GPI) was explicitly concerned on resource acquisition prediction for the networks of exchange position actors. GPI in doing so relies explicitly on the possibility of the forming of specific partnerships (Markovsky et al., 1993). Other than using the exchange occurring probability in the GPI, the focus of Markovsky and his colleagues was on the idea that there are more impetus toward exclusion from some structures rather than others. Some network structures could be characterized as weak-power networks and strong-power networks while the vital dissimilarity between these two was that positions were included in the strong-power networks in which could exclude the particular partners without impact on their own benefit levels and relative power. According to this distinction, one implication was that the strong-power networks seemed to have lower commitment levels if compared with the weak-power networks. This was because the arbitrary exclusion was allowed on some partners' strong-power structures (Markovsky et al., 1993) facilitating the exercise of power.

Different concept of between social structure and the use of power link as formulated by Molm (Molm, 1990; 1997a; Molm, Peterson, & Takahashi, 1999) Molm began with the two central propositions of Emerson. Power referred to a function of dependence; however the research program by Molm chose the direction that different from other social exchange positional theories. Molm's focus was on exchanges with no negotiation, but with the reciprocal acts of liable to the offering (Molm 1990; 1994; 1997a; 1997b). The reciprocal exchange actors did not negotiate on the finite pool of resources division (or a fixed positive returns range). But rather exchange was the "gift-giving" process or the modest act of the provision through the valued resource or

service and relationships exchanging developed through time with the reciprocal giving repeated acts. The failure reciprocity results in the irregular exchange. Second, power is not only tied for the legitimate exercising of authority; it might be taken in the coercion or punishment forms (Molm, 1990; 1994; 1997a). The use of power was viewed in other theories as the influence of wielding structural via practice or threat of exclusion from exchange (in particular when the power-imbalance existed in the network). It was considered by Molm on how actors impose the negative outcomes or punitive sanctions over another. The practice of exclusion or treat was the most effective in networks that there was a large different in between actors' power and that actors with most dependent (least powerful) tended to be omitted from a certain networks exchange (e.g., monopoly structured networks).

The extensive research by Molm on the non-negotiated or reciprocal exchange had formed the crucial contributions for the understanding of social structure and the power exercising connections (Molm, 1997a). First, the work of Molm showed that not ever of power use types were the primarily structural motivated (Molm, 1990; 1994). While the insensible use of reward power can be produced from the exclusion during the exchange contexts negotiation (Molm, 1990). We used more sparingly the punishment power. Second, there would be the strategic motivations in power use while the punishment power might not be frequently exercised. However, when its time comes, it is normally purposively employed to impact on the exchange partners' future actions (Molm, 1990; 1994). Third, the alternative sources of power analysis were provided in her study while the power use in punishment form was different from the power use in differential rewards distribution. Lastly, it was presented in her line of

research on the way that coercive power linked with but limited by the dependence structures. Dependence upon rewards was the prime force in the relations exchanges which motivating on both the reward power and the use of punishment (Molm, 1990).

Exchange and Fairness. On the use of power in exchange relations, normative constraints normally included with the evaluation on the feelings of obligation, interpersonal commitments, and fairness. Next section discussed on the emergence of exchange relations and networks commitments where the emphasis was on the fairness and the analysis on its role in the social exchange. The fairly exchange concept was included by both Homans (1961) and Blau (1964) into their theoretical formulations. According to Homans, we could observe the distributive justice in rewards aligning with the investments, except only the exchange participation involved beyond those cost of investments. Taking into consideration the costs, it was suggested from Homans (1961) that distributive justice was gained when there were the equal profits (rewards minus costs) between two actors.

The norms of fairness as addressed by Blau were the determinants for the "proper" rate of exchange. Overtime, the norms of fair exchange is developed by the argument is made by Blau for social exchange regulated and to eradicate continuous the conflict over fair returns and negotiation. The distributive justice and fairness concept in dyadic exchange was enlarged in the work of Homans by including the indirect exchange that involved with three parties or more. The indirect exchange notion and the exchange relations assessing by third parties were crucial for the more exchange and legitimacy macro-level theory development by Blau.

In the work of Cook and Emerson (1978) on the exchange networks demonstration with the concerns on equity that could restrict the potential of exploitative power exercising by power-advantaged actors (i.e., who have the positional advantage in an exchange relations network). Once the networks' actors in the research were told about the substantial inequalities in the network profits distribution, the reduction in the nature of powerful actor's demand and the higher demands of the actors with less power would reflect the subsequent in their exchange. The difference in power alone did not work to justify the emerged inequalities where it was shown from Cook and Hegtvedt (1986) that actors with power disadvantaged saw in equity in the profits distribution according to the exchange as far as unfair compared to those with the position of advantageous power in the network. Those that obtained benefit from these positions will have the higher return rates.

Moreover, there was the study by Molm (1988) on the role of fairness in concerning with the power use in the relatively small exchange networks where in her research, power type possessed by the actor (reward power or coercive power) did have the influence on the partner's perceived fairness on the strategy of exercising power. For example, Molm, Quist, and Wiseley (1994) found that the coercion recipients felt that power exercising was fairer if it was the advantage power in the network rather than disadvantage power. Thus, not only that the power-wielder power affected on the fairness judgments, but the power level of the recipient of the power use also affected on them. Fairness judgments as reported by Molm (1988) was also varied across the used power type coercive power versus reward power. Coercive power was exercised much less frequently in the relation of power-imbalanced and seemed to evoke the

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strong fairness judgments when exercised. Actually, norm against coercive power using seem to be strong in exchange settings. This was argued by Molm that it resulted from the fear that coercive power use could bring the exchange behavior of partners into the expectation line that could lead toward negative consequences and perhaps terminating the relationship. From the findings, we could make the explanation on why coercive power is much less frequently applied. However, it was suggested from the work of Molm that when it was used, it could be fairly an effective mechanism to align the parties' interests in the exchange relation. Based on the individuals' conceptions of justice, the tradition fairness judgments in this research extended beyond the exchange outcomes evaluation. The strategies used by the actors were included to gain the outcomes from exchange.

The early formulation on exchange of distributive justice as formed by Homans was consequently criticized by many of authors (Berger, Zelditch, Anderson, & Cohen, 1972; Jasso, 1980) to only focus on the local comparisons (to one's exchange partner or those with the same situated in an exchange network) rather than the referential comparisons (to actors' classes or groups). This criticism directed toward several of justice formulation choices development which the most significant one was developed in two decades ago by Jasso (1980; 1986; 1998).

Justice according to Jasso was an evaluation on things received by one in the exchange or the allocation, more common on the comparison with expectation or standard in regard of "just share" from one. We represented the formulation as: JE = In (actual share/just share). Taking the actual share ratio, the logarithm just share represented the empirical fact that individuals are more strongly reacted under reward

(i.e., receiving fewer than expects from just share) than to over reward (i.e., receiving more than expected to have based on the just share). Expectation could be on both local comparison basis and a set of comparisons in aggregation or group comparison, or with an abstract principle or standard (e.g., equal shares for all). It was argued by Jasso that things like crime rates and collective action in revolutions or strike forms normally resulted from the perceived of injustices among members and individuals in diverse social groups. This theory allows for differential response rates forecasting to types of injustice in accordance with the aggregate levels of perceived injustice in the society or social group.

In accordance with Jasso (2001) in many of his recent empirical tests, some of these predictions offered support toward the new theory of Jasso on distributive justice. Next, the section will mention on the emotions role in exchange relations. Ironically, the fairness conceptions were introduced into exchange theory via the early emphasis placed by theorists on the exchange in emotional aspect. The exchange could be seen by the actors as unjust or unfair with the negatively react through anger; this was one of the reasons included by Homans that fairness was an associate concept to his dyadic exchange formulation. Actors who obtained their expectation was argued to feel that their exchange was just while those who were not tended to react on the positive emotion toward guilt (when getting more than they expected) or the negative emotion via anger (when getting what less than they expected). The same argument was made by Jasso in concerning with the emotions when "just share" was received or not received.

Emotion and Exchange. On the current work about the social exchange role of emotion, a distinct move was represented with the stress on the traditional structural determinants of exchange outcomes, though this responded to some topics like the early exchange theorists' works including the associated emotions with exchange relations fairness. Majority of the empirical work on actual exchange within the past 20 years had particularly investigated on the way that social structure affected on the exchange outcomes such as commitment and power-use. This research bulk had revealed that the simply pursuing own interests actors could unknowingly form the inequities in the resources distribution. Moreover, and the relations of pattern exchange like that particular relations in the opportunity structure were preferred by others, with less or none of self-conscious intention from the outcome generating. This newer research stream starts to study on the social exchange process emotional consequences and the role played by certain emotions in the exchange relations network structuring.

The theory was developed by Lawler and his collaborators (Lawler & Yoon, 1993; 1996; Lawler, Yoon, & Thye, 2000) that they referred to the Relational Cohesion Theory in explaining how the exchange outcomes were affected by the emotional responses in relationships exchange. Likewise, Molm and her collaborators (Molm et al., 1999; 2000) began their exploring on the emotion's role in exchanging; however the more focus was on the impact as the outcome from an exchange rather than a factor leads to exchange outcomes. Each of these two research bodies showed the predominantly structural concerns among several of recent exchange researchers in a step away (Markovsky et al., 1988; Beinenstock & Bonacich, 1997; Cook et al., 1983), which was the move that included effect as a social exchange concerns with link to the

traditional exchange theory. The particular concern of Blau (1964) was on the emergent properties of exchange relations which the argument was gave that continual social exchange relationships developed the intrinsic value over time to exchange partners which was a crucial of Relational Cohesion Theory (Lawler & Yoon, 1996; 1998; Lawler et al., 2000). Moreover, Emerson (1972b) explicitly theorized on preference, trust, and commitment as the emergent results from successful exchange relations, where Molm and her colleagues (Molm et al., 1999, 2000) studied on all the outcomes. In turn, we will go through each line of research by focusing on the crucial theoretical contributions for exchange theory.

  Commitment to Exchange Relations. Similar with other topics of the study related to exchange theory, the former work on commitment formation concentrated mainly on the examination of structural arrangements effect on commitment between actors (Cook & Emerson, 1978; Cook, Emerson, Gillmore, & Yamagishi, 1983; Markovsky et al., 1988). In connection with other concepts of social psychological like social uncertainty (Cook & Emerson, 1984; Kollock, 1994; Yamagishi, Cook, & Watabe, 1998), or affect (Lawler & Yoon, 1998; Lawler et al., 2000; Molm et al., 2000) later, be developed and refined. In the earliest work in the social exchange experiment (Cook & Emerson, 1978; Stolte & Emerson, 1977), the researchers' interests were on the actor's commitments toward specific relations within an alternative relation opportunity structure. Originally, in the social exchange context; commitment was described by Cook and Emerson (1978) as "an interpersonal attachment that directed persons toward repeatedly exchange on similar partners". According to them, commitment was termed as the pure behavioral from the exchange frequency with a

given partner in associate with total available chance of exchange. Power-use and commitment were found to inversely related, while commitments were additionally revealed with a power distributing function throughout the exchange network (Markovsky et al., 1988; Lawler & Yoon, 1998). Markovsky and his collaborators have argued that in some network structures as referred by them as strong-power networks allowed for the exclusion in any given round with no exchange rates reduction from non-excluded members. Such of network structures commitments were infrequent, for instance, three actors connected in a line, A to B to C which actor B was equally pulled away and toward from each A and C. Some network structures could alternatively support the commitments. The classic network in "kite-shaped" consisted of four persons (one actor and the three alternatives, two alternatives for each of the two—one other and the central actor—and a sole connected of third actor with the central actor) led to the commitment between the central actor and the one alternative actor, and a second committed relation between the two actors left (Lawler & Yoon, 1998; Skvoretz & Wilier, 1993).

While commitment was seen as a power-use function (Cook & Emerson, 1978) and the distribution of power in a network (Markovsky et al., 1988), most of research had focused on the social exchange theory in the commitment concept which was connected to the social uncertainty commitment. The uncertainty conceptualization, however, had undergone some alteration over the past 20 years. Cook and Emerson (1984) initially argued by referring to "uncertainty as the probability subjective of satisfactory transaction conclusion with any partner" (italics in original). They discovered the higher commitment particular exchange partners directed from the

greater uncertainty within an opportunity structure. These commitments were generated

from actors in which argued by the reason that it raised the frequency of exchanges

completion and thereby boosting the overall level of actor's benefit. While this

uncertainty conceptualization was selected by Markovsky and his collaborators in

exclusion on his work, this was opted by most of other social exchange theorists on a

new social uncertainty conceptualization (Markovsky et al., 1988, 1993).

Regarding the exchange theory, recently research within this field

conceptualized on it as the possible to suffering from the opportunism acts imposed by

an exchange partner of one (Kollock, 1994; Rice, 2002; Yamagishi et al., 1998). In this

new research line, it also showed from social uncertainty the commitment formation

promoting (Kollock, 1994; Rice, 2002; Yamagishi et al., 1998). According to all of

these studies, commitments were explored in the atmosphere that actors were allowed to

cheat on their exchanges. As such, to particular relations, commitment was the practical

solution for uncertainty problem in these settings. If an actor or subset of actors from

the opportunity given structure proved on their own trustworthy exchange partner, the

safe haven from opportunistic exchangers would continually provide in the exchanges

with partner provides. However, such commitments have the incurring sizable

opportunity costs drawbacks in the opportunities exchange form in foregone with the

relative safety favor of commitments.

In the previous research by Kollock in which the opportunistic uncertainty and

commitment were connected, the actors exchanged among the two diverse

surroundings. In one environment (low uncertainty) we acknowledged the true value of

exchanging products, while true value of products was with held in the other (high

uncertainty) environment until the negotiations end. The actors were found with the higher tendency to establish commitments in the more uncertainty environment, moreover, it was the actors' attempt to forgo on more profitable exchanges with the partners without testing on the transaction continuing favor with the partners they knew that already demonstrated their trust worthiness in the former transactions (i.e., they did not misrepresent their products value).

Further, Yamagishi et al., (1998) examined between commitment and uncertainty link that deviated from the design experiment of Kollock but turned out to have the same conclusions. The actors in their experiment was facing with the remaining decision on a given partner or accessing the potential partners' unknown pool. Several of these basic design alterations were employed; however, the expectation of exchange value in each instance external to the existing relation was more than the current relation returns. The actors were found with willing to incur sizeable opportunity costs in opportunism associated risks reduction. In addition, the uncertainty was seen in either the uncertain probability of loss or an unknown size of loss forms while each can promote the exchange partners' commitment.

Rice (2002) in his recent study aimed to link the initial uncertainty work as the exchange partner probability finding with environmental uncertainty for instance that allowed the opportunism. Kollock (1994); Yamagishi et al., (1998) had researched on the occurring exchange among actors in the settings that grant for the potential of opportunism, but it confirmed for the actors to meet with an exchange partner on all round. In the design of Rice (2002), there were two different environments in actor's exchange: one which the actors were allowed to renege on their exchange rates

negotiation (high uncertainty) and one with the binding negotiations (low uncertainty). However, we can observe exchange from two different network structures: a complete network that all actors always meet with a partner, and a T-shaped network that excluded two actors out of the every round of exchange. Uncertainty was found to promote the thorough network commitment, but not in the T-shaped network (strong-power). He argued that commitments were the key solutions for networks uncertainty without force exclusion. In the networks with force exclusion, commitment was pulled out of the structure with was sufficiently intense to undermine the commitments propensity. Whereas Kollock, Yamagishi and his collaborators in the earlier works recommended avoiding the potentially opportunistic partners, actors would incur sizeable opportunity costs. As suggested in, Rice (2002) such of tendencies could be muted by specific structure of deterministic network.

Moreover, Rice (2002) enlarged their study on the social uncertainty in exchange through examining on the way that commitment associated with other results of exchange, such as the resources distribution within networks and across relations. The argument was that commitments could lessen the power use on the imbalanced networks and led to the more egalitarian in resources distribution across various network positions. In networks that there was the unequally in the power between actors, actors with power-advantaged has relatively far more opportunities to exchange rather than partners with power disadvantaged. These superior choices were the power of actor with power-advantaged basis. If, as uncertainty raised, power-advantaged actors gave the power disadvantaged actors with commitment and based on their power they erode. Ignoring of possible chance entailed the commitments forming. Alternative

relations were the structural power basis and as these relations atrophy, power exercising and imbalanced resources distribution would be lessen.

Results from the current research on the social uncertainty exchange indicated a strong tendency of large opportunity costs incurring actors through the commitments given in achieving the relative safety or confirmed continuing exchange with the partner with trustworthy proven (Kollock, 1994; Rice, 2002; Yamagishi et al., 1998). Additional to this opportunity cost, it was argued in Rice (2002) that commitments could also have accidental negatively results on the exchange at the macro level. Less heavily actors tended to invest on their exchange relations under the higher uncertainty levels. Moreover, during the producing of individual gain, the acts of defection in exchange resulted in a collective loss; an outcome was common in prisoner's dilemma games. Both processes lessen the total collective gains in the whole network exchange. So in the uncertain socially positive aspect, commitments so far raised the solidarity sensing (Lawler & Yoon, 1998) and the exchange of resources were more correspondingly across relations (Rice, 2002). The attendant drawback from the reduction of aggregate levels was found in the productivity and efficiency of exchange.

2.2 Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In the recent years, Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is one of the most broadly topics to study by the research about organizational behavior (OCB) (Podsakoff et al., 1993; Hannam & Jimmieson, 2002; Zeuars et al., 2000; Ensher et al., 2001; Jahangir et al., 2004; Lievens & Anseel, 2004; Emmerik et al., 2005; Khalid & Ali, 2005). Bateman and Organ introduced this concept in 1980s where later on it was

refined and strengthened by many of researchers for instance Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1993), Jahangir et al., (2004); Khalid and Ali (2005). As a special type of work behavior, organizational citizenship behaviors are termed as the individual behaviors that are discretionary and beneficial for the organization though are not explicitly or directly recognized by the official reward system (Organ, 1995). Primarily, these behaviors are the matter of personnel choice where omission cannot consider to be punished by the organizations. In respect of the OCB dimensionality, there are different views from scholars OCB. Where according to Smith et al., (1983) OCB was conceptualized in two dimensions: altruism (the specific behavioral targeted toward individuals assistance) and generalized compliance (the general rules, norms and expectations compliance reflecting behaviors). Five OCB dimensions were later identified by Organ (1988) namely altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy, and sportsmanship. Furthermore, Organ elaborated on the ability to efficiency and productivity maximize from either the staff or organization through OCB that will ultimately lead the organization toward effective functioning. Organization citizenship is pointed out by Katz and Kahn (1978) with the importance for the organizations since it can be extremely valuable for the firm to capable to generate the competitive advantage and well performance (Nemeth & Staw, 1989).

Over seventy years ago, Chester I Barnard contended that "apparently it is that the person willingness can contribute to the cooperative system effort which is dispensable" (Barnard, 1938) and twenty-six years later Daniel Katz (1964) recognized and introduced the explicit concept of dependable role innovative and performance and spontaneous behaviors" which are essential for organizational effectiveness. There has

been an augmented research exploring the nature of such behavior (Kumar & Bakhshi, 2008). Smith et al., (1983) was first introduced conceptualized these contributions as "Organizational Citizenship Behavior" (OCB) to explain the weak empirical association between job performance and job satisfaction. Specifically, they argued that the weak link is attributable to an overly narrow conceptualization of job performance. They called for broadening the conceptualization of performance to include behaviors that go beyond formal role requirement. Moreover, they are not easily to enforce by the threat of sanctions and hardly to govern by individual incentive schemes and which lubricate the social machinery of the organization (Jiao, 2007). Organ (1988) has later on originally defined the organizational citizenship behavior as "discretionary individual behavior that the formal reward system cannot explicitly or directly recognize in the cumulative promoting toward effective organizational functioning". At more recent, he however modified on this meaning by stated that OCB referred to "social and psychological environment supporting performance when it is time to perform the task" (Organ, 1997). This revised meaning of term gives advantage by (a) it remains the discrepancy between task performance and OCBs that has empirically been shown as presence (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Fetter, 1993; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002), (b) it is better consistent to the contextual performance definition provided by Borman and Motowidlo's (1993), and (c) it steers away from some of the difficulty that OCBs are seen as the distinctive behavior that a person might not obtain the official rewards. Nonetheless, with no regard of the definition by Organ, one of the key reasons to rely on for the interest in OCBs is that it is anticipated to be

positively associated with the organizational effectiveness measurement (Podsakoff, Blume, Whiting, & Podsakoff, 2009).

The topic of OCBS was observed since 1983 to 1988 but only 13 papers were published, while form 1988 to 1993 it had dramatically increased to more than 122 papers (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). The empirical research has focused on four major antecedents categories (Podsakoff et al., 2000): individual characteristics (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), task characteristics (Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996a, 1996b), organizational characteristics (Shore & Wayne, 1993; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998) and leadership behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 1990; 1996a, 1996b). Boundary research in this area has remained its focus upon the organizational goal and outcomes, including the effects of OCB's on the managerial performance, organizational performance and success evaluations (Brown, 2007). The OCBs antecedents have been extensively researched; however the greater importance is to explore on the relationship between and the criteria for the organization effectiveness and OCBs (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Global changes and organizational diversification can affect on the employees' individual characteristics or the unfortunate outcome since it is become increasingly difficult to all (Podsakoff et al., 2009), but the most avid readers shall keep up information for proactive in diversification.

Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Smith et al., (1983) in their initial attempt to distinguish organizational citizenship behaviors from in-role job behaviors, found that there were two factorials

distinct dimensions of OCB. First, altruism, which is a group of helping behaviors targeted at specific persons; and second generalized compliance, which involves doing things for the greater good of the organizational, and whose exhibitors can be compared to a "good soldier" (Smith et al., 1983). Since then, a considerable amount of research has been conducted in the literature area, revealing various other dimensions of OCBs.

Organ (1988) identified five subsets of OCB: altruism, civic virtue, courtesy, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship. Altruism refers to helping behaviors aimed at an individual, who could be a co-worker, a customer, a client, a vendor, or a supplier. Civic virtue means the active political life participation within the organization for examples, reading the intra-office mail, attending meetings, voting, discussing on the issues of task in personal time, and speaking up. Courtesy means "such actions like 'touching base' with the colleagues whose their work could be impact from the decisions or commitment of one's such as the reminders, advance notice, passing along information, briefing, consultation, all convey the courtesy intrinsic quality" (Organ, 1988). Organ differentiated altruism from courtesy in spite of their similarity in offering help to other individuals. He noted that altruism aimed to help an individual who is already in trouble, while courtesy targeted at preventing problems from occurring or mitigating the problems.

Conscientiousness is termed as those instances that the role behaviors are well performed by the employees above the minimum levels that required for instance, attendance, meeting deadlines, punctuality, cleanliness, use of break time, and compliance to either formal or informal rules that required to preserve in order in the office. Conscientiousness is closely the same with Smith et al., (1983) proposed of

compliance generalized. Organ (1988) labeled this type of behavior by a different name since he believed that compliance connotes servile obedience to authorities, but conscientiousness can more accurately describe the nature of such behaviors of nonconformist but inner directed. Sportsmanship refers to behavior that people avoid such of complaining on the trivial matters and issuing trivial grievances.

Another framework for OCB is offered by Morrison (1994) while her dimension on altruism seems overlap with Organ's (1988) altruism and courtesy dimensions. Her conscientiousness concept is a bit narrower compared to Organ's where she also provides the dimension of sportsmanship and the involvement that the latter has included with Organ's sportsmanship and civic virtue dimensions as components. The final dimension, "keeping up with changes," has overlapped to the dimension of civic virtue and conscientiousness according to Organ's.

Two contextual performance dimensions were measured by Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) via requesting the supervisors to rate on how likely their employees were engaged in particular behaviors. Interpersonal facilitation which is the first dimension has overlapped with altruism and courtesy dimensions (Organ, 1988), altruism dimension (Morrison, 1994), and social participation dimension (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Job dedication is the second dimension that includes with Organ's sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness dimensions elements. Moreover, job dedication adds the elements of pertaining to determination in one's own task completion. This last element is quite the same with functional participation (Van Dyne et al., 1994) and job–task citizenship performance (Coleman & Borman, 2000). In recognition on the overlapping between the behavioral elements of OCB (Coleman &

Borman, 2000; Motowidlo, 2000; Organ, 1997), the scholars try to consider on the elements whether they should be integrated into the conceptually different subgroups. The example are given from Williams and Anderson (1991) with the suggestion the distinction of organizational citizenship behavior directed toward individuals (OCBI) and the organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization (OCBO). Altruism and courtesy can be regarded to fit with the previous category while the civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship seem to fit with the latter category.

Note was made by Coleman and Borman (2000) on the proliferation found on the fit behavioral elements with OCB's common definition however, scholars have not studied with the aim to identify on the extent to which the broader underlying constructs represent by behaviors. Coleman and Borman addressed on this issue by using the same data from content sorting on 27 citizenship behaviors and the data was analyzed by the approach of exploratory factor analysis, cluster analysis, and multidimensional scaling. Along with the analyses results of Williams and Anderson (1991), they suggested on the behavioral categories that different by the respect of the behaviors' beneficiary. Their dimension of interpersonal citizenship performance conveys to the beneficial behavior toward other members in the organization. This included the dimension of altruism and courtesy by Organ's (1988), thus, being the same with OCBI. Their organizational citizenship performance dimension means the organization beneficial behavior including the dimension of civic virtue, and conscientiousness, and sportsmanship of Organ which similar to OCBO. Job–task citizenship performance is the third dimension that refers the extra effort and job persistence, job dedication, and the desire of one's to perform their job at maximum behaviors. Although, the latter one seems to be external

of OCB scope by Organ, but quite close to the dimension of functional participation (Van Dyne et al., 1994) and dedication to job (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

One issue involving OCB and its behavioral dimensions is whether these dimensions should be treated as reflective manifest variables in the latent concept or as the theoretically distinctive dimensions. LePine, Erez, and Johnson (2002) hypothesized on two models of OCB dimensions: the "aggregated" model and the "latent" model. In the "aggregated" model OCB dimensions are the conceptually distinctive behavioral dimensions with little correlation between each other. In the "latent" model OCB dimensions, there are reflective manifest variables of the latent concept of OCB and display a high correlation between each other. Based on a meta-analysis of 37 studies, LePine et al., (2002) found that Organ's five OCB dimensions were highly correlated among each other without the significant distinction on the relationships from most of studied predictors, for example, commitment, satisfaction, leader support, and fairness. They concluded that OCB is a latent variable and that the five dimensions are only the indicator of this latent variable.

The conclusion by LePine et al., (2002) on a composed model of OCB was built on two of their study results: (a) Organ's five dimensions of OCB are highly correlated, and (b) there are no significant differences in their relationships with some of the most studied antecedents. However, other researchers have presented on the different dimensions of OCB that could have dissimilar antecedents. For example, Konovsky and Organ (1996) found that conscientiousness (among the large five personality factors) predicted the generalized compliance, altruism, and civic virtue, but not courtesy and sportsmanship. Moral reasoning was found by Ryan (2001) to predict the

sportsmanship and helping behavior, but not for civic virtue. Ambiguity and conflict in role hold the destructive relationships with altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship, but not with civic virtue and conscientiousness (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Apparently, different behavioral dimensions of OCBs are predicted by different factors. When different dimensions of a concept have different antecedent, they cannot be viewed as latent reflective manifest variables or, as stated in LePine et al., (2002) "Individual items of a uni-dimensionality". The suggestion by LePine et al., (2002) on that researchers focus on OCB instead of specific dimensions of OCB is even more problematic; for doing so; they can miss the important antecedents of particular dimensions of OCB.

2.3 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment refers to the degree involving employees' feeling in identification about their employer's organization. The indication is made by Morrow (1983) on various distinctive theoretical foundations used to term for the commitment related concepts as a result from number of measuring tools. Despite of none consensus on this construct e theoretical and conceptual development, organizational commitment concept has hit on the considerable interest with the attempt to clarify and realize on the stability and intensity while employees dedicate to the organization. To study on the commitment, the authors have differentiated between three approaches, namely an attitudinal, motivational, and behavioral perspective. Although, many researchers have viewed on affective commitment and attitude and continuance commitment as a behavior (Boyle, 1997; McGee & Ford, 1987; Reichers, 1985; Somers, 1993).

According to Allen and Meyer (1990) recognition is on that organization leaving cost may be regarded as a psychological state. Thus, the commitment and continuance view are the attitudinal commitment element.

There are the efforts devotion with the impressive amount over the past three decades to recognize the organizational commitment on its antecedents, nature and consequences. Employee commitment is crucial since the strong commitment levels contribute toward many of satisfactory organizational results. As indicated from the meta analyses, commitment seems to be positively related to motivation (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and organizational citizenship behaviors (Riketta, 2002), job satisfaction (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005) while negatively related with absenteeism (Farrell & Stamm, 1988), turnover (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005), and counterproductive behavior (Dalal, 2005). Moreover, evidence has been provided by the research studies on the organizational commitment and job performance positive correlation (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989). According to DeCottis & Summers (1987) the low morale level is associated with the low level of commitment while this lessens the altruism and compliance measures (Schappe, 1998). At last, staff that is non-committed might explain their firm to the outsiders in negative terms, thereby inhibiting the firm's capability to hire the high-quality employees (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Crucial implications are offered from the findings from either the organization theory and management practice.

Organizational commitment is termed as the relative strength of personal identification or an involvement in specific organization (Mowday et al., 1982). Mention is made by Mowday et al., (1982) on three organizational commitment

characteristics: 1) an acceptance and a strong belief in the values and goals of the organization, 2) an attempt to exert a substantial energy on the organization behalf, and 3) a strong desire and intention to stay with the organization.

Literally, many studies have been identified on the organizational commitment development involving factors for instance, commitment is shown from the research with positively link with the length of service with specific organization (Luthans, McCaul, & Dodd, 1985), individual characteristics like age (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and marital status (John & Taylor, 1999) while relate in negative way to the employee's education level (Glisson & Durick, 1988). Moreover, related to such of characteristics of job, we found the commitment on for instance, supportive and considerate leadership (DeCottis & Summers, 1987), opportunities to be promoted (Gaertner & Nollen, 1989), task autonomy (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994), feedback (Hutichison & Garstka, 1996), opportunities for mentoring and training (Scandura, 1997) job challenge (Meyer, Irving, & Allen, 1998) and particular job experiences such as job security (Yousef, 1998). At last, it was revealed in the studies on the influences of commitment on the organizational justice perceptions (McFarlin & Sweeny, 1992).

Note has been made by Meyer and Allen (1997) for at least there are three sets of beliefs shown with the strong and consistent connection to the organization commitment – the beliefs in the supportive of the organization (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990), personal competence and self-worth feeling contribution for employees (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Steers, 1977), and fairly treats on its employees (McFarlin & Sweeny, 1992). It was argued that many of variables on job characteristic and work experience found to link with the organizational commitment seem to

contribute toward one or more of these perceptions for instance, the policies for internal promotion and job security may foster the organizational support perceptions while the employee participation and performance based reward policies may lead toward the perceptions on organizational justice; and that autonomy and job challenge may strengthen the personal competence perceptions.

Definition of Organizational Commitment

Etzioni's (1961) definition of commitment is "positive involvement" working faithfully for the betterment of the organization. The opposite of this would be "negative involvement" or "alienation" where little or no extra effort was extended for the good of the company. An employee can range from a faithful and hard working employee to a person who just turns up and does the bare minimum.

Buchanan's (1974) definition showed that a committed employee will emotionally remain devoted to the organization's goals and values because of their attachment to the organization. He believed that there were three things to make up commitment: 1) adopting the organization's goals and values as one's own, 2) becoming with totally work involved, and 3) possessing deep organization emotional attachment.

Steers and Porter (1979) provided the meaning for the organizational commitment term within three components: 1) a strong belief and reception on the values and goals of the organization, 2) a willingness to exercise on a considerable effort on the organization behalf, and 3) a strong desire to remain as the organization member.

Commitment was defined by Steers and Porter (1983) as the attachment which proved the relationship between individual goals and organizational goals.

O'Reilly (1989), "the psychological bond between individual and organization was included with the belief in the organization values, loyalty, and sense of job involvement". According to this viewpoint, the organizational commitment was characterized by the organizational goals reception by employees and their willingness on behalf of the organization to exercise their effort (Miller & Lee, 2001).

Organizational commitment as described by Meyer and Allen (1991) consists of three components; affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. "Affective Commitment" is based on a person's desire to remain in their job because his/her goals and the company's goals are the same. "Normative Commitment" reflects the person's sense of duty to stay with an organization due to peer pressure, family commitments, etc.

"Continuance Commitment" results from the fact that a person needs to continue on their working and has a lot to lose if he/she leaves the job. Yukl's (1994) definition of commitment starts with a conscious decision to do as an employer requests and try to "move mountains" to ensure that decision is carried out. Employers like to have commitment on their organization for any difficult tasks. This is the best way to get them done.

Bishop and Scott (2000) described commitment as a multidimensional phenomenon that occurred in the organization, which involved both employees' factors and organizational factors. Given that job satisfaction will not prevent workers from resigning, what can employers do to retain their best staff? For employees, it is not only

important for them to feel satisfied with their jobs, but also to work for as best as possible for the firm. To ask among employees' retention, effectiveness, and productivity, what can make an organization survive? The best answer goes to the employers shall seek for the approach to form their workers with the sense of commitment which is quite difficult.

Commitment as mentioned in Cohen (2003) is "a force that binds an individual into a course relevance action toward one or more goals". This general commitment explanation is related with the organizational commitment definition gave by Arnold (2005) that it is "the relative individual's strong identification and organization involvement".

Moreover, organization commitment is stated in Miller (2003) as "a state where a particular organization and its goals are defined by an employee as he/she need to remain as the organization member". Therefore, the organizational commitment can refer to as the degree that staff is willing to remain as an organization member since their interest seems associated with the values and goals of the organization.

Morrow (1993) explains that organizational commitment can be characterized from behavior and attitude where attitude according to Miller (2003) is "the judgments or evaluative statements – either like or dislike in concerning with the phenomenon". Attitude towards the organizational commitment reflects such of identification, attachment and loyalty feeling with the organization as an entity of commitment (Morrow, 1993). Moreover, this was also suggested by Meyer, Allen and Gellantly (1990) that the attitude towards organizational commitment could be characterized by "the favorable positive cognitive and the organization affective components".

Dimension of organizational commitment

Three types of commitment according to Meyer and Allen (1991); Dunham et al., (1994) are identified as: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

Affective Commitment Dimension is the first organizational commitment dimension in the model that represents for the emotional attachment of individual on the organization. Affective commitment as stated by Meyer and Allen (1997) refers to "the emotional attachment of employees to, identification with, and their organization involvement". Those organizational committed members are on an affective basis and keep working for the place since they want to (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Members with the affective level of committed remain with the firm since their congruent view toward relationship of their personal employment with the values and goals of the organization (Beck & Wilson, 2000).

Affective commitment refers to the positive attitude related with work in the organization (Morrow, 1993). Attitude is also maintained in Sheldon (1971) as the type that is "an organization orientation that attaches or links individual identity with the organization". Affective commitment is the individual's identification relative strength with the particular organization involvement (Mowday et al., 1982).

The power of affective organizational commitment can be influenced from the extent to which the organization needs and expectations of individual are paired with the real experience of them (Storey, 1995). Affective commitment according to Tetrick (1995) is "rationality-based value on organizational commitment that means the degree of value congruence between a member on an organization and the organization itself".

Meyer and Allen (1997) indicates from the model of organization commitment that such of factors can influence on the affective commitment are for instance the goal clarity, role clarity, job challenge, and goal difficulty, management receptiveness, cohesion with peers, personal importance, feedback, equity, dependability and participation.

According to Beck and Wilson (2000), development of affective commitment involves identification and internalization. Based on the identification, the affective attachment of individual to their organizations come first with the need to form the rewarding relationship with an organization where secondly is on the internalization that means individual holds the matching goals and values with the organization. Affective organizational commitment in common is considered on the extent to which an employee identifies with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Continuance Commitment Dimension is the second from tri-dimensional model on organizational commitment that defined by Meyer and Allen (1997) as the "recognition toward costs of organization leaving". In nature, this is a calculative perception that individual weights on risks and costs when they leave the current firm (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Further to this, Meyer and Allen (1991) state that "with the primary link based on the continuance commitment, employees remain with the firm as they want to do so". Differences between continuance and affective commitment are indicated here where the latter entails the reason that individual's stay with the organization as they need to.

We can regard continuance commitment as an instrumental attachment that individual associates themselves with the organization based on the gained of economic

benefits assessment (Beck & Wilson, 2000). Commitment to the organization is formed by the members as a result from the constructive extrinsic rewards they obtained from the effort-bargain without organizational goals and values identification.

The continuance commitment power implies the need to remain which is determined by the recognition on the costs of organization resign (Meyer & Allen, 1986). As indicated by Best (1994) "continuance organizational commitment will therefore be the toughest if there are few alternatives available and the high number of investments". The view that employees may leave the firm when they have better choice argument is supported.

This is maintained by Meyer et al (1990) that "the choice of poor employment and accrued investments seem to drive person to remain on the action line and be responsible for their individuals' commitment since they want to". This implies that organizational personnel stay as they are lured by other collected investments that they might lose, for instance seniority, pension plans, or particular organization skills.

In association with service participation and termination as the associate "cost" of leaving, a need to stay is associated to "profit". The profit notion is supported by Tetrick (1995) via description on the continuance organizational commitment concept that it is "an exchange framework, whereby loyalty and performance are served in return for the rewards and material benefits". Thus, to make the continuance committed employees stay with the organization, it requires offering them with better recognition and attention to the affectively committed morale increasing elements.

Normative Commitment Dimension is the final organizational commitment model dimension that defined by Meyer and Allen (1997) as the "sense of obligation to

remain on the employment". The belief from internalized normative on obligation and responsibility toward functions make person obliged to remain as the organization's member (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Meyer and Allen (1991) state that normative commitment staff sense that they should keep on with the organization". Regarding the normative dimension, the reason that employees remain with the firm is because they should or it is appropriate to stay.

Normative commitment is explained by Wiener and Vardi (1980) as "individuals' working behavior that directed by the sense of obligation, duty and loyalty towards the firm". The members of the organizational are committed with their organization based on the ethical reasons (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). Morale is considered by the normative committed employee in deciding to stay with the firm without regard of the satisfaction or status enhancement the firm offers to them throughout the years.

The power of normative organizational commitment is influenced reciprocal obligation rules acceptance between the members and the organization (Suliman & Iles, 2000) where based on the social exchange theory, the reciprocal obligation suggests that benefits receiving staff is under a strong normative obligation or rule in some way to return the benefit (McDonald & Makin, 2000). Implication is that staff normally sense on their obligation to repay to their organization that provides them with training and development investment.

However, this was argued by Meyer and Allen (1991) that "this moral obligation comes from both the socialization process within the organization and the society". In either case, it is relied on the reciprocity norm, in other words when the benefit is

obtained by an employee, this places them with the moral obligation to respond to the organization in kindness ways.

2.4 Related Research of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Organizational Commitment

As on among the key factors to lead toward organizational citizenship behavior (LePine et al., 2002), organizational commitment of employees can positively related associated with the organizational citizenship behavior (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). OCB can be significantly predicted by affective commitment (Rifai, 2005, Feather & Rauter, 2004). Raising the employee's affective commitment can further keep boosting the extra role behavior. Support is provided from Becker (1992) on the crucial relationship between OCB and commitment. As suggested from Truckenbrodt (2000), the major relationship can be seen between the supervisor-subordinate quality relationship and commitment of the subordinates and noble organizational citizenship behavior. According to Yilmaz and Bokeoglu (2008), teachers are determined to have the positive perceptions on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship. The moderately positive relationship was found between the perception on the organizational citizenship and organizational commitment of teachers. According to Chen, Liu, Cheng, and Chiu, (2009) they found that the company efforts are realized by the employees in the selection and recruitment, and offered the enough guarantee to retain the employees with firm can encourage staff to show more attention on organizational commitments. Staffing activity level influenced on the organization citizenship behavior can be determined by documentation whether well done or not.

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Retention activity can facilitate the employees to exercise on the organization citizenship behavior if they understand how the firm seriously regards on staff career, and chances provided to them in joining with the firm development. It was found by Van Yperen and Van den Berg (1999) that if the staff feels they can join in decision making process, they seem recognize on the supervisors support and result on them to show more OCB. Therefore, one can anticipate the staff acts of OCB to serve as the cue for the management to base their employees' presumptions about the OC (Shore, Barksdale & Shore, 1995). The analysis by Bragger, Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino and Rosner (2005) indicated the negative relation of OCB on the work-family conflict, but with the positive toward work-family culture, OC, and job satisfaction. The analyses on the hierarchical regression indicated the ability of work-family culture in work-family conflict prediction and that OCB can be predicted by various work-family conflict forms. Also, the analyses showed the prediction from work-family culture on either OCB or organizational while the OC does not mediate between OCB and work-family culture relationship.

The author in this study examines on the background and reviews on other researchers' works in this field. Moral commitment definition of Etzioni is revised by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) to research on OCB and OC relationship. The statement is made that though internalization and identification are the general concepts, they are termed as the different types. Identification refers to the sense of belongingness to the firm whether or not it goes along with the goals and values of the organization. Internalization means higher commitment levels in according that not only the staff possesses the sense of belongingness for their firm, but also they accept the

organizational goals and values by themselves. Another factor called compliance has been defined to measure on the external reward while this is not associated with some staff extra-role performance. Identification has a crucial relationship with the employee's extra role performance while this has nothing to do with internalization case.

Based on O'Reilly and Chatman, (1986); Williams and Anderson (1991) attempted to make distinguish among the identification, internalization, and compliance while these three components could not be separately added into factor analysis. Therefore, these three components were combined in order to form the commitment into a one-dimensional factor. However, better disagreements cannot reveal from the commitment compared to job satisfaction and it neither relate with OCB as well. Next, conclusion is made by Williams and Anderson (1991) contrastively to the results as obtained that there is a potential to study more on OC association with OCB because such a relationship found with strong established theories (A. Malinak 1993).

Three-component model is developed by Meyer and Allen (1990) consisting of affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment. Affective commitment was termed based on one's values, while normative commitment was the obligation based, and continuance commitment was based on the costs and benefits calculation. The argument was made on the different links of these components on the antecedents and consequents variables (Meyer & Allen 1991).

''Effects of perceived discrimination on job satisfaction, OC, OCB, and grievances'' the study by Ensher et al., (2001) have summarized that all the three perceived discrimination types have affected on the OC, OCB, and job satisfaction.

This is contrastive with the predictions; nevertheless, no relationship is found with the grievances (Ensher et al. 2001).

Nepal by Gautam et al., (2005) conducted another study on the OC and OCB on 450 samples from five organizations and the results indicated the relationship between OC and OCB with a positive relationship (Gautam et al., 2005).

In the study of Haigh and Pfau (2006) on the subject of ''Bolstering organizational identity, commitment, and citizenship behaviors through the process of inoculation'', conclusion was made that OC, organization identity and certain OCBs were able to be strengthened via the internal communication (Haigh & Pfau, 2006).

In the study of Lavelle et al., (2009) namely ''Commitment, procedural fairness, and OCB: a multifocal analysis'', conclusion was made that: 1) there was a positive relationship between OCB and commitment, and 2) particularly, the mediating effect of commitment over the positive relationship between OCB and procedural fairness seemed to arise when the similar target was referred to by the constructs. Support to the effects from target similarity was seen among the layoff survivors (Study 1) and student project teams (Study 2), (Lavelle et al., 2009).

According to the study of Ng and Feldman (2011) namely ''Affective organizational commitment and citizenship behavior: Linear and nonlinear moderating effects of organizational tenure,'' organizational tenure was concluded with moderated nonlinearly relation. The previous 10 years before tenure, the strong then of commitment—OCB relation rose since the increased of organizational tenure; after the point, the commitment—OCB relation strength declined since the organizational tenure

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increased. In brief, tenure moderating effect was in accordance with a curvilinear pattern (Ng & Feldman, 2011).

In Iran, Salehi and Gholtash (2011) conducted the study namely ''The relationship between job satisfaction, job burnout and OC and the OCB among members of faculty in the Islamic Azad University - first district branches for providing the appropriate model''. This study was applied in conducting of their five questionnaires data collection about OCB (Graham, 1991), job satisfaction, job burnout, and OC (Meyer & Allen, 1991). As shown by the resulted, job satisfaction and OC variables had a constructive effect toward OCB while there was a negative effect from job burnout. There was the negative effect from job satisfaction on job burnout (Salehi & Gholtash, 2011).

According to the research by Zeinabadi and Salehi (2011) namely ''Role of procedural justice, trust, job satisfaction, and OC in OCB of teachers: Proposing a modified social exchange model'', it was shown that in Iran the good fit was found on this research proposed model. The procedural justice in this model consisted with two lines to promote teacher's OCB: first, via influencing the teacher to trust and second to influencing teacher's OCB via OC and job satisfaction (Zeinabadi & Salehi, 2011).

In the study of Morin et al., (2011) namely ''Affective commitment and citizenship behaviors across multiple foci'', conclusion was made that there were the positive relationships with OCBs from the commitments toward supervisors, coworkers, and customers directed at parallel foci. Moreover, partially and negatively the commitment toward global organization could mediate the relationship between coworkers and customers committed and parallel OCB dimensions. It also revealed

from the results about the cross-foci relationships between local commitments and OCBs. At last, no target commitment was crucially associated with the OCBs directed from the organization, but the latter showed with positively associated with local OCBs (Morin et al., 2011).

In Iran, study by Mirabizadeh and Gheitasi (2012) on the subject of ''Examining the organizational citizenship behavior as the outcome of organizational commitment: Case study of universities in Islam'' summed that the chances for education, work life policy, and empowerment activities showed to have strong positive relationship with OC; and the influence of OC was also shown on OCB accordingly (Mirabizadeh & Gheitasi, 2012).

''Work Values and Service-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: The Mediation of Psychological Contract and Professional Commitment: A Case of Students in Taiwan Police College'' the study by Chen and Kao (2012) concluded that professional commitment and psychological contract showed the positive effects with the service-oriented OCBs. Besides, it was found that work values have positive effect over the service-oriented OCBs via the psychological contract and professional commitment mediation (Chen & Kao, 2012). The previous researches presented in the results that OCB can be predicted by commitment since it can have significantly effect on OCB (Liu 2009; Islam et al., 2012).

Strong evidences have been provided from the commitment studies that the affective and normative commitments are positively associated while the continuance commitment is negatively associated with the organizational results like citizenship behavior and performance (Shore & Wagner, 1993). Chen and Francesco, (2003)

showed from their study on the positively association of affective commitment on the in-role performance and OCB whereas the continuance commitment had no relation with the in-role performance however, it negatively correlated with OCB. Moreover, the relationship between affective commitment and in-role performance was moderated by normative commitment as well as OCB. Those with lower continuance commitment seemed to have the stronger linear relationship between affective commitment and in-role performance/OCB. The study by Gautam, Dick, Wagner, Upadhyay and Davis (2001) revealed the positive relation between affective and normative commitment on one hand, while on another both citizenship factors altruism and compliance. Continuance commitment showed negatively association to compliance and no association with altruism.

2.5 Job Characteristics

During the past three decades, work design had become increasingly important as a basic management strategy that attempted to foster enhanced motivation, improved work quality and performance of employees in contemporary organizations (Sadler-Smith, El-Kot, & Leat, 2003). The most well-known model of job design is Hackman and Oldham's (1976b) Job Characteristics Model (JCM), which focuses on five core job characteristics: skill variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and task feedback.

Job characteristics theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976a, 1980) described the relationship between job characteristic and individual responses toward work. The theory specifics to task conditions predicted whether individuals will be prosper in their

career while there are five job dimensions within three psychological states that direct toward some individual beneficial and work outcomes. The theories also include individual difference variables as a moderator of the relationship between the characteristics and the outcome variables.

Five job characteristics were defined by Hackman and Oldham (1976, 1980) as follows:

Skill variety refers to the degree that job requires for diverse activities for task carrying out involves using various of skills arid talents from individual.

Task identity refers to the degree that job requires for the total completion; identifiable piece of work from the beginning till the end with the visible outcome.

Task significance refers to the degree that job shows substantial impact on other people lives no matter the people in the immediate organization or global.

Task autonomy refers to the degree that job offers individual with substantial freedom, discretion, and independence on task schedule and determining the task carry out procedure.

Task feedback refers to the degree work activities are carried out as required from the job providers to staff with clear and direct information related to their effectiveness performance.

It is possible to merge five characteristics into a sole reflection index to the whole job potential motivating. In the model, specific job characteristics i.e. skill variety, task identity and task significance, affect the individual's experience meaningfulness of work, autonomy influences on experienced responsibility on the

outcomes: and feedback from job to knowledge on the actual work activities results that leads to motivating potential score (MPS) formula as follows:

MPS = <u>(skill variety + task identity + task significance)</u> x autonomy x feedback.
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Hackman and Oldham (1976a, 1980) define three psychological states in their theory. To experience on work as a meaningful is to feel that individual work is commonly valuable, worthwhile and crucial according to the some system of values they hold. The individual experienced on personal responsibility means that he or she feels personally accountable for the outcomes of their own work. Finally, the person who acknowledged on the outcome of one's work understands on how effectively they are in job performing. According to job characteristics theory, all three of the psychological states should be passed by an individual if need to have the desirable outcomes.

If anyone among these three psychological states has not reveal the different outcome variables such of motivation and satisfaction will be weakened. The theory emphasizes that the most important outcome variable is an internal motivation existing when good performance results from the self-reward and poor performance ready to share the unhappy feelings. Other foreseen outcomes are growth satisfaction, general job satisfaction, work effectiveness, quality work performance, absenteeism and turnover. Growth satisfaction refers to one's emotion during their personally or professionally learning and growing at work. General satisfaction reflects responses to unspecified. Work conditions as measured by questions such as generally speaking on how satisfied are you with your job? (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Work effectiveness

is regarded as both produced products or services qua1ity and quantity. Quality work performance can be measured by the number of errors made by employees. Absenteeism is the easiest subject to measure if there is an available work attendance record in a given period. Since the unit analysis of job characteristics model is the individual turnover that is simply defined as the intention to resign from the job of employees.

Hackman and Oldharn (1976a, 1980) perceived that not every staff would positively response to the job with strong motivating potential. People have three characteristics especially crucial for the moderating on both the job characteristics - psychological states relationship and the psychological states outcome relationship (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987). They are skills and knowledge for task performing, growth and need of strength, and work contexts such as job security, coworkers, payment and supervisors. Between job characteristics and psychological states connection, when the job characteristics and the psychological states, when the former is good, it seems that psychological states will be experienced. While if moderator variables are high, especially growth needs strength, the moderator variables are low. In reference to the link between the psychological states and outcome variables, high moderator variables staff responds more positively to experience of psychological states. In this condition, the better outcomes can be predicted.

There is an essential proposition in the theory that positive feelings come after good performance and negative feelings come after poor performance. If a job has low motivating potential (measured by Job Diagnostics Survey as Motivating Potential Score or MPS), outcomes will be low, and one's feelings will not be influenced much

by how well one does. On the other hand, if a job is high in MPS, good performance will be reinforcing and poor performance will result in unhappy feelings. In high MPS jobs, people who are competent to perform well will have positive feelings according to their work activities. On the contrary, people with insufficient knowledge and skill to work well may feel unhappy or frustrated.

Growth needs strength that is the degree to which people demand on personal growth and development can be essential in determining the response to high job motivating potential. People who have high growth need strength are likely to "enthusiastically response to the personal accomplishment opportunities to study and develop themselves as provided by a job with high motivating potential" (Kulik et al., 1987). Others who have less strong need for growth will be less likely to exploit on the opportunities for personal growth and development.

The theory also predicts that reactions of employees toward jobs with a strong motivating potential can influence on their satisfaction regarding the context of work. As mentioned by O'Brien (1982); Kulik et al., (1987), if employees are not satisfied by one or more of these contextual factors, especially payment for their performance cannot be maximized.

As the basic premises of the Job Characteristics Model, Hackman and Oldham (1976b) believe that the five core job characteristics have significantly influenced on three precarious psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility, and knowledge or results), that, in turn, affect a number of personal and occupational outcomes, such as internal work motivation, job satisfaction, absenteeism, turnover and work effectiveness (DeVaro, Li, & Brookshire, 2007; Dodd & Ganster,

1996; Vanden Berg & Feij, 2003). Not surprisingly, a growing body of empirical studies has consistently shown that job characteristics are an important driver of several work outcomes (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Loher, Noe, Moeller, & Fitzgerald, 1985). Fried and Ferris (1987) reported that these five characteristics were strongly associated with job satisfaction, growth satisfaction, intrinsic motivation and job performance. In addition to these relationships, a later meta-analytic study also summarized that job characteristics were the most consistent predictors of the five forms of organizational citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). A cross-cultural finding has revealed that task identity, significance and autonomy were significant contributors to organizational commitment (Pearson & Chong, 1997). More recently, the negative relationships between three characteristics (identity, autonomy, and feedback) and absenteeism have been substantiated in the meta-analysis by Humphrey, Nahrgang, and Morgeson's (2007).

2.5.1 Related Research to Job Characteristics and Organizational Commitment

The major focuses of the literature examining the link between job characteristics and organizational commitment are on the affective commitment while the normative commitment research in this sense is so limited (Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999). Thus, intend of this study is to close this gap via considering on both normative commitment and affective commitment.

The primary way to assess on the relationship between staff and the organization is done through the study on job characteristics (Cardona, Lawrence, & Bentler, 2004). This refers to the extent that autonomy, use a of variety of skills, regular feedback, a sense of task completion, and the ability to affect others' lives that job has provided and

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staff can observe their own behavior and realize on the sense of responsible and personal control. The increasing sense of personal control can reflect the belief of individuals on their ability to make change into a desired direction. This allows staff feeling that they can make good contributions for their organization and this might in turn "accomplish a higher desire order to enhance the self-worth perceptions" (Allen & Meyer, 1997). Accordingly, the employee will sense on their attachment to the organization (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994).

The antecedents of organizational commitment have been grouped by Allen and Meyer (1990) into "those fulfilling the needs of employees for them to feel comfortable with the relationship to the organization and feel competent on their work-role". The reason behind job characteristics effect on affective OC is that if the jobs are enriched, the employees will reciprocate through their organization attachment since they are satisfied with the psychological needs (Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999). Otherwise, the opportunity to satisfy their needs might be lost, if they leave the firm (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009).

Both the social values and organization interactions internationalizing are the sources of normative commitment. The argument is made that norm can mutuality influences on the normative commitment development. Staff that being treated in their favorable way by the firm might feel it is the social obligation and moral to return for their organization (Yao & Wang, 2008). Task characteristics as inherited in the job are taken into account by staff while deciding for the employment. By the way, however, autonomy or skill variety, among the particular task characteristics that have not built-in with job may offer to staff from the supervisor or the organization (Dunham, Grube, &

Castaneda, 1994). In this circumstance, staff may satisfy with the preferred task characteristics that provided by the organization and increase their commitment in return.

Although, we considered on affective and normative commitment as the distinct dimensions, the studies conducted outside North America found the greater correlation between these dimensions. This could convey that the difference between "the desire and obligation" was less distinct in other societies compared to the North America. Therefore, suggestion is made that positive experiences that lead to the affective commitment could also form the sense of obligation to reciprocate (Meyer, Stanley, Hersovitch, & Topolnysky, 2002). Therefore, positive work experiences for example, such as high job scope could lead to the normative commitment.

The affective commitment potential antecedents can be divided into three major categories according to Strees (1977) such as job characteristics, work experiences, and personal characteristics. Steers' research results indicated the positively influence from jobs high in scope on the affective commitment. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) showed in their meta-analysis with the crucial correlations between the organizational commitment and job scope as a collective variable.

This was similar to the study by Glisson and Durick (1988) that investigated on the job satisfaction and commitment predictors and offered support on the job scope crucial impacts on the affective commitment. Moreover, it was found by Huang and Hsiao (2007) that job characteristics are the strongest affective organizational commitment determinant. Besides, this was found by Eby and colleagues (1999) that autonomy and feedback had crucial and positive relation with the affective

commitment. Moreover, it was also found by Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf (1994) that there was the strong correlation between affective OC and job scope. Besides, this was revealed in the study of Liu and Norcio (2008) that job scope was essential in affective commitment determining. Gautam, Van Dick, and Wagner (2001) stated in their study about the significant influence from job scope over the normative commitment.

The study on the OCB was conducted by Feather and Rauter (2004) related to job status, identification, job insecurity, job satisfaction, work values and OC. The positive relationship was found between the OC and organizational identification, and the variety of skill utilization and organizational behavior. Besides, the investigation on job enrichment and OC relationship was done by Neyshabor and Rashidi (2013) and found that there was a significant positive impact from job enrichment on organizational commitment. In addition, the study was conducted by Raza Naqvi et al., (2013) to observe the job autonomy impacts on OC and job satisfaction which the results revealed the increased level of job satisfaction and OC relation with the higher job autonomy. Also, the impact of job autonomy upon OC among the staff was researched in Sisodia and Das (2013) within different hierarchical level in which it found the significant distinct between the staff job commitment and the high and low job autonomy.

2.5.2 Related Research to Job Characteristics and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Regarding the antecedents of OCB, though there are many of researches done but relatively few of them have included with the job characteristics and OCB relationship (Chiu & Chen, 2005). Especially, the studies examined on this relationship

in substitute for the leadership literature (Podsakoff et al., 1993; 1996; Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990).

OCB was studied by Farh et al., (1990) and it was the most relevant treatment for the direct impact from task characteristics over OCB (Todd & Kent, 2006). The argument was made that task characteristics in the extent that they stimulate intrinsic motivation, so it could have the direct influence on OCB. Intrinsic motivation here referred to the task performing just for the enjoyment without any rewards expectation. It means employees' time spent to carry out the task in the free-choice period, how well they prefer on task, their willingness to join with the future experiments, and voluntary behaviors for the organization (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998).

It was suggested from Farh and associates that the direct affects from job characteristics over OCB came from two reasons. First, a sense of responsibility generated from the task intrinsically motivating, one required from the psychological states to be shown (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Therefore, this would make employees feel they were accounted for the crucial work outcomes, regardless of the expected job description as a result of the organization and employees contractual relationship. Second, meaningfulness of the work which was another psychological state could enhance by the intrinsically motivating. It enhanced the meaning that job makes the staff recognize on their job contextual importance and sense on the connection with their colleagues in regard of their interdependence (Farh et al., 1990). Thus, employees who have intrinsically motivating tasks with the sense of personal responsibility that enhance the meaning of their work would reflect with OCB and work to serve their organization interests in overall and assist their colleagues. This can be seen from for

instance the staff that assembles the airplane gears seem more likely to pay well

attention with work since the awareness on the consequences of tragic (Pearce &

Gregersen, 1991). Thus, at least employees engage in particular types of OCBs. This

was also suggested by Cardona, Lawrence, and Bentler (2004) that if the staff perceives

that their work can enhance the learning process and intrinsically motivating, they tend

to form the positive perceptions towards the job with more feelings to take

responsibility and involve in job that will result on more OCB engagement.

 Farh et al., (1990) research results indicated the significant contribution from the

job characteristics over the prediction of the altruism and compliance dimensions of

OCB by improving the explained variance. Besides, support was provided from

Podsakoff et al., (1996) on the crucial of job characteristics as the OCB determinants.

They found that when there was the negative impacts from routine tasks over total of

five OCB dimensions (i.e., altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and

civic virtue), OCB dimensions were positively affected by the intrinsically satisfying

tasks.

 This was argued by Organ and colleagues (2006) that task feedback itself was

the most immediate, the most correct, the most self-evaluation evoking and the most

intrinsically motivating source of feedback. Task feedback was suggested to be closely

linked to the assistance to others on the problems related to work and forming the

suggestions that benefit in a way to improve the task performance. As reported in

Podsakoff et al., (1993), the research found positive correlation between task feedback,

altruism, and conscientiousness which it was also indicated the negative relation

between task reutilization and both of these dimensions. Chen and Chiu (2009) used

single dimensional instrument to measure on OCB and found that there was the crucial relationship between OCB and job scope. Other studies further conducted the task characteristics and OCB relationship investigation for instance Todd and Kent (2006) that found the support on the proposed relationship between OCB and task characteristics.

2.6 Transformational Leadership

According to Tannenbaum, Weschler and Massarik, as written again by Yukl (1998) wrote about leadership by defined the term as an interpersonal influence on a particular circumstance that directed via the communication with the aims to accomplish on one or more objectives.

Leadership and its styles are considered to be an act of influencing on individuals in an organization such that they make eagerly effort including: goals, talent search programs, and athlete towards achieving group goals. In the past decades, many reports have been published on this subject, but most of them have focused on administrative, business, and industrial areas (Hallajy, Mohsen, Janani, Hamid, Fallah & Zynalabedin, 2011).

Bass as quoted the definition of transformational leadership by Yukl (1998) as leadership requiring for the actions to motivate the followers to have willing toward job and work for the good target sake with the strong level of morality. Yukl (1998) further explains on the influence from the transformational leaders on their subordinates through the forming of strong emotional identification with the leaders to motivate the subordinates to perform extra from the previous expectation.

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As the previous mentioned definition by Bass in Yukl (1998) there is the ability that transformational leader can transform his/her followers to concentrate on the group interest instead of their personal interest; this makes their followers better aware on the crucial of work results; and activates the higher needs of followers.

As a two well-studied on leadership style, transformational and transactional leaderships are evaluated via multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999). Transformational and transactional leaderships have spanned either on organizational and cultural boundaries (Bass, 1997) where many researches try to evaluate and validate on them (Howell & Avolio, 1993). Leadership studies by MLQ have also been processed on the metal health sector and other public-sector organizations (Garman, Davis & Corrigan, 2003; Bass, 1997) as well as service settings. Both transformational and transactional leadership may be exhibited in varying degrees from a given leader. However, the styles are not mutually exclusive while both in combination may sometimes enhance toward effective leadership (Bass, 1997). Transformational leadership is connected with the visionary leadership or charismatic. Transformational leaders motivate and inspire on followers for them to go beyond the exchanges and rewards (Jung, 2001). Especially well, transformational leadership operates in the close supervisory relationships in comparison with the relationship in more distance, while closer supervision is normally more typical in metal health settings. Typically this close relationship may be on the relationship of supervisor-supervisee and it also captures in the "first level leader" notion in which seen as crucial since their functional proximity to followers in the organizational setting (Howell & Avolio, 1993). Transformational leadership is considered to boost up the intrinsic

motivation of the followers via the value expression and the importance goals of the leader.

Bass (1985) claims on the four dimensions encompassed in transformational leadership behavior: idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration.

Idealized influence refers to attitude, behavior, and charisma which it has not only included with the behavioral facets, but also the transformational leader's attitude facets (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1985). Idealized influence was defined by Bass (1997) as vision and sense of mission shared from the leader to their followers. Radically, for the crucial problems, the innovative solutions are suggested to handle for the followers' problems where leader gains the respect, faith, and trust from followers and the followers need to identify with the leader. The leader presents their conviction and determination in which refers to the form of leader that considered by followers as a role model. Based on a high level of ethical behavior, this characteristic is observed (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Moreover, the high level of trust and expectation toward leader can form the respect and belief among the followers (Bass & Avolio, 2000). As described in Bass and Avolio (2004), the attribution from idealized is the "instill pride of others to be associated with a person", "go beyond self- interest for the group sake", "act in ways that make others' respect on me", and "showing the sense of power and confidence". They described idealized behaviors as "talking about the most crucial values and beliefs of one's", "defining the importance to have the strong sense of purpose", "considering on the consequences of moral and ethical in decisions making", and "stressing on the importance in having the collective sense of mission".

Intellectual stimulation is a process that motivates followers to improve their work, beliefs, and values by using the problem solving process. Bass (1997) defines intellectual stimulation as a new way encouraged from the leader to consider on the old problems and methods. The leader provokes reexamination and rethinking on the assumptions based on the possibilities, capabilities, and strategies. The leader who possesses a strong ability to persuade others will guide his followers to find better ways of solving problems (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Bass and Avolio (2004) described intellectual stimulation as the reexamining on the important assumptions to question whether they are proper, seeking for the diverse views in problems solving, getting others to help considering on problems via various angles", and "proposing a novel ways to consider on the completion of assignments".

Inspirational motivation is a characteristic of leadership that imparts a truly vision and values to followers. This approach inspire on followers to share their vision with the leader. Inspirational motivation is defined by Bass (1997) as "the leader increases the enthusiasm and optimism on their followers through the fluency and confidence communication approach via the use of simple language, appealing symbols, and metaphors". To attain the organizational goals, good communication skills are required to have in a leader as it tends to appeal on the followers emotion (Bass & Avolio, 2000). This term is explained in Bass and Avolio (2004) as "enthusiastically talk on things required to be done", "articulating a compelling future vision", and "showing the confidence in achieving of goals".

Individualized consideration is an ongoing process that continuously identifies followers' needs. This characteristic focuses to make followers satisfied by meeting

with individual needs. Bass (1997) referred to individualized consideration as "the personal attention pay by the leader to their followers to make each of them feel valued and crucial. The leader advises and coaches for personal development with each follower". The leader who has this characteristic tends to focus on finding the needs of individual followers, attempts to address it, and fulfill those needs (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Bass and Avolio (2004) described individual consideration as "time spending on coaching and teaching", "treat others individually not only as the group member", "considering each on their different abilities, aspirations and needs", and "helping others in their strengths development".

2.6.1 Related Research to Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment

As previously mentioned, leadership styles have been defined in various ways. Burns (1978) distinguished between transformational leadership and transactional leadership styles. Many subsequent studies have been done to observe the connection between leadership styles and organizational commitment (Rachid, 1994; Catano et al., 2001; Dale & Fox, 2008; Emery & Barker, 2007; Dunn et al., 2012). Most of studies focused on the styles of transformational and transactional leadership. The former one is based on the relationship between leader and follower while the latter supports the followers to raise their own motivation levels.

Transactional leadership is relied on the relationship exchanging between leader and followers. Organizational commitment and perceived leadership styles relationship was explored by Rachid (1994) and this was also analyzed in order to see the dissimilarity between public and private sectors. The study results indicated that

leadership style could influence on worker commitment. A leadership style where flexibility and adaptation were applied seems to be the most important variable that increased the level of public sector organizational commitment. The researcher attributes this result to the bureaucratic culture in the public sector.

Catano et al., (2001) observed the connection between leadership and organizational commitment in volunteer organizations focusing on two organizations. The Lions Club is a volunteer charity organization and the Newfoundedland and Association of Public Employee (NAPE) is a union organization. In this study, the researchers found that a style of transformational leadership had a positive relationship to the volunteer organizations commitment. They also discovered that the Lions Club members demonstrated a stronger level of commitment in comparison with NAPE's employees. Additionally, transactional leadership style was found to have a negative connection to the OC in both organizations.

Emery and Barker (2007) studied how leadership styles influence and strengthen the OC. They collected data from banking organizations and national food chain and analyzed on two leadership styles; transformational and transactional. Charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration were all the transformational leadership style components. Contingency rewards and management-by-exception were the factors of transactional leadership style. The findings indicated the positive relationship between the transformational leadership style and the OC among the sample organizations. However, the transactional leadership style had presented only a weak connection to the OC.

Dale and Fox (2008) also explored on leadership style and organizational commitment relationship by using the role stress as the mediator and initiating structure and supervisory consideration as the independent variables. The author defined the initiating structure as "the degree that their own role and subordinates' role were defined by the leader in order to achieve the group's goals". Supervisory consideration was defined as "the degree to which a work atmosphere was developed by the leader on the psychological support and the mutual respect, trust, friendliness, and helpfulness". The findings of this study showed that leadership styles that included initiating structure and consideration increased the level of OC. It further demonstrated that leadership styles with initiating structure and consideration had a negative relationship with role stress. Role stress also had a negative relationship with OC. Role stress could effectively mediate the relationship between the variables of initiating structure and OC. However, role stress was not able to mediate the relationship between the OC and considering variables.

Dunn et al., (2012) observed the relationship between transformational leadership and OC where the OC was divided into three separate categories; affective, continuance, and normative. This study was conducted within a cross cultural perspective and presented the results with the link from affective commitment and normative commitment with leadership practices in the United States and Israel. However, continuance commitment had nine of relationship to the leadership practices.

Kara (2012) explored the impacts of various characteristics of leadership style over the OC of members in the firm. The researcher collected data from employees Turkey's five-star hotels. In this study, the researcher used five independent variables

of transformational leadership: idealized influence (attributes and behaviors), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual stimulation. The researcher identified that all characteristics of transformational leadership are associated with OC. Idealized behaviors and intellectual stimulation are more positively connected with the OC than other characteristics.

Lo et al., (2009) examined leadership styles and organizational commitment. The focus of their study was to investigate how two leadership styles (transformational and transactional leadership) related to employees' OC. The researchers collected data from manufacturing facilities employees in Malaysia. They found that managers who practiced on transformational leadership achieved higher levels of OC from their employees rather than managers who practiced transactional leadership styles. Idealized influence, a component of transformational leadership, possessed a stronger connection to OC rather than any other characteristics as examined in the group. The transactional characteristics of contingent reward and management by exception (active) were both found to affect the OC, but their effects were weaker than the idealized influence. They concluded that transformational leadership styles were discovered to be generally more effective than transactional leadership styles.

Brown (2003) examined supervisors' leadership styles and members' organizational commitment by collected the data from city workers in the U.S. They found that relation-oriented leaders were able to increase levels of OC among their employees. These leaders achieved better results than their task-oriented counterparts. Idealized influence (attributes) and inspirational motivation were strongly related to the OC achieved by transformational leaders. Brown learned that leadership factors were

related to the affective and normative commitment, however not with continuance commitment. Most factors of task-oriented management actually had a negative impact on organizational commitment. All factors of task-oriented management were negatively related to normative commitment and possessed only a weak positive connection with the continuance commitment.

Klinsontorn (2007) explored the influence of leadership styles on organizational commitment and organizational outcome. The data was gathered by the researcher from the company workers in Bangkok, Thailand. The results of this study demonstrated that transformational and transactional leadership had a positive relationship with the organizational outcomes such as effectiveness, satisfaction, and extra effort with a leader. The researcher also identified that one of five transformational leadership factors was related to the OC. Idealized influence (behaviors) had a positive relationship with OC. The results of these studies quantified that transformational leadership was positively connected with the follower's organizational commitment. Within the scope of transactional leadership, positive relationships were shown by exception from the contingent reward and active management. However, most studies revealed that transformation leadership yielded a stronger positive relationship rather than transactional leadership. Transformational leaders who employed initiating structure and supervisory consideration typically saw the increasing in the overall level of OC. Although, all five factors of transformational leadership would enhance the OC, idealized influence had a stronger relationship with the OC. Based on the examination of the studies, volunteer fire departments would gain benefit from exercising transformational leadership practices rather than transactional ones.

2.6.2 Related Research to Transformational Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

While most transformational leadership studies had focused on various measures of "in-role" performances specified by job descriptions and organizational citizenship behavior; with the extra-role in nature and thus, marked a new direction for transformational leadership studies. Recent studies found a direct link between transformational leadership and OCB that might be more important than the effects on in-role behaviors. The very argument was apparently made on OCB that transformational leaders led people beyond what is expected and perform at a higher level. Another possible explanation for the transformational leadership-OCB link stemmed from the role model status of the leader (Koh et al., 1995). That is, transformational leaders by definition were the role models, and subordinates tended to emulate their leaders. If, as it was most likely, subordinates perceived "the transformational behaviors of their leaders as the extra-role gestures", they would be spurred to engage in extra-role behaviors in their respective work domains. Koh and colleagues did find that transformational school principals in Singapore had positively influenced on teacher commitment, OCB and satisfaction.

At recent, it was revealed by the evidence the closely relation of transformational leadership and OCB. Asgari et al., (2008); Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, (2007); Oguz (2010) found the positive relationship between OCB and transformational leadership. Nevertheless, Logomarsino and Cardona (2003); Cho and Dansereau (2010) research results found none of effect from the transformational leadership on OCB.

2.7 Perceived Organizational Support

According to the theory of organizational support, perceived organizational support (POS) development is supported by the tendency that employees assign the characteristics of organization human like (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Note was made in Levinson (1965) on the actions that taken by the organization agents which normally seen as the indications for intend of the organization rather than solely attributed on the personal motives of the agents. This organizational personification as recommended by Levinson was abetted byte moral, legal and financial responsibility of the organization's agents to act according to the norms, policies, and culture in the organization to prescribe on the role behaviors and its continuity; through the agent's authority to exert over each employee. On the organization's personification basis, the favorable or unfavorable treatment to employees was seen as the organization favors or disfavors indication toward them.

This was argued by the social exchange theorists that resources obtained from others tended to be valued more if they were on the discretionary choice basis rather than the situations beyond the control by donor. Such voluntary aid was greeted as the indication for the genuinely values and respects of the donors on the recipient (Blau, 1964; Cotterell, Eisenberger & Speicher, 1992; Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987; Gouldner, 1960). Therefore, the favorable job conditions and organizational rewards such as job enrichment, pay, influence over organizational policies, and promotions may contribute more to POS if it is believed by the employees that they are the outcomes of their voluntary actions for the firm, in opposed to external constraints like the governmental health and safety regulations, or union negotiations (Eisenberger et

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al., 1986; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Shore & Shore, 1995).

Since the organizational agent role was applied by the supervisor, the favorable

treatment received by employees from their supervisor should lead to POS. This

relationship strength relied on the degree that the employees identified their supervisor

with the organization, as opposed to consider the act of supervisor as idiosyncratic

(Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, in press).

It was also addressed by the organizational support theory that the POS

consequence was underlined by the psychological processes. First, on the reciprocity

norm basis, POS should form the feeling of obligation for the employee to care on the

organization's welfare and participate to help achieve the organization goals. Second,

POS shall connote with care, respect, and approval to fulfill the needs of

socioemotional, leading staff to incorporate as the member of the organization and

reflect their role status into their social identity. Third, POS should strengthen the belief

of the staff that the firm increased the recognition and rewards to performance (i.e.,

performance-reward expectancies). There should be the favorable outcomes from these

processes on both the staff (e.g., higher job satisfaction and positive mood heightened)

and the organization (e.g., higher affective performance, commitment and less

turnover).

According to the organizational support theory, appealing feature that offered

the readily, clear, and testable predictions in regard of POS outcomes and antecedents

together with the specificity assumed processes and help to make the empirical test of

these processes. The studies on the hypothesized antecedents and consequences of POS

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were examined and more elaborated studies on the presumed the mechanisms to motivate these relationships.

Perceived Support's Dimensionality and Discriminator Validity

In consistent with the employees' view toward general belief on the commitment of the organization to them, this was reported in Eisenberger et al., (1986) that employees presented a consistent form of agreement to the statements in concerning on whether their contributions were appreciated by the firm and it would favorably or unfavorably treat on them according to circumstances. Subsequent analyses on the exploratory and confirmatory factors of employees through the different professions and organizations offered the high internal reliability and dimensionality evidence according to Eisenberger et al.'s scale (Survey of Perceived Organizational Support; SPOS), both in its original, 36-item form and subsequent, shorter versions (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Shore & Wayne, 1993). It was evidently believed by the staff that the firm has common positive or negative orientation toward them which encompassed to either of their welfare and contributions.

It was found that POS related yet to the different from the supervisor support (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Malatesta, 1995; Shore & Tetrick, 1991), effort-reward expectancies (Eisenberger et al., 1990), continuance commitment (Shore & Tetrick, 1991), leader–member exchange (Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997), perceived organizational politics (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999), procedural justice (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Rhoades et al., 2001), affective organizational

commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Settoon et al., 1996; Rhoades et al., 2001; Shore & Tetrick, 1991), and job satisfaction (Aquino & Griffeth,1999; Eisenberger et al., 1997; Shore & Tetrick, 1991). POS was summarized as a distinctive construct that had high reliability to measure SPOS.

Most of POS study applied short form of 17 highest loading items as developed in SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986). By the way, many of researches according to the practical applied fewer items since the original scale were in one-dimension with strong internal reliability. Using shorter versions did not cause any problems. Nevertheless, it suggested the prudence from both POS definition facets (value on employees' on contribution and care of their well-being) representing in short questionnaire versions.

Antecedents of Perceived Organizational Support

Meta-analysis was used by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) to aggregate the findings in concern with the proposed POS antecedents and consequences. Based on the classification system; wherever possible, the categories that commonly adopted as the study literature. First, we extracted the antecedents and consequences of the hypotheses approximately from one third of the POS studies and formed up a preliminary set of categories. It was reviewed in Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) on the remaining studies then the adjustments were made on the categories via discussion. These categories were described and discussed on their theorized relationships with POS, delineated the procedures of meta-analytic, and then presented the findings. After the sampling error effect sizes were corrected and the error measurement, path analysis was adopted to compare the relate relationship strengths between POS and the key variable of organizational experience that contribute toward POS. Too few studies

found on more sophisticated research designs and assessments of processes involving the path analysis and meta-analytic review. Therefore, we separately reviewed on path analysis studies.

Regarding of organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986), four general favorable treatments perceived forms as received from the organization (i.e., supervisor support, fairness, job conditions, and organizational rewards) should increase POS. In order to steer away from the repetitiveness, we normally omit the use of the "perceived" term when discussing about the favorable treatment perception with the contribution toward POS. Although, the relationship of the employees' perceptions on the favorable treatment and POS have been assessed in many researches, but a few of them in our review have explored into the personality and POS relationship. Also, we considered on demographic variables as the potential explanation of possible third-variable about the relationships of antecedents and POS.

Fairness. As concerning by the procedural justice was the way to use fairness in determination of resources distribution among staff (Greenberg, 1990). It was suggested from Shore and Shore (1995) that repeated fairness instances in the decisions about distribution of resources must possess a strong cumulative effect on POS via concern indication toward welfare of employees. The differentiation was made by Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997) between the procedural justice in structural and social aspects. Structural determinants involve the formal policies and regulations concerning the employee affected decisions, including the proper notice prior to make the decisions, receipt of correct information, and voice (i.e., employee input in the decision process). Social aspects of procedural justice were sometimes referred to as

the interactional justice that involved the interpersonal treatment quality in regard of resource allocation. Social aspects included with staff treating with respect and dignity, as well as the results of outcome information providing to the employees.

In the following meta-analysis, the author evaluated the overall procedural justice categories' relationship with POS. It was reported in many studies on only a conglomerate procedural justice measurement which involved to more than one component, however, sufficient amount of studies had reported on the voice, a structural component, and interactional justice as they were allowed to be separated in the meta-analysis.

The perceived organizational politics concept related to the procedural justice was referred to as the attempts to influence over others to promote the self-interest, usually at the expense of individual merit rewards or the organization betterment (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Kacmar & Carlson, 1997; Nye & Witt, 1993; Randall et al., 1999). According to Ferris & Kacmar (1992), the Perceptions of Politics Scale have considered on the views concerning the prevalence of three self-oriented political behavior types: obtaining valued outcomes through self-serving manner action together with the management decisions advised to secure the valued outcomes, and gain increasing pay or promotions from favoritism rather than merit (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997). We expect for the strongly conflict from wide spread organizational politics on the perceptions of outcomes and fair procedures (Randall et al., 1999), thereby lessening POS. The procedural justice and organizational politics were placed into similar category, while fair treatment, as recognizing as the related constructs can be conceptually and empirically distinguished (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001). Our report

formed the Meta analysis with both the overall fair treatment and the procedural justice and organizational politics in separate categories.

Supervisor Support. Since employees built the global perceptions on their valuation by the organization, they developed general views on the degree to which supervisors cared about their well-being and valued on their contributions (i.e., perceived supervisor support; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Since the supervisors were the organization agents that had a direct responsibility to evaluate the staff performance, the employees saw their supervisor's favorable or unfavorable orientation toward them as the indication for organization's support (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Levinson, 1965). Moreover, employees usually thought that staff evaluation by supervisors could convey the upper management contribution to the employees related to the supervisors' support on POS. Researchers normally measured on the supervisor support through substituting of supervisor words for the organization in SPOS (e.g., "my supervisor truly care on my well-being"; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Malatesta, 1995; Rhoades et al., 2001; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Yoon, Han, & Seo, 1996; Yoon & Lim, 1999). Supervisor support had also been evaluated via the relevant measures involved the exchanging between leader–member (Hofmann & Morgeson, 1999; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997) and the consideration of supervisor (Allen, 1995; Hutchison, 1997; Hutchison, Valentino, & Kirkner, 1998).

Organizational Rewards and Job Conditions. As suggested from Shore and Shore (1995), human resources practices showed of the employee contributions recognizing thus, it should be positively related with POS. A variety of job conditions

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and reward have been researched related to POS—for instance, pay, promotions, job security, recognition, role stressors, training, and autonomy.

Recognition, Pay, and Promotions. In reference to the organizational support theory, rewarding to favorable opportunities served to convey the positive employees' contributions valuation that led toward POS. Employees in some studies were asked to assess their outcomes fairness regarding the reference group (i.e., distributive justice; Greenberg, 1990). While in other studies, employees were asked to simply assess on the favorableness of outcomes with no reference group in specified, presumably they form such of implicit comparison. Thus, the results of distributive justice and favorableness of outcomes examining studies were combined and there were sufficient available studies that allowed us to separate between pay and promotions examination.

Job Security. To warrant that it was the aim of the organization to remain the membership of employee in the future in which expected to offer the tough indication of POS, specifically in the recent years, when downsizing predominant was found (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 1999).

Autonomy. The term referred to the control perceived by employees over the way job was carried out by them including the scheduling, procedures of work, and task variety. Traditionally, autonomy was highly valued in Western culture (Geller, 1982; Hogan, 1975). By the employees' trust indicated to the organization in deciding how well they should wisely work on the job, high autonomy could boost the POS (Eisenberger, Rhoades, & Cameron, 1999).

Role Stressors. Stressors were termed as the demands from the environment in which individual's sense on inability to cope with (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). To the

extent that employees attributed job-related stressors to the conditions that could be controlled by the organization, as opposed to the inherent conditions from job or external pressure resulting on the organization, stressors could lessen POS. Stressors were associated with employees' organizational role in three aspects; these have been studied as antecedents to reduce POS: work overload, involving the exceeding demands of what can be reasonably accomplished by the employees within time provided; role ambiguity, involving the lack of clear job responsibilities information for one; and role conflict, involving jointly mismatched job responsibilities. Sufficient studies were found on the role conflict and role ambiguity in which differentiated to allow for meta-analysis in separation.

Training. As suggested in Wayne et al., (1997), job training was a discretionary practice investment and communicating with employee, thus directed toward higher POS.

Organization Size. As argued in Dekker and Barling (1995) individual in the large organizations may feel with less valued while the highly formalized procedures and policies may reduce the flexibility in each employee's need dealing. As the small ones, the large organization could reflect the benevolence on employees group; less flexibility required in meeting with individual employee's need could be impacted by the formal rules and could lessen POS. Although, the size of organization could be seen more as the organization wide characteristic rather than a job characteristic, this category was closely fitted with job characteristics.

2.7.1 Related Research to Perceived Organizational Support and

Organizational Commitment

It was supposed by the organizational support theory to meet with the socio emotional requirements and to judge for the organization's readiness to reward for the higher work efforts, while the beliefs were developed by the employees concerning on the extent to which their organization cared about their well-being and valued on their contributions (Orpen, 1994). This belief was called by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa, (1986) as the "Perceived Organizational Support" which it was developed through the meeting with employees' socio-emotional needs, moreover, to show the readiness in rewarding to their extra efforts and to offer them with helps that might be required by them to perform better on jobs (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

As drawn from the social exchange theory of Blau (1964), Perceived organizational support explained the relationship between employees and organization. In the theory, there were the perceptions and expectations from each party on the behavior of another party, but these expectations and perceptions were associated with the specifics render of each party and timing. If the exchanges could benefit to both parties, neither will know whether other's expectations have been fully served. Thus, social exchanges involve reciprocity (Tansky & Cohen, 2001). Based on the above arguments, perceived organizational support encompassed the perception of employees on their organizations' concerns on their contributions and well-being. Perceived organizational support covered over the degree of employees' feeling on the attempt of their organization to fairly return some to them from the exchange of their efforts, and

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help them meet the needs for interesting and stimulating in works, as well as offer them a proper condition to work (Aube, Rousseau, & Morin, 2007).

It was hypothesized for POS to have the impact on general reaction toward job of employees, including organizational commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lamastro-Davis, 1990), job involvement (George & Brief, 1992), intention to leave (Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994) and job satisfaction (Çakar & Yıldız, 2009). Organizational commitment was one on the key POS consequences. Employees with the strong feeling on the indebtedness from perceived organizational support tend to favorably response to the firm through the positive organizational behaviors and job attitudes which also directed toward organizational goals (Loi, Hang-Yue, & Foley, 2006).

Normally used the reciprocity and social exchange to explain the perceived organizational support and organizational commitment relationship. From the perspective of social exchange theory, it was argued by Eisenberger et al., (1986) that employees were motivated by their belief that inferences the concerning about organizations' commitment in return for their contribution. Highly perceived organizational support can form employee's obligation. Employees sense that not only for them to commit on their obligation for the firm, but also they feel an obligation to show the support and actions toward organization goals in return for the organizations' commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Three organizational commitment component models by Allen and Meyer were applied together with the perceived organizational support model by Eisenberger et al. This confirmed that besides the external qualifications such as job types and gender, the organizational commitment was low and declined by the longer years with job, title and

age. This decreasing level of commitment could be harmful both for the staff and organization which it could be increased when the employees' contribution to the organization was authenticated by their satisfaction. It may be tackled by offering the benefits for the police officers to increase the sense of responsibility among them as well as opportunity to involve in the additional training on skills as acquired. Perryer et al., (2010) moreover studied the commitment and perceived organizational support as the key turnover intention predictor. Employees with low commitment level but high organizational support level would have less possibility to resign from the organization. The analysis was conducted by Makanjee et al., (2006) on the extent that the perceived organizational support raised the radiographer's commitment which identified the straight relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment, whereas and indirect relationship between the turnover intention and rendering quality services. In addition, perceived organizational support was positively associated with the performance outcome expectancies and affective attachment, and the unspecified suggestions productiveness to assist the organization (Eisenberger, 1990).

2.7.2 Related Research of Perceived Organizational Support and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The evidence linking between perceived organizational support and citizenship behavior was mixed. A study by Eisenberger et al., (1990) has indicated that workers tend to personify organizations, developing a general attitude concerning on the extent that the employees' contributions were valued by the organization with its care on their well-being. In their study, they found the positive relation of POS with the

constructiveness of anonymous suggestions for the organization improvement. Wayne et al., (1997) found a strong relationship between supervisors' ratings of workers on an index and perceived organizational support which included either the measures of citizenship at individual level or organizational-level. Employees appeared to seek a balance in their relationships exchanging with the organizations by reflecting the attitudes and behaviors in corresponding to the amount of commitment they sense from the employer (Wayne et al., 1997). Being an effective organizational citizen was a way for the staff the reciprocate support as they feel as being offered from the organization (Graham, 1991).

On the other hand, in a study with hospital workers, Settoon et al., (1996) pointed out that high levels of POS were thought to create obligations among individuals to repay the organization; however, their study found that POS was unrelated to OCB. But their measuring had captured citizenship behavior in terms of interpersonal helping. In contrast with finding of Eisenberger et al., (1990), a study by Lambert (2000) found that the more workers perceived the organization as supportive, the less they were likely to submit suggestions for improvement. Lambert stated that the more supported the workers felt, the more they took for granted the organization and thus the less obligated they felt to make extra steps to submit the formal improving suggestions and joining in the quality meetings.

In a study, the perceived organizational support was differentiated from the commitment, Shore and Wayne (1993) found POS to be related to both altruism and compliance components of the OCB. POS was with stronger relation to OCB than the affective commitment, adding incremental variance above affective commitment, and

continuance commitment was negatively related. These findings supported the social exchange theory hypothesis by implying that "feelings more toward obligation compared to the emotional attachment could be the citizenship behaviors basis" (Shore & Wayne, 1993).

2.8 The Generation Concept

A generation is usually viewed as a people group that shares years of birth and unique socio-political life events during their formative years which, in turn, generate and structure relatively stable, albeit, but not immutable, individual practices and world views (Eyerman & Turner, 1998; Mannheim, 1952; Schuman & Scott, 1989), including ways of thinking, acting and behaving in the workplace (Arsenault, 2004; Kupperschmidt, 2000; Smola & Sutton, 2002). However, arguments have been raised regarding the reality and meaning of birth cohorts. Some scholars tend to support the historical, sociological, and cultural foundations underlying the generational principles (Campbell, Hoffman, Campbell, & Marchisio, 2011; Dencker, Joshi, & Martocchio, 2008; McMullin, Comeau, & Jovic, 2007). While others are more skeptical and argued that differences based on age location are chiefly attributable to experience or to the maturation process (de Meuse, Bergmann, & Lester, 2001; Jorgensen, 2003). Nonetheless, in the absence of longitudinal studies, the small number of research using data collected across time (Smola & Sutton, 2002; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). They suggest the more influence of work values from the generation rather than experience and impact of maturation.

The generation of Baby Boomers was those who were born during the economic growth after the wake of World War II. They grew up during the prosperous time with optimistic where the mantra of "sex, drugs and rock'n'roll" directed them toward the "self-containment" sense (self-caring; Weil, 2008). Their fathers were the breadwinners and their mothers were housewives. According to Crampton & Hodge (2007), we know them as competitive, loyal, and workaholics whose Vietnam War and economic prosperity affected on their job earnestness and devotion (Patota, Schwartz, & Schwartz, 2007). It was their attempt to sacrifices on their careers and believed that one should keep the membership since the organization, and that "values" were associated with work hours, office size, promotion, and free parking (Kupperschmidt, 2000). Baby Boomers furthermore observed various changes in society in the youth day which led to their willingness for change accepting (Crampton & Hodge, 2007), and proved to fight for a cause. They valued for success in their work, challenge, and teamwork to remain with their superiors in good relationship as well as acknowledge the crucial of their colleagues (Karp, Fuller, & Sirias, 2001). Since the emphasis was on the achievement through hard working, they value commitment and loyalty in the workplace. On the contrary, they however faced with the difficulties in work and private life balancing (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002).

The members of Generation X are those who also be known as com after the golden era of the Baby Boomers or Busters (Reisenwitz, 2009). Gen X was born among the socioeconomic reality challenge marked by the fluctuation of economy, AIDS epidemic outbreak, final of Cold War, and scandals involving governments and organizations. Total of them led toward lack of trust (Johnson & Lopes, 2008) and led

toward the tendency to depend on the personal initiative to develop on creativity and independence. Note was made by Neil (2010) that this was the first generation that exposed to the technological and mass media. As it was claimed that both their parents worked and forming the "latchkey kids concept". Therefore, gen X is independent with self-confident and hates supervision. However, they have learned to offer and accept the immediate and ongoing feedback. They seek for self-satisfaction at work with the ability to work in multicultural environment. They love to be fun and using the practical approach for result achievement. As many of gen X members embarked into the labor market at the low point of economic and they progress with the jobs loss suffered parent with occupational insecurity, the "work loyalty" concept was redefined. Instead to stay with the organization loyalty, they are loyal for jobs and managers as well as the colleagues they are working with and taking seriously on the employment however, not committed to the connection of career only in one firm. They tend to stop then begin again by moving from place to place (Neil, 2010).

In 1993, the term Generation Y was coined by Advertising Age magazine which referred to the latest generation who born in the 20th century. We also knew them as the Echo Boomers, Generation Next, and the Millennium Generation (Reisenwitz, 2009). They were born during the globalization era with the immediate technology and media where children were at the center surrounded by everything revolving. They received plentiful of attention with the high expectations on them where the parents tried to cultivate them with large degree of self-confidence. This generation is the group-oriented person that loves to join together for the social events such as in pubs, parties, etc. instead of splitting into couples, this makes them prefer to work in team and

work well in groups. Moreover, they are those who work hard and good at multitasking. Their expectation was on the organizational structure, status, appreciate, and seek to form a relationship with manager (however, not always works well with managers from gen X who love to work individually and independence). As the new staff in the workplace, this generation requires for most mentoring, actually they correspond well with the personal attention. Nonetheless, as structure and stability are the things appreciated by them so formal program for training, reliable authority, and schedule are requited (Neil, 2010). Moreover, they have the strong awareness on the civic responsibility with inclining to volunteer (Leyden, Teixeira & Greenberg, 2007), being inquisitive, asking questions, and result oriented (Streeter, 2007).

It was considered by many researches on the implications of the characteristics of these generations in the workplace. Comprehensively, both the academic and popular publications focused on forming each of the generations' profile. It was found by Whitney, Greenwood, and Murphy (2009) the crucial differences between them as the Boomers were those on the senior positions either in the private or public sectors which typically object to authority, industrious, and sense that their position was achieved by right. What can motivate them are the money, promotions, rewards for excellence and extra time, and they can be expected to be loyal. In addition, this generation tends to have the attempts to fight for the worth of public cost as well as changes initiation.

Gen X that comes to replace when the Boomers retire shows the self-sufficiency, self-confidence, and independence that they attained from their childhood. They are inclined to be cynical and suspicious, as well as they value for work and family balance

more than the previous generation. In addition, they are not specifically loyal with the organization since they are not expected for the organization to loyal with them as well. We can motivate time by the emphasis on the critical of their work and generate fun in the workplace. Managers should accept their skepticism for what it is: an employee-employer honest relationship observation.

As gen Y are the Boomers' children, so unsurprisingly that we find the displaying of conflict value to their parents. They embody, social networking, technical expertise, and the ability to be lastingly "connected," the features that makes Boomer parents annoy. They are eager to reach toward the immediate satisfaction at work and require for the relevant work and excitement, as well as the channels for promotion that can be trusted. Whereas the Boomers love to perform their work unhindered, gen Y tries to find the feedback and attention.

Cennamo and Gardner (2008) despite the different profile, they found just a few crucial differences between the generations regarding the work satisfaction, OC, work values, organization leaving intention, and fitting degree between individual and organization values. We found that the younger generations were as cribbed more on the crucial of status compared to the older generation. Perhaps, this was because the older generation members had already achieved the work status. Gen Y showed more appreciation toward freedom if compared with gen X and the Boomers, according to their need for the better family-work balance and autonomy. If they are not satisfied with this value, they tend to incline to seek for another job. The higher congruency between the individual values and the organizational rewards dispensed (such as salaries and other benefits) was found among the Boomers rather than gen X and gen Y. It was

suggested by the author that the finding was derived from the actual that there was more seniority among the Boomers and therefore they enjoy with superior status and salary as well as the more crucial benefits rather than the younger generations. Among the three generations, individual and work value low compatibility was associated with less satisfaction in work, the OC, and the greater resigning intention.

According to Shragay and Tziner (2011), they investigated on the generational effect of the relationship between job involvement, work satisfaction, and OCB which they found the effect of gen X only on job involvement in two dimensions of OCB. The effects of this interaction are more positive among gen X employees rather than gen Y employees. They expected for more organization loyalty from the baby boomers as well as their appreciation on hard work, workaholic, and work extra hours rather than expected from gen X. However, the result indicated with few factors of job involvement effect on OCB at low significance.

Thus, it was revealed in the literature that each generation was not the same in terms of behaviors and the values it had developed related to the historical context from which they were born. These workplace differences implied with consistency. The current paper attempts to highlight on this issue through the additional examining on the generational effects aspect: differences generational relationship on the one hand, and the organization behavior and work attitudes on the other hand in particular to examine whether the generation takes the role in the OC and OCB relationship.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter three presented the research methodology that applied to study on the effect of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. The chapter comprised of four parts including research methods, population and sample size, instrumentation, and procedure of the data collection.

3.1 Introduction to the Research Methods

Figure 3.1 illustrated the study conceptual framework where the researcher integrated the overall concepts, theories, and related research together. According to the conceptual framework, the relationship between variables could be explained as follows:

1. Five dimensions of job characteristics are: skill variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and task feedback based on Hackman and Oldham (1980).

2. Four dimensions of transformational leadership are: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration based on Bass and Avolio (1993).

3. Three dimensions of perceived organizational support are: fairness, supervisor support, and organizational reward and job conditions based on Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002).

4. Three components in organizational commitment are: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment based on the work of Mayer and Allen (1997).

5. Four dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior are: altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1993; LePine et al., 2002).
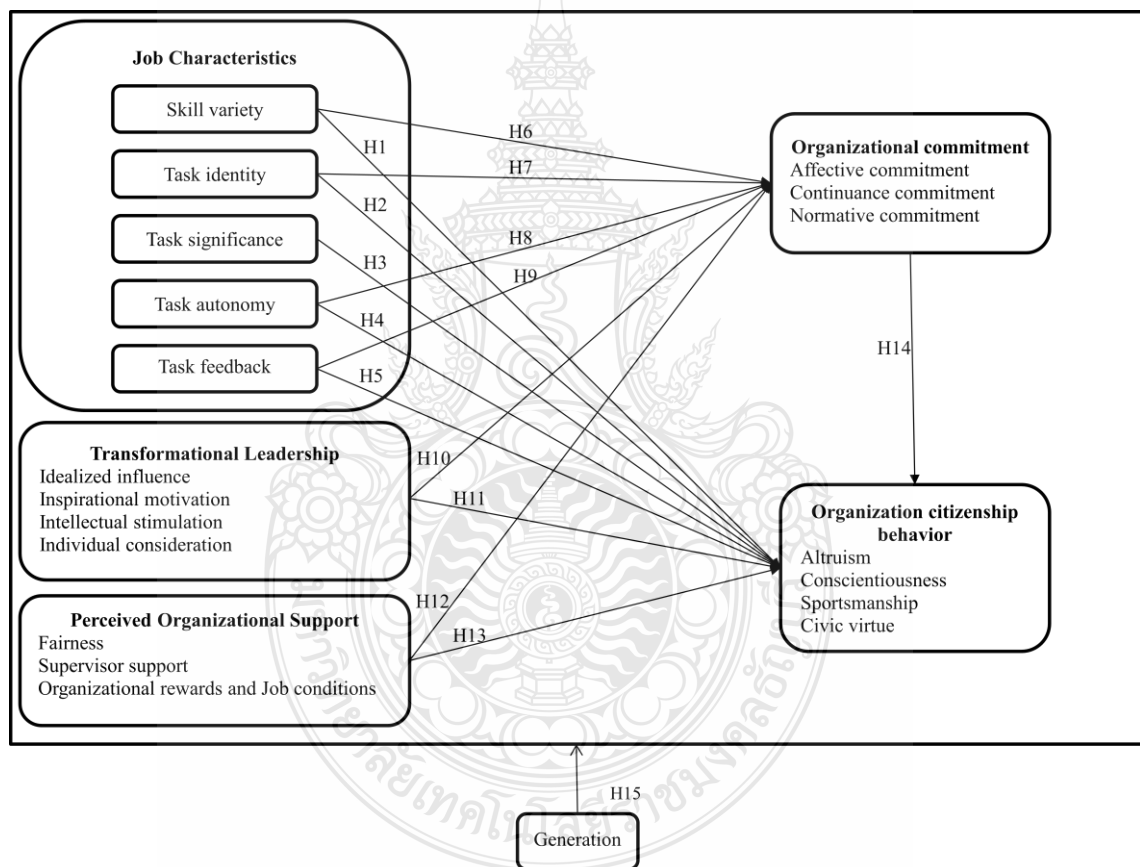
Figure 3.1 Model of research and variables in this study

3.2 Population and Sample Size

This research focuses on the employees who work in 742 member hotels of Thai Hotel Association. And with the difficulty in finding the exact total number of employees, the researcher estimated the population size using the samples ratio to rate the number of parameters from ratio 10 to 1. There were 48 parameters, so the researcher selected 480 samples to research from 960 questionnaires distributed. There were 10 target employees selected from each hotel as the samples for the survey.

Table 3.1 Expected samples classified by hotel location

Hotel location	Number of members	Samples Hotel	Estimated samples (employees)
1. Group of hotels in the areas of Bangkok, Phatumthani, Nonthaburi, Samut Prakan, Nakornpathom, Kanchanaburi, Samut Sakhon, Samut Songkhram and Ratchaburi with more than 250 rooms.			
2. Group of hotels in the areas of Bangkok, Phatumthani, Nonthaburi, Samut Prakan, Nakornpathom, Kanchanaburi, Samut Sakhon, Samut Songkhram, and Ratchaburi with less than 249 rooms.	254	16	160
3. Group of hotels in the areas of Central Partprovinces: Ayutthaya, Nakorn Nayok, Saraburi, Angthong, Singburi, Supanburi, Lopburi, Chainat, Uthaithani, and Nakornsawan.	8	1	10

Table 3.1 Expected samples classified by hotel location (Cont.)

Hotel location	Number of members	Samples Hotel	Estimated samples (employees)
4. Group of hotels in the area of Easternpart provinces: Chonburi, Rayong, Chanthaburi, Trad, Srakaew, Chachengsao, and Prachinburi.	85	5	50
5. Group of hotels located in the areas of Westernpart provinces: Petchaburi, and Prachuabkirikan.	49	3	30
6. Group of hotels located in the areas of Upper Northern part provinces: Phrae, Lampang, Lamphun, Nan , Phayao, Chiangmai, Chiangrai, and Maehongson. 7. Group of hotels located in the areas of Lower Northern partprovinces: Kamphaengpetch, Phichit, Petchabun, Pisanulok, Sukhothai, Tak, and Utharadit.	90	6	60
8. Group of hotels located in the areas of Upper NortheasternPart provinces: Khonkaen, Mukdahan, Kalasin, Nongbua Lamphu, Loei, Udonthani, Sakolnakon, Nakon Phanom, and Nongkhai. 9. Group of hotels located in the areas of Lower Northeasternpart provinces: Nakornratchasima, Buriram, Surin, Srisaket, Chaiyaphum, Mahasarakam, Roied, Yasothon, Ubonratchathani, and Amnatcharoen.	21	2	20

Table 3.1 Expected samples classified by hotel location (Cont.)

Hotel location	Number of members	Samples Hotel	Estimated samples (employees)
10. Group of hotels located in the areas of Southernpart provinces: Ranong, Phang Nga, Phuket, Krabi, Pattalung, Trang, Satul, Songkhla, Pattani, Yala, and Narathiwat.	235	15	150
11. Group of hotels located in the areas of Southernpart provinces: Chumporn, Suratthani, and Nakhonsrithammarat.			
Total	742	48	480

Source: Thai Hotels Association, (2014).

3.3 Instrumentation

Instruments used in the study are summarized below:

3.3.1 Review the concepts, theories, and research papers related to the study variables to determine the research purpose, concepts, and definitions of variables to be studied.

3.3.2 Determine the nature of question types and each variable scoring measurement and transform the meaning of scores.

3.3.3 Definitions are identified as key factors in each question and then a behavioral indicator is written to measure the attributes listed in the definitions of each issue by avoiding leading questions and complex questions.

3.3.4 The query is generated to determine the quality of tools validity and reliability.

3.3.5 Modify questionnaire to suit the purposes of research.

Demography: The researcher created a questionnaire that includes with information about gender, age and work experience.

Section A: Job Characteristics Questionnaire. Hackman and Oldham (1976a) developed the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) for the measurement on five characteristics of job that comprises of skill variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and task feedback. Each characteristic was measured by 3 positive items where the examples for each scale were "my job gives me the opportunity to use many new technologies" (skill variety), "my job is arranged so that I have an understanding of how it relates to the business mission" (task identity), "my job has the ability to influence on the decisions that can significantly affect the organization" (task significance), "I am able to act independently from my supervisor in performing my job function" (task autonomy), and "I receive feedback from my co-workers about my performance on the job" (task feedback). Participants' responses were obtained by using a five point Likert type scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

Section B: Transformational Leadership Questionnaire. Following the previous research (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994; 1995; Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1990), the transformational leadership was examined by considering on a five-item and four-dimension measure. The four dimensions of transformational leadership were measured with the items from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X-Short; Bass & Avolio, 1995). These four dimensions were idealized as the influence (charisma), intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and inspirational motivation (inspiration). The MLQ (Form 5X-Short) is a standard

instrument to assess on these leadership scales (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009). However, because the empirical studies have consistently shown that these dimensions are highly correlated and that they reflect the higher order in transformational leadership construct (Kim, 2012; Walumbwa et al., 2003). These scales were combined into one transformational leadership factor that consisted of five items, including "I display a sense of power and confidence" and "I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions". Participants' responses were obtained using a five point Likert type scale where 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = some times, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently, if not always.

   Section C: Perceived Organizational Support Questionnaire. Perceived organizational support was measured by the measuring responses to representative items of its antecedents. Specifically, prior research has identified several factors that are strongly related to POS. These include such items as fairness of treatment, supervisor support, organizational rewards and job conditions (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Typically, POS is measured using a nine point scale derived from research conducted by Eisenberger et al., (1986). Seventeen items from the AES were identified as contributing to the generation of POS including "my workgroup manager reviews and evaluates the progress toward meeting goals and objectives of the organization," "managers set challenging and yet attainable performance goals for my work group," and "new practices and ways of doing business are encouraged in my work group" participants' responses were obtained using a five point Likert type scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

Section D: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). OCQ will be measured by Three-Component Model Employee Commitment Survey (revised version) based on Meyer and Allen (2004). The previous version by Meyer and Allen (1991) had eighteen items for each of three scales measuring commitment; affective, continuance, and normative commitment. This revised version in 1993 had six items for each scale. This study utilized the revised six items model. The affective commitment scale is based on a subordinate's desire to stay with the organization, including "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization." The normative commitment scale is based on a subordinate's obligation to stay within the organization, including "I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it". Lastly, the continuance commitment scale is based on cost orientation, which is the amount of time, money, and/or energy the subordinate has invested into the organization. This also includes "One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives" (Meyer, Allen, & Topolnytsky, 1998). Each scale has six statements to which the respondent provides a numeric response. The selection of a number from the scale indicates the degree of agreement or disagreement with each statement. The respondent selects a number from 1 to 5, with 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree.

Section E: Organizational Citizenship Behavior Questionnaire. As presented in the recent empirical evidence, OCB dimensions were distinct from one another (LePine et al., 2002). OCB in this research was measured as a latent variable that consists of four operationalized indicators using the 16-item instrument as

developed by Podsakoff et al., (1990). Based on Organ (1988) model described, this instrument is used to measure on the extra behaviors that are not required in the job description of employee. Altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship are the four indicators that make up OCB. The author used 16 questions five-point rating scale anchored by 1 = "Strongly Disagree" and 5 = "Strongly Agree". From the total score of measured OCB, the higher scores indicated the higher OCB. The calculation of mean scores was on the four dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship while the aggregation of OCB was done through the item scores averaging.

After these instruments were found, the researcher used the techniques of back translation to convert the original version in English into Thai and later reconverted into English in order to avoid a bias of language and content mimicking. All translation versions were done by English translators and approved by English experts.

To verify the validity of the instrument, the researcher had invited academicians who specialized in related fields. The instruments used in the study were required to fit with the context of the studying area (Thailand) where it must involve in culture, easy-to-understand for reading and accurate with the original emotional phases. The academicians were asked to verify the instruments by using the following three questions.

1) Are the words or sentences suitable for Thai culture and do they communicate the correct meaning to the informants?

2) Does each item sufficiently cover all dimensions and is it suitable enough to measure, especially Thai organization culture?

3) Are there any problems regarding the cultural differences by converting an instrument from English version to Thai version?

After the instruments were verified, the questionnaires were piloted before being distributed to the respondents.

Validity and Reliability

Content Validity: The questionnaire was established by using the method of content validity. In addition, five academicians were requested to examine and make comments on the items in the questionnaire for content validity during the development stage of the questionnaire. After revising the content of each item according to the comments and suggestions, the questionnaire was ready to be distributed in order to find its reliability and calculate the Index of Item-Objective Congruency (IOC) consensus index value is between 0.6-1.0. The result from the assessment is used to adjust and improve a question to be more accurate. For construct validity, this study was tested by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) including p-value, factor loading, average variance extracted (AVE), and discriminant validity.

Reliability Analysis: Reliability analysis is a measurement that could let the researcher scrutinize on the reliability of measurement scales properties and the items provided the information about the relationships between individual items in the scale. Garver and Mentzer (1999) recommended computing Cronbach's alpha coefficients to determine the scale reliability. If the value of alpha is greater than or equal to 0.70, it implies sufficiency of reliability.

The reliability for this study that contains seven constructs is shown in Table 3.2

Table 3.2 The reliability analysis of the questionnaire from pre-testing construct's

       Cronbach's Alpha

Construct	Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha
Skill variety	0.7612
Task identity	0.8097
Task significance	0.7531
Task autonomy	0.7373
Task feedback	0.7007
Transformational leadership	0.9538
Perceive organizational support	0.9289
Organizational commitment	0.9330
Organizational citizenship behavior	0.9555

From the reliability analysis of the pre-testing with 40 samples: skill variety has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.7612 (3 items), task identity has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.8097 (3 items), task significance has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.7531 (2 items), task autonomy has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.7373 (3 items), task feedback has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.7007 (3 items), transformational leadership has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.9538 (3 items), perceive organizational support has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.9289 (3 items), organizational commitment has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.9330 (3 items), and organizational citizenship behavior has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.9555 (4 items). However, all constructs provided high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha that are greater than 0.70.

Pre-test. The purpose of pretest was to examine the content validity in terms of the face validity of the questionnaire items. In order to ensure the questionnaire appropriateness, the pretest was conducted with 40 of employees participating in the study as samples. The results of the pretest were helpful in making refinements to the final version of the questionnaire. In these adjustments, the researcher revised the statements and some deletion of these statements could help improved the composite to be more reliable.

3.4 Procedure of the Data Collection

The surveys of this study were conducted to collect the information from employees who have been working in hotel under the Thailand Hotels Association.

3.4.1 Data Collection

1) The data collection process was to ask for a permission to collect data from general managers of hotels.

2) After the permission was granted, questionnaires were distributed to employees who were sampled with a letter asking for cooperation. Then the appointment to pick up the returned questionnaires was made.

3) Researchers re-examined completion of the questionnaires.

3.4.2 Data Processing and Analysis

Demography: After receiving the returned questionnaires, data analysis was conducted. Descriptive statistics including frequency and percentage were used to generate generic information of the respondents consisting of gender, age, and work experience.

Variable: Analysis to describe the distribution of two variables, including exogenous latent variables which are job characteristic (skill variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and task feedback), transformational leadership, perceived organizational support; and endogenous variable which are organizational commitment and organizational citizenship. Where the behavior statistics are mean and standard deviation.

Correlation Coefficient: Analysis of the relationship between variables via Pearson's produce moment correlation coefficient using SPSS software to indicate the relationship between the variables in the model.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM): Another method and tool used was the structural requirement modeling by structural equation modeling (SEM). The SEM was applied in the testing of independent variables and latent factors correlation. The variables were hypothesized in the section of conceptual model related to the organizational citizenship behavior dimensions. The sequence of analysis begins from the normal distribution testing, reliability testing, multicollinearity, convergent validity, average variance extracted (AVE), discriminant validity, SEM analysis of a proposal model, and hypothesis testing respectively.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was also used in the study since it allows the researcher to examine the relationship between variables and priority relationship pattern of the study and then statistically tests the hypotheses. There were various impacts against the Confirmatory Factor Analysis such as the research hypothesis, the requirement of sufficient sample size, the instruments of measurement, and the missing data (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

In the analysis of confirmatory factor, it was conducted using path analysis to further explore on the single-factor structure of the scales proposed. To assess on each of factor structure scale, the four fit indices were applied; Comparative Fit Index (CFI) with less effects from sample size compared to other indices like Normed Fit Index (NFI) and Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) that indicates the observed covariance proportion in which explained by the model-implied covariance; Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), which is an adjusted GFI form that taken into account to present the adequate model fit. All CFI, GFI and AGFI values should be higher than 0.9 while RMSR value should be lower than 0.1 (Hair et al., 1998). Model complexity; and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) indicates the different amount of the sample variances and covariance from the obtained estimation by applying the hypothesized model.

Hypotheses Testing: The author used factor analysis and structural equation modeling by at first the factor analysis was used to acquire the factors of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. Second, structural equation modeling was adopted to determine the cause-effect relationship between job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. Third, comparing model X and model Y by using multiple group analysis for testing measurement. As an initial step, some forms of metric invariance must be established before examining the difference in the structural model estimates. Therefore, the structural model estimating was then assessed for moderation by a comparison of group models, much like

invariance testing. The first group model was estimated with the path estimates separately calculated for each group. Meanwhile, the second group model was estimated where the path estimate of interest was constrained to be equal between the groups. Comparison of the different test with a chi-square different test (Δx^2) indicated if the model fit significantly decreases and then the estimation were constrained to be equal. A statistical significant difference between models indicated that the path estimates were different (Hair et al., 2010). The structural weights models were significantly identical between the two groups, the structural model analysis needed to be further carried out to examine statistically significant difference on standardized path coefficient between two groups (Shumacker & Lowmax, 2004).
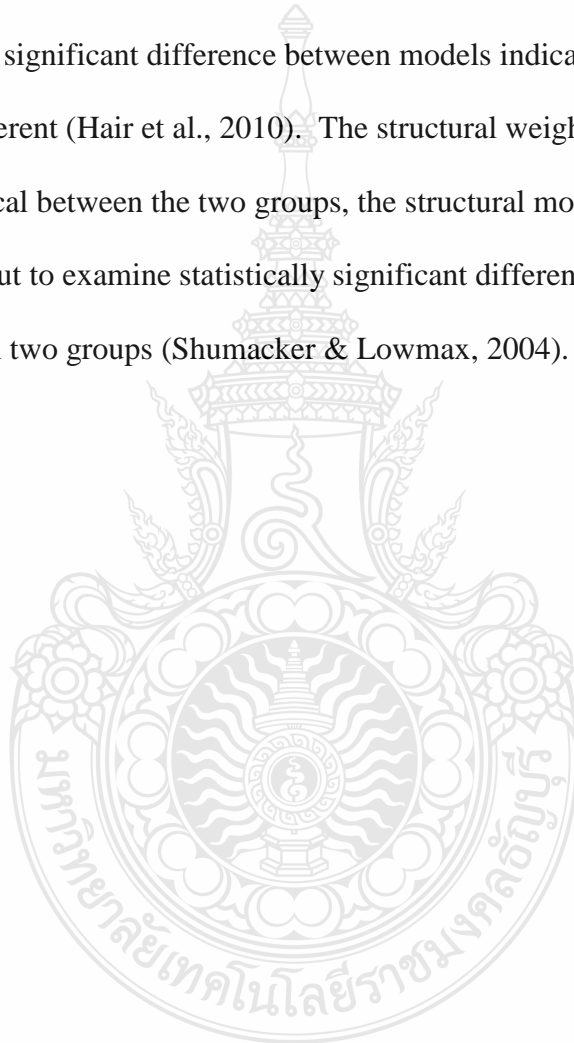
Table 3.3 Data-model fit evaluation and its criteria

Data-Model Fit valuation	Criteria	Consideration	Reference
p-value (Chi-square Probability Level)	$p > 0.05$	p-value must be higher than 0.05. The higher p value is, the fitter the model is.	Barrett (2007)
CMIN/df (Relative Chi-square)	< 3	CMIN/df value must less than 3. If its value is closed to 0 (zero), the model is accounted to be fit.	Kline (2005)
GFI (Goodness of Fit Index)	> 0.90	GFI value must be higher than 0.90. If its value is closed to 1.00 (one), the more model is accepted to be fit.	Tabachnik and Fidell (2007)
AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit)	> 0.90	AGFI value must be higher than 0.90.	Tabachnik and Fidell (2007)
RMR (Root Mean Square Residual)	< 0.05	RMR value must be less than 0.05. If its value is closed to 0.00 (zero), the model is accounted to be fit.	Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000)
RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	< 0.08	RMSEA value must be less than 0.08. If its value is closed to 0.00 (zero), the model is accounted to be fit.	MacCallum et al., (1996)
NFI (Normed Fit Index)	> 0.90	NFI value must be higher than 0.90.	Bentler and Bonnet (1980)
CFI (Comparative Fit Index) The overall model analysis where there is an adjustment of number of estimated coefficients.	> 0.90	CFI value greater than 0.90.	Hu and Bentler (1999)

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULTS

Chapter four presented the results of statistical analysis for research questions and hypotheses. The results were organized into four sections; 1) demographic data, 2) descriptive statistics of variables, 3) structural equation modeling analysis and 4) hypothesis testing.

4.1 Demographic Data

Demographic questions were asked in three parts: gender, age, and work experience. After receiving the questionnaires, the demographic data and detail of respondents were summarized as shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Demographic data

	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	187	37.10
Female	317	62.90
Total	504	100.00

Table 4.1 Demographic data (Cont.)

		Frequency	Percentage
Age			
	18 – 22 years	46	9.13
Gen Y	23 – 27 years	117	23.21
	28 – 32 years	127	25.19
	33 – 37 years	95	18.85
Gen X	38 – 42 years	71	14.08
	43 – 49 years	39	7.74
	50 – 54 years	8	1.60
Baby Boom	55 – 59 years	1	0.20
	Over 59 years	0	0.00
	Total	504	100.00
Work experience in this hotel			
Less than 1		93	18.50
1 – 3 years		202	40.10
4 – 6 years		101	20.00
7 – 9 years		40	7.90
Over 9 years		68	13.50
	Total	504	100.00

In the aspect of gender, the study revealed that the respondents consisted of 62.90% of female and 37.10% of male.

In terms of age, the research showed that the majority of employees' age was in the group of 28 – 32 years old (25.19%), followed by the group of 23 – 27 years old (23.21%), the group of 33 – 37 years old (18.85%),the group of 38 – 42 years old (14.08%), the group of 18 – 22 years old (9.13%), the group of 43 – 49 years old (7.74%), the group of 50 – 54 years old (1.60%), and the group of 55 – 59 years old (0.20%).

In the aspect of work experience, the majority of the respondents' work experience was between 1 – 3 years (40.10%), followed by between 4 – 6 years (20.0%), less than 1 year (18.50%), over 9 years (13.50%), and between 7 – 9 years (7.90%).

4.2 Descriptive Statistics of Variables

Job Characteristics

Job characteristics consist of five variables which are skill variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and task feedback as presented in Table 4.2

Table 4.2 Descriptive statistics of job characteristics

Construct	Observed Variables	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Skill variety	Ski_var1	1.00	5.00	3.97	0.811
	Ski_var2	1.00	5.00	3.74	0.830
	Ski_var3	1.00	5.00	3.86	0.848
Task identity	Tas_ide1	1.00	5.00	4.07	0.801
	Tas_ide2	1.00	5.00	4.02	0.832
	Tas_ide3	1.00	5.00	3.99	0.757
Task Significance	Tas_sig1	1.00	5.00	4.05	0.786
	Tas_sig2	1.00	5.00	3.99	0.783
Task Autonomy	Tas_aut1	1.00	5.00	3.68	0.759
	Tas_aut2	1.00	5.00	3.72	0.809
	Tas_aut3	1.00	5.00	3.77	0.824
Task feedback	Tas_fed1	1.00	5.00	3.95	0.798
	Tas_fed2	1.00	5.00	3.90	0.754
	Tas_fed3	1.00	5.00	3.84	0.728

According to Table 4.2, the results of job statistical analysis characteristics are presented as follows:

Skill variety, the mean of ski_var1 was 3.97 with the standard deviation of 0.811, the mean of ski_var2 was 3.74 with the standard deviation of 0.830, and the mean of ski_var3 was 3.86 with the standard deviation of 0.848.

Task identity, the mean of tas_ide1 was 4.07 with the standard deviation of 0.801, the mean of tas_ide2 was 4.02 with the standard deviation of 0.832, and the mean of tas_ide3 was 3.99 with the standard deviation of 0.757.

Task significance, the mean of tas_sig1 was 4.05 with the standard deviation of 0.786, the mean of tas_sig2 was 3.99 with the standard deviation of 0.783.

Task autonomy, the mean of tas_aut1 was 3.68 with the standard deviation of 0.759, the mean of tas_aut2 was 3.72 with the standard deviation of 0.809, and the mean of tas_aut3 was 3.77 with the standard deviation of 0.824.

Task feedback, the mean of tas_fed1 was 3.95 with the standard deviation of 0.798, the mean of tas_fed2 was 3.90 with the standard deviation of 0.754, and the mean of tas_fed3 was 3.84 with the standard deviation of 0.728.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership consists of four variables which are idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration as presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Descriptive statistics of transformational leadership

Construct	Observed Variables	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Idealized influence	Ide_inf1	0.00	4.00	3.01	0.908
	Ide_inf2	0.00	4.00	2.92	0.838
	Ide_inf3	1.00	4.00	2.97	0.856
	Ide_inf4	0.00	4.00	3.09	0.831
	Ide_inf5	1.00	4.00	3.15	0.768
	Ide_inf6	0.00	4.00	3.11	0.809
	Ide_inf7	0.00	4.00	3.09	0.831
	Ide_inf8	0.00	4.00	3.07	0.823
Inspirational motivation	Ins_mot1	0.00	4.00	2.94	0.895
	Ins_mot2	0.00	4.00	3.02	0.878
	Ins_mot3	0.00	4.00	3.08	0.881
	Ins_mot4	0.00	4.00	3.10	0.773
Intellectual stimulation	Int_sti1	0.00	4.00	3.03	0.799
	Int_sti2	1.00	4.00	2.97	0.825
	Int_sti3	0.00	4.00	3.02	0.876
	Int_sti4	0.00	4.00	3.04	0.783
Individual consideration	Ind_con1	0.00	4.00	3.09	0.820
	Ind_con2	0.00	4.00	3.09	0.793
	Ind_con3	0.00	4.00	3.03	0.852
	Ind_con4	0.00	4.00	3.08	0.799

According to Table 4.3, the results of statistical analysis of transformational leadership are as follows:

Idealized influence, the mean of ide_inf1 was 3.01 with the standard deviation of 0.908, the mean of ide_inf2 was 2.92 with the standard deviation of 0.838, the mean of ide_inf3 was 2.97 with the standard deviation of 0.856, the mean of ide_inf4 was 3.09 with the standard deviation of 0.831, the mean of ide_inf5 was 3.15 with the standard deviation of 0.768, the mean of ide_inf6 was 3.11 with the standard deviation of 0.809, the mean of ide_inf7 was 3.09 with the standard deviation of 0.831, and the mean of ide_inf8 was 3.07 with the standard deviation of 0.823.

Inspirational motivation, the mean of ins_mot1 was 2.94 with the standard deviation of 0.895, the mean of ins_mot2 was 3.02 with the standard deviation of 0.878, the mean of ins_mot3 was 3.08 with the standard deviation of 0.881, and the mean of ins_mot4 was 3.10 with the standard deviation of 0.773.

Intellectual stimulation, the mean of int_sti1 was 3.03 with the standard deviation of 0.799, the mean of int_sti2 was 2.97 with the standard deviation of 0.825, the mean of int_sti3 was 3.02 with the standard deviation of 0.876, and the mean of int_sti4 was 3.04 with the standard deviation of 0.783.

Individual consideration, the mean of ind_con1 was 3.09 with the standard deviation of 0.820, the mean of ind_con2 was 3.09 with the standard deviation of 0.793, the mean of ind_con3 was 3.03 with the standard deviation of 0.852, and the mean of ind_con4 was 3.08 with the standard deviation of 0.799.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support consists of three variables which are fairness, supervisor support and organizational rewards and job conditions as show in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Descriptive statistics of perceived organizational support

Construct	Observed Variables	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Fairness	Fair1	1.00	5.00	3.97	0.886
	Fair2	1.00	5.00	3.82	0.833
	Fair3	1.00	5.00	3.75	0.814
	Fair4	1.00	5.00	3.86	0.799
	Fair5	1.00	5.00	3.77	0.796
Supervisor support	Sup_sup1	1.00	5.00	3.81	0.834
	Sup_sup2	1.00	5.00	3.79	0.875
	Sup_sup3	1.00	5.00	3.91	0.824
	Sup_sup4	2.00	5.00	3.90	0.816
	Sup_sup5	1.00	5.00	3.78	0.747
	Sup_sup6	1.00	5.00	3.80	0.785
Organizational rewards and job conditions	Rew_con1	1.00	5.00	3.94	0.858
	Rew_con2	1.00	5.00	3.91	0.837
	Rew_con3	1.00	5.00	3.82	0.773
	Rew_con4	1.00	5.00	3.81	0.856
	Rew_con5	1.00	5.00	3.88	0.807
	Rew_con6	1.00	5.00	3.93	0.869

According to Table 4.4, the results of statistical analysis of perceived organizational support are as follows:

Fairness, the mean of fair1 was 3.97 with the standard deviation of 0.886, the mean of fair2 was 3.82 with the standard deviation of 0.833, the mean of fair3 was 3.75 with the standard deviation of 0.814, the mean of fair4 was 3.86 with the standard deviation of 0.799, and the mean of fair5 was 3.77 with the standard deviation of 0.796.

Supervisor support, the mean of sup_sup1 was 3.81 with the standard deviation of 0.834, the mean of sup_sup2 was 3.79 with the standard deviation of 0.875, the mean of sup_sup3 was 3.91 with the standard deviation of 0.824, the mean of sup_sup4 was 3.90 with the standard deviation of 0.816, the mean of sup_sup5 was 3.78 with the standard deviation of 0.747, and the mean of sup_sup6 was 3.80 with the standard deviation of 0.785.

Organizational rewards and job conditions, the mean of rew_con1 was 3.94 with the standard deviation of 0.858, the mean of rew_con2 was 3.91 with the standard deviation of 0.837, the mean of rew_con3 was 3.82 with the standard deviation of 0.773, the mean of rew_con4 was 3.81 with the standard deviation of 0.856, the mean of rew_con5 was 3.88 with the standard deviation of 0.807, and the mean of rew_con6 was 3.93 with the standard deviation of 0.869.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment consists of three variables which are affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment as presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Descriptive statistics of organizational commitment

Construct	Observed Variables	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Affective commitment	Aff_com1	1.00	5.00	3.92	0.865
	Aff_com2	1.00	5.00	3.79	0.747
	Aff_com3	1.00	5.00	3.74	0.832
	Aff_com4	1.00	5.00	3.85	0.811
	Aff_com5	1.00	5.00	3.89	0.808
	Aff_com6	1.00	5.00	3.77	0.764
Continuance commitment	Con_com1	1.00	5.00	3.88	0.798
	Con_com2	1.00	5.00	3.74	0.846
	Con_com3	1.00	5.00	3.65	0.875
	Con_com4	1.00	5.00	3.89	0.780
	Con_com5	1.00	5.00	3.70	0.806
	Con_com6	1.00	5.00	3.83	0.790
Normative commitment	Nor_com1	1.00	5.00	3.73	0.868
	Nor_com2	1.00	5.00	3.82	0.855
	Nor_com3	1.00	5.00	3.64	0.922
	Nor_com4	1.00	5.00	3.63	0.897
	Nor_com5	1.00	5.00	3.78	0.858
	Nor_com6	1.00	5.00	3.81	0.902

According to Table 4.5, the results of statistical analysis of organizational commitment are as follows:

Affective commitment, the mean of aff_com1 was 3.92 with the standard deviation of 0.865, the mean of aff_com2 was 3.79 with the standard deviation of 0.747, the mean of aff_com3 was 3.74 with the standard deviation of 0.832, the mean of aff_com4 was 3.85 with the standard deviation of 0.811, the mean of aff_com5 was 3.89 with the standard deviation of 0.808, and the mean of aff_com6 was 3.77 with the standard deviation of 0.764.

Continuance commitment, the mean of con_com1 was 3.88 with the standard deviation of 0.798, the mean of con_com2 was 3.74 with the standard deviation of 0.846, the mean of con_com3 was 3.65 with the standard deviation of 0.875, the mean of con_com4 was 3.89 with the standard deviation of 0.780, the mean of con_com5 was 3.70 with the standard deviation of 0.806, and the mean of con_com6 was 3.83 with the standard deviation of 0.790.

Normative commitment, the mean of nor_com1 was 3.73 with the standard deviation of 0.868, the mean of nor_com2 was 3.82 with the standard deviation of 0.855, the mean of nor_com3 was 3.64 with the standard deviation of 0.922, the mean of nor_com4 was 3.63 with the standard deviation of 0.897, the mean of nor_com5 was 3.78 with the standard deviation of 0.858, and the mean of nor_com6 was 3.81 with the standard deviation of 0.902.

Table 4.6 Descriptive statistics of organizational commitment (Colleague)

Construct	Observed Variables	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Affective commitment	Faff_co1	1.00	5.00	3.74	0.853
	Faff_co2	1.00	5.00	3.66	0.795
	Faff_co3	1.00	5.00	3.61	0.874
	Faff_co4	1.00	5.00	3.67	0.798
	Faff_co5	1.00	5.00	3.73	0.793
	Faff_co6	1.00	5.00	3.84	0.800
Continuance commitment	Fcon_co1	1.00	5.00	3.75	0.820
	Fcon_co2	1.00	5.00	3.60	0.903
	Fcon_co3	1.00	5.00	3.64	0.879
	Fcon_co4	1.00	5.00	3.67	0.825
	Fcon_co5	1.00	5.00	3.61	0.893
	Fcon_co6	1.00	5.00	3.61	0.826
Normative commitment	Fnor_co1	1.00	5.00	3.63	0.860
	Fnor_co2	1.00	5.00	3.64	0.923
	Fnor_co3	1.00	5.00	3.59	0.895
	Fnor_co4	1.00	5.00	3.63	0.878
	Fnor_co5	1.00	5.00	3.68	0.828
	Fnor_co6	1.00	5.00	3.70	0.901

According to Table 4.6, the results of statistical analysis of organizational commitment (Colleague) are as follows:

Affective commitment, the mean of faff_co1 was 3.74 with the standard deviation of 0.853, the mean of faff_co2 was 3.66 with the standard deviation of 0.795, the mean of faff_co3 was 3.61 with the standard deviation of 0.874, the mean of faff_co4 was 3.67 with the standard deviation of 0.798, the mean of faff_co5 was 3.73 with the standard deviation of 0.793, and the mean of faff_co6 was 3.84 with the standard deviation of 0.800.

Continuance commitment, the mean of fcon_co1 was 3.75 with the standard deviation of 0.820, the mean of fcon_co2 was 3.60 with the standard deviation of 0.903, the mean of fcon_co3 was 3.64 with the standard deviation of 0.879, the mean of fcon_co4 was 3.67 with the standard deviation of 0.825, the mean of fcon_co5 was 3.61 with the standard deviation of 0.893, and the mean of fcon_co6 was 3.61 with the standard deviation of 0.826.

Normative commitment, the mean of fnor_co1 was 3.63 with the standard deviation of 0.860, the mean of fnor_co2 was 3.64 with the standard deviation of 0.923, the mean of fnor_co3 was 3.59 with the standard deviation of 0.895, the mean of fnor_co4 was 3.63 with the standard deviation of 0.878, the mean of fnor_co5 was 3.68 with the standard deviation of 0.828, and the mean of fnor_co6 was 3.70 with the standard deviation of 0.901.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior consists of four variables which are altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship as presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Descriptive statistics of organizational citizenship behavior

Construct	Observed Variables	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Altruism	Alt1	1.00	5.00	4.07	0.808
	Alt2	1.00	5.00	3.98	0.697
	Alt3	2.00	5.00	3.96	0.726
	Alt4	1.00	5.00	3.94	0.777
	Alt5	2.00	5.00	3.95	0.709
Civic virtue	Civ1	1.00	5.00	3.93	0.752
	Civ2	1.00	5.00	4.00	0.776
	Civ3	2.00	5.00	4.09	0.729
	Civ4	1.00	5.00	3.97	0.801
Conscientiousness	Cons1	1.00	5.00	3.63	0.961
	Cons2	1.00	5.00	3.84	0.801
	Cons3	1.00	5.00	3.89	0.801
	Cons4	1.00	5.00	3.81	0.785
Sportsmanship	Sport1	1.00	5.00	3.79	0.837
	Sport2	1.00	5.00	3.88	0.702
	Sport3	1.00	5.00	3.93	0.736

According to Table 4.7, the results of statistical analysis of organizational citizenship behavior are as follows:

Altruism, the mean of alt1 was 4.07 with the standard deviation of 0.808, the mean of alt2 was 3.98 with the standard deviation of 0.697, the mean of alt3 was 3.96 with the standard deviation of 0.726, the mean of alt4 was 3.94 with the standard deviation of 0.777, and the mean of alt5 was 3.95 with the standard deviation of 0.709.

Civic virtue, the mean of civ1 was 3.93 with the standard deviation of 0.752, the mean of civ2 was 4.00 with the standard deviation of 0.776, the mean of civ3 was 4.09 with the standard deviation of 0.729, and the mean of civ4 was 3.97 with the standard deviation of 0.801.

Conscientiousness, the mean of cons1 was 3.63 with the standard deviation of 0.961, the mean of cons2 was 3.84 with the standard deviation of 0.801, the mean of cons3 was 3.89 with the standard deviation of 0.801, and the mean of cons4 was 3.81 with the standard deviation of 0.785.

Sportsmanship, the mean of sport1 was 3.79 with the standard deviation of 0.837, the mean of sport2 was 3.88 with the standard deviation of 0.702, and the mean of sport3 was 3.93 with the standard deviation of 0.736.

Table 4.8 Descriptive statistics of organizational citizenship behavior (Colleague)

Construct	Observed Variables	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Altruism	Falt1	1.00	5.00	3.95	0.739
	Falt2	1.00	5.00	3.83	0.749
	Falt3	1.00	5.00	3.82	0.760
	Falt4	1.00	5.00	3.85	0.794
	Falt5	2.00	5.00	3.76	0.814
Civic virtue	Fciv1	1.00	5.00	3.76	0.777
	Fciv2	1.00	5.00	3.76	0.780
	Fciv3	1.00	5.00	3.73	0.795
	Fciv4	1.00	5.00	3.74	0.796
Conscientiousness	Fcons1	1.00	5.00	3.54	0.983
	Fcons2	1.00	5.00	3.69	0.863
	Fcons3	1.00	5.00	3.76	0.871
	Fcons4	1.00	5.00	3.65	0.813
Sportsmanship	Fsport1	1.00	5.00	3.72	0.798
	Fsport2	1.00	5.00	3.79	0.764
	Fsport3	1.00	5.00	3.78	0.829

According to Table 4.8, the results of statistical analysis of organizational citizenship behavior (colleague) are as follows:

Altruism, the mean of falt1 was 3.95 with the standard deviation of 0.739, the mean of falt2 was 3.83 with the standard deviation of 0.749, the mean of falt3 was 3.82

with the standard deviation of 0.760, the mean of falt4 was 3.85 with the standard

deviation of 0.794, and the mean of alt5 was 3.76 with the standard deviation of 0.814.

Civic virtue, the mean of fciv1 was 3.76 with the standard deviation of 0.777,

the mean of fciv2 was 3.76 with the standard deviation of 0.780, the mean of fciv3 was

3.73 with the standard deviation of 0.795, and the mean of fciv4 was 3.74 with the

standard deviation of 0.796.

Conscientiousness, the mean of fcons1 was 3.54 with the standard deviation of

0.983, the mean of fcons2 was 3.69 with the standard deviation of 0.863, the mean of

fcons3 was 3.76 with the standard deviation of 0.871, and the mean of fcons4 was 3.65

with the standard deviation of 0.813.

Sportsmanship, the mean of fsport1 was 3.72 with the standard deviation of

0.798, the mean of fsport2 was 3.79 with the standard deviation of 0.764, and the mean

of fsport3 was 3.78 with the standard deviation of 0.829.

Table 4.9 Descriptive statistics of summary variables

Construct	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Job characteristics	1.00	5.00	3.90	0.497
Transformational leadership	0.00	4.00	3.04	0.604
Perceived organizational support	1.00	5.00	3.85	0.565
Organizational commitment	2.08	4.67	3.72	0.480
Organizational citizenship behavior	2.03	5.00	3.83	0.475
Total	2.30	4.69	3.67	0.409

According to Table 4.9, the results of statistical analysis from overall variables mean were 3.67 with the standard deviation of 0.409 by rating from high to low as: job characteristics, perceived organizational support, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, and transformational leadership.

4.3 Structural Equation Modeling Analysis

4.3.1 Normal Distribution Testing

To examine the distribution of data, the data have a normal distribution, which normally can be viewed from the statistics. In the case of measuring statistics, it can be found at the Skewness and Kurtosis which Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) set the recording of the notice for negative and positive values to show the direction of information. While Kline (2005) states that the value -3.0 to +3.0 shows a normal distribution. Moreover, Decarlo (1997) stated that the value of Kurtosis between -3 and +3 showed a normal destruction. From this study, data was collected from 504 respondents. The results was the value of skewness from -1.008 (lower) to 0.017 (higher) and the value of Kurtosis ranged from -0.814 (lower) to 1.601 (higher). Thus, it could be summed that the rule of normal distribution of sample in this study was satisfactory since all variables testing ranges were normal.

Table 4.10 The reliability analysis of the questionnaire from data collected via

    construct's Cronbach's Alpha

Construct	Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha
Skill variety	0.7237
Task identity	0.7669
Task significance	0.7184
Task autonomy	0.7842
Task feedback	0.7584
Transformational leadership	0.9120
Perceive organizational support	0.8663
Organizational commitment	0.8684
Organizational citizenship behavior	0.9078

Table 4.10 presents reliability analysis of the data collection from 504 respondents. Skill variety has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.7237 (3 items), task identity has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.7669 (3 items), task significance has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.7184 (2 items), task autonomy has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.7842 (3 items), task feedback has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.7584 (3 items), transformational leadership has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.9120 (3 items), perceive organizational support has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.8663 (3 items), organizational commitment has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.8684 (3 items), and organizational citizenship behavior has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.9078 (4 items). However, all constructs provided high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha that greater than 0.70.

4.3.2 Multicollinearity Test

The Structural Equation Model was based on regression analysis. This research must apply multicollinearity testing according to Lauridsen and Mur (2006) which indicated that the multicollinearity was an intriguing and common property of data. The effect of multicollinearity resulted in the reduction of efficiency of the coefficient estimates. The Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) measurement was used for testing. The Tolerance should be more than 0.1 or VIF should be less than 10 (VIF = 1/Tolerance) to accept that they have no multicollinearity problems (Hair, Balck, Babin, & Anderson, 2009).

Table 4.11 Collinearity Statistics

Variables	Collinearity statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Skill variable	0.531	1.882
Task identity	0.498	2.009
Task significance	0.543	1.843
Task autonomy	0.618	1.617
Task feedback	0.611	1.637
Transformational leadership	0.570	1.755
Perceive organizational support	0.453	2.209
Organizational commitment	0.605	1.654

Note: Dependent variable is organizational citizenship behavior

From the Table 4.11, the results showed that the data in this study had shown no multicollinearity, as no data had a Tolerance value that lower than 0.1 or a VIF that higher than 10. The Tolerance value had a rage of 0.453 (lowest) to 0.618 (highest). The range of the VIF was from 1.617 to 2.209.

Table 4.12 Correlation matrix

	Tski	Tide	Tsig	Taut	Tfed	Ttrans	Tpos	Toc
Tski	1							
Tide	.627**	1						
Tsig	.445**	.559**	1					
Taut	.412**	.398**	.532**	1				
Tfed	.471**	.447**	.464**	.397**	1			
Ttrans	.305**	.209**	.208**	.235**	.358**	1		
Tpos	.360**	.326**	.287**	.368**	.454**	.636**	1	
Toc	.332**	.265**	.215**	.377**	.377**	.436**	.580**	1

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

Correlation among independent variables was observed as well. Correlation that exceeded 0.80 could be an indicative of problems (Hair et al., 1998). Table 4.12 showed that the correlation of variables was less than 0.80: therefore, there were no multicollinearity problems.

4.3.3 Convergent Validity

Measurement model of Job Characteristics (CFA)

The convergent validity testing will verify whether the indicators can represent into latent variable. The researcher used reflective model of CFA with construct. Five constructs were observed: skill variety (skill), task identity (identity), task significance (significance), task autonomy (autonomy), and task feedback (feedback). The result of independent variable testing was presented in Figure 4.1 and Table 4.13.
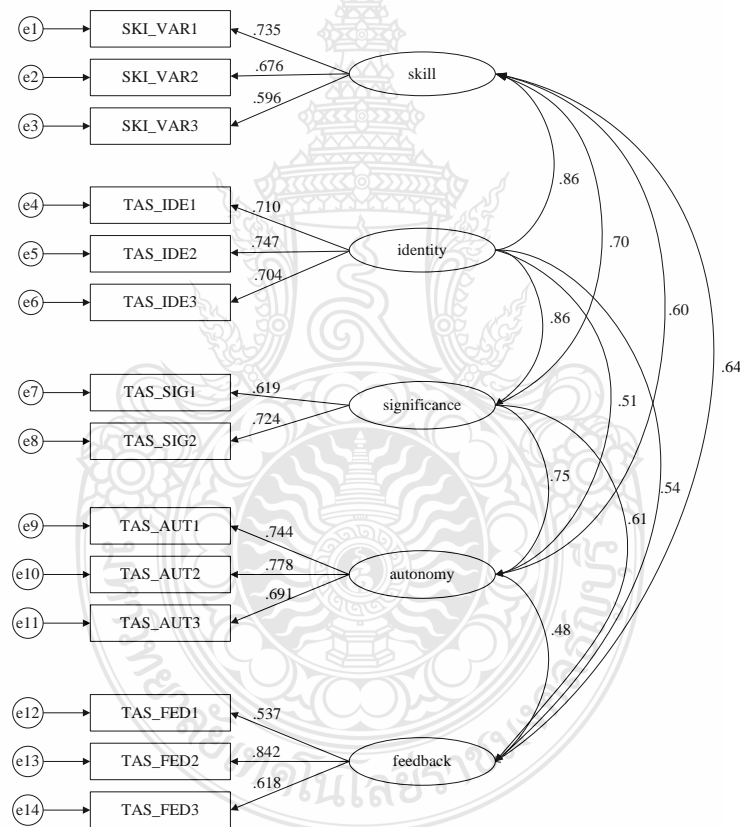
Figure 4.1 Construct measurement model of job characteristics

Goodness of Fit Statistics (Measurement model of job characteristics)

CMIN = 67.631, P = .085, CMIN/DF = 1.276, GFI = .982, AGFI = .964,

NFI = .974, TLI = .990, CFI = .994, RMSEA = .023

Table 4.13 Regression weights: job characteristics

			Factor Loading	S.E.	C.R.	P
SKI_VAR1	<---	Skill	.735			
SKI_VAR2	<---	Skill	.676	.072	13.000	***
SKI_VAR3	<---	Skill	.596	.074	11.407	***
TAS_IDE1	<---	Identity	.710			
TAS_IDE2	<---	Identity	.747	.076	14.513	***
TAS_IDE3	<---	Identity	.704	.068	13.879	***
TAS_SIG1	<---	significance	.619			
TAS_SIG2	<---	significance	.724	.097	12.186	***
TAS_AUT1	<---	autonomy	.744			
TAS_AUT2	<---	autonomy	.778	.075	14.845	***
TAS_AUT3	<---	autonomy	.691	.075	13.428	***
TAS_FED1	<---	feedback	.537			
TAS_FED2	<---	feedback	.842	.148	10.038	***
TAS_FED3	<---	feedback	.618	.108	9.695	***

Construct measurement model of job characteristics contains 14 items and five constructs. After the assessment, the CMINp was found equal to .085, the CMIN/df was equal to 1.276, the GFI was equal to .982, and the RMSEA was equal to .023. Each value of CFI (.994), TLI (.990), NFI (.974), and AGFI (.964) was acceptable because each value was higher than .90 as recommended. All of these indices

confirmed good model fit. According to Hair et al., (2010), factor loadings in the range

of 0.3 – 0.4 were considered to meet the minimal level for interpretation of structure.

All factor loadings that exceeded .30 were significant.

Measurement Model of Transformational Leadership (CFA)

The convergent validity testing will verify whether the indicators can represent

into latent variable. The researcher used reflective model of CFA with construct. Four

constructs were observed: idealized influence (tinf), inspirational motivation (tmot),

intellectual stimulation (tsti), and individual consideration (tcon). The result of

independent variable testing is presented in Figure 4.2 and Table 4.14.
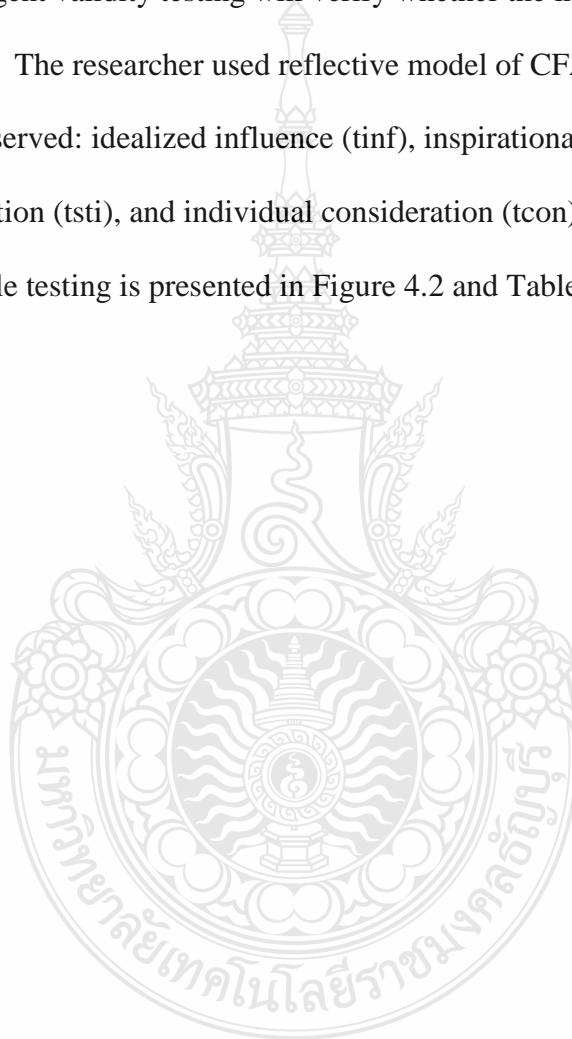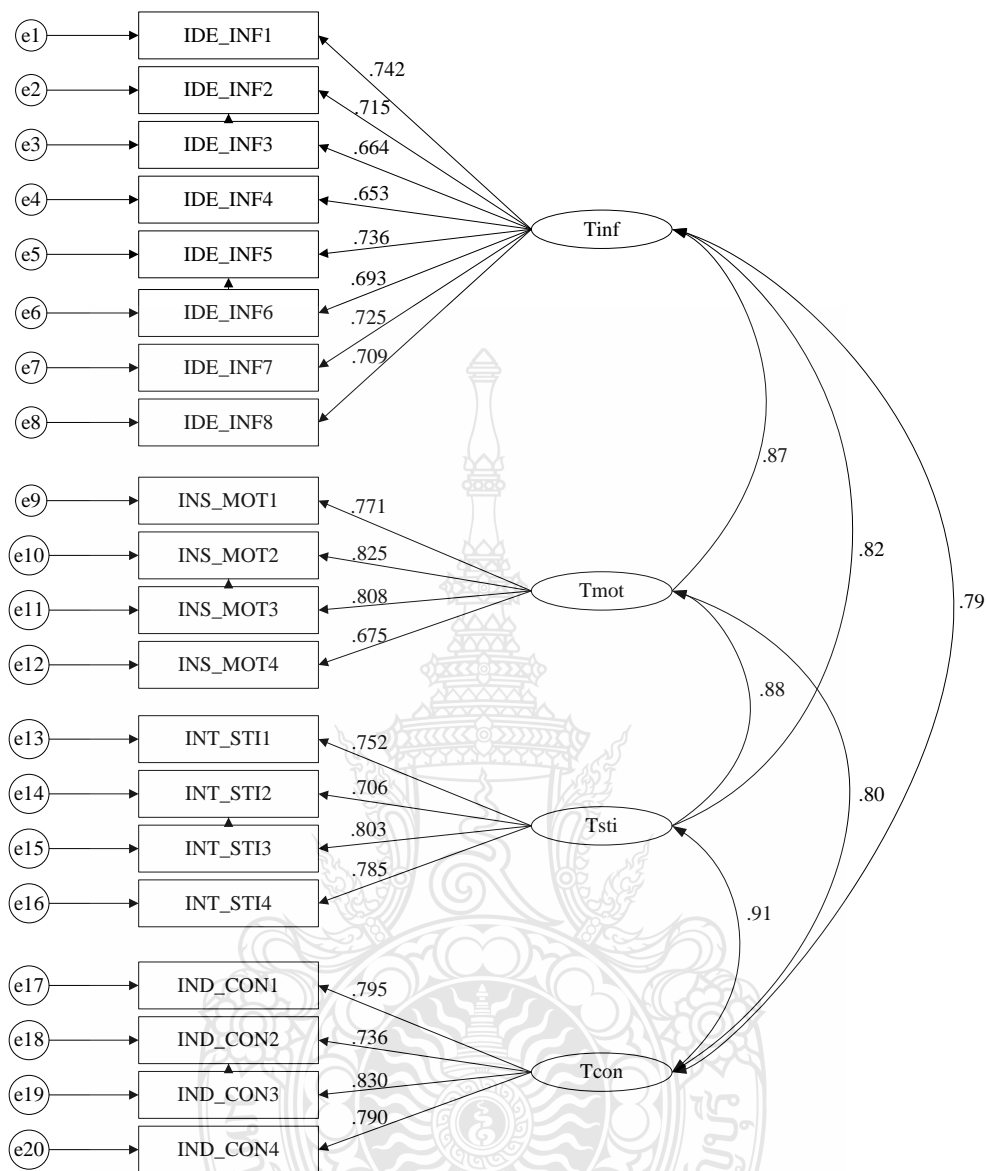
Figure 4.2 Construct measurement model of transformational leadership

Goodness of Fit Statistics (Measurement model of transformational leadership)

CMIN = 140.370, P = .78, CMIN/DF = 1.190, GFI = .973, AGFI = .952,

NFI = .979, TLI = .994, CFI = .997, RMSEA = .019

Table 4.14 Regression weights: transformational leadership

			Factor Loading	S.E.	C.R.	P
IDE_INF1	<---	Tinf	.742			
IDE_INF2	<---	Tinf	.715	.048	18.608	***
IDE_INF3	<---	Tinf	.664	.054	15.587	***
IDE_INF4	<---	Tinf	.653	.057	14.087	***
IDE_INF5	<---	Tinf	.736	.053	15.772	***
IDE_INF6	<---	Tinf	.693	.055	15.228	***
IDE_INF7	<---	Tinf	.725	.057	15.774	***
IDE_INF8	<---	Tinf	.709	.060	14.304	***
INS_MOT1	<---	Tmot	.771			
INS_MOT2	<---	Tmot	.825	.056	18.731	***
INS_MOT3	<---	Tmot	.808	.056	18.391	***
INS_MOT4	<---	Tmot	.675	.054	13.985	***
INT_STI1	<---	Tsti	.752			
INT_STI2	<---	Tsti	.706	.061	15.989	***
INT_STI3	<---	Tsti	.803	.064	18.522	***
INT_STI4	<---	Tsti	.785	.057	18.041	***
IND_CON1	<---	Tcon	.795			
IND_CON2	<---	Tcon	.736	.051	17.400	***
IND_CON3	<---	Tcon	.830	.054	20.146	***
IND_CON4	<---	Tcon	.790	.056	17.101	***

Construct measurement model of transformational leadership contains 20 items and four constructs. After the assessment, the CMINp was found equal to 0.78, the CMIN/df was equal to 1.190, the GFI was equal to .973, and the RMSEA was equal to .019. Each value of CFI (.997), TLI (.994), NFI (.979), and AGFI (.952) was acceptable because each value was higher than .90 as recommended. All of these indices confirmed good model fit. According to Hair et al., (2010), factor loadings in the range of 0.3 – 0.4 were considered to meet the minimal level for interpretation of structure. All factor loadings that exceeded .30 were significant.

Measurement Model of Perceive Organizational Support (CFA)

The convergent validity testing will verify whether the indicators can represent into latent variable. The researcher used reflective model of CFA with construct. Three constructs were observed: fairness (fair), supervisor support (support), and organizational rewards and job condition (reward). The result of independent variable testing is presented in Figure 4.3 and Table 4.15.
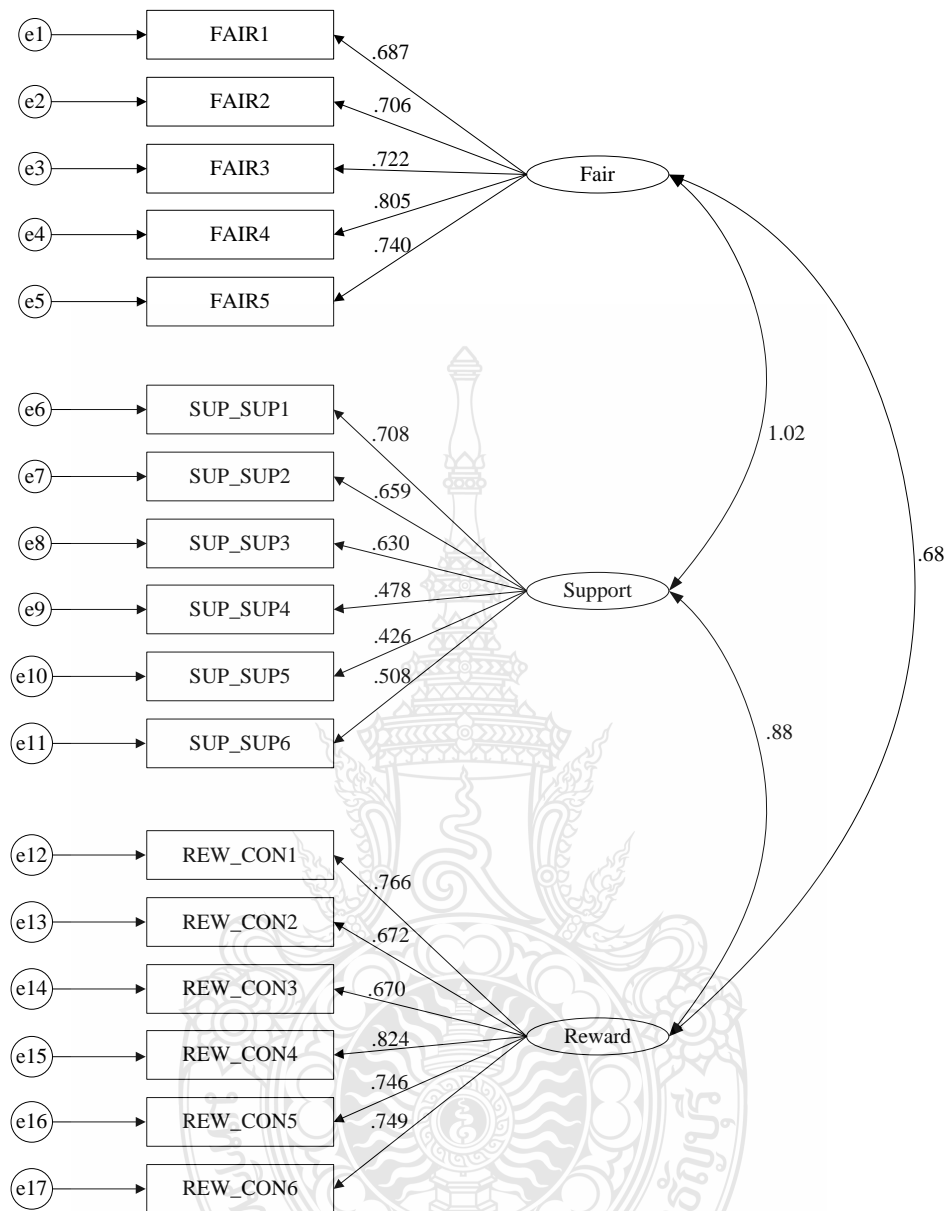
Figure 4.3 Construct measurement model of perceive organizational support

Goodness of Fit Statistics (measurement model of perceive organizational support)

CMIN = 110.251, P = .004, CMIN/DF = 1.490, GFI = .975, AGFI = .949,

NFI = .977, TLI = .986, CFI = .992, RMSEA = .031

Table 4.15 Regression weights: perceived organizational support

			Factor Loading	S.E.	C.R.	P
FAIR1	<---	Fair	.687			
FAIR2	<---	Fair	.706	.061	15.670	***
FAIR3	<---	Fair	.722	.067	14.326	***
FAIR4	<---	Fair	.805	.067	15.682	***
FAIR5	<---	Fair	.740	.064	15.089	***
SUP_SUP1	<---	Support	.708			
SUP_SUP2	<---	Support	.659	.055	17.607	***
SUP_SUP3	<---	Support	.630	.056	15.806	***
SUP_SUP4	<---	Support	.478	.061	10.781	***
SUP_SUP5	<---	Support	.426	.057	9.478	***
SUP_SUP6	<---	Support	.508	.060	11.273	***
REW_CON1	<---	Reward	.766			
REW_CON2	<---	Reward	.672	.058	14.843	***
REW_CON3	<---	Reward	.670	.053	14.814	***
REW_CON4	<---	Reward	.824	.067	16.281	***
REW_CON5	<---	Reward	.746	.056	16.473	***
REW_CON6	<---	Reward	.749	.060	16.374	***

Construct measurement model of perceive organizational support contains 17 items and three constructs. After the assessment, the CMINp was found equal to .004, the CMIN/df was equal to 1.490, the GFI was equal to .975, and the RMSEA was equal to .031. Each value of CFI (.992), TLI (.986), NFI (.977), and AGFI (.949) was acceptable because each value was higher than .90 as recommended. All of these indices confirmed good model fit. According to Hair et al., (2010), factor loadings in the range of $0.3 - 0.4$ were considered to meet the minimal level for interpretation of structure. All factor loadings that exceeded .30 were significant.

Measurement Model of Organizational Commitment (CFA)

The convergent validity testing will verify whether the indicators can represent into latent variable. The researcher used reflective model of CFA with construct. Three constructs were observed: affective commitment (affective), continue commitment (continue), and normative commitment (normative). The result of independent variable testing is presented in Figure 4.4 and Table 4.16.
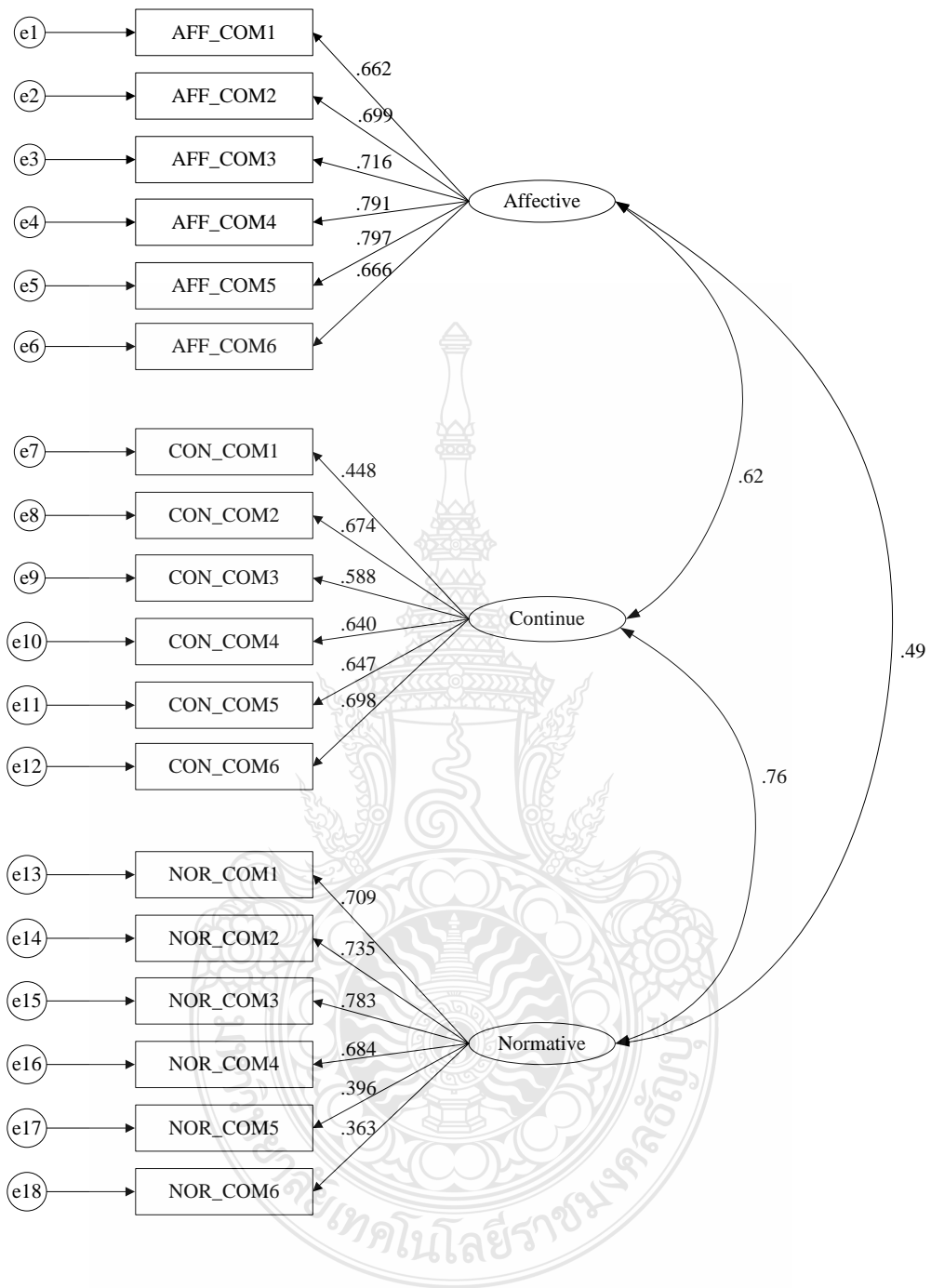
Figure 4.4 Construct Measurement Model of Organizational Commitment

Goodness of Fit Statistics (measurement model of organizational commitment)

CMIN = 138.775, P = .003, CMIN/DF = 1.446, GFI = .970, AGFI = .947,

NFI = .965, TLI = .982, CFI = .989, RMSEA = .030

Table 4.16 Regression weights: organizational commitment

			Factor Loading	S.E.	C.R.	P
AFF_COM1	<---	Affective	.662			
AFF_COM2	<---	Affective	.699	.058	15.657	***
AFF_COM3	<---	Affective	.716	.077	13.678	***
AFF_COM4	<---	Affective	.791	.077	14.699	***
AFF_COM5	<---	Affective	.797	.077	14.907	***
AFF_COM6	<---	Affective	.666	.075	12.005	***
CON_COM1	<---	Continue	.448			
CON_COM2	<---	Continue	.674	.179	9.028	***
CON_COM3	<---	Continue	.588	.181	8.020	***
CON_COM4	<---	Continue	.640	.143	9.798	***
CON_COM5	<---	Continue	.647	.175	8.392	***
CON_COM6	<---	Continue	.698	.180	8.582	***
NOR_COM1	<---	Normative	.709			
NOR_COM2	<---	Normative	.735	.073	13.886	***
NOR_COM3	<---	Normative	.783	.087	13.434	***
NOR_COM4	<---	Normative	.684	.076	13.154	***
NOR_COM5	<---	Normative	.396	.068	6.108	***
NOR_COM6	<---	Normative	.363	.072	7.370	***

Construct measurement model of organizational commitment contains 18 items and three constructs. After the assessment, the CMINp was found equal to .003, the CMIN/df was equal to 1.446, the GFI was equal to .970, and the RMSEA was equal to .030. Each value of CFI (.989), TLI (.982), NFI (.965), and AGFI (.947) were acceptable because each value was higher than .90 as recommended. All of these indices confirmed good model fit. According to Hair et al., (2010), factor loadings in the range of 0.3 – 0.4 were considered to meet the minimal level for interpretation of structure. All factor loadings that exceeded .30 were significant.

Measurement Model of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (CFA)

The convergent validity testing will verify whether the indicators can represent into latent variable. The researcher used reflective model of CFA with construct. Four constructs were observed: altruism (alt), civic virtue (civ), conscientiousness (cons), sportsmanship (sport). The result of independent variable testing is presented in Figure 4.5 and Table 4.17.
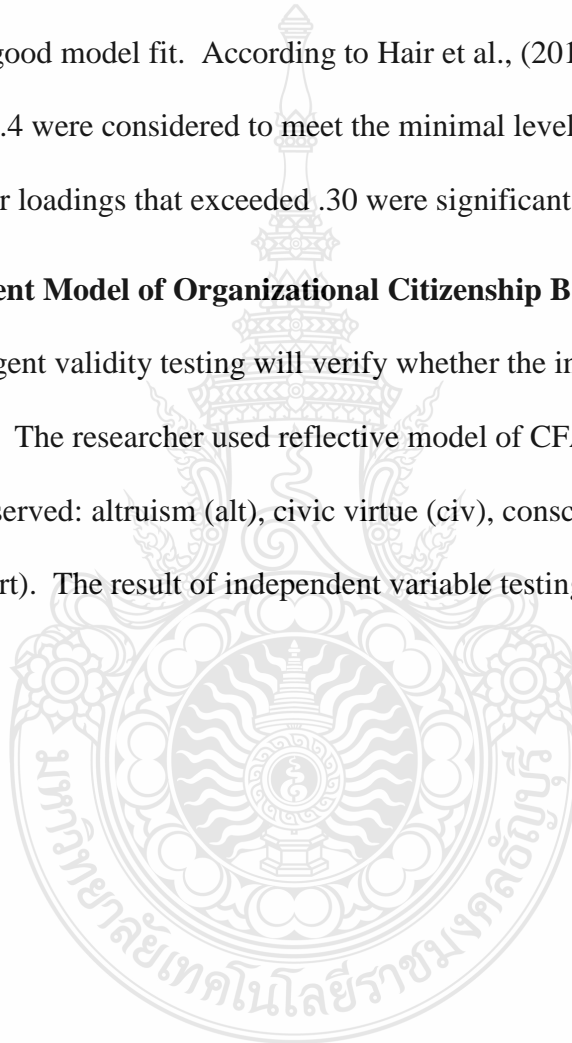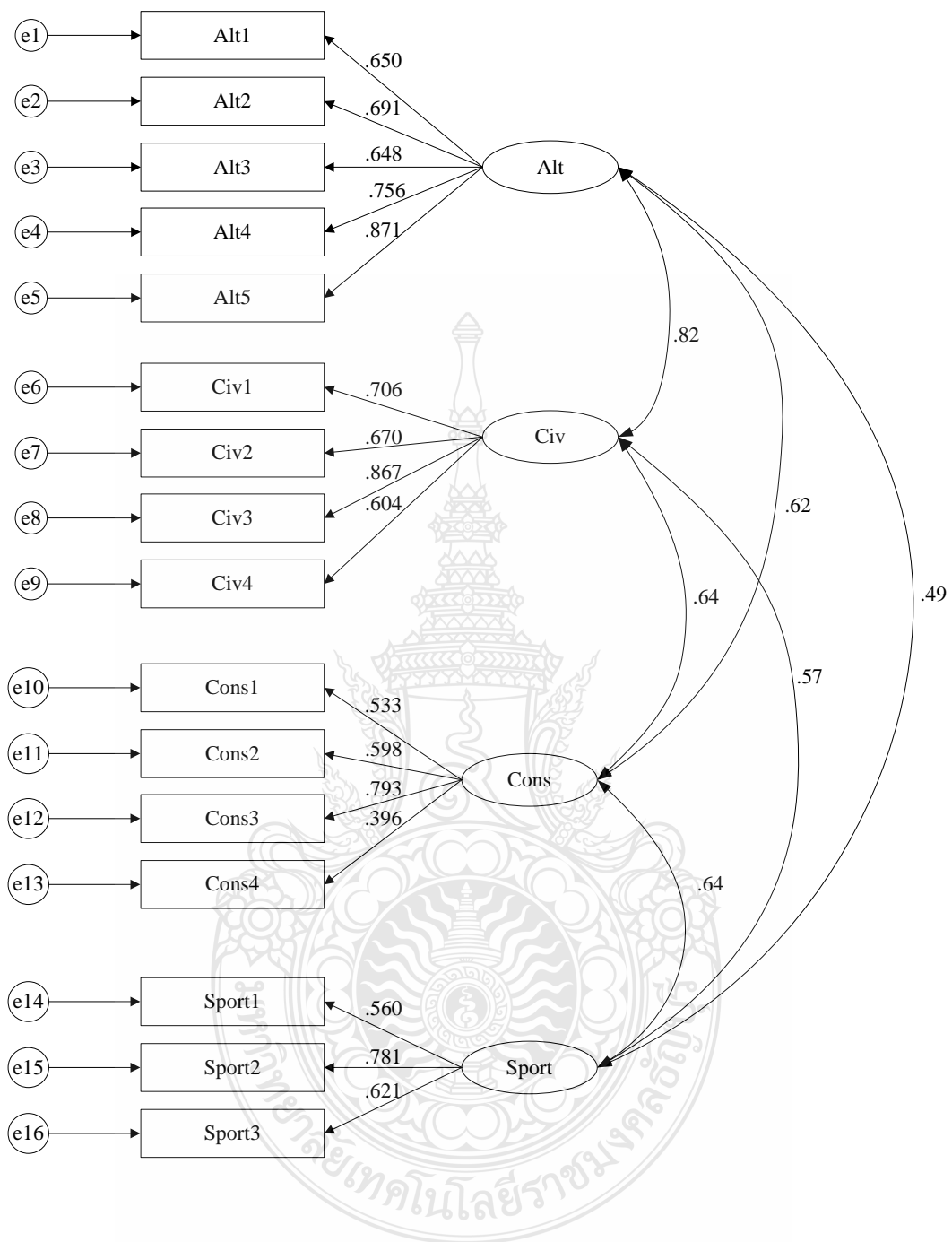
Figure 4.5 Construct measurement model of organizational citizenship behavior

Goodness of Fit Statistics (measurement model of organizational citizenship behavior)

CMIN = 99.441, P = .018, CMIN/DF = 1.381, GFI = .976, AGFI = .954,

NFI = .972, TLI = .987, CFI = .992, RMSEA = .028

Table 4.17 Regression weights: organizational citizenship behavior

			Factor Loading	**S.E.**	**C.R.**	**P**
Alt1	<---	Alt	.650			
Alt2	<---	Alt	.691	.063	14.731	***
Alt3	<---	Alt	.648	.072	12.400	***
Alt4	<---	Alt	.756	.079	14.148	***
Alt5	<---	Alt	.871	.075	15.580	***
Civ1	<---	Civ	.706			
Civ2	<---	Civ	.670	.063	15.448	***
Civ3	<---	Civ	.867	.071	16.626	***
Civ4	<---	Civ	.604	.074	12.376	***
Cons1	<---	Cons	.533			
Cons2	<---	Cons	.598	.102	9.208	***
Cons3	<---	Cons	.793	.122	10.111	***
Cons4	<---	Cons	.396	.086	6.999	***
Sport1	<---	Sport	.560			
Sport2	<---	Sport	.781	.114	10.351	***
Sport3	<---	Sport	.621	.101	9.751	***

Construct measurement model of organizational citizenship behavior contains 16 items and four constructs. After the assessment, the CMINp was found equal to .018, the CMIN/df was equal to 1.381, the GFI was equal to .976, and the RMSEA was equal to .028. Each value of CFI (.992), TLI (.987), NFI (.972), and AGFI (.954) was acceptable because each value was higher than .90 as recommended. All of these indices confirmed good model fit. According to Hair et al., (2010), factor loadings in the range of 0.3 – 0.4 were considered to meet the minimal level for interpretation of structure. All factor loadings that exceeded .30 were significant.

4.3.4 Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

To find the convergent validity, it can be considered from average variance extracted in which AVE should have a value more than 0.50. The calculation of AVE can be done as follows:

AVE = Sum of (standardized loading)^2/[Sum of (standardized loading)^2+Sum of error]

Table 4.18 Average variance extracted of variable

	Observed variable	Latent variable	
	Standardized Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Job characteristics			
Skill variety		0.709	0.450
Ski_var1	0.735		
Ski_var2	0.676		
Ski_var3	0.596		
Task identity		0.764	0.519
Tas_ide1	0.710		
Tas_ide2	0.747		
Tas_ide3	0.704		
Task significance		0.622	0.453
Tas_sig1	0.619		
Tas_sig2	0.724		
Task autonomy		0.782	0.545
Tas_aut1	0.744		
Tas_aut2	0.778		
Tas_aut3	0.691		

Table 4.18 Average variance extracted of variable (Cont.)

	Observed variable	Latent variable	
	Standardized Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Task feedback		0.711	0.459
Tas_fed1	0.537		
Tas_fed2	0.842		
Tas_fed3	0.618		
Transformational leadership			
Idealized influence		0.887	0.497
Ide_inf1	0.742		
Ide_inf2	0.715		
Ide_inf3	0.664		
Ide_inf4	0.653		
Ide_inf5	0.736		
Ide_inf6	0.693		
Ide_inf7	0.725		
Ide_inf8	0.709		
Inspirational motivation		0.866	0.619
Ins_mot1	0.771		
Ins_mot2	0.825		
Ins_mot3	0.808		
Ins_mot4	0.675		

Table 4.18 Average variance extracted of variable (Cont.)

	Observed variable	Latent variable	
	Standardized Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Intellectual stimulation		0.871	0.575
Int_sti1	0.752		
Int_sti2	0.706		
Int_sti3	0.803		
Int_sti4	0.785		
Individual consideration		0.885	0.607
Ind_con1	0.795		
Ind_con2	0.736		
Ind_con3	0.830		
Ind_con4	0.790		
Perceived organizational support			
Fairness		0.875	0.539
Fair1	0.687		
Fair2	0.706		
Fair3	0.722		
Fair4	0.805		
Fair5	0.740		

Table 4.18 Average variance extracted of variable (Cont.)

	Observed variable	Latent variable	
	Standardized Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Supervisor support		0.794	0.364
Sup_sup1	0.708		
Sup_sup2	0.659		
Sup_sup3	0.630		
Sup_sup4	0.478		
Sup_sup5	0.426		
Sup_sup6	0.508		
Organizational rewards and job conditions		0.894	0.547
Rew_con1	0.766		
Rew_con2	0.672		
Rew_con3	0.670		
Rew_con4	0.824		
Rew_con5	0.746		
Rew_con6	0.749		

Table 4.18 Average variance extracted of variable (Cont.)

	Observed variable	Latent variable	
	Standardized Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Organizational commitment			
Affective commitment		0.886	0.527
taff_com1	0.662		
taff_com2	0.699		
taff_com3	0.716		
taff_com4	0.791		
taff_com5	0.797		
taff_com6	0.666		
Continuance commitment		0.829	0.413
Tcon_com1	0.448		
Tcon_com2	0.674		
Tcon_com3	0.588		
Tcon_com4	0.640		
Tcon_com5	0.647		
Tcon_com6	0.698		

Table 4.18 Average variance extracted of variable (Cont.)

	Observed variable	Latent variable	
	Standardized Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Normative commitment		0.828	0.423
Tnor_com1	0.709		
Tnor_com2	0.735		
Tnor_com3	0.783		
Tnor_com4	0.684		
Tnor_com5	0.396		
Tnor_com6	0.363		
Organizational citizenship behavior			
Altruism		0.871	0.533
Talt1	0.650		
Talt2	0.691		
Talt3	0.648		
Talt4	0.756		
Talt5	0.871		
Civic virtue		0.843	0.522
Tciv1	0.706		
Tciv2	0.670		
Tciv3	0.867		
Tciv4	0.604		

Table 4.18 Average variance extracted of variable (Cont.)

	Observed variable	Latent variable	
	Standardized Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Conscientiousness		0.756	0.395
Tcons1	0.533		
Tcons2	0.598		
Tcons3	0.793		
Tcons4	0.396		
Sportsmanship		0.773	0.464
Tsport1	0.560		
Tsport2	0.781		
Tsport3	0.621		

Average Variance Extracted (AVE) should have a value higher than 0.5 but the result showed lower than 0.5 we could be accept because Fornell and Larcker explain that if AVE was less than 0.5 but composite reliability was higher than 0.6, the convergent validity of the construct are still adequate (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

4.3.5 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity testing used SEM method (Kim & Kim, 2010) to test by constructing pair of models from latent variable. First, all *p*-values associated with each loading were significant. Second, all of factor loading values were above 0.3. Third, all average variance extracted (AVE) from nine dimensions were above 0.5. Finally, all discriminant validity was above 1.0. Accordingly, all the results were above

the minimum criterion; therefore, it could be accepted that the structure of skill variety, task identity, Task significance, task autonomy, task feedback, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 4.19 Discriminant validity analysis

Factor	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted	Highest $(correlation)^2$	Discriminant Validity
Skill variety	0.724	0.709	0.450	0.438	1.027
Task identity	0.767	0.764	0.519	0.314	1.652
Task significance	0.718	0.622	0.453	0.388	1.167
Task autonomy	0.784	0.782	0.545	0.268	2.033
Task feedback	0.758	0.711	0.497	0.300	1.656
Transformational leadership	0.912	0.903	0.702	0.497	1.412
POS	0.866	0.895	0.740	0.454	1.629
OC	0.868	0.844	0.646	0.514	1.256
OCB	0.907	0.908	0.712	0.514	1.385

CR = composite reliability = $(\Sigma$ of standardized loading$)^2$/$[(\Sigma$ of standardized loading$)^2+\Sigma$ of $\varepsilon j]$; AVE = Σ of (standardized loading$)^2$/$[(\Sigma$ of standardized loading$)^2+\Sigma$ of $\varepsilon j]$; DV = discriminant validity = AVE/(corr.$)^2 > 1$; (corr.$)^2$ = highest (correlation$)^2$ between factors of interest and remaining factors.

4.3.6 Structural Equation Modeling Analysis of a Proposal Model

After each model of the proposal was evaluated whether it was the data-fit model, then each model had been combined into the overall model in order to use it to identify the answer for the hypothesis. To analyze the overall model, the structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed. First, SEM has its ability to indicate the correlation between latent variables and latent variables and second, to inform correlation between observed variables and latent variables.

SEM consists of model with five dimensions of job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and task feedback), transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. The model was performed and shown in Figure 4.6.
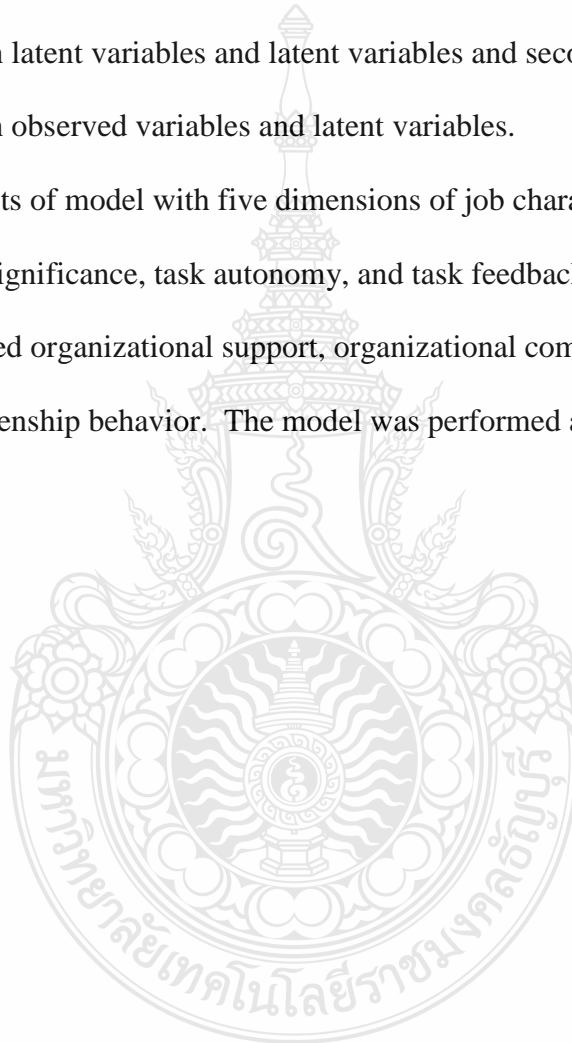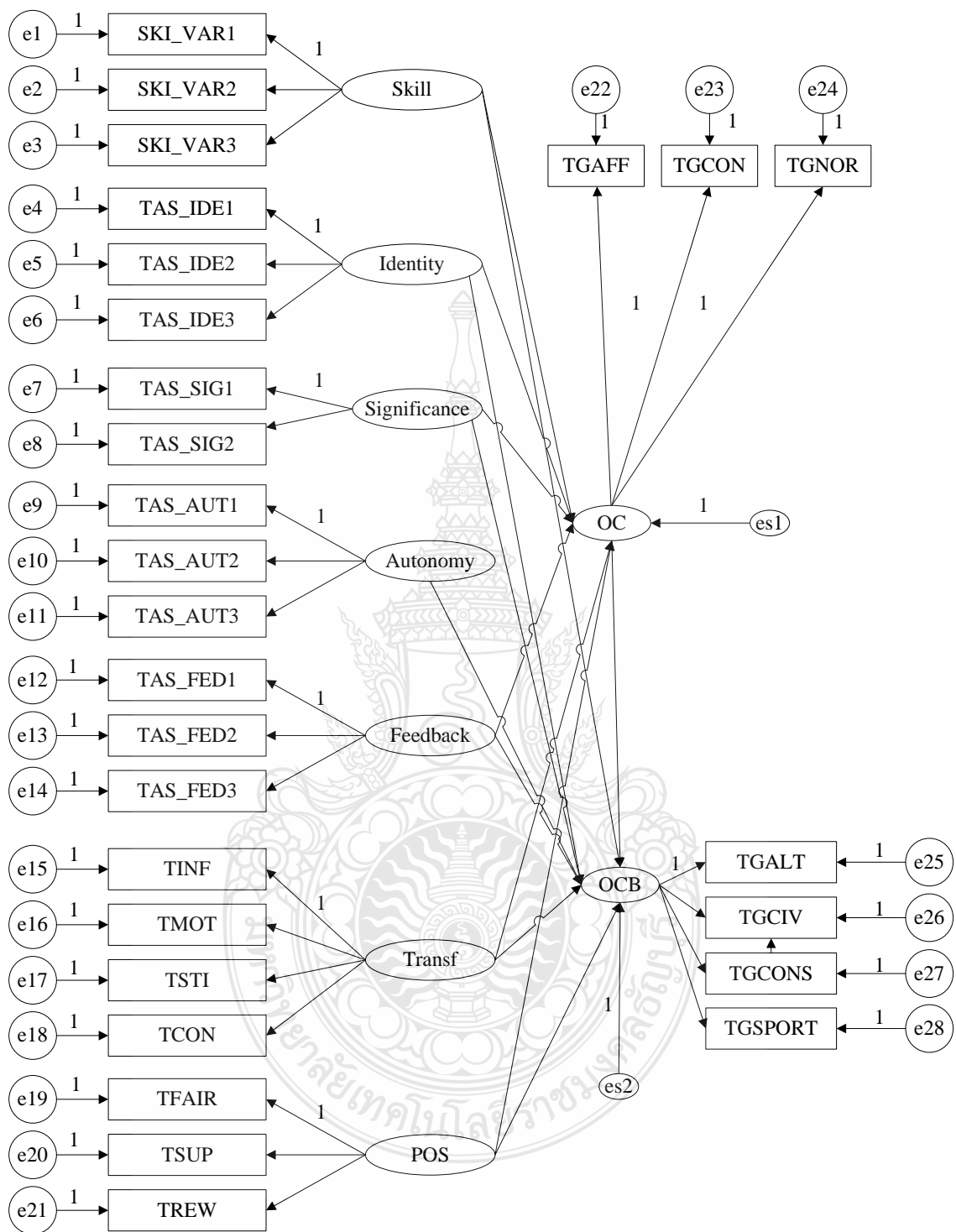
Figure 4.6 Proposed model for SEM analysis
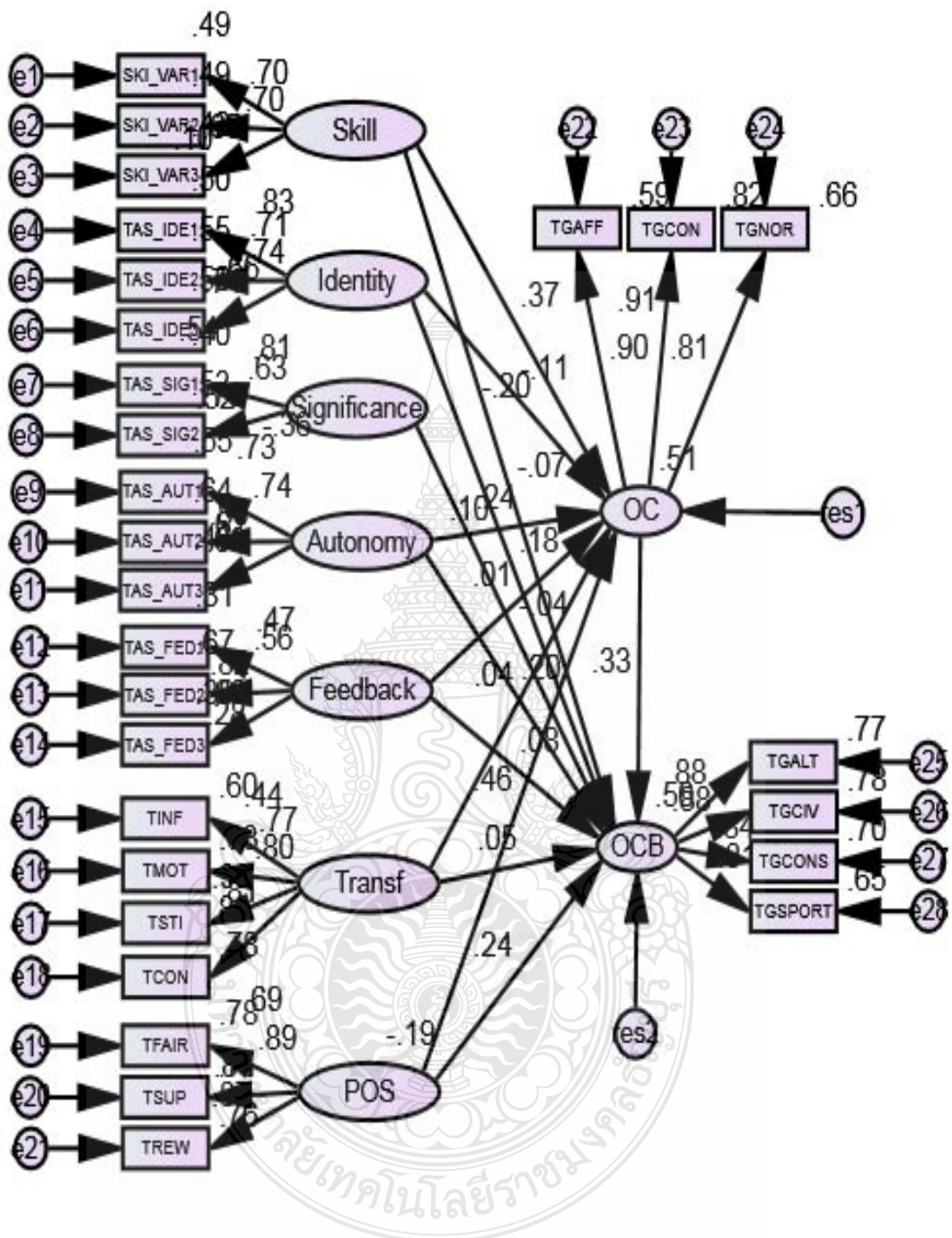
Figure 4.7 Structural model of organizational citizenship behavior

Table 4.20 Measuring of model fit

Model fit criteria	Acceptable level value	Value
p-value	*P*> 0.05	0.000
CMIN/df	<3	1.659
GFI	> 0.90	0.942
AGFI	> 0.90	0.914
RMR	< 0.05	0.020
RMSEA	< 0.08	0.036
NFI	> 0.90	0.947
CFI	> 0.90	0.978

Analyzing SEM of proposal models, the researcher had also used AMOS with the Maximum Likelihood estimation and Unbiased and displayed the results based on the standardized estimation mode. To analyze the model, the indices such as CMIN/df, CMINp, GFI, AGFI, RMSEA, TLI, and NFI were employed here. After the study, the results of model fitting indices the CMINp was found equal to 0.000, the CMIN/df was equal to 1.659, the GFI was equal to .942, RMR was equal to .020 and the RMSEA was equal to .036. Each value of CFI (.978), NFI (.947), and AGFI (.914)

4.4 Hypothesis Testing

The models were evaluated, and the results were computed in order to be used for the hypothesis testing. All results were used to investigate the effect of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support influence on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior in hotel sector.

In this study, a total of 15 hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8, H9, H10, H11, H12, H13, H14, and H15) were conducted. According to the 14 hypotheses, job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support have performed as an exogenous and hypothesized with the mediators, comprising of organizational commitment. Moreover, exogenous variables and mediators were tested in relation with the endogenous variables of organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 4.21 Regression weights

			Factor Loading	S.E.	C.R.	P
OC	<---	Skill	.366	.146	2.075	.038
OC	<---	Identity	-.108	.189	-.471	.638
OC	<---	Autonomy	.241	.101	1.997	.046
OC	<---	Feedback	.015	.091	.171	.865
OC	<---	Transf	.045	.069	.616	.538
OC	<---	POS	.457	.072	5.203	***
OCB	<---	Skill	-.067	.108	-.485	.628
OCB	<---	Identity	.178	.151	.915	.360
OCB	<---	Significance	-.037	.176	-.191	.849
OCB	<---	Autonomy	.198	.083	1.873	.061
OCB	<---	Feedback	.081	.073	1.091	.275
OCB	<---	Transf	.054	.054	.905	.365
OCB	<---	POS	.236	.054	3.367	***
OCB	<---	OC	.334	.051	6.249	***

Table 4.22 Total effect, direct effect, and indirect effect of model

	OC			OCB		
	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Skill	.366	-	.366	-.067	.122	.055
Identity	-.108	-	-.108	.178	-.036	.142
Significance	-	-	-	-.037	-.075	-.112
Autonomy	.241	-	.241	.198	.080	.278
Feedback	.015	-	.015	.081	.005	.086
Transf	.045	-	.045	.054	.015	.069
POS	.457	-	.457	.236	.153	.388
OC	-	-	-	.334	-	.334

From Table 4.22 the result of total effect, direct effect, and indirect effect between exogenous latent variables and endogenous variables showed that:

Perceived organizational support had a significant direct effect on both organizational commitment (.457) and organizational citizenship behavior (.236). Perceived organizational support had high total effect; direct effect, and indirect effect on both organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

Task significance had negative relationship total effect; direct effect, and indirect effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

Perceived organizational support (.457), skill variety (.366), and task autonomy (.241) had a significance direct effect on organizational commitment, and task identity (-.108) had negative direct effect on organization commitment.

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The result showed that organizational commitment (.334), perceived organizational support (.236) had a significance direct effect on organizational citizenship behavior, and task significance (-.037).While skill variety (-.067) had negative direct effect on organizational commitment.

Perceived organizational support (.153), skill variety (.122), had indirect effect on organizational citizenship behavior and task significance (-.075). While task identity (-.036) had negative relationship and indirect effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

Conclusions of Hypotheses

According to the research question on "whether there is or there is no effect of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support on the organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior," fourteen hypotheses were created to answer the research question, as shown below:

H1: There is a positive effect of skill variety on organizational citizenship behavior.

The standardized regression weight was -.067, with critical ratio was -.485 and *p*-value was .628 which reported that skill variety did not have significant relation with the organizational citizenship behavior. Thus, it could be concluded that H1 was not supported.

H2: There is a positive effect of task identity on organizational citizenship behavior.

The standardized regression weight was.178, with critical ratio was .915 and *p*-value was .360 which reported that task identity did not have significant relation to

organizational citizenship behavior. Thus, it could be concluded that H2 was not supported.

H3: There is a positive effect of task significance on organizational citizenship behavior.

The standardized regression weight was -.037, with critical ratio was -.191 and p-value was .849 which reported that task significance did not have significant relation to organizational citizenship behavior. Thus, it could be concluded that H3 was not supported.

H4: There is a positive effect of task autonomy on organizational citizenship behavior.

The standardized regression weight was .198, with critical ratio was 1.873 and p-value was .061 which reported that task autonomy did not have significant relation to organizational citizenship behavior. Thus, it could be concluded that H4 was not supported.

H5: There is a positive effect of task feedback on organizational citizenship behavior.

The standardized regression weight was 0.81, with critical ratio was 1.091 and p-value was .275 which reported that task feedback did not have significant relation to organizational citizenship behavior. Thus, it could be concluded that H5 was not supported.

H6: There is a positive effect of skill variety on organizational commitment.

The standardized regression weight was .366, with critical ratio was 2.075 and *p*-value was .038 which reported that skill variety had a significant relation to organizational commitment. Thus, it could be concluded that H6 was supported.

H7: There is a positive effect of task identity on organizational commitment.

The standardized regression weight was -.108, with critical ratio was -.471 and *p*-value was .638 which reported that task identity did not have significant relation to organizational commitment. Thus, it could be concluded that H7 was not supported.

H8: There is a positive effect of task autonomy on organizational commitment.

The standardized regression weight was .241, with critical ratio was 1.997 and *p*-value was .046 which reported that task autonomy had a significant relation to organizational commitment. Thus, it could be concluded that H8 was supported.

H9: There is a positive effect of task feedback on organizational commitment.

The standardized regression weight was .015, with critical ratio was .171 and *p*-value was .865 which reported that task feedback did not have significant relation to organizational commitment. Thus, it could be concluded that H9 was not supported.

H10: There is a positive effect of transformational leadership on organizational commitment.

The standardized regression weight was .045, with critical ratio was .616 and *p*-value was .538 which reported that transformational leadership did not have significant relation to organizational commitment. Thus, it could be concluded that H10 was not supported.

H11: There is a positive effect of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behavior.

The standardized regression weight was .054, with critical ratio was .905 and *p*-value was .365 which reported that transformational leadership did not have significant relation to organizational citizenship behavior. Thus, it could be concluded that H11 was not supported.

H12: There is a positive effect of perceived organizational support on organizational commitment.

The standardized regression weight was .457, with critical ratio was 5.203 and *p*-value was less than .05 which reported that perceived organizational support had a significant relation to organizational commitment. Thus, it could be concluded that H12 was supported.

H13: There is a positive effect of perceived organizational support on organizational citizenship behavior.

The standardized regression weight was .236, with critical ratio was 3.367 and *p*-value was less than .05 which reported that perceived organizational support had a significant relation to organizational citizenship behavior. Thus, it could be concluded that H13 was supported.

H14: There is a positive effect of organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior.

The standardized regression weight was .334, with critical ratio was 6.249 and *p*-value was less than .05 which reported that organizational commitment had a significant relation to organizational citizenship behavior. Thus, it could be concluded that there was a mediate effect from the organizational commitment factor on the relationship between job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived

organizational support. As the result, model fit statistics could be concluded that H14 was supported.

Table 4.23 Summary of Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis and Its Description	Results
H1: There is a positive effect of skill variety on organizational citizenship behavior.	Not supported
H2: There is a positive effect of task identity on organizational citizenship behavior.	Not supported
H3: There is a positive effect of task significance on organizational citizenship behavior.	Not supported
H4: There is a positive effect of task autonomy on organizational citizenship behavior.	Not supported
H5: There is a positive effect of task feedback on organizational citizenship behavior.	Not supported
H6: There is a positive effect of skill variety on organizational commitment.	Supported
H7: There is a positive effect of task identity on organizational commitment.	Not supported
H8: There is a positive effect on task autonomy and organizational commitment.	Supported

Table 4.23 Summary of hypothesis testing (Cont.)

Hypothesis and Its Description	Results
H9: There is a positive effect on task feedback and organizational commitment	Not supported
H10: There is a positive effect on transformational leadership and organizational commitment	Not supported
H11: There is a positive effect on transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.	Not supported
H12: There is a positive effect on perceived organizational support and organizational commitment.	Supported
H13: There is a positive effect on perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behavior.	supported
H14: There is a positive effect on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.	Supported

Summary of Model Analysis

According to structural model of organizational citizenship behavior, the research findings on the effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support and organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior in hotel industry in Thailand is shown as follows:
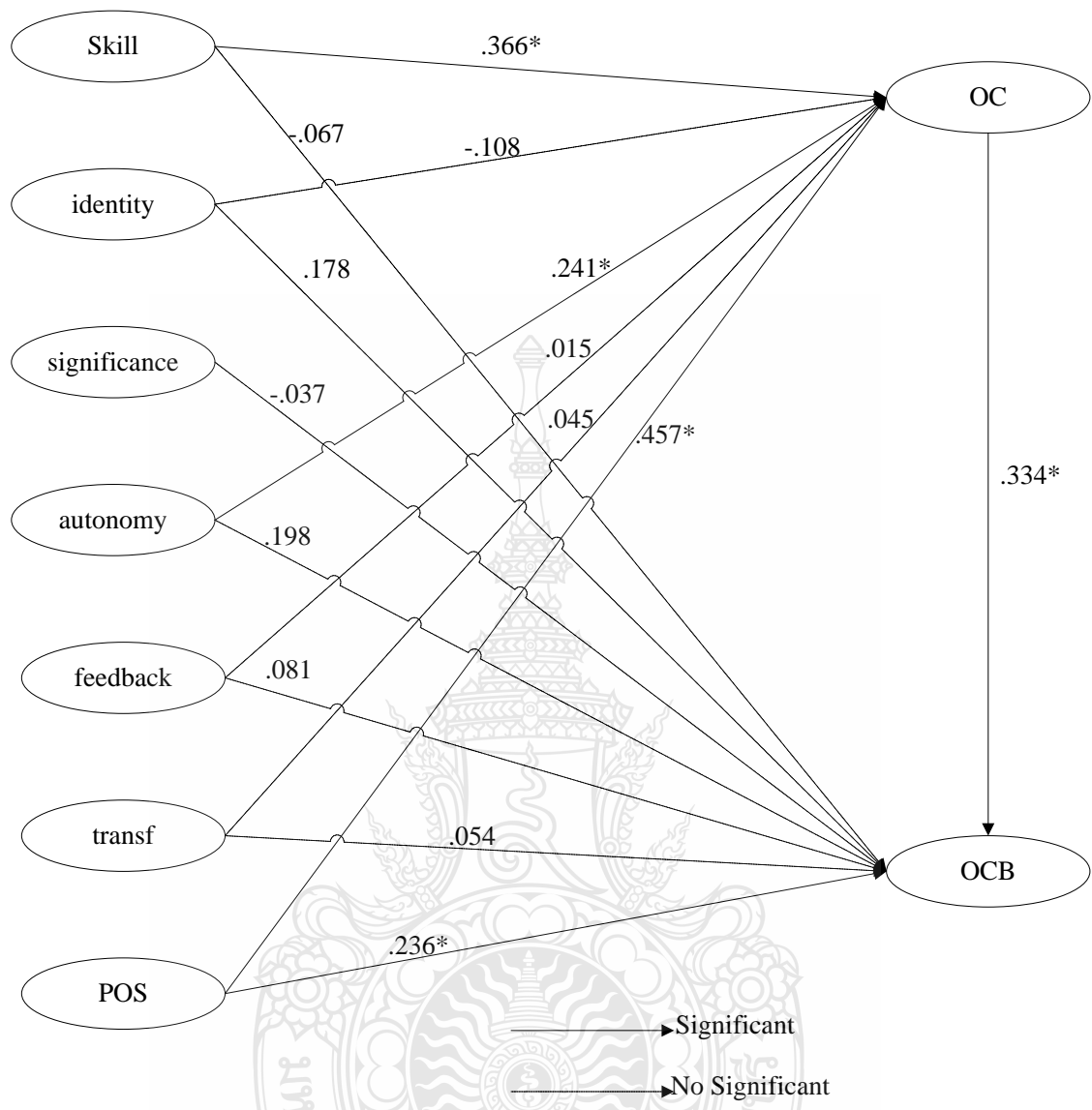
Figure 4.8 Model of Research Finding

From Figure 4.8 model of research finding showed skill variety, task autonomy, task feedback, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support are positively related to organizational commitment, and task identity is negatively related to organizational commitment.

Task identity, task autonomy, task feedback, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment are positively related to organizational citizenship behavior, skill variety and task significance are negatively related to organizational citizenship behavior.

Skill variety, task autonomy, and perceived organizational support are positively related to with statically significance to organizational commitment. Perceived organizational support and organizational commitment are positively related with statically significance to organizational citizenship behavior.

Testing for multiple groups invariance

According to the research question3, are there any differences effects of variables between generation Y model and generation X model on organizational citizenship behavior? The hypothesis 15 was created to answer the research question, as shown below:

Testing for invariance necessarily leads toward a multistep processed, where each step of analysis process has been identified as follows:

Step 1 is to test on the validity of hypothesized model across groups between generation Y and generation X. This is a preliminary step to test for the invariance across groups to know the validity of structure model. Given that this test of model fit, test will be previously conducted in the process to determine the baseline model. This multi group analysis results on only one set of fit statistics for overall model fit. Given that Chi-square values for the multiple group model should equal to the sum of the Chi-square values obtained when the baseline model is separately tested for each group (Byrne, 2009).

Model assessment

Goodness-of-fit statistics related to this two group unconstrained model are reported in Table 4.24. Chi-square values of 885.824 with *df* 526, provide the baseline values against which subsequent tests for invariance may be compared. Comparative fit index (CFI) values of .969 and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) values of .031 respectively. This indicates the hypothesized nine factor model to be the same to what less than the recommended cut off criterion of .90. As recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999) it still represented a relatively good fit across the two panels of organizational citizenship behavior. Accordingly, the processes for testing of invariance were revised and it had 28 items in each group.
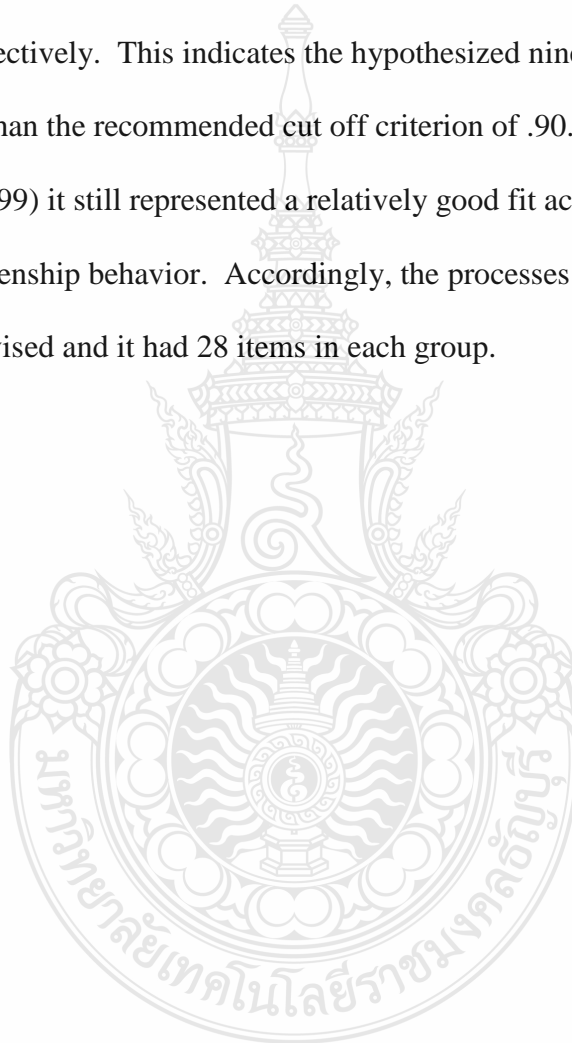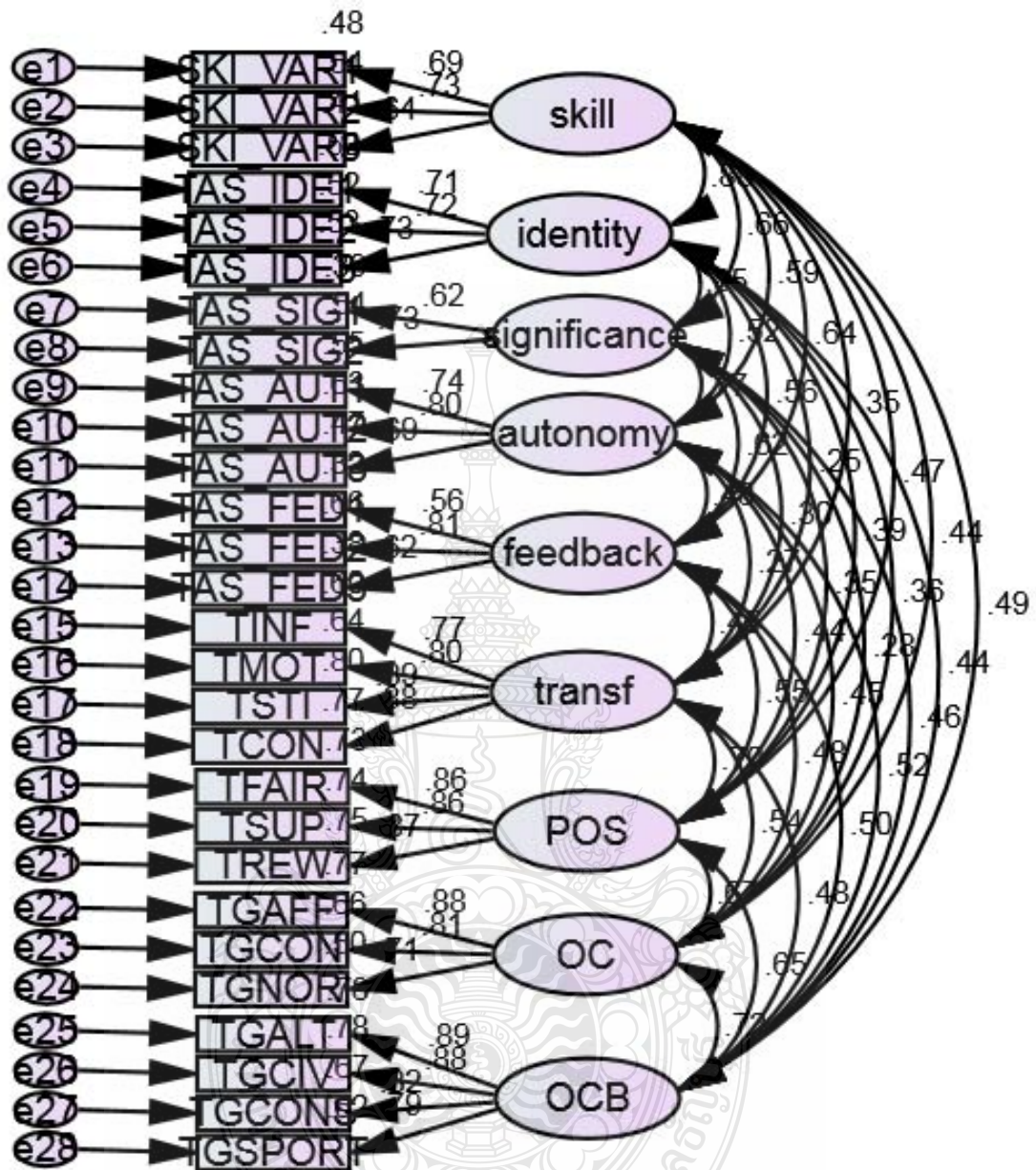
Figure 4.9 Unconstrained models of multiple for CFA of multiple groups invariance analysis

Goodness of Fit Statistics (measurement model of organizational citizenship behavior)

CMIN = 885.824, P = .000, CMIN/DF = 1.684, GFI = .950, AGFI = .922,

NFI = .957, TLI = .980, CFI = .969, RMSEA = .031

Step 2 testing for invariance of factor loadings across groups between generation Y model and generation X model. This step in the invariance process is to test for the equivalence of all factors loading across two groups. Any reduction in the number of parameters to be tested necessarily require that all parameter labels, except these associated with parameter under test, shall be deleted from the model (Byrne, 2009).

Model assessment

As indicated in Table 4.24, findings revealed all factor loading to be equivalent across groups between generation Y model and generation X model. As reflected in a Chi-square on the differences between the model tests, there was no statistically significant. The test result of Chi-square values 899.523 with *df* 542 were compared with that from initial model in which equality constraints were imposed. Chi-square of difference values 13.698 with df 16 were less than 26.30, which there was no statically significant (p > .05). Given these findings, the equality constrained across two groups.

Step 3 is testing on invariance of fit full constrained model across groups between generation Y model and generation X model. Prior to testing on the equality of parameter sets as to test for the possibility of a fully constrained model of invariance across group. Moreover, this application would mean specification of a model on all factor loadings, all factor variance, and all factor covariance. This full constrained model is shown in Figure 4.10 - 4.11.

Model assessment

Good-of-fit statistics related to this constrained two group model were presented as the second entry in the table 4.24. In testing for the invariance of this constrained model, the result of Chi-square values of 945.149 with *df* 584 were

compared with that for initial model in which equality constrained were imposed, Chi-square difference values of 34.622 with *df* 28 was less than 41.34 without statistically significant (p > .05). This indicated on equality constraints across the two groups.

Step 4 testing for invariance of factor variance and covariance across groups between generation Y model and generation X model. This step tests invariance of factor variances groups. Given finding of fully invariant factor loading matrix and model specification over factor variance.

Model assessment

Table 4.24 showed result of testing measurement residuals a Chi-square of 1028.855 with *df* 668. The comparison results from Chi-square difference values of 78.160 with *df* 78 were less than 113.15, which no statistically significant (p >.05). This indicated the equality constraints across the two groups. Overall, the result of testing group invariance across all models had shown that multiple groups were without statically significant. That means no differences between generation Y model and generation X model affects on the organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 4.24 Multiple group models of CFA for testing comparisons generation

Model description	Model fit measures					Model difference			
	Chi-square	*df*	RMSEA	CFI	*p*-value	Δx^2	Δdf	*p*-value	Sig.
Unconstrained	885.824	526	.031	.969	.000				
Measurement weights	899.523	542	.031	.970	.000	13.698	16	.621	No
Structural weights	910.527	556	.030	.970	.000	11.005	14	.686	No
Structural covariance	945.149	584	.030	.969	.000	34.622	28	.181	No
Structural residuals	950.695	586	.030	.969	.000	5.546	2	.062	No
Measurement residuals	1028.855	668	.028	.969	.000	78.160	82	.600	No

P < .05

Analysis on full measurement multiple groups

Model testing was conducted to examine how well the data fit the model. The model specification required a test of OCB moderating influence on the relationship between job characteristics, transformational leadership, POS and OC. To test the moderating effect, a multi-group path analysis was employed (Bagozzi and Yi, 1989).

The multi group path analysis is a technique that especially appropriate when the covariance matrices are significantly different across treatment (Voss, Parasuraman and Grewal, 1998). In this study, the result was equivalent across these groups. The measurement for invariance could be tested and it was important to ensure that the variables used in the analysis were indeed comparable constructs across distinct groups between gen X model and gen Y model. The moderating effect of organizational citizenship behavior was tested and observed on the relative change in model fit (Osterhus, 1997).

To assess the differences between gen X model and gen Y model, parameter constrained path as the relationship between skill variety, task identity, task autonomy, task feedback, transformational leadership, POS, and OC constructs were the constraints. Significant interaction effect exists if the change in the Chi-square value is the significant. For gen X versus gen Y the unconstrained model provided a Chi-square value of 1240.602 with df 460. Then, that the Chi-square value and degree of freedom were equal to the respective sums for the structural model separately estimated for the two groups (Byrne, 2009). The model with equality constrains on the one common relationships provided a Chi-square value of 14 paths illustrated Table 4.25 found task feedback had effect on OC with statistically significance ($\Delta x^2 = 7.033$, $\Delta df = 1$), POS

had effect on OC with statistically significance ($\Delta x^2 = 5.407$, $\Delta df = 1$), task identity had effect on OCB with statistically significance ($\Delta x^2 = 7.033$, $\Delta df = 1$), and task feedback had effect on OCB with statistically significance ($\Delta x^2 = 7.344$, $\Delta df = 1$). Conclusion is made that two groups do not differ in model, but they differ in 4 latent variables.

Table 4.25 Testing the moderating influence path analysis

			Unconstrained		Constrained		Difference		Sig
			x^2	df	x^2	df	Δx^2	Δdf	
OC	<---	Skill	1240.602	460	1241.015	461	0.413	1	No
OC	<---	Identity	1240.602	460	1240.615	461	0.013	1	No
OC	<---	Autonomy	1240.602	460	1243.434	461	2.032	1	No
OC	<---	Feedback	1240.602	460	1247.635	461	7.033	1	Sig
OC	<---	Transf	1240.602	460	1241.058	461	0.456	1	No
OC	<---	POS	1240.602	460	1246.009	461	5.407	1	Sig
OCB	<---	Skill	1240.602	460	1240.751	461	0.149	1	No
OCB	<---	Identity	1240.602	460	1247.635	461	7.033	1	Sig
OCB	<---	Significance	1240.602	460	1240.614	461	0.012	1	No
OCB	<---	Autonomy	1240.602	460	1243.057	461	2.455	1	No
OCB	<---	Feedback	1240.602	460	1247.946	461	7.344	1	Sig
OCB	<---	Transf	1240.602	460	1240.799	461	0.197	1	No
OCB	<---	POS	1240.602	460	1240.996	461	0.394	1	No
OCB	<---	OC	1240.602	460	1240.630	461	0.028	1	No

p>.05 (3.84)
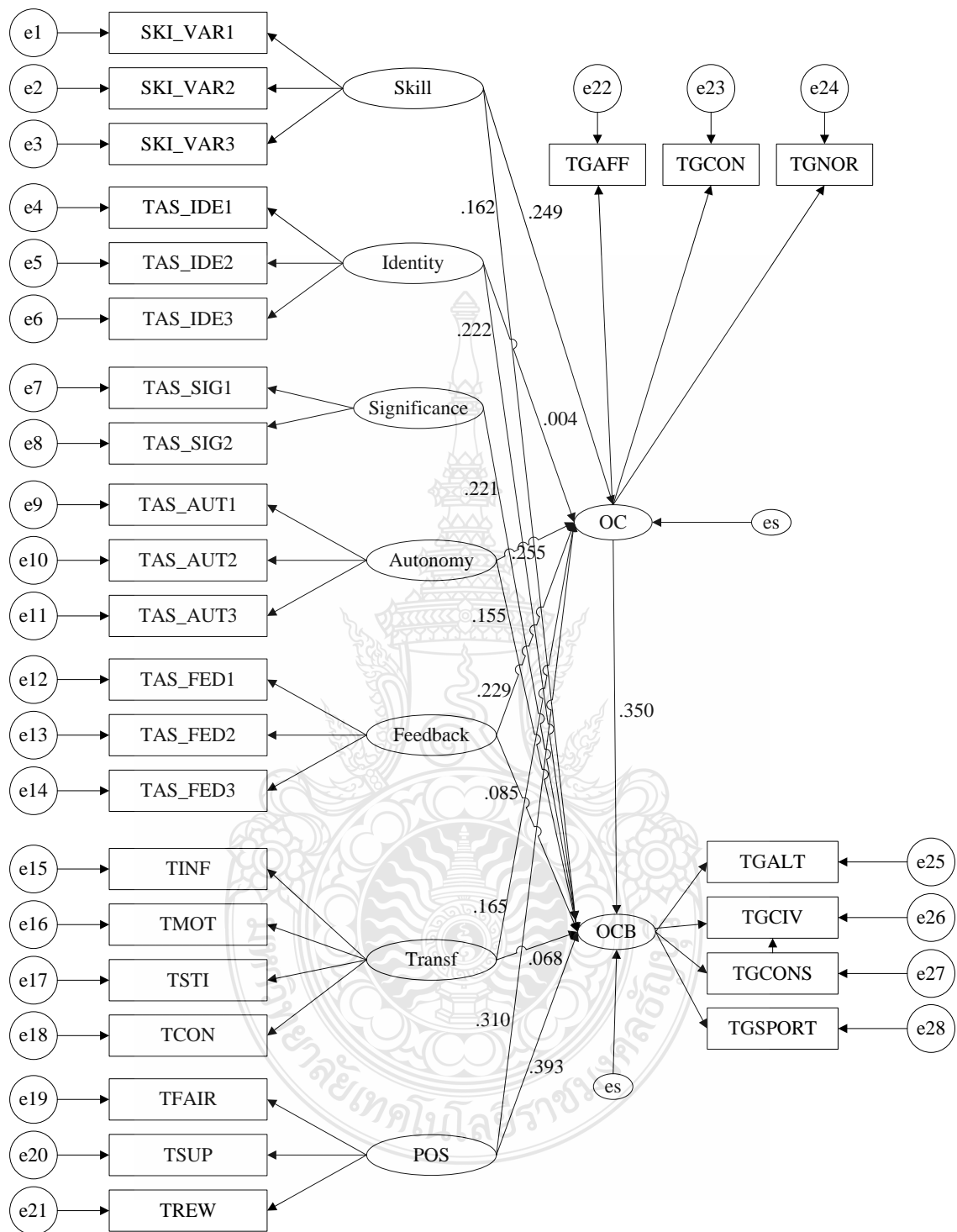
Figure 4.10 Model of generation Y unconstraint test

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Table 4.26 Regression weights: Y - unconstrained

			Factor Loading	S.E.	C.R.	P
OC	<---	Skill	.249	.053	3.380	.001
OC	<---	Identity	.004	.055	.063	.950
OC	<---	Autonomy	.255	.042	4.423	.702
OC	<---	Feedback	.229	.055	3.424	.002
OC	<---	Transf	.165	.049	2.946	.967
OC	<---	POS	.310	.043	5.943	.001
OCB	<---	Skill	.162	.041	2.859	.732
OCB	<---	Identity	.222	.053	3.721	.640
OCB	<---	Significance	.221	.055	2.231	.865
OCB	<---	Autonomy	.155	.044	2.619	.673
OCB	<---	Feedback	.085	.048	1.465	.697
OCB	<---	Transf	.068	.045	1.337	.464
OCB	<---	POS	.393	.045	3.294	***
OCB	<---	OC	.350	.070	4.295	***

From Table 4.26 result of regression weights in model Y show five variables had statistically significance. Skill variety (.001), task feedback (.002), POS (.001) effect on OC and POS (***), OC (***) effect on OCB.
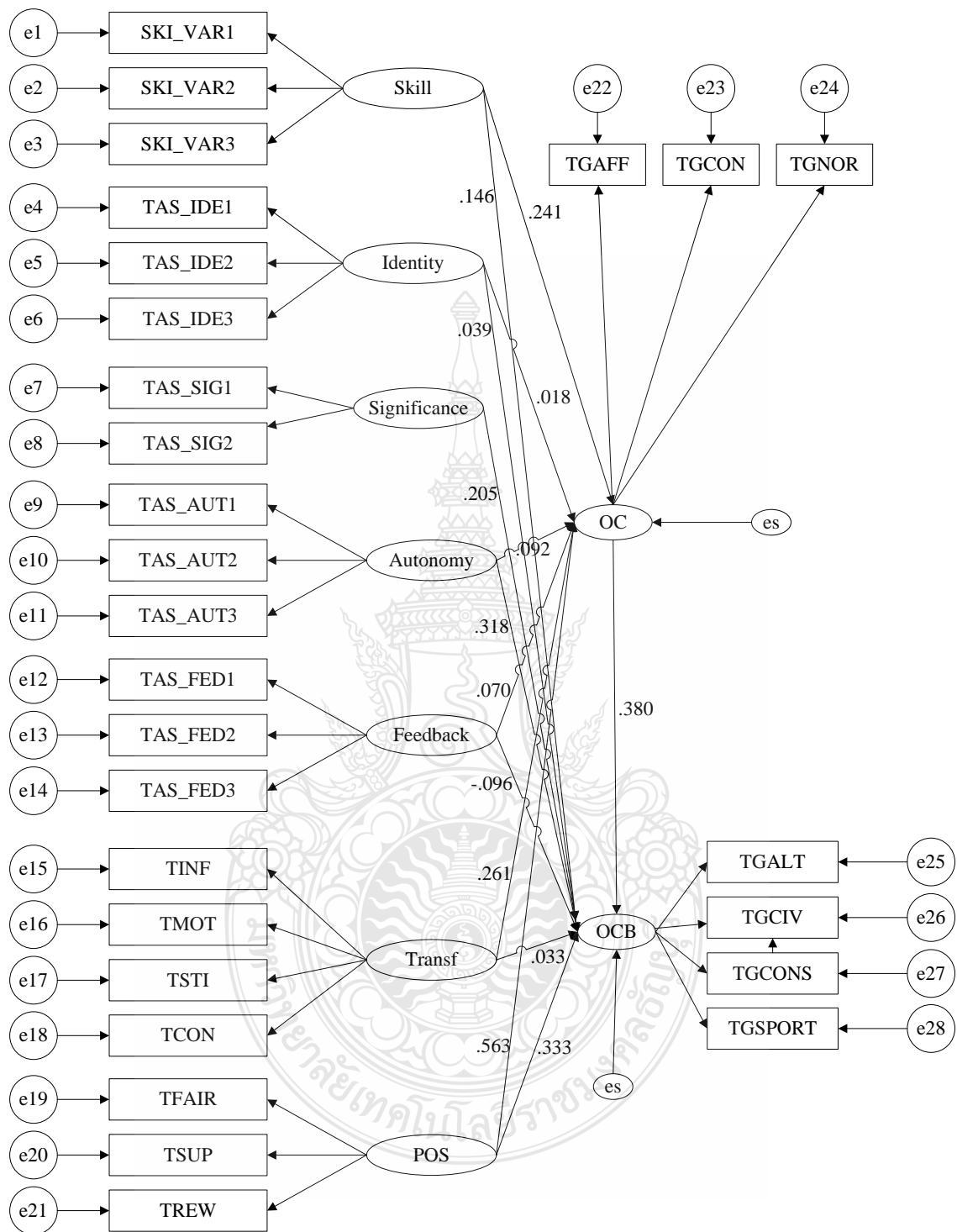
Figure 4.11 Model of generation X unconstraint test

Table 4.27 Regression weights: X - unconstrained

			Factor Loading	S.E.	C.R.	P
OC	<---	Skill	.241	.095	2.659	.170
OC	<---	Identity	.018	.039	.314	.753
OC	<---	Autonomy	.092	.044	1.490	.136
OC	<---	Feedback	.070	.185	1.187	.235
OC	<---	Transf	.261	.050	4.083	.022
OC	<---	POS	.563	.050	6.951	***
OCB	<---	Skill	.146	.068	2.209	.382
OCB	<---	Identity	.039	.030	.845	.752
OCB	<---	Significance	.205	.054	2.443	.431
OCB	<---	Autonomy	.318	.046	4.811	.040
OCB	<---	Feedback	-.096	.131	-2.254	.090
OCB	<---	Transf	.033	.043	.596	.551
OCB	<---	POS	.333	.058	4.630	.116
OCB	<---	OC	.380	.085	4.387	.004

From Table 4.27 result of regression weights in model X show four variables had statistically significance. Transformational leadership (.022), POS (***) effect on OC and task autonomy (.040), OC (.004) effect on OCB.

H15: Effect of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior in model X are greater than model Y.

From Table 4.24 Multi group path analyses were conducted to examine the difference between generation Y and generation X on organizational citizenship behavior. These differences were tested by using a split group analysis procedure while generation effect on organizational citizenship behavior was tested and observed for the relative change in model fit (Osterhus, 1997). The significant interaction effect exists if the change in the Chi-square value is significant. For generation Y model versus generation X model on organizational citizenship behavior, the parameter subsets set constraints and unconstraint on the models are as follows: 1) measurement weights constrain in the factor loading does not significantly change the model fit from the unconstrained model ($p = .621$), 2) the structural weights constrain in the regression weights among the latent variables does not significantly change the model fit from the unconstrained model ($p = .686$), 3) the structural covariance constrain in the variances of the latent variables does not significantly change the model fit from the unconstrained model ($p = .181$), 4) the structural residuals constrain in the variance of the structural latent variable does not significantly change the model fit from the unconstrained model ($p = .062$), and 5) measurement residuals constrain in the variance of the structural latent variable does not significantly change the model fit from the unconstrained model ($p = .600$).

The result of multi group path analysis showed the validation of the proposed model was fit to the empirical data that means are not different on the effects of

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variables between generation Y model and generation X model on organizational citizenship behavior. Depended on the outcome variables were equivalent across these groups. The measurement for invariance could be tested and it was important to make sure that the variables used in the analysis were indeed comparable constructs across distinct groups between gen X model and gen Y model. Table 4.25 illustrated that different Chi-square 4 paths of gen Y model and gen X model were found with statistically significant. Task feedback had effect on OC with statistically significance ($\Delta x^2 = 7.033$, $\Delta df = 1$). The findings demonstrated that task feedback had positive effect on OC in gen Y model (regression weight .229, Table 4.26) more than gen X model (regression weight = .070, Table 4.27). POS had effect on OC with statistically significance ($\Delta x^2 = 5.407$, $\Delta df = 1$). The finding demonstrated that POS had positive effect on OC in gen X model (regression weight = .563, Table 4.27) more than gen Y model (regression weight = .310, Table 4.26). Task identity had effect on OCB with statistically significance ($\Delta x^2 = 7.033$, $\Delta df = 1$). That means task identity had positive effect on OCB in gen Y model (regression weight = .222, Table 4.26) more than gen X model (regression weight = .039, Table 4.27). And task feedback had effect on OCB with statistically significance ($\Delta x^2 = 7.344$, $\Delta df = 1$). That means task feedback had positive effect on OCB in gen Y model (regression weight = .085, Table 4.26) but had negative effect on OCB in gen X model (regression weight = -.096, Table 4.27).

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

Chapter five presented summary of the findings, discussion, and recommendation. This first section was conclusions. The seconded part was discussion of findings and limitations. The final part was the implication for practice and suggestion for future research.

5.1 Conclusions

This study aimed to investigate a causal model of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support effects on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. This study had two main purposes. The first purpose was to investigate the effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. The last objective was to compare the effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior between generation Y model and generation X model

The research began with the study on the relationship and investigation on the effect of the antecedent of organizational citizenship behavior. The antecedent included job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment. This study aimed to response to three questions which were:

5.1.1 How are the relationship between job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior?

5.1.2 Are there any effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support that influence on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior?

5.1.3 Are there any difference effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment on the organizational citizenship behavior between generation Y model and generation X model?

According to the quantitative research methodology, the questionnaire was used as a tool in 504 fulltime employees' survey; samples were the member hotels of Thai Hotels Association. The questions were about job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and task feedback), transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration), perceived organizational support (fairness, supervisor support, and organizational reward and job conditions), organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment), and organizational citizenship behavior (altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship). Statistics analysis used in this study were frequency, percentage, min, max, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis for descriptive, Pearson's correlation coefficient, and structural equation modeling.

In terms of demography, it was found that most of respondents were female whose ages were between 28 – 32 years old with 1 – 3 years of work experiences.

Research question 1: How are the relationship between job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior?

The results of hypotheses testing so as to answer this question were presented in Table 5.1

Table 5.1 Summary of hypotheses testing in relation to the effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior

Hypotheses and Description	Results
H1: There is a positive effect of skill variety on organizational citizenship behavior.	Not supported
H2: There is a positive effect of task identity on organizational citizenship behavior.	Not supported
H3: There is a positive effect of task significance on organizational citizenship behavior.	Not supported
H4: There is a positive effect of task autonomy on organizational citizenship behavior.	Not supported

Table 5.1 Summary of hypotheses testing in relation to the effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Cont.)

Hypotheses and Description	Results
H5: There is a positive effect of task feedback on organizational citizenship behavior.	Not supported
H6: There is a positive effect of skill variety on organizational commitment.	Supported
H7: There is a positive effect of task identity on organizational commitment.	Not supported
H8: There is a positive effect of task autonomy on organizational commitment.	Supported
H9: There is a positive effect of task feedback on organizational commitment	Not supported
H10: There is a positive effect of transformational leadership on organizational commitment	Not supported
H11: There is a positive effect of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behavior.	Not supported

Table 5.1 Summary of hypotheses testing in relation to the effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Cont.)

Hypotheses and Description	Results
H12: There is a positive effect of perceived organizational support on organizational commitment.	Supported
H13: There is a positive effect of perceived organizational support on organizational citizenship behavior.	Supported
H14: There is a positive effect of organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior.	Supported

The result showed that the perceived organizational support, skill variety, and task autonomy had significant direct effect on organizational commitment. Organizational commitment and perceived organizational support had significant direct effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

Perceived organizational support, skill variety, task autonomy, transformational leadership, and task feedback had statistically insignificant positive indirect effect on organizational citizenship behavior, but task significance and task identity had statistically insignificant negative indirect effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

Research question 2: Are there any effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support on the organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior?

The result of total effect; direct effect and indirect effect between exogenous latent variables and endogenous variables were showed as follows:

Perceived organizational support had a significant direct effect on both organizational commitment (.457) and organizational citizenship behavior (.236). Perceived organizational support had total effect; direct effect and indirect effect on both organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

Task significance had negative relationship with the total effect; direct effect and indirect effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

Perceived organizational support (.457), skill variety (.366), and task autonomy (.241) had a significance direct effect on organizational commitment, and task identity (-.108) had negative direct effect on organization commitment.

The result showed that organizational commitment (.334) and perceived organizational support (.236) had a significance direct effect on organizational citizenship behavior where task significance (-.037) and skill variety (-.067) had negative direct effect on organizational commitment

Perceived organizational support (.153) and skill variety (.122) had indirect effect on organizational citizenship behavior whereas task significance (-.075) and task identity (-.036) had negative indirect effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

Research question 3: Are there any difference effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support and organizational commitment on the organizational citizenship behavior between generation Y model and generation X model?

Multi group path analyses were conducted to examine on the differences between generation Y model and generation X model on organizational citizenship behavior. These differences were tested by using a split group analysis procedure; where the generation effect on organizational citizenship behavior was tested and observed on the relative change in model fit. The significant interaction effect exists if the change in the Chi-square value was significant. In generation Y model versus generation X model on organizational citizenship behavior, the unconstrained model provided a Chi-square value and degree of freedom were equal to the respective sums for the structural model separately estimated for the two groups. The result of multi groups' path analysis showed the validation of the proposed model was fitted to the empirical data where means were likewise on the effects of variables between generation X model and generation Y model on organizational citizenship behavior. This finding supported Cennamo and Gardner (2008) founded only few significant differences between the generations in respect to the relationships between work values, work satisfaction, organizational commitment, the intention to leave the organization, and the degree of fit between the values of the individual and the organization. Shragay and Tziner (2011) found that gen X had part of job involvement effect on the organizational citizenship behavior at low significance. The measurement invariance tested comparable constructs across distinct groups between generation Y model and

generation X model and found statistically significant on latent variables. In generation Y model, there were three variables (skill variety, task feedback, and perceived organizational support) had effects on organizational commitment and there were two variables (perceived organizational support and organizational commitment) had effects on organizational citizenship behavior. In generation X model, transformational leadership and perceived organizational support had effects on organizational commitment where task autonomy and organizational commitment had effects on organizational citizenship behavior.

5.2 Discussion of Findings and Limitations

5.2.1 Discussion of Findings

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of job characteristics, transformational leadership, and perceived organizational support on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. As hypothesized, the result showed job characteristics (skill variety and task autonomy) and perceived organizational support had effects on organizational commitment, perceived organizational support; organizational commitment had an effect on organizational citizenship behavior. These findings could be discussed as below.

The results of the study indicated that skill variety had statistically positive effect on organizational commitment in which supported on hypothesis H6. These research findings were based on the theory behind variety of skills providing in job design to reduce the boredom, thereby increasing job satisfaction and motivation. This was likely to be true as long as the employee enjoined with skills and perceived on the

addition and mix of skills as having benefits to job. But adding variety of skills, the employee found stressful was not qualified to address, or simply add the basic duties and minimal skills without intrinsic value adding to job. It could actually have the opposite effect and increased dissatisfaction. The concept of social exchange theory believed that the exchange was based on the expected returns. Social exchange theory described individuals' exchange in team work on the basis of the relationship between them. It was found that informal exchange was the discretion of individual behavior to induce gratitude and trust. Feather and Tauter (2004) used permanent and temporary theaters in Victoria, Australia and revealed a positive relationship between skill variety and organizational commitment. Dunham et al., (1994) and Bhuian et al., (1996) found only two from seven job characteristic dimensions (skill variety and feedback) to be significantly related to the organizational commitment. Neyshabor and Rashidi (2013) found that job enrichment (skill variety, task identification, task significance, autonomy, feedback) had a significant positive impact on the organizational commitment.

This study showed that task autonomy had statistically positive effect on organizational commitment in which supported hypothesis H8. The research finding was consistent with the concept of Hackman and Oldham (1975); Marchese and Ryan, (2001); Morgeson et al., (2005); Parker et al., (2001) because autonomy and control were sometimes confused, so it was important to distinguish them. Control included shaping projects and tasks, means of work and also working circumstances whereas autonomy included making free choices from continuous observation and interaction with the supervisor (Schwalbe, 1985). In other words, autonomy referred to sanction one's actions at a higher level (Dworkin, 1988; Gagne & Deci, 2005). Professionals

could be successful if they were talented and had the ability to compete in their profession. They must use a body of knowledge to support their work and they must possess autonomy to make decisions in their work (Ozturk, 2011). Autonomy involved the responsibility for the outcomes of their work in which led to the outcomes; such as high working efficiency and higher levels of intrinsic motivation (Hackman & Oldham1976b; Langfred & Moye, 2004). The social exchange theory (Blau 1964) provided a strong basis for this relationship. In explaining the relationship between task autonomy and organizational commitment, employees that received the opportunity to form their task decisions were expected to feel obliged to respond with positive work behavior such as organizational commitment. A job with high task autonomy may also lead to positive behavior such as organizational commitment. Chung (1977) emphasized that autonomy had an impact on work methods, work pace and goal setting. Individuals with autonomy had the liberty to control the pace of work and to regulate work processes and evaluation procedures. Autonomy and independence were not the same since autonomous workers may depend on interpersonal communication in order to complete the interdependent tasks (Dee, Henkin & Chen, 2000). Naqvi et al., (2013) found that increasing job autonomy resulted in an increased level of organizational commitment. Sisodia and Das (2013) found that there was a significant effect of employees' hierarchical level upon their organizational commitment.

According to this study, it found that perceived organizational support was positively significantly effect on the organizational commitment and supported the hypothesis H12. Since the research findings were consistent to the study of Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) which showed that perceived organizational support was

strongly and positively correlated with the affective commitment. To explain this effect, Fuller et al., (2003) referred to Tyler's (1999) social identity theory, according to that individuals felt recognized within an organization when their employer valued on their contributions toward the organization functioning. The recognition of their work and status within the organization helped achieve the employees' socio-emotional needs; their needs for esteem, approval and affiliation (Shore & Shore, 1995). Filling these needs contributed to form the employees' social identity, which in turn it was likely to enhance their sense of belonging to and pride of organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Makanjee et al., (2006) analyzed on to which extent the perceived organizational support increased the commitment of radiographers and identified the direct relationship between organizational commitment and perceived organizational support.

The hypothesis H13 indicated that perceived organizational support was positively effect on organizational citizenship behavior in significant way. This finding supported Eisenberger et al., (1986) who derived an employee perceived organizational support from the organization's benevolent care; that the more personal and humane the personnel management are, the higher the level of perceived organizational support employees feel. Employees believed that the organization had an obligation or return contract by providing the reward on employee's obligation as a promise between two parties related to their expectations, beliefs, and perceptions in exchanges. If there was a possible breach of unfair award or unable to offer employees the benefits, it should be recognized by employees that destruction affected the level of relative and commitment between them and the organization; and this influenced on their attitude and citizenship

behavior. Shore and Wayne (1993) noted that perceived organizational support accurately predicted employees' organizational citizenship behavior. Wayne et al., (1997) investigated the influence of perceptions on working attitudes and behavior. They found that when employees felt they were important to the organization, they tended to develop trust with their organization and became with intention to offer concrete suggestions that conducive to organizational growth. These kinds of self-initiated actions marked in organizational citizenship behavior. Existing literature denoted that perceived organizational support was significantly related to organizational citizenship behavior (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne et al., 1997, 2002). Wayne et al., (1997) found a strong relationship between perceived organizational support and supervisors' ratings of workers on an index that included both individual level and organizational-level measures of citizenship.

The hypothesis H14 indicated that organizational commitment was positively effect on organizational citizenship behavior significantly. This finding supported Scholl (1981) who charted out different models that indirectly linked the commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. Scholl's model viewed commitment as "a stabilizing force that acted to maintain the behavioral direction when expectancy/equity conditions were not met and did not function well" (Scholl, 1981). Social exchange was a feature of trust between organizations and employees rather than economic exchange. It was a commitment from both parties on the basis of experience gained that did not cause by the negotiation between the reciprocal compensation. In the sense of social exchange, this allowed for the organization level of commitment to increase both on the effort to complete the assignments and exceed the expectations. According to the

model, organizational citizenship behavior referred to the behavior as demonstrated by the employees when their expectation toward formal organizational rewards to their task was less. Also, the previous studies showed that employees with high commitment were more interested to engage in organizational citizenship behavior, which were defined as voluntary behavior that was beneficial to the organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991). LePine, et al., (2002); O'Reilly and Chatman, (1986); Backer (1992); Yilmaz and Bokeoglu (2008); Mirabizadeh and Gheitasi (2012) found that organizational commitment influenced on organizational citizenship behavior.

The hypothesis H15 showed the result of multi group path analysis validation that the proposed model was fitted to the empirical data. This referred to that mean were similarly on the effects of variables between generation X model and generation Y model on the organizational citizenship behavior. This meant there was the same metric invariance and invariance uniqueness in model. The measurement invariance was used to test on the comparable constructs across distinct groups between generation Y model and generation X model. This found the statistically significant on latent variables. Task feedback and perceived organizational support had effect on organizational commitment. Task identity and task feedback had effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

Task feedback affected the organizational commitment at the statistical significance level in gen Y model more than gen X model. Which meant gen Y behavior preferred to the job itself provided direct and clear information about how effectively one had been performing (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). They got feedback from the activities that carried out during the job but not from another person such as a

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co-worker or a supervisor. This direct type of feedback enhanced the knowledge about the results of their work. Organ et al., (2006) suggested that task feedback would be closely related to help on others with work related problems, and to make constructive suggestions about how to improve the task performance. If managers wanted their gen Y to have greater organizational commitment, motivation could be used with the task feedback to perform better than gen X.

Perceived organizational support affected the organizational commitment at the statistical significance level in gen X model more than gen Y model. This meant all of employees needed for fairness, supervisor support, organizational reward and job condition. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found perceived support with the positively relation to the performance outcome expectancies, affective attachment, and the productiveness of unspecified suggestions to assist the organization. Supervisor support possessed lot of contribution towards perceived organizational support and in return turnover intention. As perceived, the organizational support was directly related to supervisor support which showed that supervisor support led to the perceived of organizational support where through this relation, supervisors status increased in the organization. Whereas the perceived organizational support linked negative relationship between employee turnover and perceived supervisor support. This result showed in the previous research such as Makanjee et al., (2006) that analyzed on the extent that the perceived organizational support increased the commitment of radiographers. This identified the direct relationship between organizational commitment and perceived organizational support, as well as indirect relationship between rendering quality services and turnover intention. Additionally, perceived

organizational support was positively related to performance outcome expectancies, affective attachment, and the productiveness of unspecified suggestion to organization help (Eisenberger et al., 1990).

Task identity had effect on organizational citizenship behavior at the statistical significance level in gen Y model more than gen X model. That means employees enjoin to do their work from the beginning until finish. They need to know work boundary, work process or work flow till the end. Farh et al., (1990) suggest task identity can show workloads, work quality, responsibility etc. and this enhances the meaning that job allows the employees to perceive on the contextual importance of the job and realize the linkages among his/her colleagues in terms of interdependence. Cardona et al., (2004) suggest that when employees perceive that their work help them in their learning process and intrinsically motivate them, they develop positive perceptions towards their works. This increases feelings of responsibility and involvement as a result of the higher organizational citizenship behavior engagement.

Task feedback had effect on organizational citizenship behavior at the positive statistical significance level in gen Y model, but with negative statistical significance level in gen X model. That means gen Y need to know information about reactions to a service, a product, a person's performance of at ask, etc. which is used as a basis for improvement and increasing organizational citizenship behavior. But in gen X, this information had negative effect on organizational citizenship behavior, and they feel discourage in their work. The research by Podsakoff et al., (1993) reported on positive correlation among task feedback, altruism, and conscientiousness. They also indicated that task reutilization was negatively related to both of these dimensions. Chen and

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Chiu (2009), who measured organizational citizenship behavior by single dimensional instrument, found a significant relationship between job scope and organizational citizenship behavior. Furthermore, other studies that investigated on the relationship between task characteristics and organizational citizenship behavior such as Todd and Kent (2006), found support for the proposed relationship between task characteristics and organizational citizenship behavior.

5.2.2 Limitations

There were many limitations of the study which should be recognized. This study concentrated on the effect of skill variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, task feedback, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior. However, unknowns variables which may affect the variables of this study were not included. The study also faced with limitation in the period of data collection which was specifically conducted during March 2014 to July 2014.

5.3 Implication for Practice and Future Research

5.3.1 Implication for Practice

Job characteristics theory based on Hackman and Oldham (1976, 1980) described the relationship between job characteristics and individual responses on work. The theory is specific to task conditions prediction whether individuals will become prosper in their career. While there are five job dimensions within three psychological states that direct toward some individual benefits and work outcome. The theories also include individual difference variables as a moderator of the relationship between the

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characteristics and the outcome variables. The result of this research showed that skill variety had the positive effects on organizational commitment. Based on the theory behind variety of skills providing in job design, it reduces the boredom, thereby increases job satisfaction and motivation. This seems to be true as long as the employees enjoin with skills and perceive about the addition and mix of skills with the benefits for job. But adding variety of skills, the employee found stressful and was not qualified to address, or simply added the basic duties and minimal skills without intrinsic value added to job. It could actually have the opposite effect and increase dissatisfaction.

The result showed task autonomy was one of the five dimensions of job characteristics with the positive effect on organizational commitment. Based on the theory of Hackman and Oldham (1976, 1980), the explanation was made relate to task autonomy which involved the responsibility of the work outcomes that led to the results such as high working efficiency, and higher levels of intrinsic motivation. Employees may depend on their interpersonal communication in order to complete the interdependent tasks.

The research results showed that skill variety and task autonomy had affected on organizational commitment with statistically significant. The moderator of structural equation modeling stated that the findings were consistent with the theory and previous research; so the skill variety and task autonomy had extremely gains for the research. It also made recognition about the phenomenon of human behavior to describe and raise the awareness of the human resources manager or interested persons on the job characteristics and organizational commitment.

Perceived organizational support based on theory of Eisenberger et al., (1986) explained that employee perceived organizational support was derived from the organization's benevolent care; that the more personal and humane from the personnel management led to the higher level of perceived organizational support felt by employees. The actions taken by the organizational agents were normally seen as the indications of organizational intention rather than a solely attribute of the personal agent motives. This organizational personification was recommended in the moral, legal and financial responsibility of the organization's agents to act in accordance with the norms, policies, and organizational culture. This is to prescribe the role behaviors and its continuity through the agent's authority in exerting over each employee. This research result showed perceived organizational support was positively affected on both organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior while it could be explained as employees believed in the organization's contract or obligation to return the employee's obligation with reward as promised in the exchanging of both parties on the expectations, beliefs, and perceptions. If there was a potential breach of the unfair award or unable to provide benefits to employees, the employees needed to recognize that the destruction affected the relative level and commitment between employees and organization which also influenced on the attitude and citizenship behavior.

The research results showed that perceived organizational support had positive effects to organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior with statistically significant. The moderator in structural equation modeling said these findings supported the theory and previous research; therefore, perceived organizational

support was valuable for researcher and human resource manager to apply in contribution to their strategic plan in organization human resources treatment.

Organizational commitment affected on organizational citizenship behavior based on the concept of LePine et al., (2002) in which they founded that commitment was the key factors to foster on the organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, organizational commitment could predict the citizenship behavior of employees in the organization. Committed people were more likely to remain with the organization and work toward organizational goal attainment. Commitment is the employee's willingness to exert the high levels of effort on the organization behalf with the strong desire to stay with the organization and accept for its major goals and values. Commitment reflected a psychological bond between people and organizations. This study showed the positive effects of organizational commitment on organizational citizenship behavior with the statistically significance. The moderator of structural equation modeling said these findings confirmed the previous research which stated that organizational commitment had influenced on organizational citizenship behavior although the studies were done in difference time periods. Therefore, human resource manager should recognize on the importance of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. Direction to increase organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior such as the operational methods, activities, welfares, leadership behavior, etc. allowed the organization to gain maximum benefits from their employees while the employees received considerable satisfied from the organization as reciprocity.

Generation X or generation Y in organization had similar organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior since they could be adapted to fit with the organizational culture. The administrator should contribute to the expected organizational culture. For the age of new employee to recruit, there was no effect on organizational commitment if the employees had demonstrated no difference of good citizenship behavior. Maintaining human resource within the organization should focus on the perceived organizational support. The most effective organization manager could contribute in the strategic plan for generation Y by offering them the opportunity for task identity and when they need to get task feedback. For generation X, the perceived organizational support affected on their commitment and task feedback effects on them showed bad citizenship behavior.

5.3.2 Future Research

The future research could extend their study in depth into the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behavior with the limitation on more than one year working experience. The model of analysis could be used to test with other groups or other industries such as skill technical employee, focus on employees in sale department or department with high turnover. The future research could apply the comparative study with the foreign employees from neighboring countries in order to explore any group of foreign employees with higher commitment or better behaviors or the comparison between generation X and generation Z to reflect more differences.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Letter Sent for Approval of Data Collection
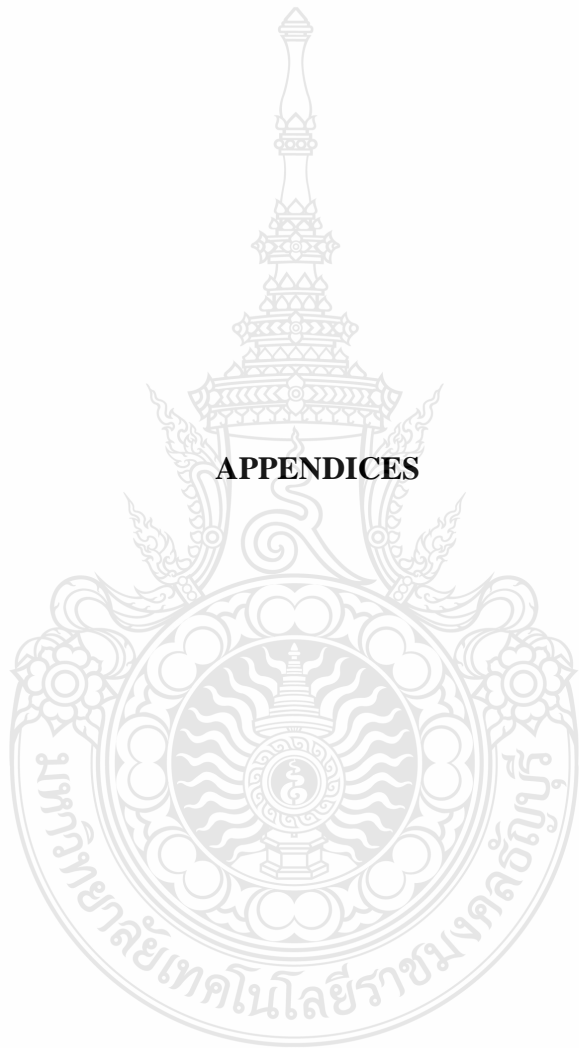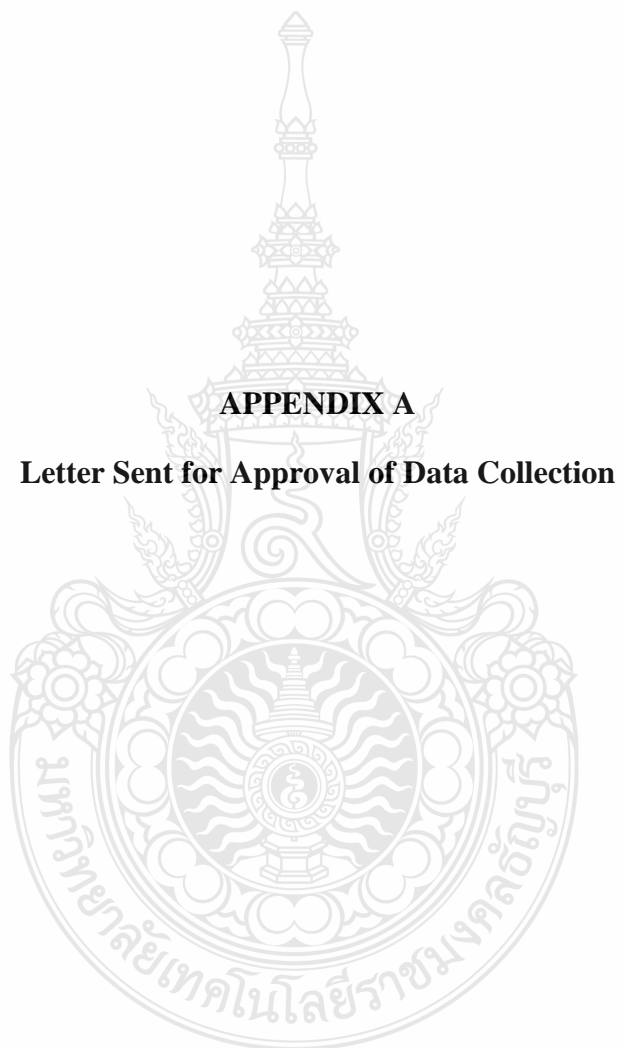
ที่ ศธ 0578.06/ ๓๑๕๑

คณะบริหารธุรกิจ
มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี
ตำบลคลองหก อำเภอธัญบุรี
จังหวัดปทุมธานี   12110

๓ เมษายน 2557

เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์ตอบแบบสอบถาม เพื่อประกอบการทำวิจัย

เรียน ผู้บริหารองค์กร

สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย แบบสอบถามเพื่อการวิจัย

        ด้วยคณะบริหารธุรกิจ มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี ได้เปิดสอนระดับ ปริญญาเอก หลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาบริหารธุรกิจ ตั้งแต่ปีการศึกษา 2551 แล้วนั้น ขอรับรองว่า นางสาวกันธิชา ทองพูล รหัสนักศึกษา 125190501002-9 เป็นนักศึกษาหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาบริหารธุรกิจ วิชาเอกการจัดการ เป็นผู้จัดทำวิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง แบบจำลองความสัมพันธ์เชิงสาเหตุของ คุณลักษณะงาน พฤติกรรมผู้นำการเปลี่ยนแปลง การรับรู้การสนับสนุนจากองค์กรที่มีอิทธิพลต่อความผูกพัน และพฤติกรรมการเป็นสมาชิกที่ดีต่อองค์กร

        อนึ่ง คณะบริหารธุรกิจฯ ใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์ท่านในการสนับสนุนให้ข้อมูลสำหรับการ ทำวิจัย ให้งานวิจัยเกิดความสำเร็จเพื่อเผยแพร่ผลงานวิจัยที่เป็นคุณูปการแก่องค์กรและผู้สนใจต่อไป

        จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดให้ความอนุเคราะห์ ตอบแบบสอบถาม เพื่อประกอบการทำวิจัย จักขอบคุณยิ่ง

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

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ที่ ศธ 0578.06/ 3171

คณะบริหารธุรกิจ
มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี
ต.คลองหก อ.ธัญบุรี
จ.ปทุมธานี 12110

3 เมษายน 2557

เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจสอบความถูกต้องเชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม

เรียน รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ปพฤกษ์ อุตสาหะวาณิชกิจ

สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย แบบสอบถามดุษฎีนิพนธ์

        ด้วยคณะบริหารธุรกิจ มหาวิทยาเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี ได้เปิดสอนระดับปริญญาเอก
หลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาบริหารธุรกิจ ตั้งแต่ปีการศึกษา 2551 แล้วนั้น

        เพื่อเป็นประโยชน์สำหรับนักศึกษา จึงใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจตรวจสอบความถูกต้อง
เชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม สำหรับนักศึกษา รายกันธิชา ทองพูล รหัสนักศึกษา 125190501002-9 เป็น
นักศึกษาหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาบริหารธุรกิจ วิชาเอกการจัดการ เป็นผู้จัดทำวิทยานิพนธ์
เรื่อง A CAUSAL MODEL OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, AND
PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT INFLUENCE ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

        จึงเรียนมาเพื่อขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจสอบความถูกต้องเชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม จักเป็น
พระคุณยิ่ง

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คณะบริหารธุรกิจ
มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี
ต.คลองหก อ.ธัญบุรี
จ.ปทุมธานี 12110

3 เมษายน 2557

เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจสอบความถูกต้องเชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม

เรียน รองศาสตราจารย์พรชัย พันธุ์ธาดาพร

สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย แบบสอบถามดุษฎีนิพนธ์

    ด้วยคณะบริหารธุรกิจ มหาวิทยาเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี ได้เปิดสอนระดับปริญญาเอก หลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาบริหารธุรกิจ ตั้งแต่ปีการศึกษา 2551 แล้วนั้น

    เพื่อเป็นประโยชน์สำหรับนักศึกษา จึงใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจตรวจสอบความถูกต้อง เชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม สำหรับนักศึกษา รายกันธิชา ทองพูล รหัสนักศึกษา 125190501002-9 เป็น นักศึกษาหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาบริหารธุรกิจ วิชาเอกการจัดการ เป็นผู้จัดทำวิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง A CAUSAL MODEL OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT INFLUENCE ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

    จึงเรียนมาเพื่อขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจสอบความถูกต้องเชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม จักเป็น พระคุณยิ่ง

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คณะบริหารธุรกิจ
มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี
ต.คลองหก อ.ธัญบุรี
จ.ปทุมธานี 12110

3 เมษายน 2557

เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจสอบความถูกต้องเชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม

เรียน ดร. สุชนนี เมธิโยธิน

สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย แบบสอบถามดุษฎีนิพนธ์

      ด้วยคณะบริหารธุรกิจ มหาวิทยาเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี ได้เปิดสอนระดับปริญญาเอก หลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาบริหารธุรกิจ ตั้งแต่ปีการศึกษา 2551 แล้วนั้น

      เพื่อเป็นประโยชน์สำหรับนักศึกษา จึงใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจตรวจสอบความถูกต้อง เชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม สำหรับนักศึกษา รายกันธิชา ทองพูล รหัสนักศึกษา 125190501002-9 เป็น นักศึกษาหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาบริหารธุรกิจ วิชาเอกการจัดการ เป็นผู้จัดทำวิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง A CAUSAL MODEL OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT INFLUENCE ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

      จึงเรียนมาเพื่อขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจสอบความถูกต้องเชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม จักเป็น พระคุณยิ่ง

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ชนงกรณ์ กุณฑลบุตร)
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ที่ ศธ 0578.06/ 3172

คณะบริหารธุรกิจ
มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี
ต.คลองหก อ.ธัญบุรี
จ.ปทุมธานี 12110

3 เมษายน 2557

เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจสอบความถูกต้องเชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม

เรียน ดร. ผดุงชัย ภู่พัฒน์

สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย แบบสอบถามดุษฎีนิพนธ์

        ด้วยคณะบริหารธุรกิจ มหาวิทยาเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี ได้เปิดสอนระดับปริญญาเอก หลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาบริหารธุรกิจ ตั้งแต่ปีการศึกษา 2551 แล้วนั้น

        เพื่อเป็นประโยชน์สำหรับนักศึกษา จึงใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจตรวจสอบความถูกต้อง เชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม สำหรับนักศึกษา รายกันธิชา ทองพูล รหัสนักศึกษา 125190501002-9 เป็น นักศึกษาหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาบริหารธุรกิจ วิชาเอกการจัดการ เป็นผู้จัดทำวิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง A CAUSAL MODEL OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT INFLUENCE ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

        จึงเรียนมาเพื่อขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจสอบความถูกต้องเชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม จักเป็น พระคุณยิ่ง

<div align="center">
ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ชนงกรณ์ กุณฑลบุตร)
คณบดีคณะบริหารธุรกิจ
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โครงการปริญญาเอก
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ที่ ศธ 0578.06/ 3174

คณะบริหารธุรกิจ
มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี
ต.คลองหก อ.ธัญบุรี
จ.ปทุมธานี 12110

3 เมษายน 2557

เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจสอบความถูกต้องเชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม

เรียน ดร.วรโชติ พัฒน์ดำรงจิตร

สิ่งที่ส่งมาด้วย แบบสอบถามดุษฎีนิพนธ์

        ด้วยคณะบริหารธุรกิจ มหาวิทยาเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี ได้เปิดสอนระดับปริญญาเอก หลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาบริหารธุรกิจ ตั้งแต่ปีการศึกษา 2551 แล้วนั้น

        เพื่อเป็นประโยชน์สำหรับนักศึกษา จึงใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจตรวจสอบความถูกต้อง เชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม สำหรับนักศึกษา รายกันธิชา ทองพูล รหัสนักศึกษา 125190501002-9 เป็น นักศึกษาหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาบริหารธุรกิจ วิชาเอกการจัดการ เป็นผู้จัดทำวิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง A CAUSAL MODEL OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT INFLUENCE ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

        จึงเรียนมาเพื่อขอความอนุเคราะห์ตรวจสอบความถูกต้องเชิงเนื้อหาของแบบสอบถาม จักเป็น พระคุณยิ่ง

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ชนงกรณ์ กุณฑลบุตร)
คณบดีคณะบริหารธุรกิจ

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APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire

(English Version)
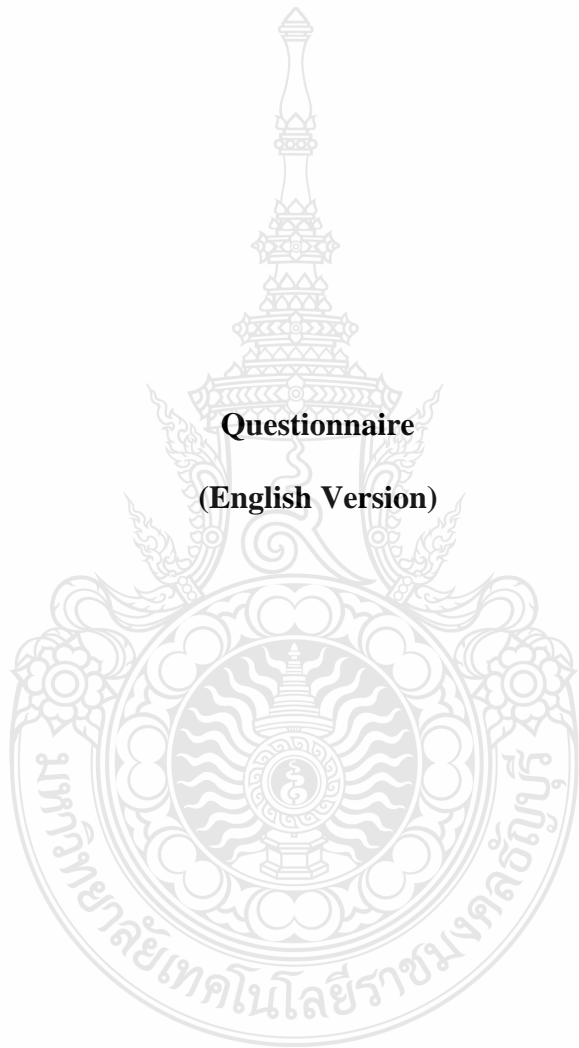
Questionnaire

Research Title: A Causal Model of Job Characteristics, Transformational Leadership, and Perceived Organizational Support Influence on Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Dear Respondents,

This questionnaire is intended to gather information for academic purposes only. The information provided will be treated with confidentiality. So please kindly spare some time to fill this questionnaire form.

Please put a cycle (○) around number that most relevant to you.

Section A: Job Characteristics Questionnaire

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	Strongly agree

1.	My job provides a lot of variety. ……………………………………..	1	2	3	4	5
2.	While performing my job I get the opportunity to work on many interesting projects. …………...…………………………………	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My job gives me the opportunity to use many new technologies. …	1	2	3	4	5
4.	My job allows me the opportunity to complete the work I start. ….	1	2	3	4	5
5.	My job is arranged so that I have a chance and the ability to talk with customers/clients/end users. …………………………………	1	2	3	4	5
6.	My job is arranged so that I have an understanding of how it relates to the business mission. …………………………...……...	1	2	3	4	5
7.	My job has the ability to influence decisions that significantly affect the organization. ………………………………………………	1	2	3	4	5
8.	My job influences day-to-day company success. ………….………	1	2	3	4	5
9.	My job lets me be left on my own to do my own work. ……..……	1	2	3	4	5
10.	My job provides me flexibility in my work hours. ……………..……	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I am able to act independently of my supervisor in performing my job function. ……………………………………………………………	1	2	3	4	5
12.	My job by itself provides feedback on how well I am performing as I am working. ………………………………………………………	1	2	3	4	5
13.	My job provides me with the opportunity to both communicate with my supervisor and to receive recognition from them as well. ..	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I receive feedback from my co-workers about my performance on the job. …………………………………………………..…………	1	2	3	4	5

Section B: Transformational Leadership Questionnaire

0	1	2	3	4
Not at all	Once in a while	Some times	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always

1. I instill pride in others for being associated with me. …………… 0 1 2 3 4
2. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group. ……………… 0 1 2 3 4
3. I act in ways that build others' respect for me. ………………..…. 0 1 2 3 4
4. I display a sense of power and confidence. ………………………. 0 1 2 3 4
5. I talk about my most important values and beliefs. ……………..… 0 1 2 3 4
6. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose. …… 0 1 2 3 4
7. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions. …….. 0 1 2 3 4
8. I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission 0 1 2 3 4
9. I talk optimistically about the future. ……………………….…… 0 1 2 3 4
10. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished. ……. 0 1 2 3 4
11. I articulate a compelling vision of the future. ……………………. 0 1 2 3 4
12. I express confidence that goals will be achieved. ………………… 0 1 2 3 4
13. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are
    appropriate. ……………………………………………………… 0 1 2 3 4
14. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems. …………… 0 1 2 3 4
15. I get others to look at problems from many different angles. ……. 0 1 2 3 4
16. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments. … 0 1 2 3 4
17. I spend time teaching and coaching. ……………………………… 0 1 2 3 4
18. I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group 0 1 2 3 4
19. I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and
    aspirations from others. …………………………………………… 0 1 2 3 4
20. I help others to develop their strengths. ………………………… 0 1 2 3 4

Section C: Perceived Organizational Support Questionnaire

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	Strongly agree

1. My supervisor is fair in recognizing team accomplishments. …..... 1 2 3 4 5
2. My workgroup manager reviews and evaluates the progress
   toward meeting goals and objectives of the organization. …… 1 2 3 4 5
3. Employees in my work group are involved in improving the
   quality of products, services, and work processes. …………… 1 2 3 4 5
4. I am given a real opportunity to develop my skills in my work group. 1 2 3 4 5
5. Compared to what you think it should be, how satisfied are you
   with the quality of direct supervision you receive? …………..…. 1 2 3 4 5
6. My supervisor is fair in recognizing individual accomplishments. 1 2 3 4 5
7. Disputes or conflicts are resolved fairly in my work group. …… 1 2 3 4 5
8. A spirit of cooperation and teamwork exists in my work group. 1 2 3 4 5
9. Managers set challenging and yet attainable performance goals
   for my work group. ……………………………………..……… 1 2 3 4 5

Section C: Perceived Organizational Support Questionnaire (Continue)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	Strongly agree

10. Members in my work group are able to bring up problems and tough issues. ………………………………………………… 1 2 3 4 5

11. Compared to what you think it should be, how satisfied are you with the amount of praise that you receive? ……..…………… 1 2 3 4 5

12. My supervisor provides fair and accurate ratings of employee performance. ………………………………………………… 1 2 3 4 5

13. Managers/supervisors/team leaders work well with employees of 1 2 3 4 5
different backgrounds in my work group. ………………………

14. New practices and ways of doing business are encouraged in my 1 2 3 4 5
work group. …………………………………………………….. 1 2 3 4 5

15. Supervisors/team leaders understand and support employee 1 2 3 4 5
family/personal life responsibilities in my work group. ……….. 1 2 3 4 5

16. It is safe to take a risk in this work group. ……………………...

17. Customers of my work group are informed about the process for 1 2 3 4 5
seeking assistance, commenting, and/or complaining about
products and services. …………………………………………... 1 2 3 4 5

Section D: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	Strongly agree

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. ………………………………………………… 1 2 3 4 5

2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. …… 1 2 3 4 5

3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. 1 2 3 4 5

4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. ……… 1 2 3 4 5

5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. ……… 1 2 3 4 5

6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. 1 2 3 4 5

7. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. 1 2 3 4 5

8. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now. ……………………………..……… 1 2 3 4 5

9. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now. ……………… 1 2 3 4 5

10. This organization deserves my loyalty. ………………………… 1 2 3 4 5

11. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it. ……………..………… 1 2 3 4 5

12. I owe a great deal to my organization. ……………..…………… 1 2 3 4 5

13. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. ……………………………..……………… 1 2 3 4 5

14. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. ……………………………………………… 1 2 3 4 5

Section D: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Continue)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	Strongly agree

15. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided that I wanted to leave my organization now. …………….……………..…   1   2   3   4   5

16. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization. …………………….……………….…   1   2   3   4   5

17. If I had not already put so much into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere. ………….………………..…   1   2   3   4   5

18. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. …………….……   1   2   3   4   5

19. Colleagues are happy to work in this organization and to work here forever. …………….………………………..…   1   2   3   4   5

20. Colleagues felt that the organization was likened their problems..   1   2   3   4   5

21. Colleagues feel that this co-owned enterprise. ………………..…   1   2   3   4   5

22. Colleagues feel that this organization is important for them. ……   1   2   3   4   5

23. Colleagues feel that this organization is their family. ……..……   1   2   3   4   5

24. Colleagues felt that everyone in the organization is a valuable person for them. …………….…………………………   1   2   3   4   5

25. Engagement with employers, colleagues or supervisor wanted to work in this organization. …….……………………………   1   2   3   4   5

26. Colleagues will not change job although other organization to provide better returns. ….………………………………   1   2   3   4   5

27. Colleagues feel guilt if resigned from the organization at this time….   1   2   3   4   5

28. Colleagues are loyal to this organization. …………….…..………   1   2   3   4   5

29. Colleagues have ties to each other, so do not quit form this organization. …….……………………………………   1   2   3   4   5

30. Colleagues are ready to sacrifice and dedication to this organization.   1   2   3   4   5

31. Colleagues wished to remain with the organization until his retirement. ….………………………………………….……   1   2   3   4   5

32. Colleagues decided to quit his job very difficult. ……………..…   1   2   3   4   5

33. Colleagues live a lot harder, if he decided to resign from this organization. ….……………………………………………   1   2   3   4   5

34. Colleagues felt that no other organization is better than it is now.   1   2   3   4   5

35. If the work is not challenging, colleagues will be looking for new job. …………………………………………………   1   2   3   4   5

36. Some minor obstacles that may cause colleagues decided to resign from this organization. ……………………………   1   2   3   4   5

Section E: Organizational Citizenship Behavior Questionnaire

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	Strongly agree

1. I help orient new people, even though it is not required. ……...…… 1 2 3 4 5
2. I help others who have heavy workloads. ………………………..… 1 2 3 4 5
3. I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me. …. 1 2 3 4 5
4. I help others who have been absent. …………………..………… 1 2 3 4 5
5. I willingly help others who have work-related problems. ………. 1 2 3 4 5
6. I make constructive suggestions that can improve the operation of the organization. ………………..……………………………… 1 2 3 4 5
7. I keep abreast of changes in the organization. ……………………. 1 2 3 4 5
8. I attend functions that are not required but help the company image. 1 2 3 4 5
9. I attend meetings that are not mandatory but are considered important. …………………………………………………………… 1 2 3 4 5
10. I do not take extra breaks. ……………………………………….. 1 2 3 4 5
11. I obey company rules and regulations, even when no one is watching. …………………………………………………………… 1 2 3 4 5
12. I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay. 1 2 3 4 5
13. I have a work attendance record that is above the norm. ……….. 1 2 3 4 5
14. I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters. …….. 1 2 3 4 5
15. I always focus on what is wrong, rather than the positive side. … 1 2 3 4 5
16. I always find faults with what the organization is doing. ……….. 1 2 3 4 5
17. Colleagues are willing to give advice to new employees, although he did not request. …………………………………….. 1 2 3 4 5
18. Colleagues are willing to help other co-worker have heavy workloads. .……………………………………………………… 1 2 3 4 5
19. Colleagues are willing to assist everyone. ……........................... 1 2 3 4 5
20. Colleagues are willing to work instead of co-worker. ………….. 1 2 3 4 5
21. Colleagues are willing to take the time to help others to resolve problem. ……………………………………………………….… 1 2 3 4 5
22. Colleagues have been advised on the development of system to increase efficiency of the organization. ………………………… 1 2 3 4 5
23. Colleagues are ready to accept the new changes of the organization at all times. ……………………………………… 1 2 3 4 5
24. Colleagues work with responsibility because want to maintain a corporate image. ……………………………………………… 1 2 3 4 5
25. Colleagues are voluntary participants to apply the knowledge gained to improve their work. ……………………………….. 1 2 3 4 5
26. Colleagues have not exercised in a vacation. ..………………….. 1 2 3 4 5
27 Colleagues to abide by the rules and regulations of the organization.. 1 2 3 4 5
28. Colleagues are dedicated to work more than the compensation payable to the organization. ………………………………….... 1 2 3 4 5
29. Colleagues have a work attendance record that is above the norm… 1 2 3 4 5
30. Colleagues want to work out perfectly, so often complained to another friend always listens. …………………………………… 1 2 3 4 5
31. Colleagues will monitor the accuracy of the work is always carefully.. 1 2 3 4 5
32. Colleagues can analyze problems that will occur in the future. … 1 2 3 4 5

Demographic

1. Gender

   ☐ Male   ☐ Female

2. Age

   ☐ 18 – 22   ☐ 23 – 27   ☐ 28 – 32

   ☐ 33 – 37   ☐ 38 – 42   ☐ 43 – 49

   ☐ 50 – 54   ☐ 55 – 59   ☐ Over 59

3. Work experience in this hotel

   ☐ Less than 1   ☐ 1 – 3   ☐ 4 – 6   ☐ 7 – 9   ☐ Over 9

Questionnaire

(Thai Version)
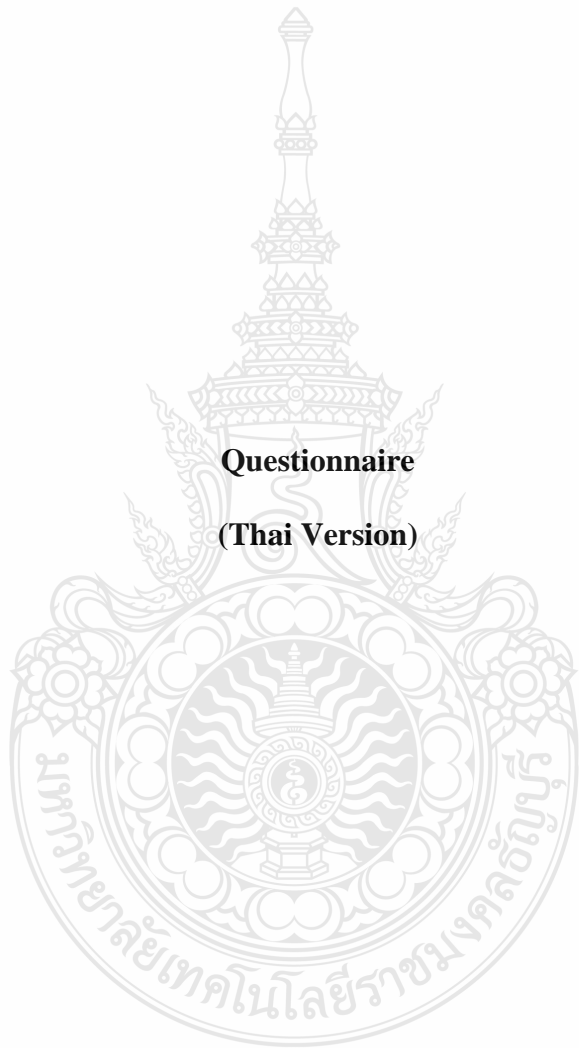
แบบสอบถามเพื่อการวิจัย

เรื่อง แบบจำลองความสัมพันธ์เชิงสาเหตุของคุณลักษณะงาน พฤติกรรมผู้นำการเปลี่ยนแปลง การรับรู้
การสนับสนุนจากองค์กร ที่มีอิทธิพลต่อความผูกพันและพฤติกรรมการเป็นสมาชิกที่ดีต่อองค์กร

เรียน ผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

      แบบสอบถามชุดนี้จัดทำขึ้นใช้ประกอบในการศึกษา คำตอบไม่มีผลกระทบใด ๆ ต่อการ
ปฏิบัติงานของท่าน โปรดตอบแบบสอบถามตามความเป็นจริง

ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคล

1. เพศ
   - ☐ ชาย   ☐ หญิง
2. อายุ
   - ☐ 18 – 22 ปี   ☐ 23 – 27 ปี   ☐ 28 – 32 ปี
   - ☐ 33 – 37 ปี   ☐ 38 – 42 ปี   ☐ 43 – 49 ปี
   - ☐ 50 – 54 ปี   ☐ 55 – 59 ปี   ☐ มากกว่า 59 ปี
3. ประสบการณ์การทำงานในโรงแรมแห่งนี้
   - ☐ น้อยกว่า 1 ปี   ☐ 1 – 3 ปี   ☐ 4 – 6 ปี   ☐ 7 – 9 ปี   ☐ มากกว่า 9 ปี

โปรดวงกลม (O) ล้อมรอบตัวเลข ตามความเห็นของท่าน

ส่วนที่ 1 ความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับคุณลักษณะงาน

1	2	3	4	5
ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	เฉย ๆ	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

1.	ท่านต้องใช้ทักษะและเทคนิคต่าง ๆ ในการปฏิบัติงาน	1	2	3	4	5
2.	ท่านได้ทำโครงการและใช้ความสามารถสูง	1	2	3	4	5
3.	ท่านต้องเรียนรู้เทคนิคและเทคโนโลยีเพื่อใช้ในการทำงาน	1	2	3	4	5
4.	ท่านต้องเริ่มต้นกระบวนการทำงานและดำเนินการจนเสร็จสิ้น	1	2	3	4	5
5.	ท่านมีโอกาสได้พบปะกับลูกค้าและบุคคลอื่น ๆ ในการทำงานเป็นประจำ	1	2	3	4	5
6.	เมื่อมีปัญหาใดเกิดขึ้นในการทำงานท่านต้องเข้าไปแก้ปัญหาจนปัญหาดังกล่าวได้รับการแก้ไขจนเสร็จสิ้น	1	2	3	4	5
7.	งานที่ท่านทำเป็นหน้าที่และเป็นภารกิจหลักขององค์กร	1	2	3	4	5
8.	งานที่ท่านทำต้องใช้ความรู้ความสามารถอย่างเต็มที่เพื่อให้งานนั้นสำเร็จและเป็นไปตามเป้าหมายขององค์กร	1	2	3	4	5
9.	ท่านสามารถปฏิบัติงานตามศักยภาพที่ท่านมีอยู่	1	2	3	4	5
10.	ท่านสามารถใช้การวินิจฉัยการปฏิบัติงานได้อย่างเต็มที่	1	2	3	4	5
11.	ท่านสามารถตัดสินใจงานต่าง ๆ ตามเหตุและผลของปัจจัยที่เกี่ยวข้อง	1	2	3	4	5

12. ท่านได้รับข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับคุณภาพและประสิทธิภาพการทำงานของท่านเป็นประจำ...	1	2	3	4	5
13. ท่านสามารถแสดงความคิดเห็นต่องานที่ปฏิบัติและสามารถอธิบายเหตุผลของสิ่งที่ เกิดขึ้นได้..	1	2	3	4	5
14. ท่านสามารถนำผลการประเมินมาปรับปรุงการทำงานได้อย่างต่อเนื่อง.....................	1	2	3	4	5

ส่วนที่ 2 ความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับหัวหน้างานที่ใกล้ชิดท่านมากที่สุด

0	1	2	3	4
ไม่เคย	นาน ๆ ครั้ง	บางครั้ง	ค่อนข้างบ่อย	บ่อยครั้ง/ ปฏิบัติเป็นปกติ

15. หัวหน้างานของท่านสร้างความภาคภูมิใจให้กับทีมงาน...	0	1	2	3	4
16. หัวหน้างานของท่านสร้างแรงบันดาลใจให้กับทีมงาน	0	1	2	3	4
17. หัวหน้างานของท่านแสดงความสามารถออกมาจนเป็นที่ยอมรับของบุคคลอื่น...........	0	1	2	3	4
18. หัวหน้างานของท่านแสดงให้ผู้อื่นเห็นชัดเจนว่ามีอำนาจและมีความมั่นใจในตนเอง..	0	1	2	3	4
19. หัวหน้างานของท่านแสดงให้ผู้อื่นเห็นถึงคุณค่าและมีความเชื่อมั่นในตัวเขา.............	0	1	2	3	4
20. หัวหน้างานของท่านสร้างความตระหนักให้บุคคลอื่นเห็นถึงความสำคัญในเป้าหมาย ของงาน...	0	1	2	3	4
21. หัวหน้างานของท่านตัดสินใจเรื่องต่าง ๆ บนพื้นฐานของคุณธรรมและจริยธรรม......	0	1	2	3	4
22. หัวหน้างานของท่านสร้างความตระหนักให้บุคคลอื่นเห็นความสำคัญของพันธกิจ องค์กร...	0	1	2	3	4
23. หัวหน้างานของท่านพูดคุยถึงความก้าวหน้าในอาชีพของพนักงาน............................	0	1	2	3	4
24. หัวหน้างานของท่านพูดคุยถึงแนวทางการทำงานให้ประสบความสำเร็จ	0	1	2	3	4
25. หัวหน้างานของท่านมีวิสัยทัศน์เกี่ยวกับงานในอนาคตที่ชัดเจน	0	1	2	3	4
26. หัวหน้างานของท่านแสดงความมั่นใจในเป้าหมายที่กำหนดไว้ว่าจะสามารถทำได้ สำเร็จ...	0	1	2	3	4
27. หัวหน้างานของท่านพิจารณาว่างานที่จะมอบหมายเหมาะสมกับบุคคลใดก่อนเสมอ.	0	1	2	3	4
28. หัวหน้างานของท่านมีมุมมองที่แตกต่างในการแก้ปัญหา...	0	1	2	3	4
29. หัวหน้างานของท่านเปิดใจยอมรับมุมมองที่แตกต่างจากบุคคลอื่น ๆ เสมอ	0	1	2	3	4
30. หัวหน้างานของท่านให้คำแนะนำแนวทางปฏิบัติใหม่ ๆ เพื่อให้งานสำเร็จ	0	1	2	3	4
31. หัวหน้างานของท่านทำงานในลักษณะสอนงานและฝึกทักษะให้แก่ผู้อื่น....................	0	1	2	3	4
32. หัวหน้างานของท่านปฏิบัติต่อลูกน้องเสมือนเป็นเพื่อนร่วมงานหรือทีมงาน..............	0	1	2	3	4
33. หัวหน้างานของท่านพิจารณาสมาชิกในทีมจากความสามารถที่หลากหลาย..............	0	1	2	3	4
34. หัวหน้างานของท่านช่วยเหลือทีมงานในการพัฒนาตนให้มีศักยภาพเพิ่มขึ้น.............	0	1	2	3	4

ส่วนที่ 3 ความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการสนับสนุนขององค์การ

1	2	3	4	5
ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	เฉย ๆ	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

1. หัวหน้างานของท่านมีความเป็นธรรมในการรับรู้ความสำเร็จของทีม...................... 1 2 3 4 5
2. หัวหน้างานของท่านมีการประชุมชี้แจงแผนงานและติดตามประเมินผลการ
   ปฏิบัติงานสม่ำเสมอ.. 1 2 3 4 5
3. สมาชิกในทีมมีส่วนร่วมในการวางแผนพัฒนาประสิทธิภาพของงานทุกโครงการ... 1 2 3 4 5
4. หัวหน้างานของท่านเปิดโอกาสให้สมาชิกในทีมพัฒนาทักษะอย่างจริงจัง.............. 1 2 3 4 5
5. หัวหน้างานของท่านเปรียบเทียบคุณภาพของงานกับมาตรฐานที่กำหนด............. 1 2 3 4 5
6. หัวหน้างานของท่านมีความเป็นธรรมในการประเมินผลการปฏิบัติงาน................. 1 2 3 4 5
7. ข้อพิพาทหรือความขัดแย้งได้รับการแก้ไขอย่างเป็นธรรมในกลุ่มงานของท่าน....... 1 2 3 4 5
8. เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านมีความสามัคคีและร่วมมือกันทำงานเป็นทีม.................... 1 2 3 4 5
9. หัวหน้างานตั้งเป้าหมายที่ท้าทายและทีมของท่านก็สามารถทำตามเป้าหมายได้
   สำเร็จ.. 1 2 3 4 5
10. สมาชิกในทีมของท่านสามารถวิเคราะห์ปัญหาและเสนอแนวทางแก้ปัญหาได้....... 1 2 3 4 5
11. องค์กรเปิดโอกาสให้ท่านแสดงทัศนะถึงพฤติกรรมเพื่อนร่วมงานอย่างสม่ำเสมอ..... 1 2 3 4 5
12. หัวหน้างานของท่านประเมินผลการปฏิบัติงานด้วยความเป็นธรรม........................ 1 2 3 4 5
13. แม้พนักงานจะมีความสามารถที่แตกต่างกัน แต่หัวหน้างานสามารถทำงานได้กับ
    ทุกคน... 1 2 3 4 5
14. สมาชิกในทีมสนับสนุนแนวทางการทำงานรูปแบบใหม่ ๆ 1 2 3 4 5
15. หัวหน้างานของท่านรับฟังและเข้าใจปัญหาส่วนตัวของสมาชิกแต่ละคนในทีม....... 1 2 3 4 5
16. ท่านรู้สึกปลอดภัยเมื่อทำงานอยู่ในทีมนี้.. 1 2 3 4 5
17. เมื่อมีข้อเรียกร้องจากลูกค้าเกี่ยวกับการให้บริการ สมาชิกในทีมจะช่วยกัน
    แก้ปัญหา โดยไม่กล่าวโทษว่าเป็นความผิดของใคร... 1 2 3 4 5

ส่วนที่ 4 ความคิดเห็นที่มีต่อองค์กร

1	2	3	4	5
ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	เฉย ๆ	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

1. ท่านรู้สึกมีความสุข ที่ได้ทำงานอยู่ในองค์กรแห่งนี้ และจะทำงานที่นี่ตลอดไป.... 1 2 3 4 5
2. ท่านรู้สึกว่าปัญหาขององค์กรก็เปรียบเสมือนปัญหาของท่าน............................. 1 2 3 4 5
3. ท่านรู้สึกว่าท่านเป็นเจ้าขององค์กรแห่งนี้ร่วมด้วย... 1 2 3 4 5
4. ท่านรู้สึกว่าองค์กรแห่งนี้มีความสำคัญต่อท่านมาก... 1 2 3 4 5
5. ท่านรู้สึกว่าองค์กรนี้คือครอบครัวของท่าน.. 1 2 3 4 5
6. ท่านรู้สึกว่าเพื่อนร่วมงานในองค์กรแห่งนี้เป็นบุคคลที่มีคุณค่าสำหรับท่าน.......... 1 2 3 4 5
7. ท่านรู้สึกผูกพันกับนายจ้างหรือหัวหน้างาน จึงอยากทำงานอยู่ในองค์กร............ 1 2 3 4 5
8. ท่านจะไม่เปลี่ยนงานถึงแม้ว่าองค์กรอื่นจะให้ผลตอบแทนที่ดีกว่า..................... 1 2 3 4 5

ส่วนที่ 4 ความคิดเห็นที่มีต่อองค์กร (ต่อ)

	1	2	3	4	5
	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	เฉย ๆ	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

		1	2	3	4	5
9	ท่านรู้สึกผิด หากลาออกจากองค์กรในตอนนี้..	1	2	3	4	5
10.	องค์กรแห่งนี้สมควรได้รับความภักดีจากท่าน..	1	2	3	4	5
11.	ท่านจะไม่ลาออกจากองค์กรนี้ เพราะท่านมีความผูกพันกับเพื่อนร่วมงาน..............	1	2	3	4	5
12.	ท่านพร้อมที่จะเสียสละและอุทิศตนให้กับองค์กรแห่งนี้..	1	2	3	4	5
13.	ท่านปรารถนาที่จะอยู่กับองค์กรแห่งนี้ไปจนเกษียณอายุ.......................................	1	2	3	4	5
14.	การลาออกจากองค์กรนี้เป็นการตัดสินใจที่ยากมากสำหรับท่าน..............................	1	2	3	4	5
15.	ท่านจะมีชีวิตความเป็นอยู่ที่ลำบาก หากท่านตัดสินใจลาออกจากองค์กรนี้............	1	2	3	4	5
16.	ท่านรู้สึกว่ามีงานอื่นที่ดีกว่า แต่ต้องการที่จะอยู่กับองค์กรแห่งนี้ต่อไป	1	2	3	4	5
17.	งานที่ท่านทำอยู่แม้จะเป็นงานที่ซ้ำซากจำเจ แต่ท่านก็รักที่จะทำงานนี้.................	1	2	3	4	5
18.	อุปสรรคเล็กน้อยบางเรื่องไม่ทำให้ท่านท้อใจในการทำงาน.....................................	1	2	3	4	5
19.	ท่านรู้สึกว่าเพื่อนร่วมงานมีความสุข ที่ได้ทำงานอยู่ในองค์กรแห่งนี้ และจะทำงาน ที่นี่ตลอดไปเช่นกัน...	1	2	3	4	5
20.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านรู้สึกว่าปัญหาขององค์กรก็เปรียบเสมือนปัญหาของเขาเช่นกัน..	1	2	3	4	5
21.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านรู้สึกว่าเป็นเจ้าขององค์กรแห่งนี้ร่วมด้วย.............................	1	2	3	4	5
22.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านรู้สึกว่าองค์กรแห่งนี้มีความสำคัญต่อเขาเช่นกัน...................	1	2	3	4	5
23.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านรู้สึกว่าองค์กรนี้คือครอบครัวของเขา....................................	1	2	3	4	5
24.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านรู้สึกว่าทุกคนในองค์กรแห่งนี้เป็นบุคคลที่มีคุณค่า.................	1	2	3	4	5
25.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านรู้สึกผูกพันกับนายจ้างหรือหัวหน้างาน จึงอยากทำงานอยู่ใน องค์กร...	1	2	3	4	5
26.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านจะไม่เปลี่ยนงานถึงแม้ว่าองค์กรอื่นจะให้ผลตอบแทนที่ ดีกว่า...	1	2	3	4	5
27.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านจะรู้สึกผิด หากลาออกจากองค์กรในตอนนี้.........................	1	2	3	4	5
28.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านมีความภักดีต่อองค์กรแห่งนี้..	1	2	3	4	5
29.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านจะไม่ลาออกจากองค์กรนี้ เพราะมีความผูกพันกับเพื่อน ร่วมงาน...	1	2	3	4	5
30.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านพร้อมที่จะเสียสละและอุทิศตนให้กับองค์กรแห่งนี้..............	1	2	3	4	5
31.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านปรารถนาที่จะอยู่กับองค์กรแห่งนี้ไปจนเกษียณอายุ............	1	2	3	4	5
32.	การลาออกจากองค์กรนี้เป็นการตัดสินใจที่ยากมากสำหรับเพื่อนร่วมงานของท่าน	1	2	3	4	5
33.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านจะมีชีวิตความเป็นอยู่ที่ลำบาก หากตัดสินใจลาออกจาก องค์กรนี้..	1	2	3	4	5
34.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านรู้สึกว่ามีงานอื่นที่ดีกว่า แต่ต้องการที่จะอยู่กับองค์กรแห่งนี้ ต่อไป...	1	2	3	4	5
35.	งานที่ท่านทำอยู่แม้จะเป็นงานที่ซ้ำซากจำเจ แต่เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านก็รักที่จะ ทำงานนี้..	1	2	3	4	5
36.	อุปสรรคเล็กน้อยบางเรื่องไม่ทำให้เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านท้อใจในการทำงาน..........	1	2	3	4	5

ส่วนที่ 5 แบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับพฤติกรรมการทำงานของตนเอง

1	2	3	4	5
ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	เฉย ๆ	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

		1	2	3	4	5
1.	ท่านยินดีให้คำแนะนำแก่พนักงานใหม่ แม้ว่าเขาจะไม่ได้ร้องขอ..............................	1	2	3	4	5
2.	ท่านยินดีช่วยเหลือเพื่อนร่วมงานที่มีงานล้นมือ..	1	2	3	4	5
3.	ท่านพร้อมให้ความช่วยเหลือแก่เพื่อนร่วมงานทุกคนเสมอ.......................................	1	2	3	4	5
4.	ท่านยินดีปฏิบัติงานแทนเพื่อนร่วมงานทุกคนเสมอ..	1	2	3	4	5
5.	ท่านยินดีสละเวลาเพื่อช่วยเหลือผู้อื่นในการแก้ไขปัญหาที่เกี่ยวกับการทำงาน...........	1	2	3	4	5
6.	ท่านเคยให้คำแนะนำเกี่ยวกับแนวทางพัฒนาระบบงานให้มีประสิทธิภาพเพิ่มขึ้น					
	แก่องค์กร...	1	2	3	4	5
7.	ท่านพร้อมที่จะยอมรับการเปลี่ยนแปลงใหม่ ๆ ขององค์กรอยู่เสมอ........................	1	2	3	4	5
8.	ท่านใส่ใจการทำงานในหน้าที่ เพราะต้องการสร้างภาพลักษณ์ที่ดีให้องค์กร.............	1	2	3	4	5
9.	ท่านสมัครใจเข้าร่วมประชุม เพื่อนำความรู้ที่ได้รับมาปรับปรุงการทำงาน................	1	2	3	4	5
10.	ท่านลาพักผ่อนไม่เกินสิทธิที่ท่านได้รับ..	1	2	3	4	5
11.	ท่านปฏิบัติตามกฎ ระเบียบและข้อบังคับขององค์กรอย่างเคร่งครัด........................	1	2	3	4	5
12.	ท่านทุ่มเทให้กับการทำงานมากกว่าค่าตอบแทนที่องค์กรจ่ายให้..............................	1	2	3	4	5
13.	ท่านไม่เคยเอาเวลางานไปทำธุระส่วนตัว...	1	2	3	4	5
14.	ท่านชี้แจงรายละเอียดงานให้ทีมงานฟังอย่างสม่ำเสมอ จนงานแล้วเสร็จ................	1	2	3	4	5
15.	ท่านจะคอยตรวจสอบความถูกต้องของงานให้รอบคอบอยู่เสมอ.............................	1	2	3	4	5
16.	ท่านสามารถวิเคราะห์ปัญหาในงานที่จะเกิดในอนาคตได้.......................................	1	2	3	4	5
17.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านยินดีให้คำแนะนำแก่พนักงานใหม่ แม้ว่าเขาจะไม่ได้ร้องขอ	1	2	3	4	5
18.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านยินดีช่วยเหลือเพื่อนร่วมงานอื่นที่มีงานล้นมือ......................	1	2	3	4	5
19.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านพร้อมให้ความช่วยเหลือแก่เพื่อนร่วมงานทุกคนเสมอ...........	1	2	3	4	5
20.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านยินดีปฏิบัติงานแทนเพื่อนร่วมงานทุกคนเสมอ.....................	1	2	3	4	5
21.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านยินดีสละเวลาเพื่อช่วยเหลือผู้อื่นในการแก้ไขปัญหาที่					
	เกี่ยวกับการทำงาน...	1	2	3	4	5
22.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านเคยให้คำแนะนำเกี่ยวกับแนวทางพัฒนาระบบงานให้มี					
	ประสิทธิภาพเพิ่มขึ้นแก่องค์กร..	1	2	3	4	5
23.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านพร้อมที่จะยอมรับการเปลี่ยนแปลงใหม่ ๆ ขององค์กรอยู่					
	เสมอ..	1	2	3	4	5
24.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านใส่ใจการทำงานในหน้าที่ เพราะต้องการสร้างภาพลักษณ์					
	ที่ดีให้องค์กร..	1	2	3	4	5
25.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านสมัครใจเข้าร่วมประชุม เพื่อนำความรู้ที่ได้รับมาปรับปรุง					
	การทำงาน..	1	2	3	4	5
26.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านลาพักผ่อนไม่เกินสิทธิที่ได้รับ...	1	2	3	4	5
27.	เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านปฏิบัติตามกฎ ระเบียบและข้อบังคับขององค์กรอย่าง					
	เคร่งครัด..	1	2	3	4	5

ส่วนที่ 5 แบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับพฤติกรรมการทำงานของตนเอง

1	2	3	4	5
ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	เฉย ๆ	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

28. เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านทุ่มเทให้กับการทำงานมากกว่าค่าตอบแทนที่องค์กรจ่ายให้   1   2   3   4   5

29. เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านไม่เคยเอาเวลางานไปทำธุระส่วนตัว....................................   1   2   3   4   5

30. เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านชี้แจงรายละเอียดงานให้ทีมงานฟังอย่างสม่ำเสมอ จนงาน

     แล้วเสร็จ..   1   2   3   4   5

31. เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านจะคอยตรวจสอบความถูกต้องของงานให้รอบคอบอยู่เสมอ   1   2   3   4   5

32. เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านสามารถวิเคราะห์ปัญหาในงานที่จะเกิดในอนาคตได้............   1   2   3   4   5

ขอบคุณที่ท่านสละเวลา

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