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Article

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Job Satisfaction and Transformational Leadership as the Antecedents of OCB Role Definitions: The Moderating Role of Justice Perceptions

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Abstract

Despite the growing acceptance of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs), or the “good soldier syndrome”, as discretionary and therefore not enforceable individual behaviors, it is becoming increasingly clear that OCB role definitions must be taken into account. The current study examined the antecedents of OCB role definitions in a military work context. Integrating social exchange and role theories, we found that job satisfaction and transformational leadership are related to how broadly subordinates define their jobs and that procedural justice has a moderator role in the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB. Implications for practice and research are discussed.

Keywords: organizational citizenship behaviors, role definitions, job satisfaction, transformational leadership

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1. INTRODUCTION

In an age when organizational survival depends on gaining any competitive edge, employee behaviors that improve individual productivity and organizational efficiency have become even more valuable. As such, employees who exhibit behaviors that exceed their job descriptions for the sake of the organization are often valued as critical assets. The theoretical roots of these behaviors can be traced back to Barnard (1938), who proposed the concept of “willingness to co-operate” to refer to a willingness to commit oneself to an organization to reach organizational goals. This idea was further developed by Katz and Kahn (1966, 1978) to include a distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviors. This concept has been the subject of a significant amount of research since the 1980s. Although there are multiple labels and slight differences in conceptualization, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) have gained the most popularity and have been universally recognized as an essential part of the employee behavioral domain (i.e., Podsakoff, Morrison, Martinez, 2018).

Although a concrete construct definition of OCBs was not given and has changed over time, the common points in the first (Organ, 1988) and most recent (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006) definition of OCBs emphasize the “beyond the job description (*extra-role*)” and “*discretionary*” aspects. As these qualities possibly provided initial intuitive appeal to the theoretical frameworks that attempted to explain these behaviors (Kamdar, McAllister, & Turban, 2006), few researchers have questioned these basic assumptions or sought to find empirical support to test whether some employees perceive OCBs as part of their job (*in-role*) rather than beyond their job boundaries (*extra-role*) (i.e., Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler, & Purcell, 2004; Morrison, 1994; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). Furthermore, a review of recently published OCB-related articles reveals that only a handful of studies have considered this issue as the motivational basis of OCB. However, it is obvious that employees doing the same job may perceive their roles quite differently and assume broader or narrower job responsibilities (i.e., Hoffman, Morgerson & Gerras, 2003; Morrison, 1994; Sluss, Van Dick, & Thompson, 2011). This difference in perception affects the degree to which employees engage in these behaviors. This brings up one pivotal question: “why do some individuals define their roles more broadly?”

Despite the call for additional studies (i.e., Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Morrison, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 2018; Tepper & Taylor, 2003; Zellars et al., 2002), there is little research that has contributed to explaining the antecedents of OCB role definitions. For example, in their recent review of the literature, Podsakoff et al. (2018) pointed out that there are some noteworthy gaps related to antecedents of OCB role definitions in the related literature and presented a comprehensive model of the multilevel antecedents of OCB role definitions for future studies. They also noted a lack of systematic research on the role of more macro factors, such as national and organizational culture, in the stream of research.

As a response to these calls and drawing on insights from the social exchange and role theories, we developed a model to examine the antecedents of OCB role definitions by considering both national and organizational culture. As such, the question of how transformational leadership perceptions and job satisfaction relate to OCB role definitions was investigated by identifying the psychological processes of employees’ role definitions and the moderating role of procedural justice in a Turkish sample. While the prior research examined job satisfaction and procedural justice in various models, transformational leadership has not been examined as the antecedent of role definitions (Podsakoff et al., 2018). Furthermore, although there are many OCB studies in civilian organizations, little attention has been paid to OCBs and OCB role definition from a military perspective (Rose, Herd, & Palacio, 2017), which is astounding as OCBs were first conceptualized as the “*good soldier syndrome*” (Bateman & Organ, 1983). However, OCBs may be exceedingly important in a military environment where personnel are expected to put their lives on the line when necessary. Therefore, findings from this inherently different work context might provide support to the continuing debate on whether OCBs are in-role or extra-role.

Thus, the goal of this study is to expand the theoretical understanding of OCB role definitions in a Turkish military context. More specifically, we aim to respond to calls for research by identifying additional antecedents of OCB role definitions and examining the mechanisms of how employees see OCBs in a military context (i.e., Chiaburu & Byrne, 2009; Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Morrison, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 2018; Tepper & Taylor, 2003; Zellars et al., 2002).

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

OCB has been defined as “individual 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; p. 4). Due to this extra-role and discretionary nature in the definition,

the subsequent studies mostly treated OCB as constructive, self-initiated, spontaneous, or voluntary behavior aimed at enhancing the productivity of the workplace (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). However, research suggests that the characterization of OCBs as only extra-role may not be sensible. Indeed, the first study provoking a reconsideration of OCBs was Morrison's (1994) study, which introduced the construct of OCB role definitions, or the extent to which employees define OCBs as in-role or extra-role (Morrison, 1994).

Drawing from role theory, in-role behavior can be defined as the required or expected behaviors in accordance with formal job descriptions, while extra-role behaviors are the actions above and beyond formal role requirements (Katz & Kahn, 1966, 1978). The combination of in-role and extra-role behaviors forms the entire performance domain of an employee (Podsakoff et al., 2018; Wang, 2009).

Morrison (1994) suggested that it is important to examine how employees define their responsibilities to truly understand the motivational basis of OCBs. This has been supported through subsequent studies that indicate that employees do not always view OCBs as extra-role (i.e., Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Kamdar et al., 2006; Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Tepper & Taylor, 2003; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994; Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995; Vey & Campbell, 2004; Zellars et al., 2002). Such findings unanimously point out that we may gain a better understanding of the OCB construct by researching factors that may be related to OCB role definitions. The same studies have also indicated that employees engage in more or fewer OCBs depending on whether they define OCBs as in-role or extra-role. Morrison (1994) argued that in-role behavior is more likely to be associated with rewards and sanctions, thus the motivation for in-role behavior is greater than the motivation for extra-role behavior. From this reasoning, it could be possible that individuals may not engage in OCBs voluntarily but may feel obligated to do so when they are defined as part of their job duties.

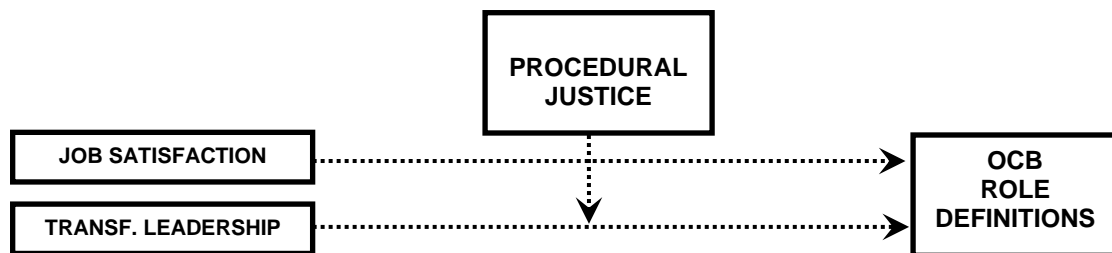
This differentiation is important in understanding the OCB construct in military contexts as well. Whereas these behaviors might be seen as discretionary in civilian organizations, military cultures mostly treat these behaviors as expected (Rose et al., 2017). Although there are similarities, compared to the civilian business sector, the military is more physically and psychologically demanding. Military units, specifically combat units, often operate under conditions of high uncertainty, challenge, and stress and the in-role contributions of individuals may not be enough for unit success under such conditions (i.e., Deluga, 1995; Kayaalp, 2016). Armies are unique organizations of their own, with their norms, values, beliefs, history, and sociology, which military culture is built on. (Hill, 2015). In such a culture, individuals are "indoctrinated at a young age" and "military culture permeates almost every aspect of their lives" (Meyer, 2015, p.416). Furthermore, armies are in general inherently collectivistic and have high power distance. Therefore, although citizenship behaviors might be typically seen as extra-role in a civilian work context, it could be expected that these same behaviors could be explicitly conceptualized as "required" in a soldier's job duties (Rose et al., 2017).

As the division between extra-role and in-role performance is, at best, vague, it is imperative to identify the reasons why employees categorize their jobs differently. Although several researchers (i.e., Morrison, 1994; Chiaburu & Byrne, 2009) have proposed the examination of the predictors of the OCB role definition rather than OCBs, a few studies have examined such antecedents. For example, prior research found significant associations of the OCB role definition with mutual commitment (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004), trust, commitment, and job satisfaction (Chiaburu & Bryne, 2009; Morrison, 1994), organizational justice perceptions (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Tepper & Taylor, 2003), and leader-member exchange (Hoffman, Morgerson, & Gerras, 2003). Overall, whereas this stream of research has defined a number of antecedents of OCB role definitions, additional evidence is required to examine some new variables of interest for organizations.

In line with prior studies, we used social exchange theory (Adams, 1965; Blau, 1964) and role theory (Katz & Kahn, 1966, 1978) as the theoretical frameworks for our study. Briefly, social exchange theory and its central tenet, the norm of reciprocity, posit that (1) a positive work environment is formed by an organization and/or its leaders and (2) that beneficial actions towards individuals create an impetus (i.e., a social force) on employees and in turn employees reciprocate in positive ways through their attitudes and/or behaviors (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004). From this perspective, "OCB role definitions emerge as individually held beliefs about personal obligations within social exchange relations" (Kamdar et al., 2006; p. 841). Therefore, as OCB role definitions are discretionary acts like extra-role citizenship behaviors, it could be expected that this sense of obligation towards positive treatment might be reflected in broader role definitions. Indeed, research indicates that positive exchanges between an employee and their organization are likely to prompt a sense of obligation towards the organization and lead to broader role definitions and citizenship behaviors (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004).

Beyond social exchange theory, role theory defines role expectations through organizational context and the personal attributes of the role occupants (Katz & Kahn, 1966). Roles are conceived as the shared, normative expectations that prescribe and explain the pattern of behaviors in various social contexts (Biddle, 1986). In organizational settings, various factors at the organizational, group, and individual levels affect role perceptions. Roles in the workplace, therefore, are not defined solely by formal job descriptions or personal beliefs but rather by an interaction between the individual and social context (Van Dyne et al., 1995). From this point of view, we examined job satisfaction, transformational leadership, and procedural justice perceptions as salient factors that could affect how employees define their roles (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Model depicting the antecedents of OCB Role Definitions with the moderation effect



One of the most researched work attitudes in organizational settings is job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is described as a “pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). Job satisfaction is often considered as a key factor in individual and organizational effectiveness (Spector, 1997). Prior research indicates that job satisfaction is strongly related to extra-role behaviors (i.e., LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Koster, 2014; Organ, 1988; Smith, Bateman, & Organ 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991). However, to the best of our knowledge, job satisfaction has received limited attention in OCB role definition studies (Podsakoff et al., 2018). Notable exceptions are Morrison’s (1994) and Chiaburu and Byrne’s (2009) studies. Morrison (1994) found that job satisfaction was positively related to OCB role definitions of conscientiousness and keeping up, but not the altruism and involvement dimensions, whereas Chiaburu and Byrne (2009) found that job satisfaction moderated the relationship between trust and role definitions. Thus, while the previous studies support the notion that job satisfaction is related to the general OCB construct as a form of reciprocity, supporting evidence is not particularly clear for its relationship with OCB role definitions (Chiaburu, & Byrne, 2009).

Given this scarce and inconsistent line of research, it is important to test if such a relationship can be found in a military context. In line with the previous research suggesting that positive job attitudes create a sense of obligation on the part of the employee (Chiaburu & Byrne, 2009; Organ, 1988), we argue that job satisfaction is an important factor that might be related to employees’ OCB role definitions through the norm of reciprocity such that obligation towards satisfaction is reflected in broader role definitions. Thus, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1: Job satisfaction is positively related to OCB role definitions such that more satisfied employees are more likely to consider OCBs as part of their job roles (more in-role).

The role of leadership, indeed, has also been scarcely examined in the OCB role definition literature. One notable exception is Hoffman and colleagues’ study (2003), which examined the quality of exchanges with direct supervisors and found that the relationship between leader-member exchange and subordinate safety citizenship role definitions was moderated by safety climate. To the best of our knowledge, transformational leadership has not been examined in OCB role definition research. However, supervisor-subordinate relations are of particular importance in organizations as supervisors’ central role is as figures that enact organizational policies and procedures (Kamdar et al., 2006). Developed by Bass (1985), based on the seminal work of Burns (1978), transformational leadership has been one of the most popular leadership theories over the last three decades. Indeed, transformational leadership behaviors have been shown to be positively related to important outcomes in military contexts (i.e., Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). Certain types of behaviors performed by transformational leaders include motivating followers to commit themselves to organizational objectives (Bass, 1985). As such, these leadership behaviors may be related to subordinate beliefs pertaining to job-role limits. Inspired by a transformational leader, military personnel may develop a sense of pride and purpose in their organization, which breeds loyalty

and engagement towards their organization, which might be reflected in broader role definitions. Thus, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2: Transformational leadership is positively related to OCB role definitions such that employees with more positive perceptions are more likely to consider OCBs as part of their job roles (more in-role).

Despite numerous calls, few studies have examined the role of contextual factors in the OCB role definition literature (Podsakoff et al., 2018). Among these, a few researchers have found intervening and moderating effects of some variables such as organizational commitment (Chiaburu & Bryne, 2009), work locus of control (Blakely et al., 2005), and uncertainty avoidance (García-Cabrera & García-Soto, 2011). However, empirical evidence suggests that procedural justice might also have significant main and interactive effects on employees' work-related attitudes and behaviors (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). In two notable studies, Tepper and Taylor (2003) found that the relationship between supervisors' procedural justice perceptions and mentoring behavior was stronger for supervisors who defined mentoring behavior as extra-role. Similarly, Coyle-Shapiro et al. (2004) showed that employees' perception of mutual commitment mediates the effects of procedural justice on OCB role definition. To the best of our knowledge, the procedural justice perception has not been examined as a boundary condition in OCB role definition studies.

Procedural justice, defined as the extent to which decision making and reward distribution processes are seen as fair (Lind & Tyler, 1988), seems to be an important and theoretically relevant contextual boundary condition of the relationship between our variables and OCB role definitions. Our reasoning falls in line with the framework of social exchange theory, where experiencing procedural fairness communicates the idea that employees are valued and cared for (i.e., Kamdar et al., 2006; Tyler & Blader, 2003). This reasoning leads to the formulation of two propositions. First, individuals with high job satisfaction and high transformational leadership perceptions are more likely to expand their role definitions when they also have more favorable procedural justice perceptions. Such an interaction of positive exchanges between an employee and their organization and/or leader is likely to prompt a sense of obligation towards the organization and lead to broader role definitions. Second, with the same reasoning, these linkages will be weaker for employees with less favorable procedural justice perceptions. We thus include procedural justice perceptions as a potential boundary condition in our model as both justice variability effects (i.e., more and less favorable) are theoretically plausible. Hence, procedural justice may be viewed as a moderator of the linkages in our model such that the relationships are stronger when subordinates have more favorable procedural justice perceptions. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 3: The positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB role definition will be strengthened by the procedural justice perceptions, such that this relationship will be stronger when subordinates have more favorable procedural justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 4: The positive relationship between transformational leadership and OCB role definition will be strengthened by the procedural justice perceptions, such that this relationship will be stronger when subordinates have more favorable procedural justice perceptions.

3. METHOD

3.1 Design and Participants

Data were collected as part of a larger project which assessed military personnel work behaviors of interest. Study procedures were approved by the institutional review board at the Army Personnel Directorate. A stratified random sampling technique was used to cover 390 Turkish Army officers holding command and administrative positions in various units and headquarters scattered in different parts of Turkey. The participants were approximately representative of the population of interest (Army officers) in terms of rank (ranging from lieutenant to colonel), branches, and location. Participation was voluntary and the surveys were anonymous. After the completion of the survey, observed eligibility rates were applied to the surveys for the sampling strata defined by the intersection of rank, age, region, and gender. After this analysis and elimination due to extensive missing data, the final sample consisted of 263 officers (retention rate of 82.2%), of which 90.9% were male, the average age was 31 years ($SD = 6.59$), and the average tenure was 10 years ($SD = 6.57$).

3.2 Measures

We used published measures to collect data for the study. Turkish language versions of all the measures were used after translation and back-translation procedures were carried out (Birslin, 1980). Some items were adapted for use in the military context.

OCB Role Definitions. In line with previous research (Morrison, 1994; Zellars et al., 2002), a 14-item scale was used (Williams & Anderson, 1991) which consists of two subscales: OCBO (e.g., “I help others who have been absent”; $\alpha = .78$) and OCBI (e.g., “I do not take undeserved work breaks”; $\alpha = .86$). OCBOs benefit the organization and OCBI benefit specific individuals while indirectly contributing to the organization. Following the footsteps of previous studies (i.e., Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Morrison, 1994; Zellars et al., 2002), we defined the anchors as follows; “Behaviors that are part of your job” (in-role, coded as 0) and “behaviors that exceed your job requirements” (extra-role, coded as 1). Morrison (1994) reported that individuals were able to provide more valid responses when presented with a dichotomous response format rather than a continuous scale. This makes sense from a theoretical perspective as well, as the OCB role definition construct, unlike the actual OCB itself, focuses on whether the employees see the tasks as part of their job, not whether they perform these activities or not (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Morrison, 1994; Zellars et al., 2002).

An average score was taken to create a general OCB role definition. As the in-role orientation was coded as 0, and the extra-role was coded as 1, higher scores indicate the activity is an extra-role behavior (close to 1) while lower scores indicate the activity is an in-role behavior (close to 0) ($\alpha = .78$). Several concerns were taken into consideration in using an aggregate score. First, as noted, the same approach has been adopted in previous studies (i.e. Clark, Zickar, & Sex, 2014; Morrison, 1994; Zellars et al., 2002; Vey & Campbell, 2004). Secondly, the reliability scores of OCBI and OCBO were lower than the overall OCB score (.67, .62, .78 respectively). Thus, an average score was computed to create a general OCB role definition.

Transformational Leadership. Twenty items from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ–Form 5X)¹ relevant to the transformational-leadership subscale were used (Avolio & Bass, 1995). The MLQ measures the four components of transformational leadership behavior, i.e. Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration. However, due to the high levels of intercorrelations between the four dimensions of transformational leadership, studies have resorted to using composite scores rather than the dimensions (Yukl, 2006). Respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of their direct supervisor’s behavior ranging from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*frequently, if not always*). Sample items include “provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts”, “talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished” and, “acts in ways that build my respect”. Responses were aggregated to create a composite transformational leadership perception score ($\alpha = .85$).

Job Satisfaction. A 36-item, Likert-type scale was used (Spector, 1997). Respondents were asked to indicate their degree of satisfaction ranging from 0 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*) with regard to various facets of their job (i.e., pay, promotion). An aggregated job satisfaction score was computed from all the items ($\alpha = .93$). Sample items include “In general, I like working here” and “I like doing the things I do at work”.

Procedural Justice. The 15-item, Likert-type Procedural Justice Scale (Moorman, 1991) was used. Respondents were asked to indicate their degree of procedural justice experienced ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). This scale assesses both the degree to which the organization has developed formal procedures designed to increase the fairness of work decisions (6-item) and the degree to which the leaders behave fairly towards employees while enacting those procedures (9-item). Sample items include “All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees” and “Concerning decisions made about my job, my direct supervisor discusses the implications of the decisions with me”. A total procedural justice score was computed from all the items ($\alpha = .96$).

3.3 Analysis

Pearson’s product-moment correlations (r) were applied to test Hypotheses 1 and 2, whereas Hypotheses 3 and 4 were subjected to multiple regression analysis with Process Macro (Hayes, 2013). Based on a review of the literature, several variables were used as control variables. Tenure, age, and gender are commonly specified control variables in OCB role definition research (i.e., Hofmann et al., 2003; Wang, 2009). As age and tenure have been found to be highly correlated in our sample ($r = .99$, $p < .01$), only tenure and gender were controlled.

1 The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), Form 5X-Short (copyright 1995 by Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio), was used with the permission of Mind Garden, 1690 Woodside Road, Suite 202, Redwood City, CA 94061. All rights reserved.

4. RESULTS

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics, correlations, and Alpha reliability estimates for the study variables. The results provide initial support for Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2, with significant correlations between job satisfaction and OCB role definitions ($r = -.31, p < .01$), and between transformational leadership and OCB role definitions ($r = -.30, p < .01$). The negative signs suggest that employees with higher job satisfaction and higher transformational leadership perceptions define their jobs more broadly (more in-role).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations

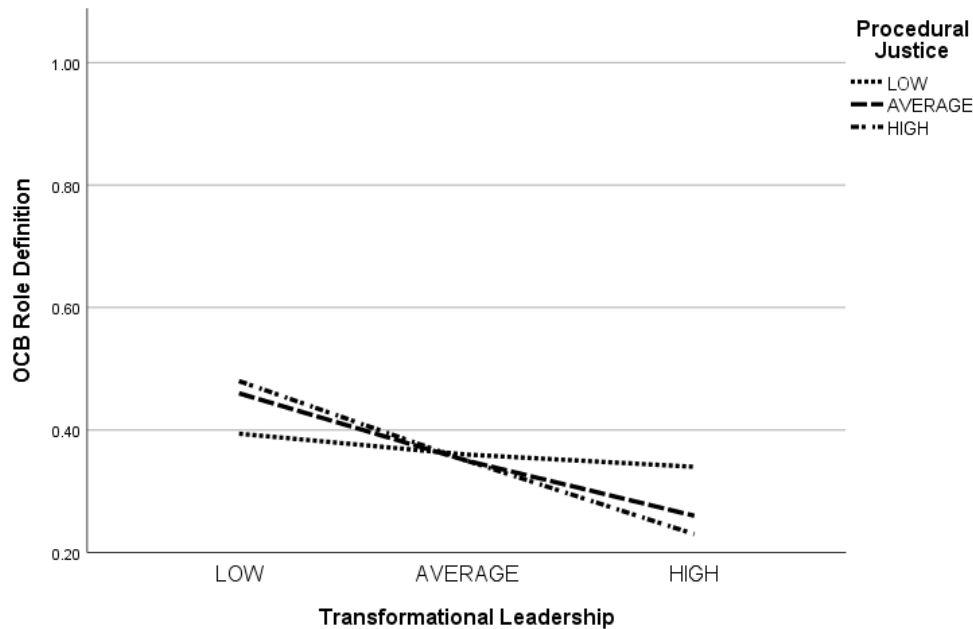
Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Tenure	10.04	6.57	(--)					
2. Gender (0 female, 1 male)	.91	.289	.09	(--)				
3. Trans. Leadership	2.61	.83	.14*	-.07	(.85)			
4. Procedural Justice	3.54	1.30	.13*	-.01	.49**	(.96)		
5. Job Satisfaction	3.39	1.05	.21**	-.05	.52**	.47**	(.93)	
6. OCB Role Definitions	.34	.24	-.17**	-.01	-.30**	-.15*	-.31**	(.78)

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, $n = 263$. Bold values in parentheses represent Cronbach's Alpha scores. $N = 263$. Higher OCB role definition score indicates the activity is an extra-role behavior while lower scores indicate the activity is an in-role behavior (0=in-role, 1=extra-role).

Supplementary analyses were conducted using multiple regression to see if tenure, transformational leadership, and job satisfaction relate to OCB role definitions. Using the enter method it was found that the model explains a moderate amount of variance in OCB role definitions ($F(3, 259) = 13.626, p < .01, R^2 = .14$). In support of Hypothesis 1 and 2, both job satisfaction ($\beta = -.185, t = -2.705, p < .01$) and transformational leadership perceptions ($\beta = -.196, t = -2.895, p < .01$) were positively associated with OCB role definitions. These results confirm that employees are more likely to define their jobs broadly when they are satisfied with their job and motivated and inspired by a transformational leader.

Hypothesis 3 and 4 were tested using model 1 of the Process Macro (Hayes, 2013). Hypothesis 3, which posited that subordinates' procedural justice perceptions would moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB role definitions, was not supported. Although the overall model was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .11, F(4, 258) = 7.8601, p < .001$), the interaction was not ($F(1, 258) = .0723, p = .7883$). However, Hypothesis 4, which posited that subordinates' procedural justice perceptions moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB role definitions, was supported. Specifically, the overall model was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .14, F(4, 258) = 10.098, p < .001$), as was the interaction ($\Delta R^2 = .02, F(1, 258) = 6.9485, p < .05, \beta = -.0382$). This interaction effect size ($\Delta R^2 = .0233$) is in the typical range (.01–.03) found in non-experimental studies (Champoux & Peters, 1987; Chaplin, 1991; Chiaburu & Byrne, 2009). The interaction was in the predicted direction (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Interaction of transformational leadership and perceived procedural justice on OCB Role Definitions



5. DISCUSSION

The goal of the present study was to investigate the potential antecedents of OCB role definitions in a military context. Our results provide new insight into the role of job satisfaction and transformational leadership as the antecedents of the OCB role definition. The most interesting finding of this study was that the majority of the behaviors in the OCB scale are considered in-role (required) by military personnel. Furthermore, the findings indicate that an employee who is motivated and inspired by a transformational leader will likely see their job broadly; more so, when that individual also perceives that they have been treated fairly. That is, transformational leadership perception interacts with procedural justice perception and might be a key factor influencing employees' role definition. Our study is particularly relevant in light of recent calls for examining antecedents of OCB role-definitions (i.e., Hofmann et al., 2003; Kamdar et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2018; Tepper et al., 2001; Wang, 2009).

5.1 Theoretical Implications

Role theory (Katz & Kahn, 1966, 1978) posits that individuals enact their roles in different ways and that these roles can be broadened. In line with this and Morrison's (1994) findings, our study indicates that employees with favorable attitudes define OCBs as in-role behaviors. The findings also indicate that, in line with the social exchange and role theories, individuals develop a sense of obligation towards their supervisors and organization in exchange for benefits from their organization and/or supervisors, which is subsequently reflected in broader role definitions (Wang, 2009; Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003). In other words, favorable attitudes/perceptions such as job satisfaction, positive leadership, and justice perceptions are positively related to how subordinates define their jobs. Like the OCB construct, OCB role categorization is also a discretionary act as employees have control over how they define their jobs. Therefore, attitudes/perceptions are likely to influence employees' role definition as they influence extra-role OCB. It appears that, through social exchange theory, subordinates first reciprocate cognitively by broadening or narrowing their role definitions as a result of their attitudes and perceptions, then reciprocate behaviorally by engaging or withholding OCBs (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Kamdar et al., 2006). The results indicate that when encouraged by a transformational leader, military personnel may develop a sense of pride and purpose in their organization, which breeds loyalty

and engagement towards their organization, leading to broader role definitions. Thus, from a social exchange standpoint, broadening one's role might be seen as a currency of exchange to repay their organizations (Jiao, Richards, Hackett, 2013).

In the quest for an explanation of broader in-role categorization, plausible contextual explanations could be that, in a general sense, military service expects or demands a high level of devotion and dedication from the personnel, which is more rare in civilian organizations (Bowen, 1989). Perhaps, this is the main reason why the military is unique in that employment is more than just a job choice. Furthermore, based on the value system, performance evaluation of military personnel usually involves aspects such as selfless service and loyalty, which most civilian organizations refer to as discretionary (Rose et al., 2017). Hence, it is quite expected that many behaviors that could be seen as extra-role in a civilian organization may be perceived as a required part of the job in a military context. For example, one of the OCB scale items "I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order" cannot be optional but rather should be an internalized behavior for military personnel.

These results are in line with the notion that employees in high collectivism and high-power distance cultures will have expanded role perceptions (Blakely, Srivastava, & Moorman, 2005; Jiao et al., 2013). Universally, military organizations have been characterized by a high degree of order and discipline, a hierarchical structure, and a pattern of unique interaction among its members (Gerras, Wong, & Allen, 2008). These features create a culture that is more collectivistic with a high-power distance when compared to civilian organizations (Soeters, 1997). Therefore, it is to be expected that these kinds of behaviors could be explicitly conceptualized as required and expected in a soldier's job duties.

From a cultural perspective, the features of Turkish culture may be related to the OCB role definitions of Turkish employees as it is also described by high power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and collectivism (Hofstede, 1984). National cultures permeate military life. Turkish employees show respect to those in positions of authority and attach importance to harmony and interpersonal helping in the work environment. Supervisors, as well, may take a somewhat paternalistic attitude toward their employees (Ersoy, Born, Derous, & Molen, 2011). In such a societal and military culture, which fosters moral involvement and loyalty (Kayaalp, 2018), it is quite reasonable to expect that citizenship behaviors will be more readily perceived as a required part of the job.

5.2 Practical Implications

Our study findings have practical implications as well. Although we did not test the actual citizenship behaviors in our study, prior studies indicate that individuals who define OCBs as part of their jobs are more likely to display these behaviors (Blakely, et al., 2005; Kamdar et al., 2006; Morrison, 1994; Wang, 2009). Therefore, given the importance of these behaviors for organizational efficiency, organizations need to effectively manage the well-being and procedural justice environment as well as how leaders interact with subordinates at the interpersonal level (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004) to enhance the overall extent to which individuals will exhibit OCBs. Furthermore, in organizational contexts, there might be situations in which the in-role contributions of employees are not enough, and employees are to define their jobs broadly (Morrison, 1994). In such contexts, it might be valuable for leaders to develop social exchange relationships with their subordinates and understand the social and psychological factors that influence their subordinates' perceptions of their job responsibilities. This means that organizations should encourage the existence and development of transformational leaders. To that end, organizations might design training programs, such as mentoring and coaching, for the managers to improve their skills in transformational leadership. The research indicates that leadership training does result in more effective leadership behaviors in organizational settings (i.e., Burke & Day, 1986; McCauley, Moxley, & Van Velsor, 1998).

6. CONCLUSION

To conclude, responding to researchers' calls for further investigation, we explored possible reasons why military personnel might define OCBs as in-role or extra-role by examining how variables such as job satisfaction, transformational leadership, and procedural justice perceptions might be related to OCB role definitions, and contributed to the growing literature on OCB role definitions (i.e., Chiaburu & Byrne, 2009; Clark, Zickar, & Jex, 2014).

Our results provide new insights into the role of attitudes and perceptions as antecedents of OCB role definitions. The most interesting finding of this study was that the majority of the behaviors in the OCB scale are considered in-role (required and part of their job) by the military personnel. This suggests that traditional OCB measures might not be measuring only extra-role behaviors but also in-role behaviors for some individuals.

6.1 Limitations and Future Research

The findings of this study need to be considered in light of its limitations. By underlining these limitations, we at the same time suggest directions for future research. First, our research is cross-sectional in nature, which could result in common method variance. Likewise, reverse causality cannot be ruled out. Therefore, we lack the ability to make causal inferences. Further longitudinal studies are needed to examine whether broadening or narrowing the role definition is a cause or consequence of job satisfaction and/or transformational leadership perceptions. It may be argued that engaging in discretionary acts (e.g., broader role definitions) increases well-being and satisfaction. Therefore, research designs involving measures at multiple times will help determine whether the OCB role definition is a cause or consequence of various factors. To minimize this risk, the questionnaires were pre-tested to ensure respondents' understanding of the survey questions. What is more, as the difference in formats reduces the likelihood of common method bias (Morrison, 1994), we assessed our variables on different-point Likert scales. As a second limitation of our study, self-reported data were used, which raises concerns about the possibility of single-source bias. However, due to the psychological nature of the variables examined, self-reported data were considered an essential source of information. Third, this study was conducted in a single and specific organization (the Turkish army). As such, additional research with other samples/organizations/cultures is required to generalize the conclusions of this study. Furthermore, due to procedural and institutional restrictions, we did not measure other variables that might impact on OCB role definitions. As role expectations are specified by both the organizational environment and the personal characteristics of role occupants (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Jiao et al., 2013), incorporating factors such as positive and negative affect, role conflict, job autonomy, job stress and personality into future studies would be an interesting avenue for research. Fourth, because of the considerations cited in the method section, a general OCB role definition score was used in the analyses instead of OCB subscales. However, there is a possibility that the role of independent variables could be different on subscales (i.e., OCBI, OCBO) of the scale. Thus, future research could measure and analyze those OCB subscales. Lastly, due to institutional restrictions with regard to the scope of the study, we were able to examine only the justice perceptions as a possible contextual factor. Future studies could take into account other contextual variables such as organizational climate, perceived stress and role clarity.

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