

The Indirect Effects of Servant Leadership Behavior on Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Job Performance: Organizational Justice as a Mediator

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Abstract

The relationship between leader and followers plays a vital role, particularly in educational institutions where a keen understanding of human character and high level of social interaction ought to be facilitated. For this reason, in stark contrast to contemporary leaders who see people only as units of production or expendable resources in a profit and loss statement, servant leadership focuses on meeting the needs of followers, making them reach their maximum potential and so perform optimally in order to achieve organizational goals and objectives. This study examines the effects of servant leadership behaviors of private college principals on teachers' organizational citizenship behavior and job performance. Using 300 respondents from the private education institutes in Turkey, servant leadership behavior is examined for its indirect effects on organizational citizenship behavior and job performance by its impact on organizational justice. Organizational justice acts as a mediator between the variables in question. All the results are in support of the studied mediation effects. Implications of the findings and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Key words: Servant leadership behavior; Organizational citizenship behavior; Job performance; Organizational justice

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1. Introduction

Today's competitive and challenging organizations are crying out for ethical and effective leadership that serves others, invests in their development, and fulfills a shared vision. In this sense, servant leadership comes to the surface as the most essential concept to play a significant role in guiding employee behavior and formulating organizational values that support organizational justice, organizational citizenship and performance. In the extant literature, it is possible to find many studies focusing on different types of leadership in explaining organizational citizenship behavior or job performance or both. Leadership literature researcher Bambale et al. (2011) shows that previous studies established six leadership paradigms as having links with organizational citizenship behavior. Accordingly, the leadership paradigms consist of: (1) transformational leadership (Podsakoff et al. 2000; (2) charismatic leadership (Babcock, Roberson, Strickland 2010); (3) transactional leadership (Bass, Avolio 1994; (4) ethical leadership (Adebayo 2005; Piccolo, Greenbaum, Den Hartog, Folger 2010); (5) servant leadership (Ehrhart 2004; Vondey 2010; Walumbwa, Hartnell, Oke 2010) and (6) consideration dimension (Schnake, Cochran, Dumler 1995).

There are many leadership paradigms, but only a few of them have been researched for the purpose of establishing the relationship of servant leadership with both the variables of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational

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justice. Conceptualized with relational, participative, altruism and empowerment dimensions by Oner (2008), to involve it in education, servant leadership behavior also needs more research attention to help further the explanation of these variables. Although the direct relationship between servant leadership behavior and organizational citizenship behavior has been explained (Ehrhart 2004; Vondey 2010; Walumbwa, Hartnell, Oke 2010), there lacks a discussion in the literature on the possibility of a mediating effect of organizational justice in relation to these two variables. Similarly, the direct effect of servant leadership behavior was considered in relation to job performance (Avolio et al. 2009; Barbuto, Wheeler 2006; McCrimmon 2010; Pekerti, Sendjaya 2010), but whether the relationship between them is mediated by organizational justice has not been researched yet. This study will contribute to the literature by concurrently studying the mediated effect of servant leadership behavior to organizational citizenship behavior and job performance by organizational justice.

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses

The study attempts to further explain the relational structure among the variables 'servant leadership behavior (SLB)', 'organizational justice (OJ)', 'organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)' and 'job performance'. In the relational network, for the possible mediation effects of organizational justice, two main hypotheses are suggested by means of research model depicted in Figure 1.

Hypothesis 1: Organizational justice shows the full mediation effect in relation between servant leadership behavior and organizational citizenship behavior. The hypothesis H1 should be supported by the confirmation of the following three sub-hypotheses (H1a, H1b, and H1c).

H1a: Servant leadership behavior has a positive effect on organizational justice.

H1b: Organizational justice has a positive effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

H1c: Servant leadership behavior has no positive effect on organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 2: Organizational justice shows the full mediation effect in relation between servant leadership behavior and job performance. The hypothesis H2 should be supported by the confirmation of the following three subhypotheses (H2a, H2b, H2c).

H2a: Servant leadership behavior has a positive effect on organizational justice.

H2b: Organizational justice has a positive effect on job performance.

H2c: Servant leadership behavior has no positive effect on job performance.

2.1. Servant Leadership Behavior: Relational, Participative, Altruism, Empowerment

Among the numerous other leadership frameworks presented in the management literature, one that articulates the emotional, relational, and moral dimensions of leadership in a particularly useful way is the concept of servant leadership, introduced four decades ago by Greenleaf (1970) and currently attracting renewed interest among scholars and managers alike (Avolio et al. 2009). In 1970, servant leadership appeared in the realm of leadership theory. Robert K. Greenleaf coined the phrase and came up with the idea that leadership success is judged by whether the one served grows as a person (Cunnigham 2002). Spears (2002) expanded on the ten characteristics described by Greenleaf as manifested in servant leaders. These characteristics are listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community. Servant leaders believe that it is their duty to see the overall mental and spiritual well-being of those with whom they associate and that the result is an end in itself. Servant leaders support others simply to help them grow as people (Riverstone 2004). Ehrhart (2004) believes that servant leadership is composed of seven dimensions as forming relationships with subordinates, empowering subordinates, helping subordinates grow and succeed, behaving ethically, having conceptual skills, putting subordinates first, and creating value for those outside the organization. Contrary to the conventional leaders whose primary motivation was to lead others, the servant leader is more motivated to serve others than to lead (Parolini et al. 2009).

The servant leadership behavior was, in this study, conceptualized with relational: the act of making a genuine effort to know, understand, and support others in the organization, with an emphasis on building long-term relationships with immediate followers (Barbuto, Wheeler 2006), participative: asking for input and incorporating their feedback with forming a sense of community with a holistic approach to work based on shared decision (Greenleaf 1970),

altruism: viewing organizational growth as a long-term by product of the constant emphasis on the followers' growth (Stone et al. 2004) and empowerment: encouraging and facilitating others, especially immediate followers, in identifying and solving problems, as well as determining when and how to complete work tasks (Ehrhart 2004), dimensions by following the approach of Oner (2008) in a Turkish cultural setting.

2.2. Organizational Justice: Distributive justice, Procedural justice, Interactional justice

As originally conceptualized by Moorman (1991), organizational justice is a multidimensional construct, which consists of the following dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice; the latter two could be combined and categorized as interactional justice. Similarly, three-dimension typology of organizational justice, which includes distributive, procedural and interactional justice is widely accepted and involves perceptions of fairness within organizations (Williams1999).

In the literature, the terms "justice", "fairness", and "equity" are used interchangeably. The organizational practices that reflect these terms were considered as social values motivating behavior among individuals (Leventhal 1980; Moorman 1991). Organizational justice as a term was coined by Greenberg (1987) and defined as an individual's perception of and reactions to fairness in an organization. Concerns about fairness in an organization are reflected in several facets of employees' working lives. For example, employees are concerned about the fairness of resource distributions, such as pay, rewards, promotions, and the outcome of dispute resolutions. This is known as distributive justice (Colquitt et al. 2005). People also attend to the fairness of the decision-making procedures that lead to those outcomes, attempting to understand how and why they came about. This is referred to as procedural justice (Leventhal 1980; Colquitt et al. 2005). Finally, individuals are also concerned with the nature of the interpersonal treatment received from others, especially key organizational authorities. This is called interactional justice (Greenberg 2000; Colquitt et al. 2005).

2.3. Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Altruism, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, Courtesy, Civic virtue

The concept of organizational citizenship is not one of the task definitions of teachers, rather, they are the actions that they perform of their own free will (Oguz 2010). Organ (1988) defined organization citizenship behavior as the individual's behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. Organ (1988) also proposed an expanded taxonomy of organizational citizenship behavior that included: altruism, which is defined as discretionary behaviors that specifically aid another person in the organization with an organizationally relevant issue; conscientiousness defined as discretionary behaviors that aid the organization in general and go beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization; sportsmanship, explained as the willingness of the employee to tolerate less than ideal situations without complaining; courtesy, which includes behaviors aimed at preventing work-related problems with others from occurring; and civic virtue, which involves behaviors that indicate that the individual responsibly participates in or is involved in the life of the organization.

2.4. Job Performance

Job performance is defined by Motowidlo (2000) as the summation of individual behaviors, over a given period of time, which contributes to the achievement of organizational goals. According to Griffin et al. (2007), the increase of unpredictability and interdependence in the work environment has necessitated the need for individuals to comply with the formal work role requirements as well as go beyond the call of duty in order to support the broader organizational context, thereby contributing to overall organizational job performance. The construct job performance is comprised of two dimensions: task performance and contextual performance. While task performance describes actions and behaviors related to the production of goods or the provision of services and appearance on an employee's formal job descriptions; contextual performance includes a variety of non-job specific behaviors and also specifically encompasses a set of interpersonal and volitional behaviors that support the broader social and psychological context in which the organization's core work is accomplished (Motowidlo 2000). To view job performance as comprised of both task and contextual-related elements (Aryee et al. 2004; Byrne, Hochwarter 2008), we combined these two dimensions under the name of overall job performance in our study.

2.5. Servant Leadership Behavior and Organizational Justice

The relationship between the leadership styles of the school principals and the organizational outcomes of teachers is considered by a number of researchers (Cerit 2010; Fuller 2006; Polat 2009). Servant leaders use persuasion rather

than power to get things done. In addition, more explicit than in any other leadership theory, servant leadership theory considers the leader as a steward who holds the organization in trust (Reinke 2004). Since the 1990s, studies about servant leadership have been enhanced through the introduction of the leadership models of Senjaya, Sarros (2002). Also, servant leadership has been explained with the development of instruments introduced by Laub (1999). In all the servant leadership models of these scholars, trust is suggested as the prevalent variable (Joseph, Winston 2005) deeply imbued with justice.

Organizational justice refers to the idea that an action or decision is morally right, which may be defined according to ethics, religion, fairness, equity, or law. People are naturally attentive to the justice of events and situations in their everyday lives, across a variety of contexts (Gopanzano 2009). Individuals react to actions and decisions made by organizations every day. An individual's perceptions of these decisions as fair or unfair can influence the individual's subsequent attitudes and behaviors. Some scholars revealed that perceived leadership behaviors also had a significant influence on an employee's perception of justice (Ehrhart 2004; Oner 2008).

2.6. Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

An explanation for employees engaging in organizational citizenship behavior has to do with cognitive evaluations of the fairness of employees' treatment by an organization. This view is theoretically rooted in equity theory (Adams 1965), stating that employees evaluate their work situations by cognitively comparing their inputs to the organization with the outcomes they receive in return. Organ (1988) indicated that organizational citizenship behavior refers to fair and voluntary actions such as assisting colleagues on working issues, behaving politely with personnel, and competently describing the organization to outside people, which will improve the effectiveness of the organization. Some studies have shown that the processes of justice can play an important role in the organization (Yaghobi et al. 2010) and leads to the increase or decrease of organizational citizenship behavior (Abili et al. 2009).

Research results from studies throughout the 1990s and early 2000s have confirmed the strong relationship between perceptions of justice and organizational citizenship behavior (Cohen - Charash, Spector 2001; Guangling 2011; Goudarzvand - Chegini 2009; Moorman 1991; Nadiri 2010; Organ, Moorman 1993; Podsakoff et al. 1996). Some researchers suggested that justice perceptions were a better predictor of organizational citizenship behavior than job satisfaction (Moorman 1991; Organ, Moorman 1993). While Moorman (1991) found that the best predictor is interactional justice, others found that procedural justice is a better predictor than distributive justice in contrast (Konovsky, Organ 1996). Generally, organizational justice perceptions took place as a key antecedent of organizational citizenship behavior (Podskoff et al. 1996) and a mediator in the relationship between leader-member relations and citizenship behavior (Bhal 2006). The results in this study highlight that when employees perceive their leader as being fair, employees tend to display organizational citizenship behavior.

2.7. Organizational Justice and Job Performance

Justice perceptions can improve organizational-relevant attitudes and behaviors such as performance (Cohen - Charash, Spector 2001; Colquitt et al. 2001). The positive relationship between distributive justice and performance may be due to the predictions derived from Adam's (1965) equity theory. The theory explains that human motivation is affected by the outcomes people receive for their inputs, compared to the outcomes and inputs of other people. When employees feel that they are being treated unequally, they will restore equity by altering their behaviors, attitudes, or both such as to be less productive or vice versa (Greenberg 1990; Moon et al. (2008), and perceptions of distributive justice were positively related to both task and contextual performance. Meanwhile, some research findings about the relationship between perceived procedural justice and job performance were divided. As Aryee et al. (2004); Williams (1999) gave support to the existence of a positive connection between procedural justice judgments and task performance, others (Konovsky, Organ 1996; Moon et al. 2008) provided evidence for the positive impact of procedural justice on various forms of contextual performance empirically. Some researchers like Aryee et al. (2004); Suliman (2007) have studied the effects of justice on task performance, which reflects role-prescribed behaviors related to a particular job. We have also tried to prove the effect of perceived justice on job performance in our study.

3. Research Method

By using the survey questionnaire to explore the mediating effect of organizational justice in the relationship of servant leadership behavior with not only organizational citizenship behavior but also job performance, data was collected from teachers in private high schools in the Marmara region of Istanbul, Turkey. A total of 10 private high

schools located in the cities of Kocaeli and Sakarya, and both the Anatolian and European sides of Istanbul, were randomly selected for a sampling. Over a period of three months, 400 volunteer teachers participated in the survey in the academic year 2011-2012. Survey questions were adapted to the educational institutions, face-to-face interviews, and e-mail methods used in the data collection process. After eliminating those questionnaires with a large number of unanswered questions, the remaining 300 questionnaires were included in the analyses. Accordingly, the cycling rate was calculated as 75%. During the study analysis, we used SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 17.00 program for exploratory factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha values and the LISREL 8.51 for confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling.

3.1. Sample characteristics

Out of the 300 questionnaires, 35.3 percent were completed by female respondents, while 64.7 percent were completed by males. Regarding the age distribution of the respondents, those between 21 and 30 account for 34 percent, those between 31 and 40 account for 56 percent, followed by those between 41 and 51, which accounted for 10 percent. The mean age for the sample was 33.45 years (SD=5.77 years). Examination of respondents' education distribution shows that a large majority (85.7 percent) have bachelor's degrees and the rest have master's degrees (14.3 percent). As for the marital status distribution of the respondents, 79.7 percentage are married and 20.3 percent are single. Finally, in terms of annual working period, 26 percent have been working at their current school for 1 to 3 years, 44.7 percent for 4 to 6 years, and 29.3 percent for 7 to 10 years.

3.2. Measures

Responses to the questions were assessed on a five-point scale (1 – strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree). Some of the measures in the survey were either revised or removed through a pre-testing process managed by 40 teachers. First, the four-dimensional servant leadership behavior scale with 56 items, which had been developed previously by Oner (2008), was adapted to the extent of educational institutions. Based on the results of a pre-test of the servant leadership behavior (SERVANT) scale, 7 items for the altruism (1ALTR) dimension, 6 items for the empowerment (EMPA) dimension, 10 items for the relational (RELA) dimension and 7 items for the participative (PART) dimension were not chosen to be used. Second, teachers' justice perceptions regarding their principals had been measured previously by the three-dimensional organizational justice (JUSTICE) scale with 19 items developed by Niehoff, Moorman (1993). Like Polat (2009), the current study was adapted to the organizational justice scale in the context of education institutions. A pretest of the organizational justice scale resulted in the distributive justice (DIST) dimension including 5 items, the procedural justice (PROC) dimension including 5 items, and the interactional justice (INTE) dimension including 4 items. The organizational citizenship behavior scale measured earlier by Podsakoff, MacKenzie (1989) was based on five dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue) as suggested by Organ (1988). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, Fetter (1990); and Moorman (1991) measured teachers' organizational citizenship behavior by using the scale including 20 items. In this study, authors followed Polat (2009), who adapted the scale of organizational citizenship to educational institutions. After a pre-test, the resulting organizational citizenship behavior scale (CITIZENS) included altruism (2ALTR) with 4 items, conscientiousness (CONS) with 4 items, civic virtue (CIVI) with 4 items, sportsmanship (SPOR) with 4 items and courtesy (COUR) with 4 items. Finally, job performance scale was adapted from the scale including 3 items developed by Fuentes, Saez, Montes (2004); Rahman - Bullock (2004); which was also used by Schitoglu, Zehir (2010). The job performance (JOBPERF) measures are following as: (1) I overachieve my work objectives, (2) I am sure I overachieve service quality standards and (3) I solve problems in the quickest and most efficient manner possible.

3.3. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses of the measurement models

Through the process in which measure validation was tested, single-factor models were first conducted by traditional methods such as exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The EFA was performed separately for each dimension of constructs and their relative measures were clustered under the single factor. Accordingly, the results show that 1ALTR, EMPA, RELA and PART for the construct SERVANT, 2ALTR, CONS and CIVI for the construct CITIZENS, DIST, PROC and INTE for the construct JUSTICE, and the construct JOBPERF are one-dimensional. Also, three items measuring JOBPERF load on a single underlying factor, as expected.

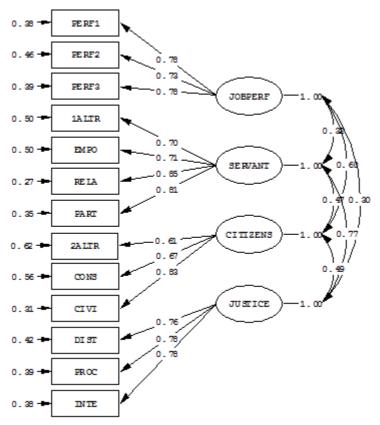
Next, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in the form of a second-order model was also applied for each of multidimensional constructs, which results in SERVANT with four sub-dimensions [χ 2/df = 344.81/165=2.01; p = 0.00; RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = 0.06; GFI (Goodness of Fit Index) = 0.90; CFI

(Comparative Fit Index) = 0.94, NFI (Normed Fit Index) = 0.89, IFI (Incremental Fit Index) = 0.94, SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual) = 0.057], CITIZENS with three sub-dimensions[χ 2/df = 160.57/51=3.15; p = 0.00; RMSEA = 0.085; GFI = 0.92; CFI = 0.93, NFI = 0.91, IFI = 0.93, SRMR = 0.051] and JUSTICE with three sub-dimensions [χ 2/df = 223.53/61 = 3.66; p = 0.00; RMSEA = 0.094; GFI = 0.90; CFI = 0.91, NFI = 0.89, IFI = 0.92, SRMR = 0.066].

Finally, all these constructs, either some items or dimensions of which were eliminated through this statistical process, were combined into a larger confirmatory model. Accordingly, the full measurement model tested in CFA includes SERVANT, CITIZENS, JUSTICE and JOBPERF together with the clustered items according to their dimensions. In CFA of the measurement model representing relations among all constructs and associated items, the chi-square test for the overall fit is significant due to its sensitivity to large sample sizes ($\chi = 133.63$, df = 59, P-value = 0.000). However, the resulting goodness-of-fit statistics indicates that the full measurement model fits the data set in this empirical study: CFI = 0.95, GFI= 0.94, AGFI = 0.90, RMSEA = 0.065, SRMR= 0.044, IFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.92). As shown in Table 1, all factor loadings, which range from .61 to .85, are found significant at the 0.01 level (with the lowest t-value being 10.53).

In the process where as a series of CFA were carried out, some items (or dimensions) were dropped from the measurement model given that their loading estimate was below .60 or they created excessive inter-correlation with any latent construct (or dimension) in the measurement model. Based on these reasons, the 'courtesy' and 'sportsmanship' dimensions of CITIZENS were deleted. Regarding the servant leadership behavior scale, two items of relational dimension, four items of participative dimension, one item of altruism dimension, and three items of empowerment dimension were eliminated. In addition, two items were omitted from the procedural justice dimension of organizational justice. The empirical evidence from internal consistency analysis shows that Cronbach's alpha values are .85 for the construct SERVANT, .82 for the construct JUSTICE, .72 for the construct CITIZENS and .75 for the construct JOBPERF, which are not lower than .70 as suggested by Nunnally (1978).

As consistent with the suggestions of Fornell, Larcker (1981), the reliability statistics obtained from the measurement model indicates that the index of variance extracted is greater than .50 for all constructs, and the composite reliability of the constructs is well above .70 (Hair et al. 1998), which ranges from 0.83 to 0.91. Discriminant validity is achieved for all constructs because the variance extracted for each construct is greater than its squared correlations with other constructs, as suggested by Fornell, Larcker (1981). In sum, the model is adequate for proceeding to the stage of hypothesis testing. The reliability and validity statistics are depicted in Table 1.



JOBPERF: Job performance SERVANT: Servant leadership behavior CITIZENS: Organizational citizenship behavior JUSTICE: Organizational justice 1ALTR: Altruism EMPO:Empowerment RELA: Relational PART: Participative 2ALTR: Altruism CONS:Conscientiousness CIVI: Civic virtue

DIST: Distributive justice PROC:Procedural justice INTE: Interactional justice

Figure 1. Full measurement model

Table 1. Full measurement model results

Constructs	Standardized factor loadings (λ)	t value	Cronbach alpha	AVE	$(r_{max})^2$	CR
1. SERVANT LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR			.85	.59	.43	.91
Altruism	.70	13.32				
Empowerment	.71	13.37				
Relational	.85	17.53				
Participative	.81	16.12				
2. ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE			.82	.60	.43	.89
Distributive justice	.76	14.52				
Procedural justice	.78	14.95				
Interactional justice	.78	15.06				
3. ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR			.72	.50	.23	.83
Altruism	.61	10.53				
Conscientiousness	.67	11.61				
Civic virtue	.83	14.96				
4. JOB PERFORMANS			.75	.58	.18	.88
Perfl	.78	14.53				
Perf2	.73	13.36				
Perf3	.78	14.41				

Goodness of fit index

Chi-Square=133.63, df=59, P-value=0.000

Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.95

Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.94

Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.90

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.065

Standardized RMR = 0.044

Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.95

Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.92

A t-value larger than 1.282 corresponds to *p<0.10 , a t-value larger than 1.645 to **p<0.05 , and a t-value greater than 2.326 to ***p<0.01, and n.s.: non-significant. (AVE=Average variance extracted, CR=Composite reliability)

3.4. Means, standard deviations and correlations of the study variables

Descriptive statistics such as mean scores, standard deviations, and inter-correlations of the study variables are presented in Table 2.

Table 2.Descriptive statistics for the scales and construct correlations

			Construct Correlations				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	SERVANT JUSTICECITIZENSJOBPERI				
(1) Servant leadership behavior (SERVANT)	3.73	.59	1				
(2) Organizational justice (JUSTICE)	3.68	.64	.658**	1			
(3) Organizational citizenship behavior (CITIZENS)	4.18	.41	.445**	.485**	1		
(4) Job performance (JOBPERF)	3.94	.62	.247**	.231**	.426**	1	

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

As shown in Table 2, on average, the levels of servant leadership behavior and organizational justice range from moderate to slightly high. Their mean values indicate that the level of servant leadership behavior (mean=3.73, S.D=.59) is higher than the level of perceived organizational justice (mean=3.68, S.D=.64). On the other hand, mean

values for organizational citizenship behavior and job performance exhibited by the sample are 4.18 (S.D.=.41) and 3.94 (S.D.=.62), respectively. When the level of organizational citizenship behavior is quite high, the level of job performance is moderate. As for correlation values (Table 2), servant leadership behavior is positively associated with organizational justice (r=.658, p=0.01), organizational citizenship behavior (r=.445, p=0.01), and job performance (r=.247, p=0.01). Also, organizational justice shares a significant and positive correlation with organizational citizenship behavior (r=.485, p=0.01) and job performance (r=.231, p=0.01). Lastly, the correlation coefficient between organizational citizenship behavior and job performance is significant and positive (r=.426, p=0.01).

3.5. Tests of hypotheses: Structural equation model

Structural equation modeling with Lisrel 8.51 was used to test: 1) the goodness of total model fit; and 2) the statistical significance of paths linking variables within the model. First, given its sensitivity to large sample sizes, chi-square is found significant at 0.00. However, the overall model shows an appropriate model fit as exemplified in the following goodness-of-fit indices: CFI is greater than 0.95 and GFI, AGFI and NFI are all above 0.90. SRMR and RMSEA are well below 0.05. Second, all path coefficients for hypothesized relations are found significant, specified by the path model. The t-values calculated for all significant paths are recorded as 2.03, 4.12 and 11.25, as shown in Table 3. The amount of variance in organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, and job performance were in turn .13, .43 and .60.

Table 3.Structural equation model results

Sub-hypotheses	Estimate	t value	Result
H12a: Servant leadership behavior has a positive effect on organizational justice.	.78	11.25***	Supported
H1b: Organizational justice has a positive effect on organizational citizenship behavior.	.56	4.12***	Supported
H1c: Servant leadership behavior has not a positive effect on organizational citizensh behavior.	^{ip} .11	.92 (n.s.)	Supported
H2b: Organizational justice has a positive effect on job performance.	.28	2.03**	Supported
H2c: Servant leadership behavior has not a positive effect on job performance.	.09	.71 (n.s.)	Supported

Results: H1 and H2 are both supported by confirming sub-hypotheses above. The findings are in favour of not only the hypothesis H1 infers that organizational justices shows full mediation effect in the relation between servant leadership behavior and organizational citizenship behavior, but also the hypothesis H2 argues that organizational justices shows full mediation effect in the relation between servant leadership behavior and job performance.

Goodness of fit index

Chi-Square=118.21, df=60, P-value=0.00

Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.96

Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.94

Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.91

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.057

Standardized RMR = 0.067

Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.93

Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.96

A t-value larger than 1.282 corresponds to p<0.10, a t-value larger than 1.645 to p<0.05, and a t-value greater than 2.326 to p<0.01, and n.s.: non-significant.

The results (Table 3) indicate that the standardized path coefficient linking of servant leadership behavior to organizational justice is positive and significant (H1a: estimate=.78, t-value=11.25). The standardized path coefficient of organizational justice to organizational citizenship behavior is positive and significant (H1b: estimate=.56, t-value=4.12). However, the path between servant leadership behavior and organizational citizenship behavior is not significant (H1c: estimate=.11, n.s.), as expected. As a result, the three sub-hypotheses (H1a, H1b, H1c) are all supported by the data set in this study. Thus, the findings confirm the existence of full mediating effect of organizational justice in the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors.

According to information gathered from Table 3, the standardized path coefficient shows that the direct effect of organizational justice on job performance is significant and positive (H2b: estimate=.28, t-value=2.03). Consistent with expectations, the standardized path coefficient linking of servant leadership behavior to job performance is not

significant (H2c: estimate=.09,n.s.). Together with the confirmed hypothesis H2a as mentioned-above, H2b and H2c are also supported. Hence, the findings confirm the existence of full mediating effect of organizational justice in the relation between servant leadership and job performance.

4. Conclusion

The analyses held in this empirical study demonstrate the existence of a different relationship in which organizational justice mediates the relationship between not only servant leadership behavior and organizational citizenship behavior but also between servant leadership behavior and job performance. In this study, we have tried to explain the servant leadership behavior with relational, participative, altruism, and empowerment dimensions by following the approach of Oner (2008) in a Turkish cultural setting. The study also relied on the widely accepted three-dimension typology of organizational justice, which includes distributive, procedural, and interactional justice as conceptualized by Moorman (1991). While using organizational citizenship behavior in five dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue) as defined by Organ (1988), we gathered the two dimensions of performance (task and contextual) as overall job performance in our study.

In this study, servant leadership behavior is positively associated with organizational justice, and at the same time, organizational justice shares a significant and positive correlation with organizational citizenship behavior and job performance, as well. Specifically, consistent with the results, some scholars revealed that perceived leadership behaviors also had a significant influence on an employee's perception of justice (Ehrhart 2004; Oner 2008). Research results from previous studies throughout the last 30 years have confirmed the strong relationship between perceptions of justice and organizational citizenship behavior (Cohen-Charash, Spector 2001; Guangling 2011; Goudarzv - Chegini 2009; Moorman 1991; Nadiri 2010; Organ, Moorman 1993; Podsakoff et al. 2000). Some studies have shown that the processes of justice can play an important role in the organization (Yaghobi et al. 2010) and leads to the increase or decrease of organizational citizenship behavior (Abili et al. 2009).

Justice perceptions can improve organizational-relevant attitudes and behaviors such as performance (Cohen, Charash, Spector 2001; Colquitt et al. 2001). When employees feel that they are being treated unequally, they will restore equity by altering their behaviors, attitudes, or both, to be less productive or vice versa (Greenberg 1990; Moon et al. 2008). Within this sense, the conclusion was reached that perceptions of distributive justice were positively related to both task and contextual performance. We have also tried to prove the effect of perceived justice on job performance. As the results revealed, no significant effect was found when the mediator effect of perceived justice took place in the relationship between perceived servant leadership behaviors and job performance.

It has been proposed that the leader's service to the follower results in reciprocal service to the leader by the follower. As a result, servant leadership may be more conducive to organizational citizenship behaviors due to its focus on practical altruistic philosophy having a positive effect on follower development, community building, authentic leadership, and shared leadership (De Sousa, Van Dierendonck 2010; Greenleaf 1970). When we examined the relationship between servant leadership behavior and organizational citizenship behavior, we come across many positive research findings between them (Ehrhart 2004; Walumbwa, Hartnell, Oke 2010; Vondey 2010). As proven in our findings, having put perceived organizational justice in the mediator position, perceived servant leadership behaviors' effect on organizational citizenship behavior has disappeared. Consequently, the hypothesized relationships and the empirical findings in this study provide support to the theoretical notion and contribute noteworthy insights to the literature.

There are some limitations encountered in this study. First of all, the sample size and population should be enlarged in order to understand the relationships better. Therefore, it would be better to include more teachers and schools in different regions. It would also be appropriate to extend the sample by adding public school teachers. The generalization of the results is limited, since only a sample of private schools in the education sector was used in the study. In order to improve the generalizability of the results, future research should expand the sampling base of participants and the variety of sectors to business, health, and security. Lastly, only organizational citizenship behavior and performance were measured in terms of organizational justice. Hence, further research is required to develop variables of other organizational outcomes such as trust, commitment, silence, and identity; which are directly related to servant leadership.

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