

THE RELATION BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AND
FASHION RETAIL BUSINESSES' SUSTAINABILITY PERFORMANCE:
INVESTIGATING INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL ANTECEDENTS

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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 contains the following sections: (a) background of the study, (b) purpose of the study, (c) significance of the study, (d) definition of key terms, (e) guiding paradigms and research assumptions, and (f) organization of the study.

Background of the Study

The U.S. Fashion Industry and Retail

The fashion industry is known to be a glamorous yet immensely powerful and potentially lucrative industry, where the glitz of fashion is “only the thin veneer” on a business consisting of a vast number of global retailing organizations (Jeacle & Carter, 2012, p. 720). In terms of trade, employment, investment, and revenue throughout the world, the fashion industry is of great economic importance. According to a report of the United States Congress Joint Economic Committee (2015), the fashion industry accounts for US\$1.2 trillion of global economic activity, and the United States alone spends more than US\$250 billion annually on fashion-related products and services.

As a highly sophisticated commercial enterprise, the fashion industry includes the design, manufacturing, distribution, marketing, retailing, advertising and promotion of all types of apparel and accessories from the most expensive haute couture and designer fashions to ordinary, everyday clothing—from couture ball gowns to sweatpants from the Juicy Couture brand (Joint Economic Committee United States Congress, 2015). In the U.S. apparel sector, offshore sourcing and manufacturing have dominated. Meanwhile, U.S. apparel employers have focused on value-added business activities, such as research and development, design, sourcing, retailing, and marketing (Dyer & Ha-Brookshire,

2008). This trend has created the intricate and complex global supply chain of the fashion industry (Ha-Brookshire & Hawley, 2014).

As a nation, the U.S. fashion industry employs 1.9 million people in diverse capacities—including fashion designers, merchants, computer programmers, lawyers, accountants, copywriters, social media directors, and project managers (Joint Economic Committee United States Congress, 2015). The New York City Economic Development Corporation reported that the fashion industry employs more than 180,000 people in New York, NY alone, approximately half of them working in fashion retail (NYCEDC, 2015).

U.S. Fashion Retail

The fashion retail industry engages in retail merchandising, including fashion clothing, accessories, and shoes, ultimately to target consumers. According to Bureau of Labor Statistics (2016), the retail industry “comprises establishments engaged in retailing merchandise, generally without transformation, and rendering services incidental to the sale of merchandise.” In the US, retail is the largest employer, with nearly 15.7 million employees (Plunkett Resarch, 2016), and one million retail stores (Franchisehelp.com, 2016). Apparel and accessories retail stores account for 1.4 million workers, and are the third largest employer after general merchandises stores and vehicle and parts dealers (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). Employment in retail is projected to grow 7% between 2014 and 2024 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016).

Yet, retail sales tend to resemble that of the economy at large as they are highly influenced by personal income, consumer confidence and interest rates (Franchisehelp.com, 2016). Based on Plunkett Research (2016), U.S. retail sales in the US recorded an estimated US\$5.32 trillion in 2015, an increase of approximately 2%

from 2014. Within retail, fashion is considered a large sector, generating approximately US\$251 billion in 2014, and is expected to grow to US\$285 billion by 2025 (Statista.com, 2016). More specifically, women's apparel sales comprise the most profitable area in the retail sale category, accounting for approximately 53% of the total revenue, followed by men's clothing (approximately 20%), and clothing for children and infants (approximately 10%) (Statista.com, 2016). Other sources of revenue include accessories such as hats, caps, costume jewelry, gloves, handbags, ties, wigs, and belts. More importantly, the 50 largest companies contribute two-thirds of industry revenue (Hoover's, Inc., 2016).

Compared to other consumer goods, fashion goods are, for the most part, discretionary purchases, which makes the industry more prone to economic upset. For example, between 2007 and 2008, during the U.S. economic downturn, many retail businesses, such as Foot Locker, Ann Taylor, Zale's, Wilson's Leather, and Pacific Sunwear, had to close or reduce their budgets significantly (Barbaro, 2008). Furthermore, fashion retail has always been a demanding, highly competitive business due to price pressure from major discounters like Walmart, Target and Kohl's, which keep profit margins thin at stores that sell moderately priced apparel (Franchisehelp.com, 2016).

Working Environments and Employees in the U.S. Fashion Retail Industry

Retail is a rapidly growing industry, supporting one in four American jobs. Over 600,000 jobs were added in the United States in the three years between 2011 and 2014 (Davis, 2014). Moreover, retailers are the core of every local community, because small business and entrepreneurs employ and serve their neighbors. According to the National Retail Federation (2016), approximately 98.6% of all retail businesses employ fewer than

50 people. The average number of employees per establishment in apparel stores was estimated at 13 employees during the period between 2001 and 2010 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012).

There are 286,225 fashion retail establishments in the United States, and employment data record 1,614,200 jobs in U.S. fashion retail (National Retail Federation, 2016). As for “retail” careers, these do not necessarily involve sales positions, as 44% of retail employees were reported as holding other positions, such as finance, planning, merchandising, digital marketing and technology (Davis, 2014). Retail requires a wide range of talent, from marketing and communications professionals to accountants and finance managers, to information technology and applications developers. In addition, retail is a very important sector, as it supports nearly 5 million logistics jobs, 4 million management and administration jobs, 2 million health care and service jobs, 2 million finance, insurance and real estate jobs, and 800,000 technology jobs (National Retail Federation, 2016). Furthermore, more than half of the adult population either reported current employment in the retail industry, or former employment in the industry at some time in their lives (Statista.com, 2016).

Retail jobs, such as retail salespersons, cashiers, stock clerks, order fillers, and supervisors of retail sales workers, accounted for 10 million employment positions in the retail trade industry (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). These retail employment positions require working in retail stores, standing for long periods of time, and being assigned varied working hours, even during holidays and weekends. Thus, retail employment is characterized by a high degree of casual, part-time, and seasonal employment (Statista.com, 2016). However, 70% of retail employees are full-time, and

most part-time employees (68%) choose to work less than a full-time schedule (NRF Foundation, 2014). More interestingly, nearly half of part-time retail employees are under the age of 25, while 20% of part-time retail employees are age 55 or older (NRF Foundation, 2014).

Although the U.S. recession has been over for a number of years, the turnover rate in the retail industry and retail trade increased to 3.0 in 2015 from 2.7 in 2014 (U.S. Department of Commerce). More specifically, voluntary turnover has increased with a 73.7% turnover rate in 2013, which is 15.9% above the national average (Human Capital Editor, 2014). This trend toward accelerated turnover is expected to continue (Reynolds, 2014). The average fashion retail sales employee in the US makes an annual income of less than US\$30,000 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). However, the cost of replacing an employee making less than US\$30,000 per annum is about 16% of that person's annual wage (Bhasin & Stock, 2015). To prevent high turnover among retail employees, some retailers, such as Gap, TJ Maxx, Marshall, and Uniqlo, have raised their wages (Bhasin & Stock, 2015). In short, the fashion retail industry's working environment and high rate of employee turnover may cause negative organizational performance, affecting its short-term and long-term success (Park & Shaw, 2013).

Problems Related to Sustainability in the Fashion Retail Industry

Because of its high rate of turnover and competitive market environments, the fashion retail industry has been criticized for its negative social and environmental impact. To combat these issues, many of today's fashion retail businesses voluntarily and involuntarily integrate social and environmental practices and policies into their business models (Eccles, Ioannou, & Serafeim, 2014). Sustainability has been defined as

“development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” by the 1987 Brundtland Report from the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, 1987). Engagement in sustainable development activities is increasing as a source of competitive advantage for many fashion businesses (Harrison & Berman, 2015). To transform the fashion retail industry, many well-known global fashion brands have recently initiated new sustainability practices, such as Fashion Positive, aimed at improving material health, material reuse, renewable energy, water stewardship, and social fairness (Adamczyk, 2015).

However, these sustainability have primarily focused on products or services, consumption behavior, and production processes, while the role of employees in the fashion retail industry has received limited attention in past sustainability literature (Gond et al., 2010). The lack of understanding of the retail employees’ role in fashion business sustainability poses huge challenges in pursuing overall goals of sustainability, given the unique employment environment with a high turnover rate among retail employees. After all, the task of planning and executing companies’ sustainability initiatives actually implicates these employees.

In fact, the organizational management literature suggests managing employees should be a focal point for any organization’s success (Powell, 1995). That is, employee behavior and attitude can be critical to a company’s business objectives and execution, including sustainability objectives. According to Guest (2002), employees offer a distinctive and inimitable competitive advantage to a business by means of their effective development and talent deployment. Employees need a quality culture in their workplace,

and they play a pivotal role in ensuring quality performance within the organization. (Mehra, Hoffman, & Sirias, 2001). Likewise, Mehra and Ranganathan (2011) strongly recommended “requiring employees at every level of an organization to focus their efforts to help improve each business activity” in order to improve the effectiveness and flexibility of the business as a whole (pp. 855–856). Indeed, employees with organizational citizenship behavior support their organization and its goals, even when such support is not explicitly demanded (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

Social Exchange Theory and Organizational Performance

By investigating employees’ positive attitudes and strong attachment to an organization, it has been established that organizational citizenship behavior is a key motivator for employees to fulfill their formal duties and to engage in active behavioral participation in a social group (Khalid et al., 2009). Organ (1988) defines organizational citizenship behavior 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” (p. 4). Organizational citizenship behavior can (a) enhance coworkers’ and managers’ productivity, (b) reduce the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions, (c) coordinate activities both within and across work groups, (d) strengthen the organization’s ability to attract and retain the best employees, (e) increase the stability of the organization’s performance, and (f) enable the organization to adapt more effectively to environmental changes (Khalid et al., 2009; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991/1993; Organ, 1990/1994).

According to Adams' (1966) social exchange theory, if employees are more satisfied with their jobs, they may be more active and motivated to help others through

their organizational citizenship behaviors. To understand the influence of organizational citizenship behavior at an individual level, a great deal of research has investigated employees' job satisfaction and recognized it as an important antecedent of organizational citizenship behavior (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Leung, 2008; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Organ, 1990a; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Likewise, job satisfaction is a central issue for organizational behavior researchers, because a person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive feelings about his or her job, which links to better performance and decreased turnover intention.

Along with job satisfaction, a work culture that supports and encourages ethical behavior is identified as another key antecedent of employees' organizational citizenship behavior (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2014). The collective effect of organizational members' ethical perceptions generates shared ethical work norms within a work environment, in turn stimulating individuals' attitudes toward their jobs and the organization and influencing ethical decision-making processes within the organization (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Cullen, Parboteeah, & Victor, 2003). Many organizations recognize the value of ethical practices in enhancing organizational image and reputation, and subsequently the potential to positively influence organizational citizenship behavior and competitive advantages over the long term (Cullen et al., 2003; Manroop, 2014; Martin & Cullen, 2006; Parboteeah et al., 2010; Schminke, Ambrose, & Neubaum, 2005; Shin, 2012).

Human Capital Theory and Sustainability Performance

Social capital theory advances the idea that turnover can exhaust social capital, which is "a resource reflecting the character of social relations within the organization, realized through members' levels of collective goal orientation and shared trust" (Leana

& Van Buren, 1999, p. 540). This could imply that increases in turnover disrupt operational and collective functions (Dess & Shaw, 2001). Consequently, human and social capital theories have greatly informed research related to turnover in many industries and, moreover, suggest that turnover negatively influences organizational performance (Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2005).

Although the U.S. recession has been over for a number of years, the turnover rate in the retail industry and retail trade increased to 3.0 in 2015 from 2.7 in 2014 (U.S. Department of Commerce). More specifically, voluntary turnover has increased, with a turnover rate of 73.7% in 2013, which is 15.9% above the national average (Human Capital Editor, 2014). The trend toward accelerated turnover is expected to continue (Reynolds, 2014). This phenomenon can be very costly for a business, not only in terms of financial expenditures, but also in nonmonetary terms, such as the loss of knowledge and skills, reduced productivity, and new competitive pressures, all of which can impact sustainability performance (Kodwani & Kumar, 2004). According to social and human capital theory (Leana & Van Buren, 1999; Schultz, 1961; Shaw et al., 2005), reducing turnover to maintain both skilled and knowledge workers and to increase sustainability performance is one of the key priorities of any organization.

Moreover, an organization's sustainability performance is a particularly important issue to consider, as many of today's organizations are under pressure to report on their sustainability efforts (Hubbard, 2009). Therefore, today's emphasis on sustainable development forces firms to reevaluate their business-as-usual approach and to measure organizational performance based on three principles—environmental integrity, social equity, and economic prosperity. In today's market environment, organizational

performance in one area can affect the other two (Hubbard, 2009). With employees' strong organizational citizenship, it is expected that organizations will be able to achieve higher levels of sustainability performance and be better prepared to execute the organization's sustainability initiatives.

Gaps and Purpose of the Study

The fashion retail industry's working environment and high rate of employee turnover may cause negative organizational performance, affecting its short-term and long-term success (Park & Shaw, 2013). Given the gap in the literature on organizational citizenship behavior in the context of the U.S. fashion retail industry, this research investigates the internal and external antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior among U.S. fashion retail employees and their consequences on the organizational sustainability performance of the business. More specifically, this research investigates job satisfaction as an internal factor and ethical climate as an external factor in extra-role organizational citizenship behavior. Further, by examining external and internal influences on organizational citizenship behavior, the study aims to investigate the impact of U.S. fashion retail employees' turnover intentions on the triple bottom line of organizational sustainability performance.

Significance of the Study

The findings of the study not only may help society and industry to consider their social responsibility to move toward sustainability but also may be of assistance in building a theoretical framework for sustainability focused on employees in the fashion retail industry.

First, this is one of the few studies that investigate the role of employees in companies' sustainability performance—the triple bottom lines of economic, social, and environmental performance. Extant research on the role of employees in companies' sustainability performance has predominantly focusing on the top-down approaches toward corporate social responsibility. Top-down approaches are commonly guided by top managers and upper level executives, who provided guidelines, information, plans, and better processes. However, this study instead suggests that bottom-up approaches evolving from employees can influence sustainability performance. This is because the bottom-up approach can empower each individual within an organization to think more creatively and to be proactive in achieving organizational goals (Mehra, Hoffman, & Sirias, 2001). Consequently, human capital theory views this approach as a way of coping with the increasing gap between the information necessary to manage knowledge workers and the ability of managers to acquire and apply this information.

Second, sustainability and employment are considered social contracts between individuals and society as well as employees and employers. In addition, sustainability researchers argue that an evaluation of company success should not only consider economic performance, but should also evaluate social and environmental performance, which are heavily influenced by individual behavior and effort. This highlights the importance of a social exchange theory framework for corporate sustainability performance. That is, businesses should not consider human resources based solely on their impact on the firms' financial performance. Rather, these individuals can be seen as one of the key stakeholders in improving organizations' overall sustainability performance. The study findings were expected to support this view.

Third, this study helps to recognize the influence of internal and external factors—job satisfaction and ethical climate—which can drive stronger organizational citizenship behavior. By investigating both job satisfaction and ethical climate, this study not only highlights the fact that employees' attitudes toward their jobs are vital but also explores how the work environment influences individual workers' organizational behavior. In other words, even if employees are satisfied with their employment, and even if organizations exhibit an ethical climate, employees may be unlikely to display organizational citizenship behavior, or vice versa. The study's findings were expected to shed light on how the synergy of both factors could stimulate employees' organizational citizenship behavior.

Moreover, this is one of the few studies that examine organizational citizenship behavior in the fashion retail industry, which has high turnover rates. By examining organizational citizenship behavior, this study helps employers retain highly effective employees and achieve higher organizational sustainability performance. The findings of the study may also help other industries with similar environments develop strong organizational citizenship behavior and improve their performance in the triple bottom lines of economic, social, and environmental performance.

Lastly, this study highlights the significance of sustainability performance in the fashion retail industry. Although many organizations' fundamental goals are to achieve maximum profit, the sustainability movement is slowly changing business strategies around the world. As the fashion retail industry in particular has been criticized for labor issues, the negative effects of chemical and water usage, and poor work environments, many organizations have responded to concerns by implementing some sustainable

practices. Accordingly, it is vital to further investigate sustainability performance, particularly in the fashion retail industry. The findings of this study reveal potentially more ways to improve sustainability performance by encouraging employees to be more citizenry through the promotion of stronger ethical climates and higher job satisfaction

Definitions of Key Terms

This research discusses several key concepts and the definitions of key terms are presented in Table 1.

Table 1.

<i>Definitions of Key Term</i>	
Key Term	Definitions
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Behavior that contributes to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance (Organ, 1997, p. 91).
Job Satisfaction	Overall attitudes about the job that an individual performs, shaped by the internal or external aspects of his or her job (Locke, 1976; Mehra & Ranganathan, 2011; Schepker, 2001; Vroom, 1964).
Ethical Climate	Employees' shared perceptions of what is ethically correct behavior and how ethical issues should be handled (Victor & Cullen, 1988).
Turnover Intention	The extent to which an employee plans to leave the organization (Lacity, Iyer, & Rudramuniyaiah, 2008).
Organizational Performance	
Organizational Sustainability Performance	Measures the extent to which a firm embraces environmental integrity, social equity, and economic prosperity into its operations, and ultimately the impact they exert on the firm and society (Lourenco, Branco, Curto, & Eugenio, 2012).
Sustainability Performance	
Financial Performance	A firm's overall financial health over a given period of time (Investopedia.com).

Sustainability Performance
Social Performance

Company's responsibilities to multiple stakeholders, such as employees and the community at large, in addition to its traditional responsibilities to economic shareholders (Chen & Delmas, 2011, p. 789).

Sustainability Performance
Environmental Performance

An organization's management of its environmental aspects or the totality of a firm's behavior toward the natural environment (Bhattacharyya & Cummings, 2015, p. 310).

Guiding Paradigms and Research Assumptions

The world around us is a complex, dynamic flow of mostly obscure, unique, and often unrepeatable phenomena. Thus, guiding paradigms and research assumptions are imperative to aid the process of understanding and to make sense of reality. Thinking about the phenomena through the lenses of different thought systems can influence scholars' insights and generate new ideas (Jaccard & Jacoby, 2010). In this research, the guiding paradigms to understand the phenomena are (a) structural functionalism and (b) critical realism.

First, through the lens of social functionalism, this research strives to explore social institutions, such as organizations and employees, and conceptualizes society as a system of interdependent parts that move toward equilibrium (Jaccard & Jacoby, 2010). Thus, this approach postulates a framework that sees society as a complex system whose parts work together to promote harmony and permanency. Focusing on the social structures that shape society as a whole, the researcher believes that society has effectively assimilated its constituent elements in terms of the function of its constituent elements: norms, customs, traditions, and institutions. It emphasizes the determination to implicate each feature, custom, practice, and effect on the functioning of a cohesive system. According to Jaccard and Jacoby (2010), every society demands functional requirements for its survival, and this also holds true in the highly competitive and hyperdynamic fashion retail industry. Consequently, this research aims to understand antecedents and outcomes of organizational citizenship behavior through the framework of both social exchange theory and human capital theory.

Another guiding paradigm of this study is critical realism, which assumes that “our world calls for, and justifies, empirical science...to develop conceptions that can successfully accommodate the obdurate character of the empirical world (Jaccard & Jacoby, 2010, p. 8). This means the empirical world must serve as the point of reference to support or reject human conceptions through questions and data collection. Based on this approach, the relationship between organizations and employees is investigated through social exchange theory, and outcomes from those relationships will be examined through human capital theory in this study.

Organization of the Study

This dissertation is divided into three chapters. Chapter 1 presents the background of the study, the purpose of the study, and significance of the study, as well as key terms, guiding paradigms and research assumptions, and the organization of the study. Chapter 2 provides a literature review of the theoretical framework for the study and of sustainability performance. Thereafter, the research gap is discussed, and research hypotheses are proposed along with a conceptual model. Chapter 3 presents the research methods, including the research design and survey development. Chapter 4 presents demographic information of the survey participants, study results, and discussion. Lastly, Chapter 5 discusses the study’s theoretical, industry, and academic contributions, including limitations and future research.

CHAPTER II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review section includes the following: (a) theoretical frameworks for the study; (b) social exchange theory and organizational citizenship behavior; (c) the definition, dimensions, and types of organizational citizenship behavior; (d) antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior; (e) outcomes of organizational citizenship behavior; (f) turnover intention and organizational performance; and (f) a summary of the research hypotheses.

Theoretical Framework for the Study

Social Exchange Theory and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Superior employees with citizenship behavior support their organization, even when such support is not verbally demanded (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). Extra-role organizational citizenship behaviors are habits not officially required of employees, but that individuals choose to adopt (Moorman, 1991). By reflecting employees' constructive attitudes toward and strong attachment to the organization, organizational citizenship behavior helps employees fulfill their formal duties and as well as achieve active participation in the social group (Khalid et al., 2009).

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) is one of the fundamental theoretical frameworks for linking employee attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior performance (Blau, 1964; Cardona, Lawrence, & Bentler, 2004; Karriker & Williams, 2007; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). According to Blau (1964), social exchange relationships emerge from "feelings of personal obligations, gratitude, and trust" (p. 94). When an employee experiences positive effects from an organization and is motivated to

respond to these positive feelings towards the organization, extra-role organizational citizenship behavior can be expected, as employees may perform beyond formal job expectations in the fulfillment of “unspecified obligations” (Blau, 1964, p. 93).

Concerning employee motivation, two lines of reasoning exist within the social exchange perspective as to why people may exhibit extra-role organizational citizenship behaviors. First, aligning with Blau (1964), Organ (1988) proposed that social exchange relationships play a vital role in organizational citizenship behavior. In other words, if employees perceive that they personally benefit from the organization, they may respond by returning goodwill in the form of positive organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988). This can link to group-value literature, as employees are guided to return benefits to maintain the social exchange relationship (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Second, this reasoning implies a trade-off between the employee’s short-term sacrifice and long-term compensation (Organ & Moorman, 1991). That is, similar to an economic exchange in which the expenditure and the return are relatively equal, the nature of social exchange assumes that employees will perform extra-role tasks as an exchange for a long-term in-role benefit. In this light, Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) observed that this type of social exchange could be viewed as a type of transaction, though it is relationship-focused. As organizational citizenship behavior seeks to maintain the balance in a social exchange between employees and the organization, it has been suggested that organizational citizenship behavior is more directly intended to benefit the organization (Mohammad, Habib, & Alias, 2011). Under this established model of social exchange theory, organizational researchers investigated the definition, dimension, and types of organizational citizenship behavior.

Definition, Dimensions, and Types of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Definitions of organizational citizenship behavior

Organizational members' behaviors above and beyond those activities required by the organization have been discussed in many contexts, including organizational citizenship behavior (Graham, 1991; Organ, 1988), prosocial behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Smith et al., 1983), extra-role behavior (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995), organizational spontaneity (George & Jones, 1997), and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

In particular, organizational citizenship behavior is discussed in the literature in the following four major categories: organizational members' behaviors that are (a) above and beyond those formally prescribed by an organizational role; (b) discretionary and occurring outside of work; (c) not directly or explicitly rewarded within the context of the organization's formal reward structure; and (d) important for the effective and successful functioning of an organization (MacKenzie et al., 1993; Organ, 1988; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994).

Initially, Barnard (1938) introduced the concept of employee citizenship behavior by explaining the willingness of employees to contribute cooperative efforts, describing it as "something different from effectiveness, ability or value of personal contributions" and which can vary among individuals (pp. 84–85). Subsequently, Katz (1964) extended this view by addressing the importance of cooperative behavior, which includes cooperative gestures, actions protective of the system, and actions that are beyond the formal role requirements yet indispensable for organizational effectiveness.

Katz (1964) explicitly made the distinction between extra-role and in-role behaviors because the incentives that motivate informal contributions (extra-role behavior) are distinct from those that motivate task competence (in-role behavior). In-role behavior is defined as activities that are expected and stated in job descriptions (Organ, 1988). Extra-role behavior is defined as the discretionary behaviors that exceed formal role requirements and are not overtly specified in job descriptions (Organ, 1990a). During the preliminary research on the topic, researchers were of the view that only extra-role behaviors constituted organizational citizenship behaviors (Bateman & Organ, 1983). For example, through structured interviews with supervisors, Smith et al. (1983) called Katz (1964) and Bateman and Organ's (1983) organizational citizenship behavior "instances of helpful but not absolutely required . . . job behavior" (p. 656).

Smith and his colleagues (1983) explained that extra-role behaviors benefit others, even to the detriment of the person performing the behavior, and in aggregate and over the time they contribute to organizational effectiveness. A decade later, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) stressed organizational citizenship behavior as activities at work that "do not support the technical core itself as much as they support the organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function" (p. 73), further supporting the notion that organizational citizenship behaviors are extra-role behaviors.

Therefore, a widely used definition of organizational citizenship behavior is Organ's (1988) definition of "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" (p. 4). This definition implies that

organizational citizenship behavior must be discretionary and not rewarded for in-task performance, referring to mostly extra-role behavior.

However, some scholars continue to claim that organizational citizenship behavior includes in-role behaviors because such behaviors could be interpreted differently, as either mandatory or voluntary by different positions (Morrison, 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991). By agreeing with these claims and finding conceptual difficulties associated with his 1988 definition, Organ (1997) later modified the definition of organizational citizenship behavior, describing it as “behavior that contributes to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance” (p. 91). Since that time, organizational citizenship behavior has incorporated the concepts of both extra-role and in-role behaviors that support an organization’s overall task performance.

Dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior

Smith and his colleagues (1983) were some of the first researchers who proposed organizational citizenship behavior as a multidimensional construct, identifying two distinct factors of organizational citizenship behavior. The first factor is altruism, concerning helping behaviors aimed directly at specific persons, such as volunteering for activities that are not mandatory, orienting new employees even when not required, or helping colleagues who have heavy workloads. The second factor is conscientiousness, which deals with demonstrating behaviors such as compliance, that fall within the norms defining a “good worker” or “good citizen” (p. 656).

Smith et al. (1983) inspired the identification of several positive work behavior dimensions, including organizational citizenship behavior (Graham, 1991; Williams &

Anderson, 1991), prosocial behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Smith et al., 1983), extra-role behavior (Van Dyne et al., 1995), organizational spontaneity (George & Jones, 1997), and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Organ (1988) and Williams and Anderson (1991), however, have developed the predominantly used approaches to operationalize the construct of organizational citizenship behavior.

Organ (1988, 1990b) first conceptualized five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. In his papers, he focused mostly on an employee's extra-role behavior. The first dimension suggested was altruism, referring to "voluntary actions that help another person with a work problem— instructing a new hire on how to use equipment, helping a colleague catch up with a backlog of work, fetching materials that a colleague needs and cannot procure on his own" (Organ, 1990b, p. 96). The second dimension is conscientiousness (compliance). It refers to "employees [who] accept and adhere to the rules, regulations, and procedures of the organization to enhance the efficiency of both an individual and the group" (Organ, 1990b, p. 96). The third dimension is civic virtue, defined as "constructive involvement in the political process of the organization, including not just expressing opinions but reading one's mail, attending meetings, and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organization" (Organ, 1990b, p. 96). The fourth dimension, sportsmanship, is the employee's "willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining" (Organ, 1990b, p. 96). The fifth dimension is courtesy, which Organ (1990b) defined as "all gestures that help someone else prevent a problem—touching base with people before committing to actions that will affect them, providing advance notice to someone who needs to know to schedule work" (p. 96).

Later, Organ (1994b) expanded this construct into seven dimensions by adding peacekeeping—"actions that help to resolve or mitigate negative interpersonal conflict" (Organ, 1990b, p. 97)—and cheerleading—"the words and gestures of encouragement and reinforcement of coworkers' accomplishments and professional development" (Organ, 1990b, p. 97). However, these additional dimensions are considered as altruistic behaviors that "clearly involve helping others with or preventing the occurrence of work-related problems" (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997, p. 263), so few researchers have employed these additional dimensions.

Meanwhile, the debate expanded concerning in-role and extra-role behavior within organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994; Vey & Campbell, 2004; Williams & Anderson, 1991). In fact, Motowidlo (2000) and Vey and Campbell (2004) asserted that Organ's five dimensions not only measure extra-role citizenship behavior but also measure certain degrees of in-role citizenship behavior. In addition, Vey and Campbell (2004) found that Organ's conscientiousness and courtesy dimensions do consider in-role behaviors, while the altruism and civic virtue dimensions were extra-role. The researchers emphasized that the boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviors could differ across time, employees, organizations, and situations, therefore making it difficult to distinguish (Leung, 2008; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Van Dyne et al., 1994).

Because of the complexity of the concept of organizational citizenship behavior and the difficulty in achieving consensus as to its dimension, Williams and Anderson (1991) proposed that organizational citizenship behavior, which is grounded in Katz's (1964) framework, must be understood through the different orientations of the behaviors

based on social exchange theory. These include (a) organizational citizenship behavior – individual (OCBI), (b) organizational citizenship behavior – organization (OCBO), and (c) in-role behavior (IRB). Williams and Anderson (1991) argued that it is important to distinguish organizational citizenship behavior with respect to the target of the behavior. Thus, the authors claimed that organizational citizenship behavior directed toward individuals should be discerned from the behavior directed toward the organization.

OCBI refers to the behavior that immediately benefits specific individuals and, through these means, indirectly contributes to the organization (e.g. employee helps others who have been absent, takes a personal interest in other employees) (Williams & Anderson, 1991, p. 602). Williams and Anderson's (1991) individual level of organizational citizenship behavior encompasses Organ's (1988) courtesy, peacekeeping, and cheerleading dimensions. According to Harper (2015), the dimension of OCBI could also explain interpersonal helping, interpersonal facilitation, and interpersonal harmony (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997; Graham, 1991; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

OCBO refers to the behavior that benefits the organization in general (e.g. employee gives advance notice when unable to come to work, adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order) (Williams & Anderson, 1991, p. 602). Initially, Williams and Anderson (1991) incorporated Organ's conscientiousness as an example of organization citizenship behavior toward organizations. Other scholars (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Coleman & Borman, 2000; Hoffman et al., 2007; Lepine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) have noted that civic virtue, sportsmanship, organizational allegiance, endorsement of and commitment to the organization's objectives, job dedication, and taking control could also be considered as OCBO.

IRB refers to the behaviors that reflect extra effort and persistence on the job, dedication to the job, and the desire to maximize one's own job performance, e.g. employee works a full eight-hour day, completes assigned duties on time, complies with rules and regulations (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Williams and Anderson (1991) asserted that in-role behaviors should be included as they may impact organizational citizenship behavior differently. Similarly, Borman and Motowidlo (1997) and Organ and Ryan (1995) noted that extra-role performance and in-role performance probably could be determined by different antecedents. Hence, an absence of in-role behavior could result in negative financial consequences or dismissal (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

However, Vey and Campbell (2004) found that Organ's conscientiousness and courtesy dimensions were often perceived as in-role behaviors among supervisors and employees. Therefore, the contributions of IRB to describe an individual's OCB have been questionable, and most researchers have focused on extra-role OCB with two dimensions of OCBI and OCBO. That is, both OCBI and OCBO collectively represent the overall individual's OCB targeting extra roles. Therefore, in this study, extra-role OCB incorporates both OCBI and OCBO dimensions to be consistent with the literature.

Table 2.

<i>Organizational Citizenship Behavior</i>	
Authors (Year)	Organizational Citizenship Behavior Dimensions
Extra-role behavior	
Smith, Organ, & Near (1983)	Altruism and generalized compliance
Organ (1988 1990)	Altruism, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, Courtesy, and Civic Virtue
Bolon (1997)	Organizational citizenship behavior interpersonal (OCBI) and organizational (OCBO)

Aryee & Chay (2001)	Organizational citizenship behavior interpersonal (OCBI) and organizational (OCBO),
Jena & Goswami (2014)	Altruism, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue
Target of the behavior	
Williams & Anderson (1991)	Organizational citizenship behavior interpersonal (OCBI) and organizational (OCBO), and in-role behavior (IRB)
Borman & Motowidlo (1993, 1997)	Helping and cooperating with others, and endorsing, supporting and depending on organizational objectives
Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996)	Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication
Coleman and Borman (2000)	Interpersonal citizenship (OCBI), organizational citizenship performance (OCBO), and job/task citizenship performance (IRBs)
Van Scotter (2000)	Task performance and contextual performance
Kwantes, Karam, Kuo, & Towson (2008)	Conscientiousness, initiative, volunteering, boosterism, and sportsmanship
Huang, You, & Tsai (2012)	Organizational citizenship behavior interpersonal (OCBI) and organizational (OCBO), and in-role behavior (IRB)

Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

A number of studies have identified antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior. Many factors, such as support from the leadership (Smith et al., 1983), organizational commitment (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Williams, & Anderson, 1991), perceived fairness (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990), and employees' personalities (Organ & Lingl, 1995), have been recommended as the antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors. Among those, employees' job satisfaction (Miao, 2004; Smith et al., 1983; Williams, & Anderson, 1991) and the ethical climate of the organization (Leung, 2008) have been emphasized by many researchers as the key antecedents of an employee's organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 3.

Internal and External Influences of Antecedents on OCB

Authors (Year)	Antecedents of OCB	Sample
Internal		
Organ & Dennis (1989)	Job satisfaction	402 administrative employees in U.S. hospital
Bolon (1997)	Job satisfaction	202 full-time employees in U.S. hospital
Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, & McMurrian (1997)	Job satisfaction	115 and 182 sale associates in the U.S.
Foote & Tang (2008)	Job satisfaction	242 full-time employees in self-directed teams at manufacturing facilities
Nadiri & Tanova (2010)	Job satisfaction	208 employees and managers from hotels in Turkey
Cun (2012)	Job satisfaction	502 full-time employees in public sectors in China
Huang, You, & Tsai (2012)	Job satisfaction	352 nurses in Taiwan
Kasemsap (2013)	Job satisfaction	539 operational employees from manufacturing plants in Thailand
Jena & Goswami (2014)	Job satisfaction	240 employees from five ferroalloy industries in India
External		
Victor & Cullen (1998)	Ethical climate	872 employees of four firms in the U.S.
Schwepker (2001)	Ethical climate	152 sale associates in the U.S.
Leung (2008)	Ethical climate	250 employees from trading company in Hong Kong
Tsai & Huang (2008)	Ethical climate	237 hospital nurses in Taiwan
Parboteeah, Chen, Lin, Chen, Lee, & Chung (2010)	Ethical climate	222 employees from high technology companies in Taiwan
Jagannath & Bhabani (2012)	Ethical climate	380 full-time employees in banking, information technology, and manufacturing organization in India
Huang, You, & Tsai (2012)	Ethical climate	352 nurses in Taiwan
Shin (2012)	Ethical climate	223 CEOs and 6021 employees from 223 companies in South Korea

Job Satisfaction

Definitions of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to overall attitudes about the job that an individual performs, shaped by the internal or external aspects of his or her job, or both (Locke, 1976; Mehra & Ranganathan, 2011; Schepker, 2001; Vroom, 1964). Since the 1970s, job satisfaction has been considered a major factor for effective employee relationship management. The most common definition of job satisfaction is provided by Locke (1976), who defined it as the pleasure of a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job experience. This implies that job satisfaction includes both cognitive (an appraisal of one's job) and affective (emotional state) elements, signifying the degree to which individuals feel positively or negatively about their jobs.

Schepker (2001) defined job satisfaction as the degree of positive emotion an employee has toward a work role. Job satisfaction is often taken as the basis of many theories of organizational performance, reward, job design, and leadership, which accept the so-called 'happy-productive worker hypothesis' (Fisher, 2003, p. 24). Hence, Khan (2007) defined job satisfaction as how well one's personal expectations at work are aligned with the outcomes. Likewise, Mehra and Ranganathan (2011) identified job satisfaction as an employee's emotional or affective state of mind in relation to his or her employment. Thus, job satisfaction is a central issue for organizational behavior researchers because a person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive feelings about his or her job, which links to performance and turnover intention.

Dimensions of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been recognized as a multifaceted construct that includes employee feelings about a variety of job elements (Hancer, & George, 2003; Mohammad et al., 2011; Moorman, 1993; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Spector, 1997). For example, Smith et al. (1969) proposed five facets of job satisfaction: (a) satisfaction with supervisors, (b) satisfaction with coworkers, (c) satisfaction with pay, (d) satisfaction with promotions, and (e) satisfaction with the work itself. Porter and Steers (1973) observed that the degree of employee job satisfaction reflected the cumulative level of worker expectations that are met. For instance, employees tend to expect their jobs to provide a mix of features, such as pay, promotion, autonomy, appraisals, and working conditions, and employees may have different preferential values.

Somewhat differently, Moorman (1993) posited that job satisfaction could differ to the extent to which employees tap into affective satisfaction or cognitive satisfaction. Affective satisfaction expresses an overall positive emotional appraisal of the employment and focuses on whether the employment evokes a good mood and positive feelings, while cognitive satisfaction explains logical and rational evaluation of the job, such as conditions, opportunities, or outcomes (Moorman, 1993). Further, Heller et al. (2002) argued that job satisfaction can be categorized into two key factors, namely, situational factors (sociological perspective or extrinsic) and personal factors (psychological perspective or intrinsic). More specifically, situational factors refer to job-related conditions, such as salary, promotion, working conditions, task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy, and feedback (Heller, Judge, & Watson, 2002).

Personal factors include personality traits, self-esteem, motivation, and emotions (Heller et al., 2002).

In this light, intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfactions have been discussed. Intrinsic elements focus on the content of the position or how the position itself could fulfill individuals' psychological needs such as recognition, responsibility, achievement, and advancement (Hancer & George, 2003). These sources of job satisfaction originate within the individual, so satisfaction is essentially self-administered (Mohammad et al., 2011). Meanwhile, extrinsic elements include compensation, supervision, working conditions, and company policy (Hancer & George, 2003). In contrast to intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic sources are the environment or external factors—such as pay, benefit, promotion, and training—that are beyond the individual's control (Mohammad et al., 2011).

Relation between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior

Prior literature has supported a strong relation between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Leung, 2008; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Organ, 1990a; Smith et al., 1983). Based on Adams's (1966) social exchange theory, the literature suggests that people attempt to balance what they give and receive from social exchanges. More specifically, if employees are satisfied with their employment, they may be more active in helping others by means of their citizenship behaviors. Conversely, employees may be less likely to perform extra duties, support organization's objectives, or engage in other citizenship behaviors if they are not satisfied with their jobs. Thus, several researchers have asserted that the relation between job

satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior is important to ascertain (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ & Moorman, 1993).

In a study using a total of 369 individuals from two hospital organizations, Organ and Konovsky (1989) found that both affective and cognitive dimensions of employees' job satisfaction positively predicted organizational citizenship behavior. Similarly, based on a quantitative meta-analysis of 55 published studies, Organ and Ryan (1995) reported that overall employees' job satisfaction had similar positive effects on organizational citizenship behavior.

Moreover, Konovsky and Organ (1996) found that overall job satisfaction had a significant impact on Organ's (1988) five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior among 402 hospital employees and supervisors in the south central US. Among managers and employees who had decision-making responsibility in U.S. hospitals, employees who were satisfied with their jobs were more likely to be invested in their jobs, which, in turn, may have influenced organizational citizenship performance (Ugboro & Obeng, 2000).

Certainly, to understand at the individual level the influence on organizational citizenship behavior, a body of research has investigated employees' personality traits, organizational culture, and job satisfaction (Graham & Van Dyne, 2006). By examining sales personnel in the US, Jaramillo, Mulki, and Solomon (2006) found that satisfied employees achieved higher organizational commitment. Similarly, Foote and Tang (2008) concluded that intrinsic aspects of job satisfaction significantly influenced organizational citizenship behavior among 242 employees from three manufacturing facilities throughout the US. By examining 208 employees and managers from the hospital

industry in Turkey, Nadiri and Tanova (2010) also found that organizational citizenship behavior was significantly explained by employees' job satisfaction.

Therefore, job satisfaction is recognized as an important antecedent of organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2009). When investigating the effect of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior, all of these studies have measured job satisfaction using general questions, without identifying specific dimensions. That is because when employees are satisfied with their jobs, whether stemming from intrinsic or extrinsic reasons, they are more likely to show strong organizational citizenship behavior. A similar relation is expected with regard to the employees of U.S. fashion retail industry, as the previous literature did not indicate different effects depending on the industry within which employees work. Therefore, the study hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1: Job satisfaction positively influences U.S. fashion retail employees' extra-role organizational citizenship behavior.

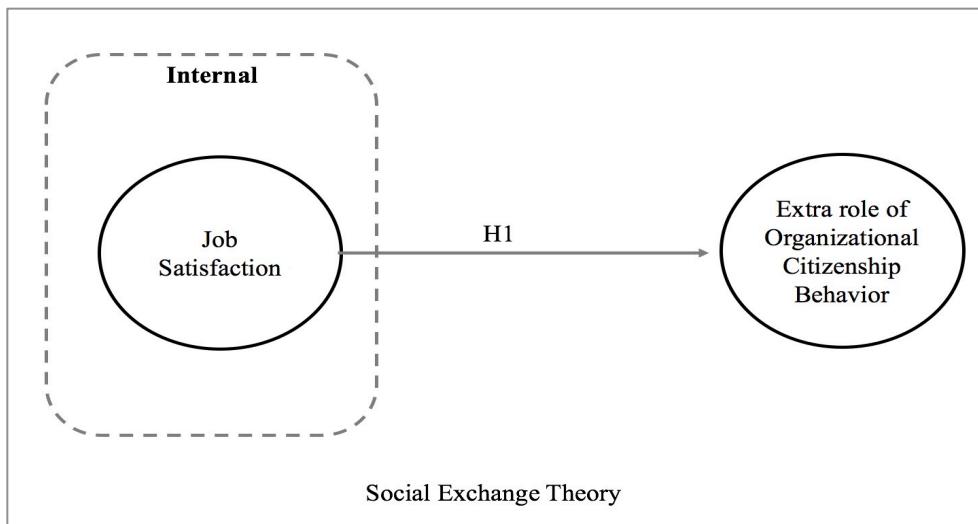


Figure 1. The relation between job satisfaction and extra-role organizational citizenship behavior

Ethical Climate

Definitions of ethical climate

Victor and Cullen (1988) defined ethical climate as “employees’ shared perceptions of what is ethically correct behavior and how ethical issues should be handled” (p. 51–52). Individual norms develop in the organizational climate, which refers to the psychological environment where an individual’s behavior occurs (Ott, 1989). These norms develop into institutional behavioral systems, which become shared perceptions of organizational signals and ethical decision-making among employees. Thus, organizational climate is the shared perceptions of the policies, practices, and procedures, both formal and informal, of an organization (Schneider, 1990).

The ethical climate therefore plays a vital role in the organizational climate that reflects the predominant perceptions about what constitutes ethical procedures and practices within the organization (Martin & Cullen, 2006). In other words, reflecting the normative construct of the shared behavioral perceptions and behaviors in an organization, the ethical climate provides employees with behavioral cues about ethical actions and the decision-making process (Luria & Yagil, 2008) because employees are inclined to build similar perceptions of it (Shin, 2012). Thus, numerous ethical climate studies have investigated the relations between employees’ perceptions of ethical climate and their own attitudes and behaviors (Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2008; Schwenker, 2001; Tsai & Huang, 2008).

Dimensions of ethical climate

Kohlberg (1976) proposed a theory of moral development, which explains three levels of ethical standards—egoism, utilitarian, and principle—employed by individuals

in ethical development. Kohlberg (1976) rationalized the sources of moral reasoning used to apply ethical criteria found in the organization's environment. Based on Kohlberg's ethical standards and ethical theories, Victor and Cullen (1988) proposed different types of organizational ethical climates that were grounded in philosophical, sociological, and psychological theory. Victor and Cullen (1988) also postulated that moral philosophy classified into three major categories of ethical theory: egoism, benevolence, and principle. Moreover, they suggested that different ethical climates presenting within and between organizations each appear to have a dominant ethical climate type (Victor & Cullen, 1988).

In addition to ethical criteria, deriving from sociological theories of roles and reference groups, three bases of ethical reasoning were suggested relating to the types of referent groups. They were (a) individual, which originates from one's personal moral beliefs; (b) local influences, stemming from the individual's immediate social system including organizational practices and policies; and (c) cosmopolitan, which originates outside of the focal organization or group (Parboteeah et al., 2010; Victor & Cullen, 1988; Wimbush, Shepard, & Jon, 1994). The three loci of analysis were modeled on Kohlberg's (1976) stages of individual moral reasoning (Parboteeah et al., 2010).

In this light, Victor and Cullen (1988) proposed five theoretical dimensions of ethical climates: caring, law and code, rules, instrumental, and independence. The first dimension, the caring climate, was indicated as the most desirable work climate among employees (Cullen et al., 2003; Koh & Boo, 2001), and a critical influence to develop in order to derive sustained competitive advantage for an organization (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Embedded within benevolence theory, a caring climate stresses concerns for the

well-being of others, with policies, practices, and organizational strategies that reflect the concern for others (Manroop, 2014; Martin & Cullen, 2006). Likewise, employees are interested in each other's welfare within and outside the organization and take into account all who may be influenced by their ethical decisions (Huang et al., 2012; Manroop, 2014; Martin & Cullen, 2006). Hence, a caring climate may foster an environment greatly dependent upon team members for mutual support and cooperation (Manroop, 2014).

The second dimension, the law and code climate, supports principled decision-making based on external codes, the law, or professional codes of conduct (Martin & Cullen, 2006). A law and code climate plays an important role in employee's ethical decision-making and behavior in the context of the organization (Peterson, 2002). Employees are expected to comply with laws and codes of ethics governing their organization in decision-making situations, so it predominantly presents in bureaucracies and other highly regulated firms, such as pharmaceutical, health care, and financial industries (Manroop, 2014; Martin & Cullen, 2006).

The third dimension, the rules climate, relates to the accepted rules of conduct determined by organizations (Huang et al., 2012; Martin & Cullen, 2006). Pearce, Branyiczki, and Bigley (2000) claimed that rules consistently guide employees' behavior, and individuals are expected to abide by those rules. Thus, organizational decisions could be guided by a strong, universal set of local rules or standards, such as codes of conduct (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005). Martin and Cullen (2006) stated that a rule climate could be appealing due to "the multifaceted codes of conduct increasingly being implemented by organizations in the contemporary corporate landscape" (p. 179).

The fourth dimension, the instrumental climate, strives to maximize self-interest (Martin & Cullen, 2006). Victor and Cullen (1988) claimed that an instrumental climate may exist in a market environment such as commission-sales organizations. Recent studies by Mulki et al. (2008) and Cullen et al. (2003) empirically showed that higher levels of instrumental ethical climates mostly presented in high-stress and high-production-goal sales organizations where rewards are commission driven, such as retail firms, car dealerships, and stockbrokerage firms. Within an instrumental climate, employees assume organizational norms and expectations that inspire ethical decisions to serve the interest of the organization (e.g. corporate profit, strategic advantage, or greater disclosure), or to provide personal benefits (e.g. personal financial gain) (Manroop, 2014). Likewise, an instrumental climate produces constant pressure to perform and generate maximum profits for the organization and employees (Manroop, 2014).

The fifth dimension, the independence climate, influences employees to behave based on their own personal moral belief systems when making ethical decisions (Martin & Cullen, 2006). This climate assumes that decisions with moral consequences must consider personal values and convictions with minimal influence from external forces. By gaining freedom and responsibility, an independence ethical climate entails a great deal of trust on the part of management (Malloy & Agarwal, 2003). Organizations with a culture of trust may be more adaptive and innovative, thus an independence climate may be prevalent in many new firms and entrepreneurial ventures (Neubaum, Mitchell, & Schminke, 2004). Consequently, individuals' decision-making is thought to be determined through careful consideration (Schminke et al., 2005).

Relation between Ethical Climate and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Past research has revealed that the ethical climate is positively related to a number of outcomes, such as employee job satisfaction (Elçi & Alukan, 2009; Schepker, 2001; Tsai & Huang, 2008; Valentine & Fleischman, 2004), organizational commitment (Cullen et al., 2003; Schepker, 2001; Tsai & Huang, 2008), turnover intentions (Mulki et al., 2008; Schepker, 2001), ethical behavior (Wimbush et al., 1994), and organizational citizenship behavior (Leung, 2008). The collective effect of organizational members' ethical perceptions generates a work environment with shared ethical work norms, which stimulate individuals' attitudes toward their jobs and the organization, and influence the ethical decision-making process within the organization (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Cullen et al., 2003).

For example, Bateman and Organ (1983) reported through a longitudinal study that the ethical climate could influence organizational citizenship behavior independently. Likewise, Smith et al. (1983) found that environmental variables in the workplace directly affect citizenship behavior. Organ (1990b) explained that employees who feel bound to the organization and expect benefits from the organization are more likely to return their goodwill in the form of organizational citizenship behavior.

Similarly, Ensher, Grant-Vallone and Donaldson (2001) argued that environments where employees feel they are treated fairly and ethically would present with higher organizational citizenship behavior among employees. On the other hand, if employees perceive that an unethical climate exists, these particular employees may be influenced negatively when engaging in organizational citizenship behavior (Ensher et al., 2001). Therefore, the development of a strong corporate ethical climate is central to prevention

of low organizational citizenship behavior among employees (Ahmed & Machold, 2004; Douglas, Davidson, & Schwartz, 2001). According to Barnett and Schubert (2002), the ethical climate within an organization could develop employees' positive perceptions about the relational agreement between themselves and their employer, which leads to strong organizational citizenship behavior.

Accordingly, growing interests in teamwork and consultative activities in many organizations that want to encourage organizational citizenship behavior has resulted in research to seek the basic requirements for individual initiatives and cooperation (Lepine et al., 2002). In particular, Huang et al. (2012) found that ethical climates did not have a significant influence on in-role behaviors but only on extra-role organizational citizenship behavior among nurses. Therefore, the following hypothesis is made:

Hypothesis 2. Ethical climate influences U.S. fashion retail employees' extra-role organizational citizenship behavior

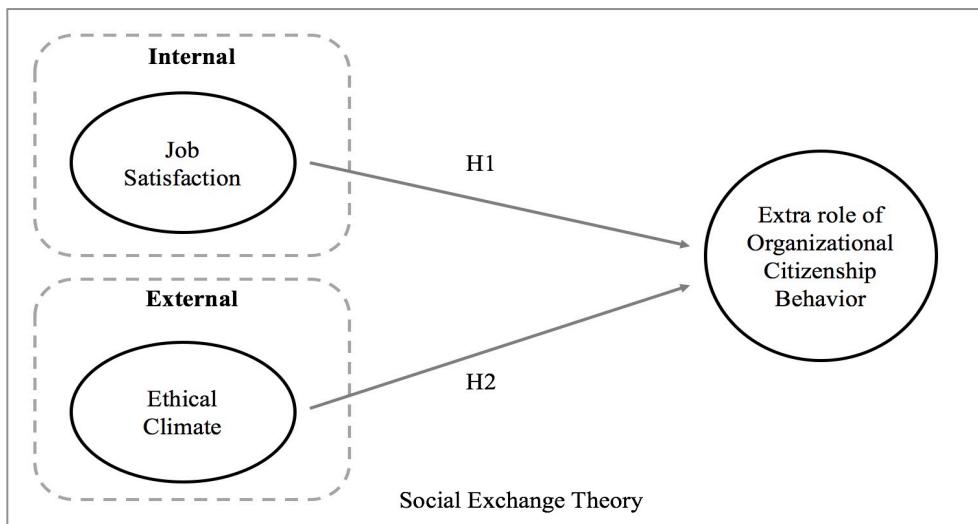


Figure 2. The relation between ethical climate and extra-role organizational citizenship behavior

Outcomes of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Many studies showed that organizational citizenship behavior helps to (a) enhance coworker and managerial productivity, (b) reduce the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions, (c) coordinate activities both within and across work groups, (d) strengthen the organization's ability to attract and retain the best employees, (e) increase the stability of the organization's performance, and (f) enable the organization to adapt more effectively to environmental changes (Khalid et al., 2009; MacKenzie et al., 1991, 1993; Organ, 1990, 1994; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994).

Specifically, both practitioners and researchers were interested in whether or not organizational citizenship behavior reduces turnover intention, in turn saving the cost of hiring, training, and motivating new employees. Employee turnover has been of significant interest, as it is strongly related to an organization's productivity, resource management, and organizational performance factors (Coyne & Ong, 2007; Rutherford, Wei, Park, & Hur, 2012; Yin-Fah et al., 2010). Turnover intention was also discussed as a mediator between organizational citizenship behavior and an organization's sustainability performance (Paré & Tremblay, 2007). Therefore, the following section discusses turnover intention and the impact of organizational citizenship behavior.

Turnover Intention

Voluntary turnover occurs as employees resign, which can be costly to organizational performance and productivity (Johnson, Griffeth, & Griffin, 2000). Hom and Griffeth (1995) and Siebert and Zubanov (2009) emphasized that turnover intention can result in negative consequences, such as difficulties in recruitment, training expenses, declining employee morale, and customer dissatisfaction. Some argue that recruiting and

training a replacement employee can cost up to 50% of the worker's annual salary (Johnson et al., 2000). Kodwani and Kumar (2004) asserted that costs due to employee turnover are not limited to monetary issues, but also hurt the employer in nonmonetary terms with the loss of knowledge and skills, loss or reduction of productivity, and new competitive pressures. The authors therefore asserted that reducing turnover to maintain highly skilled and knowledge employees is one of the key priorities of any organization.

Definition of turnover intention

Lacity, Iyer, and Rudramuniyaiah (2008) defined turnover intention as "the extent to which an employee plans to leave the organization" (p. 228). More formally, Zhang, Fried, and Griffeth (2012) defined turnover intention as "voluntary termination of membership within an organization by an employee who receives monetary compensation for participating in that organization" (p. 220). As a multistage process embracing attitudinal, decisional, and behavioral components, turnover intention is typically perceived to be the final stage in the decision-making process before a person actually leaves (Ajzen, 1991, 2002; Arnold et al., 2006; Mossholder, Settoon, & Henagan, 2005; Regts & Molleman, 2012). An early study by Mobley (1977) examined a withdrawal decision process to explain how people decide to leave their employment. Mobley (1977) suggested the termination decision process is a sequence of turnover cognition stages, starting with evaluating an existing job, experiencing a dissatisfying job, thinking of resigning, followed by evaluating the utility of a job search and the cost of resigning. Employees evaluate their jobs and the cost they may incur as a result of a search for new employment. While evaluating jobs, employees' attitudinal responses

follow whether they are satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. If the alternatives are desirable, turnover intention could form and trigger actual withdrawal (Mobley, 1977).

Similarly, according to Ajzen's (1975/1991) theory of planned behavior, self-reported intentions or plans are the best predictors of behavior. Ajzen (1991) claimed that the behavior might result from the product of motivation (intention) and ability (perceived behavioral control). Based on Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975/1991) framework of planned behavior, turnover intention has been recognized as an antecedent of the actual behavior to leave the employ of the organization. Many studies have empirically validated Ajzen's (1991) theory by indicating moderate to strong correlations of behavioral turnover intentions with actual turnover behavior (Arnold et al., 2006; Bluedorn, 1982; Mobley, 1977; Paré, Tremblay, & Lalonde, 2000; Regts & Molleman, 2012). From the perspective of planned behavior theory, turnover intentions performed as a mental decision interfering with an individual's attitude regarding a job and his or her subsequent behavior to either stay or leave (Sager, Griffeth, & Hom, 1998). Similarly, Dalton, Johnson and Daily (1999) addressed strong correlations between turnover intention and actual turnover through five meta analyses. Consequently, many studies have addressed turnover intention as an individual choice of behavioral patterns (Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola, 1998; Luthans & Peterson, 2002).

Table 4.

Outcomes of OCB

Authors (Year)	Outcomes of OCB	Sample
Van Scotter (2000)	Turnover intention	419 and 991 mechanic supervisors in the U.S.
Aryee & Chay (2001)	Turnover intention	187 public sector employees in Singapore

Coyne & Ong (2007)	Turnover intention	152 production employees in Malaysia, Germany, and England
Pare & Tremblay (2007)	Turnover intention	394 members of Canadian information processing Society
Nadiri & Tanova (2010)	Turnover intention	208 employees and managers from hotels in Turkey
Tsai & Wu (2010)	Turnover intention	237 hospital nurses in Taiwan
Sharoni, Tziner, Fein, Shultz, Shaul, & Zilberman (2012)	Turnover intention	102 employees from a variety of organizations
Yang, Gong, & Huo (2012)	Turnover intention	174 production employees in Hong Kong
Regts & Molleman (2013)	Turnover intention	149 hospital nurses in Netherlands
Sarikwal & Gupta (2013)	Turnover intention	112 employees working in Informational Technology industry in India

Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Turnover Intention

As turnover intention research showed evidence of a strong relation with actual turnover behavior, the validity concerns related to using turnover intention have been reduced significantly (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Subsequently, a number of studies have asserted that turnover intention is the most immediate individual-level antecedent and predictor of turnover decisions in various domains (Hom & Kinicki, 2001; Mossholder et al., 2005; Tsai & Wu, 2010; Van Breukelen, Van Der Vlist, & Steensma, 2004; Wise & Tschirhart, 2000). In the literature, substantial attention has been paid to organizational turnover intention in an effort to understand the mechanisms behind voluntary turnover behavior, which is directed at reducing turnover and its potential costs (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Wright & Bonett, 2007).

The literature on extra-role organizational citizenship behavior also investigates its role in employee turnover intentions (Chen, Hui, & Sego, 1998; Paré et al., 2000; Sharoni et al., 2012). For example, Chen et al. (1998) found that organizational citizenship behavior withdraws when employees intend to leave the organization. That is, among employees in China, organizational citizenship behavior was a strong predictor of self-reported turnover intention as well as actual turnover behavior in their study. Likewise, examining union members in Singapore, Aryee and Chay (2001) reported a strong negative correlation between organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intentions.

Moreover, Dalal (2005) indicated a negative relation between organizational citizenship behavior and other counterproductive behaviors in the organization. By studying production workers in Malaysia, Germany, and England, Coyne and Ong (2007) reported that employees with less organizational citizenship behavior correlated with strong turnover intention. Moreover, the relation between organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention was similar within each culture group in Malaysia, Germany, and England (Coyne & Ong, 2007). This implied that organizational citizenship behavior negatively impacts turnover intention, regardless of cultural differences. All of these studies measured organizational citizenship behavior by emphasizing extra-role behavior without including in-role behavior.

In the case of employees of the hotel industry in Malaysia, Khalid et al. (2009) found that higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors reduced turnover intention. Likewise, organizational citizenship behavior tends to enhance an organization's ability to retain employees in highly competitive, rapidly changing

industries with naturally high turnover rates. A similar relation is expected relating to employees in the U.S. fashion retail industry, as this relation was found to be general, not industry specific. Thus, this study advanced the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3. Extra-role organizational citizenship behavior negatively influences U.S. fashion retail employees' turnover intention.

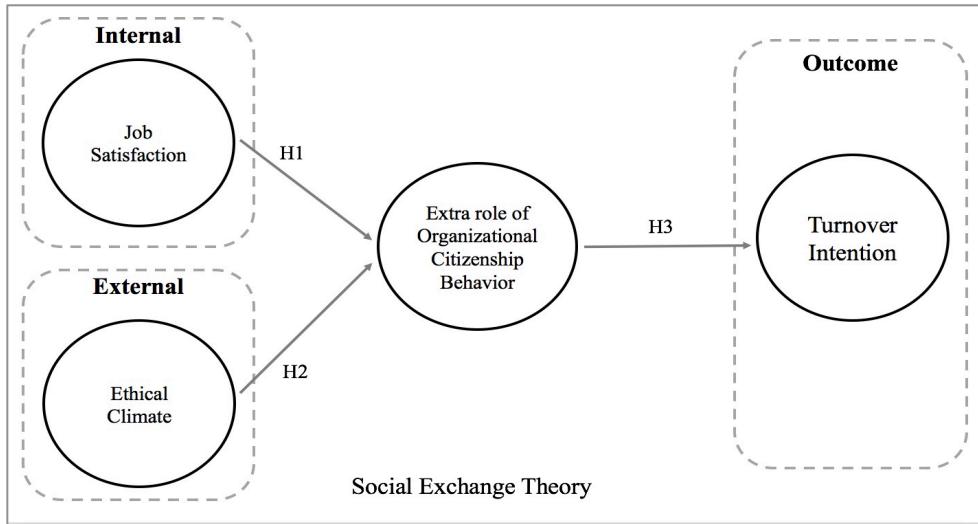


Figure 3. The relation between extra-role organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention

Relation between job satisfaction and turnover intention

Although the literature posits extra-role organizational citizenship behavior as a mediator between job satisfaction and turnover intention, the direct relation between the two is also well established in the literature (Chan & Morrison, 2000; Chen et al., 2011; Ghiselli, La Lopa, & Bai, 2001; Griffeth, 2000; Mobley et al., 1979; Mulki et al., 2008; Price & Mueller, 1981). Mobley (1977) revealed that job satisfaction could elicit a sequence of cognitive and behavioral processes leading to the decision to resign or remain. Moreover, Kahneman and Tversky (1979) proposed a prospect theory which

explained that the decision could differ according to whether decision-makers frame decision outcomes as gains or losses.

Accordingly, in the context of work-related consequences, job satisfaction is thought to be a major contributing factor in employees' turnover intentions (Chan & Morrison, 2000; Ghiselli et al., 2001; Lacity et al., 2008). Parsons, Simmons, Penn, and Furlough (2003) found that job satisfaction was strongly associated with turnover intention among nurses.

Similarly, Randolph (2005) studied the influence of job satisfaction factors on over 300 rehabilitation professionals and found a significant impact on turnover intention as well as retention. Conducting a cross-cultural study between Taiwanese and U.S. hospital employees, Ding and Lin (2006) found a negative relation between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. That is, when employees are satisfied with their job, they tend to perform their jobs better and are less likely to engage in counterproductive behaviors (Chen & Kao, 2011; Griffeth, 2000). Moreover, Chen et al. (2011) argued that if there are changes in job satisfaction, this can also help to explain changes in turnover intention. Individuals evaluate their current situation through personal preferences for job satisfaction, and as discrepancies between expectations and reality are evaluated as being significantly different, this can result in changes to the employee's turnover intention (Chen et al., 2011). Therefore, the following hypothesis is made:

Hypothesis 4. Job satisfaction negatively influences U.S. fashion retail employees' turnover intentions.

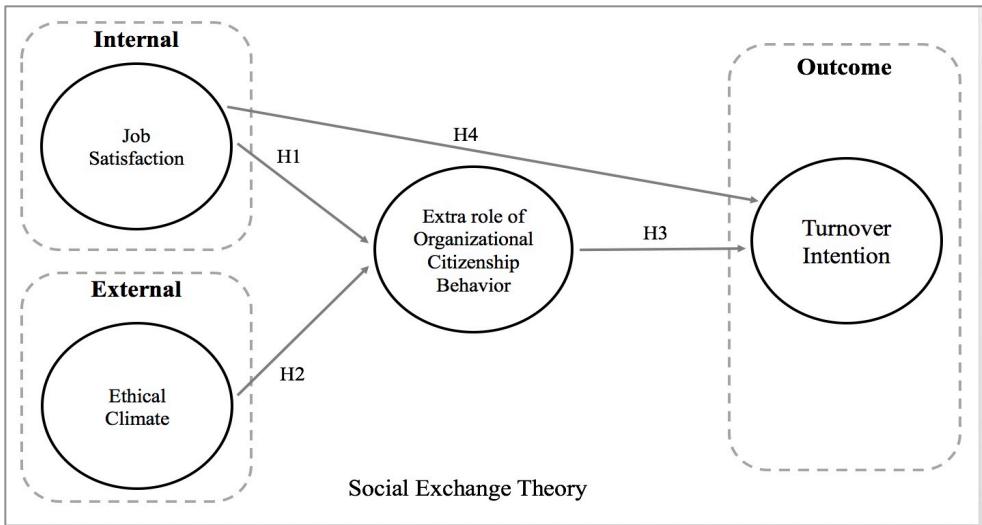


Figure 4. The relation between job satisfaction and turnover intention

Relation between ethical climate and turnover intention

The direct effect of ethical climate on employees' turnover intentions is also well documented (Coldwell, Billsberry, Van Meurs, & Marsh, 2008; Jansen & Chandler, 1994; Martin & Cullen, 2006; Mulki et al., 2008; Tsai & Huang, 2008). Reflecting how organizational rules and culture interact with individual employee perspectives, an employee's perceptions of the work environment play an important role in turnover intention (Martin & Cullen, 2006).

An early study by Apasu (1987) emphasized that when the degree of congruence becomes greater between individual and organizational values, it resulted in a lower turnover intention. This finding was supported by the assertion of Sims and Keon (1997) that employees who desire to work in an ethical environment are less likely to leave when they perceive their organization's work climate as ethical. Conversely, if employees do not believe they "fit" with the organization, turnover intention tends to increase among those employees (Sims & Keon, 1997). Thus, if employees feel they work in an ethical

climate, their work attitude will be positively affected because they may perceive these ethical organizations as having an honest and trustful work environment (Schwepker, 2001).

Indeed, positive perception of an organization's ethical climate decreases turnover intentions (Jaramillo et al., 2006; Schwepker, 2001). Recently, through both attitudinal and stress theories, Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander (2008) revealed that service employees for a health department who operate in ethical climates tend to have more trust in their supervisor and show positive attitudes toward their jobs, which together result in lower turnover intention.

O'Neill et al. (2009) found that a caring ethical climate plays a significant role for employees in the hotel industry, with those perceiving an ethical climate being less likely to leave the organization (O'Neill et al., 2009). Similar results were found for ethical climates across organizations, with the most positive effects on employees when they sense an "ethical fit" (Stewart, Volpone, Avery, & McKay, 2011). By investigating stakeholder perspective, Stewart et al. (2011) examined how employees' perceptions of ethical climate could also affect the relation between the diversity climate and turnover intentions. Their findings showed that turnover intentions decreased among the warehouse employees of a U.S. retail organization when the environment was perceived as a highly ethical climate. Similar relations are expected to be observed among U.S. fashion employees. Thus, the following hypothesis is made:

Hypothesis 5. An organization's overall ethical climate influences U.S. fashion retail employees' turnover intentions.

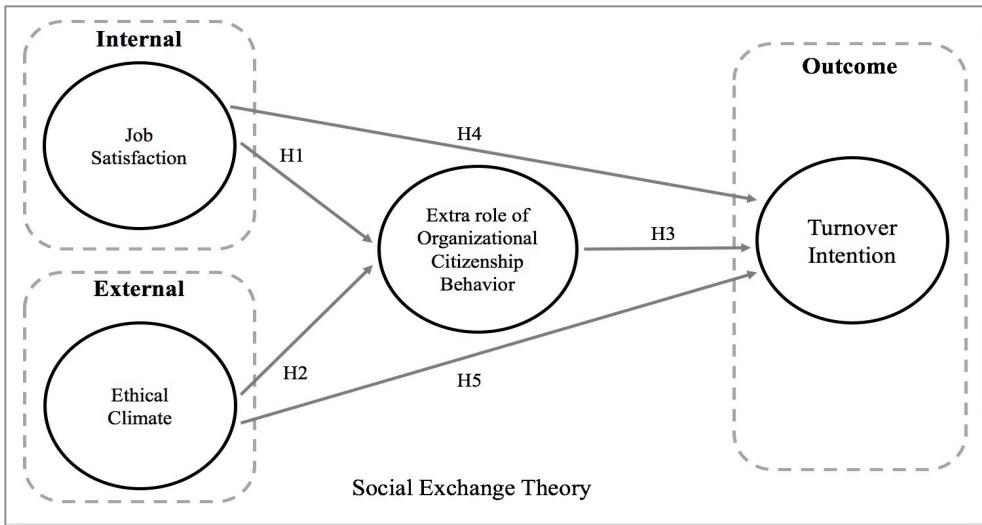


Figure 5. The relation between a higher level of ethical climate and turnover intention

Turnover Intention and Organization Performance

Human and Social Capital Theory

The relation between turnover intention and organizational performance is well-known in social and human capital theory (Leana & Van Buren, 1999; Schultz, 1961; Shaw et al., 2005). Formally introduced in the 1950s from an economic perspective, human capital is defined as “productive wealth embodied in labor, skills and knowledge” which includes any stock of knowledge or the innate or acquired characteristics a person possesses that contributes to his or her economic productivity and organizational performance (Tan, 2014). In other words, human capital theory understands that knowledge may relate to particular costs on employers if employees with specific knowledge resign (Schultz, 1961). From this perspective, when employees leave an organization, that organization may experience additional costs not only from the loss of accumulated human capital but also from the loss of investment costs in employees, such as the expenditure related to training and education or a cost related to improving

productivity, or both (Kang & Shivdasani, 1995).

Similar to human capital theory, social capital theory suggests that turnover can exhaust social capital, which is “a resource reflecting the character of social relations within the organization, realized through members’ levels of collective goal orientation and shared trust” (Leana & Van Buren, 1999, p. 540). Accordingly, Seibert et al. (2001) suggested that social capital may be created when the relationship among people changes in ways that facilitate instrumental action. This could imply that increases in turnover cause disruptions to operational and collective functions (Dess & Shaw, 2001). Thus, human and social capital theories brought great attention to the development of research related to turnover in many industries and suggested that turnover negatively influences organizational performance (Shaw et al., 2005).

Through social and human capital theories, turnover studies have reported a negative relation between turnover rates and organizational performance, including sales (Batt, 2002), customer service (Plomondon et al., 2007), profit (Van Iddekinge et al., 2009), and return on assets (Messersmith & Guthrie, 2010). Thus, many studies have also examined the relation between turnover and organizational performance within various disciplines, such as organizational psychology, sociology, economics, and human resource management (Park & Shaw, 2013).

McElroy, Morrow, and Rude (2001) investigated the impact of different types of turnover, including involuntary, voluntary, and reduction-in-force. Regardless of the type of turnover, after surveying sales representatives, management, and administrative employees in U.S. financial companies, they found that low reported turnover intention had positive outcomes for organizational performance. Moreover, analyzing data from

268 retail stores, Ton and Huckman (2008) discussed the positive impact of low turnover on organizational performance, specifically on profit margin and customer service performance. Similarly, by examining such relations among police officers in the US, Hur (2012) also found that low turnover intention had a significant positive effect on organizational performance.

Recently, Park and Shaw (2013) conducted a meta-analysis of 255 articles published before 2012 associated with the relation between turnover and organizational performance. The authors found that different levels of turnover intention were strongly associated with different types of organizational performance, regardless of the specific domain of industry. The authors further showed that the positive relation between low turnover intention and organizational performance was significant in customer satisfaction and quality measures. Moreover, work attitudes, workforce productivity, and financial performance were reported as significant and positive outcomes of low turnover intentions (Park & Shaw, 2013).

Multi-faceted Dimensions of Organizational Performance

Organizational performance may reflect the manner in which organizations work and the beliefs they represent when dealing with multiple stakeholders of the firm (Bourguignon, Malleret, & Nørreklit, 2004). Thus, a certain set of measures for explaining and evaluating organizational performance must satisfy a multitude of conceptual and technical criteria. As it is impossible for any single measure to meet all of the relevant criteria, the concept of organizational performance is widely recognized as including many different dimensions (Andrews, Boyne, & Walker, 2011; Dess, & Robinson, 1986; McElroy et al., 2001; Morrow & McElroy, 2007). Dess and Robinson

(1986) asserted that organizational performance must be considered as a multidimensional concept that measures both the subjective and objective performance of organizations.

Sustainability Performance

Given this study's interest in organizational sustainability performance due to employees' organizational citizenship behavior, it was necessary to assess the impact of OCB on an organization's sustainability performance. An organization's sustainability performance is an important measure to consider because many of today's organizations are under pressure to report on their sustainability efforts (Hubbard, 2009). Furthermore, today's emphasis on sustainable development forces firms to re-evaluate their business-as-usual approaches and to measure organizational performance based on three principles—environmental integrity, social equity, and economic prosperity. This is because organizational performance in one area can have an effect on the other two areas in today's market environment (Hubbard, 2009).

Corporate sustainability performance can positively impact an organization's reputation, its relationships with stakeholders, and even employee productivity (Lourenco et al., 2012). Eccles et al. (2014) found that organizations with high levels of sustainability performance exhibited low volatility, and achieved higher rates of return compared to those with low levels of sustainability performance. It may be that high levels of sustainability performance provide more benefits to employees, attract better human capital, and encourage product and process innovations to remain competitive, given the additional environmental and social constraints (Eccles et al., 2014).

Formally, business sustainability is defined as “adopting business strategies and activities that meet the needs of the enterprise and its stakeholders today while protecting, sustaining and enhancing the human and natural resources that will be needed in the future” (Goyal, Rahman, & Kazmi, 2013, p. 362). Accordingly, Lourenco, Branco, Curto, and Eugenio (2012) defined corporate sustainability performance as “measuring the extent to which a firm embraces environmental integrity, social equity and economic prosperity into its operations, and ultimately the impact they exert on the firm and society” (p. 417). Additionally, Eccles et al. (2014) explained that organizational sustainability performance should be viewed as a dynamic process that necessitates achieving short-term performance (meeting current needs) without compromising long-term performance (meeting future needs). In this light, sustainability performance can be categorized into three dimensions: financial, social, and environmental performance.

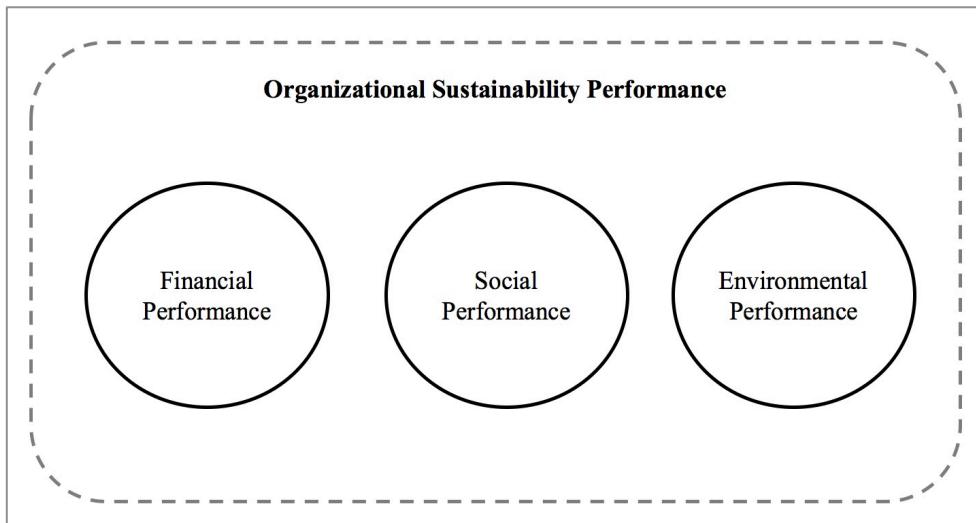


Figure 6. Dimensions of sustainability performance

The first dimension, financial performance, refers to a general measure of a firm's overall financial health over a given period of time (Investopedia.com). Without positive financial performance, an organization may not be able to continue its business operation.

Therefore, it has been the key measure to assess organization's performance. As mentioned previously, there are an ample number of studies showing that employees' low turnover intention positively affects an organization's financial performance, including sales (Batt, 2002), profit (Van Iddekinge et al., 2009), return on assets (Messersmith & Guthrie, 2010), and even customer service in the retail setting (Ton & Huckman, 2008).

Therefore, the following hypothesis is made:

Hypothesis 6: U.S. fashion retail employees' low turnover intentions positively affect the organization's financial performance.

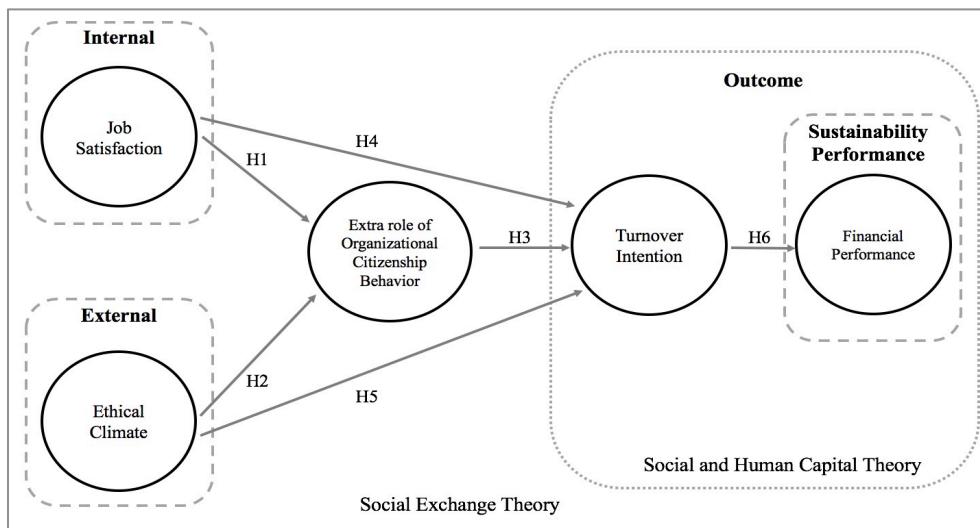


Figure 7. The relation between turnover intention and financial performance

The second dimension, social performance, is a “company's responsibilities to multiple stakeholders, such as employees and the community at large, in addition to its traditional responsibilities to economic shareholders” (Chen & Delmas, 2011, p. 789). According to Chen and Delmas (2011), social performance commonly measures “soft” indicators related to management practices, such as labor rights protection and the transparency of social and environmental performance reporting. In fact, Hartwig (2015)

stated that encouraging and valuing employees and their works may reduce turnover intention, which could, in turn, enhance social performance within organizations.

Conversely, according to Market Wired (2015), a high turnover rate makes it difficult for companies to build effective teams and therefore results in low social performance.

Accordingly, it is expected that a low turnover rate will help companies' overall social performance. Therefore, the following hypothesis is made:

Hypothesis 7: U.S. fashion retail employees' low turnover intentions positively affect an organization's social performance.

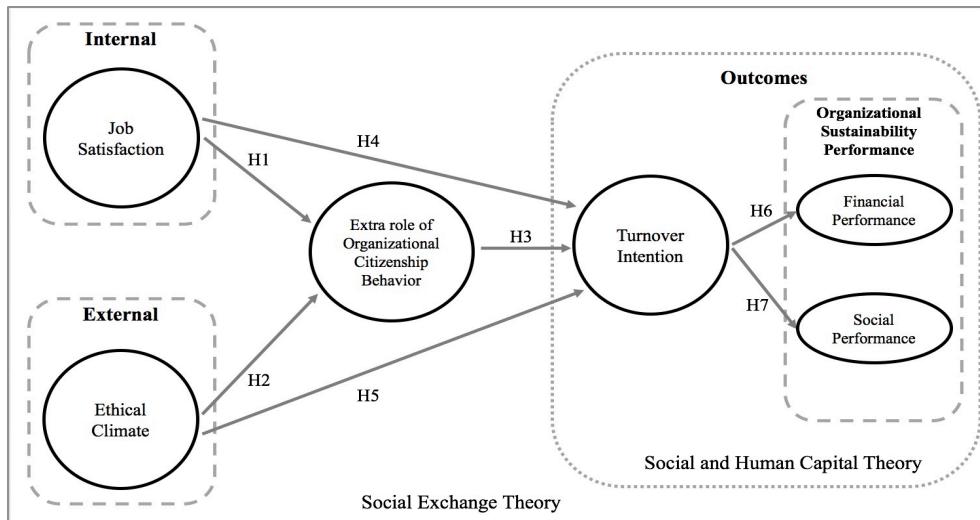


Figure 8. The relation between turnover intention and social performance

The third dimension, environmental performance, can be defined as “the results of an organization’s management of its environmental aspects or the totality of a firm’s behavior toward the natural environment (i.e. its level of total resource consumption and emissions)” (Bhattacharyya & Cummings, 2015, p. 310). Environmental performance can be divided into three aspects: (a) environmental impact such as toxicity, emissions, and energy use; (b) regulatory compliance such as noncompliance status, violation fees, and

number of audits; and (c) organizational processes such as environmental accounting, audits, reporting, and environmental management systems (Delmas & Blass, 2010, p. 246–247). Ramus and Steger (2000) asserted that employees' perceived ethical climate and organizational support, along with the operationalization of such qualities between organizations and their employees, could contribute to effective environmental performance and employees' eco-initiative development. In other words, low turnover intention among employees can improve environmental performance (a) by decreasing the environmental impact of the company through recycling and pollution prevention, (b) by solving an environmental problem in the company, and (c) by reducing the need for hazardous waste disposal or eliminating chemicals harmful to human health or the natural environment, or both (Ramus & Steger, 2000). Therefore, the following hypothesis is made:

Hypothesis 8: U.S. fashion retail employees' low turnover intentions positively affect the organization's environmental performance.

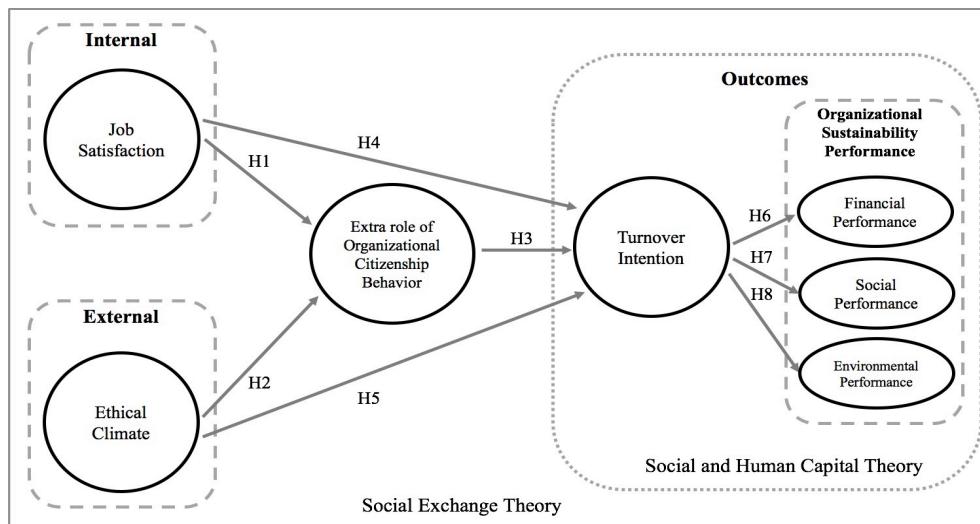


Figure 9. The relation between turnover intention and environmental performance

Summary of Study Hypotheses

Based on the review of the literature presented, this research employs the social exchange theory to understand the antecedents and outcomes of employees' organizational citizenship behavior and their impacts on the three dimensions of sustainability performance for U.S. fashion companies. The research hypotheses are summarized as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Job satisfaction positively influences U.S. fashion retail employees' extra-role organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 2. Ethical climate influences U.S. fashion retail employees' extra-role organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 3. Extra-role organizational citizenship behavior negatively influences U.S. fashion retail employees' turnover intention.

Hypothesis 4. Job satisfaction negatively influences U.S. fashion retail employees' turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5. An organization's overall ethical climate influences U.S. fashion retail employees' turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 6: U.S. fashion retail employees' low turnover intentions positively affect the organization's financial performance.

Hypothesis 7: U.S. fashion retail employees' low turnover intentions positively affect the organization's social performance.

Hypothesis 8: U.S. fashion retail employees' low turnover intentions positively affect the organization's environmental performance.

CHAPTER III. METHODS

This chapter describes the research methods applied to achieve the objectives of the study. The methods section includes the following subsections: (a) research design, (b) research instruments, (c) sample selection, (d) data collection, and (e) data analysis procedure.

Research Design

In this study, a quantitative research method was employed. As a systematic set of methods, a survey is a useful research method for collecting information to generate knowledge and to make conclusions from a selected group of people using standardized questionnaires (Lavrakas, 2008). Compared to other data collection methods, survey methods allow the collection of a significant amount of data in an economical and efficient manner, and they typically allow for much larger sample sizes. Consequently, surveys are the predominant tool used by businesses, academics, politicians, and various decision makers.

An online survey was administered in this study. With the increasing accessibility of the Internet, online survey methods have become a straightforward and rapid way of collecting data from large populations of individuals and therefore have become the predominant method used by many scholars to conduct survey research (Fraley, 2004). An online survey also offers the advantage of targeting specific populations (Gaddis, 1998). Without the constraints of time, location, and preferences, an online survey provides the most convenient method for respondents to respond to a questionnaire according to their own pace (Sax, Gilmartin, & Bryant, 2003).

Above all, online surveys can save publishing, distribution, and subsequent survey collection costs, including data entry, printing expenses, stamps, and traveling expenses (Cook, Heath, & Thompson, 2000). Through online surveys, researchers can gather data more efficiently and effectively because software programs can automatically sort and save responses into databases, saving labor and time (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2008). Further, an online survey can secure anonymity, which may help to increase the rate of valid responses, especially for questionnaires involving sensitive information (Lewis, Watson, & White, 2009).

Sampling Technique

Once the approval of the University's Institutional Review Board was granted, participants were recruited through Qualtrics—a professional survey company. Qualtrics, which recruits from a diverse population of over 30 million people every month, is recognized as the premier online survey platform for customer, market, and employee insights across all industries (Qualtrics, LLC, 2015). In order to recruit appropriate participants for this research, a Qualtrics representative undertook various recruitment processes among panel companies that Qualtrics typically uses (email personal communication, February 23, 2016). For instance, the researcher was informed that the recruitment process could be “through a form of advertisement, as well as face-to-face or telephone” (email personal communication, February 23, 2016). Mobile applications, hotel or airline rewards member programs, social media sites, and online browsing were all sources used by Qualtrics to recruit participants. Once respondents joined a panel and entered all of their information, that information was cross-verified with social media avenues, third party credit verification, LinkedIn, IP addresses localization, etc.

Due to the research objectives, purposive sampling was administered. Purposive sampling is a technique to select “on the basis of your own knowledge of the population, its elements, and the nature of your research aims” (Babbie, 1990). Participants are selected according to the needs of the study, and applicants who do not meet the profile are rejected. Thus, through this purposive sampling technique, the researcher is able to select participants based on internal knowledge of said characteristics. Consequently, this method is more useful to study a small subset of a larger population through which it may be easier to make generalizations about the study sample (Babbie, 1990), compared to a random sample where not all participants have the characteristics required for the study. To fit the needs of study objective, participants were required to be over 18 years of age and to be employees fulfilling the functions of individuals who are employed in the fashion retail industry.

With these two sampling techniques, there may be limitations as to the representativeness of the population, which can affect the external validity of the study. To limit such issues, the process was strictly controlled and screening questions were added. In order to precisely target the participants, five screening questions were added to the survey to ensure participants were current employees in the fashion retail industry. The first screening question asked, “Are you 18 years old or above?”, while the second screening question provided, “Are you working full-time in the US?” The third question included was, “Have you worked more than one year with your current company?”

The fourth question inquired as to the number of employees in the participant's company by asking, “Does your company have more than two employees?” Finally, the fifth question provided participants with a definition of the fashion retail industry, namely,

“an industry that engages in retail merchandises related to fashion clothing, fashion accessories and fashion shoes, and ultimately markets it to target consumers.” Following this statement, participants were asked, “Do you work full-time in any categories that are listed above or related to fashion retail?” To proceed to the survey questions, the participants were required to respond to all five screening questions in the affirmative.

Research Instruments

The survey consisted of six parts, measuring (a) job satisfaction, (b) ethical climate, (c) organizational citizenship behavior, (d) turnover intention, (e) organizational sustainability performance, and (f) demographic variables.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was adopted from Schweipler (2001), who used 3-item scales (reported Cronbach alpha = .88). Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scales ranging from (1) strongly agree to (5) *strongly disagree*. The responses were reverse coded as higher scores indicate greater job satisfaction. Three items were modified to examine employees’ satisfaction with their employment in the fashion retail industry, such as, “My work gives me a sense of accomplishment” and “I am really doing something worthwhile in my job.”

Ethical Climate

Ethical climate is adopted from Huang et al. (2012), which used 14-item scales (reported Cronbach alpha ranged from .52 to .82). Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) *mostly false* to (5) *mostly true*. The wording of 14 items was modified to ask valid questions to employees in the fashion retail industry. Those items

included, “What is best for everyone in my company is the major consideration here,” “In my company, everyone is expected to strictly follow store and company policies or professional standards,” and “In my company, people protect their own interests above all else.”

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior is measured with scales that were adapted from Huang et al. (2012) and Shin (2012). All items were measured on a 5-point Likert scales ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) *strongly agree*. Relating to OCBI, 4-item scales were adopted from Shin (2012) (reported Cronbach alpha = .84), and for OCBO, 4-item scales were derived from Huang et al. (2012) (reported Cronbach alpha = .66), together aiming to measure overall extra-role organizational citizenship behavior. Eight items in total examined extra-role organizational citizenship behavior. These included, “I go out of way to help new employees in my company,” “I help other colleagues who have heavy workloads in my company,” and “I attend functions that are not required but that help my company’s image overall.”

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention was measured with scales from Brashears, Manolis, and Brooks (2005). Six items (reported Cronbach’s alpha = 0.92) measured on 5-point Likert scales from (1) *strongly disagree* to (5) *strongly agree*. Examples included, “I often think about quitting my present job” and “I intent to quit my present job.”

Organizational Sustainability Performance

By taking into account environmental integrity, social equity, economic prosperity, and ultimately the impact they exert on the firm and society (Lourenco, Branco, Curto, & Eugenio, 2012), organizational sustainability performance is measured using three dimensions: financial, social and environmental performance.

First, the financial performance scale was adopted from Choi and Yu (2014) (reported Cronbach's alpha = 0.954). Three items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale from (1) *strongly disagree* to (5) *strongly agree* as to the extent to which the participant agreed with the statement. Those items included, “Our company has a competitive advantage in its sales and profit growth,” “Our company has a competitive advantage in its cost saving and efficiency,” and “Our company has a competitive advantage in its brand improvement.” These questions were modified into survey question formats. Thus, the three items that were included were, “I am aware that our company has a competitive advantage in its sales and profit growth,” “I am aware that our company has a competitive advantage in its cost saving and efficiency,” and “I am aware that our company has a competitive advantage in its brand value.”

Due to lack of existing reliable scales for organizational social and environmental performance, the study created new scales using the exploratory study of Eccles et al. (2014). They recommended certain items for measuring environmental and social policies that have been implemented by a variety of organizations and companies. However, reliability scales were not available in the study of Eccles et al. (2014). They asked three questions related to social performance: “Does the company have a policy to strive to be a good corporate citizen?”, “Does the company show to use human rights

criteria in the selection or monitoring process of its suppliers or sourcing partners?” and “Does the company have a policy to respect business ethics or has the company signed the UN Global Compact or followed the OECD guidelines?”

These questions were modified into survey question formats. Thus, the three items that were included were, “I am aware that my company has a policy to strive to be a good corporate citizen,” “I am aware that my company has a policy to advocate human rights in the selection or monitoring process of its business partners,” and “I am aware that my company has a policy to respect business ethics.”

Environmental performance scales were developed in a similar fashion as the social performance scales. Eccles et al.(2014) asked participants to assess firms' environmental performance with the following three questions: “Does the company have initiatives to reduce the environmental impact of transportation of its products or its staff?”, “Does the company have initiatives to reduce the environmental impact of transportation of its products or its staff?”, and “Does the company have a policy to improve its energy efficiency?”

In this study, the scale was modified and three items were included, such as “I am aware that my company has an initiative to reduce, reuse, and recycle,” “I am aware that my company has an initiative to reduce the negative environmental impact of its products,” and “I am aware that my company has a policy to improve its energy efficiency.”

Demographic information

Lastly, employee demographic information was collected, such as job title, years of experience, location of employment, gender, age, marital status, ethnicity, number of

children, age of children, household income level, and educational background. These demographic variables assisted in providing more contextual descriptions of the employees in the U.S. fashion retail industry. Table 5 shows all the initial scale items developed or adopted in the study.

Table 5

Survey constructs, Items sources, and Cronbach's Alphas

Construct: Job Satisfaction			
Dimensions	Source	Reported Cronbach α	Scale Items
Job Satisfaction	Schwepker (2001)	.90	My work gives me a sense of accomplishment. My work is satisfying. I am really doing something worthwhile in my job.
Construct: Ethical Climate			
Dimensions	Source	Reported Cronbach α	Scale Items
Caring	Huang et al. (2012)	.81	The most important concern is the good of all the people in my company as a whole. What is best for everyone in my company is the major consideration here. My major concern is always what is best for the other person.
Law and Code	Huang et al. (2012)	.52	In my company, the law or ethical code of the profession is the major consideration. In my company, everyone is expected to strictly follow company policies or professional standards. Everyone is expected to comply with the company policies and standards over and above other considerations.
Rules	Huang et al. (2012)	.60	Successful people in my company go by the book. People in my company strictly obey company policies.
Instrumental	Huang et al. (2012)	.51	Employees are expected to do anything to protect my company's financial interests, regardless of the consequences. In searching for the company's financial interests, there is no room for one's own personal morals or ethics in this company. In my company, people protect their own interests above all else.
Independent	Huang et al. (2012)	.67	In this company, everyone is expected to follow their own personal and moral beliefs. In this company, everyone is guided by their own personal ethics. Each person in this company decides for themselves what is right and wrong.

Table 5. (Continued)

Construct: Organizational Citizenship Behavior		
Dimensions	Source	Reported Cronbach α
Organizational Citizenship Behavior-Interpersonal (OCBI)	Shin (2012) .84	I go out of way to help new employees in my company. I help other colleagues who have heavy workloads in my company. I help other colleagues who have been absent in my company I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries in my company.
Organizational Citizenship Behavior-Organization (OCBO)	Huang, You, & Tsai (2012) .66	I attend functions that are not required but that help my company's image overall. I make suggestions to improve my store/company. I volunteer for tasks that are not required to help my company in general. I follow my company's informal rules devised to help my company to be better.
Construct: Turnover Intention		
Dimensions	Source	Reported Cronbach α
Turnover intention	Brashears, Manolis, & Brooks (2005) .92	I often think about quitting my present job. I intend to quit my present job. I often think about an alternative job. During the next 12 months, I intend to search for an alternative role (another job, full-time student, etc.) from my current job. I have searched for a new job recently. I am constantly searching for a new job.

Table 5.(Continued)

Construct: Organizational Sustainability Performance			
Dimensions	Source	Reported Cronbach α	Scale Items
Financial Performance	Choi & Yu (2014) .95		I am aware that our company has a competitive advantage in its sales and profit growth I am aware that our company has a competitive advantage in its cost saving and efficiency
Social Performance	Eccles, Ioannou & Serafeim (2014) N/A		I am aware that our company has a competitive advantage in its brand value I am aware that my company has a policy to strive to be a good corporate citizen. I am aware that my company has a policy to respect business ethics. I am aware that my company has a policy to advocate human rights in the selection or monitoring process of its business partners.
Environmental Performance	Eccles, Ioannou & Serafeim (2014) N/A		I am aware that my company has an initiative to reduce, reuse, and recycle. I am aware that my company has an initiative to reduce the environmental impact of its products. I am aware that my company has an initiative to reduce the environmental impact of its staff. I am aware that my company has a policy to improve its energy efficiency.

Data collection

The online survey was administered by Qualtrics. As the number of Internet users increases, online surveys are used as a research data collection technique to reach diverse populations (Couper & Miller, 2008). To test the feasibility, equipment, and methods, an initial pilot study was conducted, which is a small-scale preliminary study of the larger research design (Leon, Davis, & Kraemer, 2011). Generally, a pilot study is used to test the design of the full-scale experiment, which provides valuable insights to improve the probability of an improved outcome for the full-scale experiment (Leon et al., 2011). It may prevent a waste of time and money resulting from an improperly designed project. To ensure a reasonable effect size for the pilot study, Moore and his colleagues (2011) recommended at least 12 participants for pilot studies with a primary focus on estimating average values and variability for planning larger subsequent studies.

A pilot study was conducted with members of the relevant population and was completed by 12 participants who fit into the study's sample frame. No difficulties or issues relating to measurement items were reported. Moreover, all participants found that the instructions and wording of the survey were easily understood. Thus, no modification was made prior to the final survey.

Accordingly, a formal survey was created before contacting Qualtrics to proceed with data collection. Qualtrics managed the data collection process, from recruiting participants and data gathering, to screening survey questionnaires. Prior to administering the formal survey, the Qualtrics representative reviewed the survey and added a quality check question to improve the quality of the data, namely, "I will answer neither for this line." Moreover, three questions—age, gender, and level of education—were introduced

as quota questions. However, target recruitment related to certain options for age (65 or older) and level of education (doctorate) were adjusted to less than 5%, due to the small population of such people within the sample frame. To recruit appropriate participants for this research, the Qualtrics representative recruited and invited panels through a form of advertisement and email, as well as in person and by telephone. Once respondents joined a panel and entered all of their information, that information was verified through various means, such as cross-referencing with social media sites like LinkedIn, third party credit verification, and IP address localization.

Sample size can be highly effected on the structural equation modeling. To determine sample size, a statistics power analysis software, G*Power, was used (UCLA: Statistical Consulting Group, 2016). Power analysis is essential before initiating research, as low statistical power may lead no effect while an “overpowered” study may produce results showing a significant effect, i.e. practical or clinical significance, when no such significance exists (Kline, 2011). Cohen’s d defines effect sizes as small (.10), medium (.30) and large (.50) (Cohen, 1977). Though G*Power, the required sample size was calculated to be 214 for this study, with .22 effect size (UCLA: Statistical Consulting Group, 2016). Thus, the study targeted to achieve the sample size in range of 250 to 300.

Qualtrics collected 309 responses in total and the researcher paid US\$11.75 per response. While under the contract only 300 responses were to be collected, Qualtrics permitted a small oversample at no additional cost. Data collection was conducted over a period of approximately two weeks in the spring of 2016. According to Qualtrics, a total of 401 participants started a survey, but only 309 responses were completed and capable

of being used for further data analysis. Consequently, the total response rate was reported to be 77%.

Data Analysis

In this research, data were analyzed using both SPSS and Mplus statistics software. Prior to testing hypotheses in this research, it was necessary to check the data screening techniques and assess the basic assumptions in SPSS. Then, a two-step approach was employed to conduct empirical data analysis using structural equation modeling.

Data Screening

Missing Data. It is imperative to check for missing data because it cannot be accurately estimated. Thus, once survey results were collected, each survey response was scanned to check the completion of the survey. By transferring the survey response into a SPSS data file, all data were checked and there were no missing data within the 309 usable responses.

Outliers. Outliers were evaluated for response patterns that recorded either being all "1" or "5" on all 40 measurement items, and 3 dataset were excluded from further analysis. Multivariate outliers are observations that are inconsistent with the correlational structure of the dataset, and can be identified with Mahalanobis distance (Hair et al., 2006). Mahalanobis distance measures the distance of a data point from the calculated centroid of the other cases where the centroid is calculated as the intersection of the mean of the variables being assessed (Hair et al., 2006). The Squared Mahalanobis distance of 40 items was evaluated to assess, with 73.40 critical value as a cut off, if potential multivariate outliers exist in the SPSS (Hair et al., 2006). Twenty eight responses were

detected as multivariate outliers exceeding the critical value (>73.40), and were excluded from further analysis.

Multicollinearity. Multicollinearity was measured in a multiple regression model by observing the correlation matrix for high-correlation coefficients (> 0.9) between predictor variables (Hair et al., 2006). Multicollinearity may not reduce the predictive power or reliability of the model, and it may not give valid results about any individual predictor or about which predictors are redundant with respect to others (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance measures were assessed to evaluate multicollinearity assessments. To determine multicollinearity, values of VIF that exceed 10 (> 10), and tolerance that surpass 1 (>1) were considered (Hair et al., 2006). No data suggest multicollinearity among the measurement items.

Normality. To determine if a data set is well-modeled by a normal distribution, normality assessments were evaluated by measuring skewness, kurtosis, and the Shapiro-Wilk test for univariate normality. For normal univariate distribution, values for asymmetry and kurtosis between ± 2 are considered acceptable (George & Mallery, 2010). A few survey items revealed kurtosis that exceeded ± 2 . However, as kurtosis may not affect robustness of model fit, those items were maintained for the measurement modeling fit process (Hu & Bentler, 1995). Overall, non-normality did not hinder this data analysis, and was determined for the measured variable in the model.

After basic assumptions were evaluated, 278 data were analyzed in total, yielding an effective response rate of 69%. Subsequently, the core components of statistical analysis were engaged using structural equation modeling (SEM). Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach was employed for empirical data analysis: (a)

establishing psychometric properties, which includes developing the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) measurement model and assessing construct validity; and (b) measuring the structural relations that exist among latent variables in the measurement model.

Assessing the Measurement Model

Prior to examining hypothesis relationships, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) recommended assessing measurement model and construct validity. The confirmatory factor analysis is one of the most effective tools used to test construct validity as it typically tests the extent to which data provide the following: (a) convergent validity, that is, the extent to which different assessment methods show similar measurements of the same trait; and (b) discriminant validity, that is, the extent to which independent assessment methods show divergent measurements of different traits (Choi & Yu, 2014).

The measurement model is a necessary step to assess for model fit. By observing fit statistics associated with the measurement model of the latent constructs and their respective measurement items, the goodness of fit can be evaluated. The evaluation occurs under circumstances in which the *p*-value associated with the χ^2 (Chi-squared) statistic is higher than .10; and which all values, such as Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), indicate higher than .90; and which the RMSEA and SRMR Indices denote less than .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1995).

Overall, CFI and RMSEA are frequently acclaimed as fit indices (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). If fit statistics do not meet requirements of these fit indices, it may be necessary to delete items under some theoretical justification (Hu & Bentler, 1995). A point of reference to consider in item deletion is the Modification Indices or the Standardized Residuals, which can provide an indication as to the improvement of fit

resulting from deletion of a particular item. The development and assessment of the measurement model in this research are discussed in Chapter 4.

Furthermore, it is necessary to measure reliability, which indicates the extent to which a measure is repeatable or stable with a suggested threshold value higher than 0.70 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). By measuring the consistency of a measure, a reliable measure consistently reports the same results, which assumes the underlying phenomenon that is being measured has not changed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Assessing the Structural Model

The second step is to examine structural relationships that exist among latent variables in the measurement model. This approach involves developing an *a priori* theoretically hypothesized causal model and measuring the goodness of fit. When a goodness of fit is revealed as poor, it requires a decision to either add or remove particular paths (based on theoretical justification), which will enhance model fit.

Subsequently, investigating the path coefficients will help to assess the actual hypothesis testing of the research. As hypothesized paths report to be supported, it requires exploring the significance of the path coefficients that are *t* statistic and the associated *p*-value. By evaluating the extent of the path coefficients, hypothesized relationships can be determined as strong or negligible. Furthermore, it is important to assess the direct, indirect, and total effect, as some relationships may involve both direct and indirect effects on an endogenous (dependent) variable. Therefore, in order to underline all necessary influences, it is critical to explore suggested effects. The structural model assessment results that are associated with this research are discussed in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the analysis procedures that were employed in this study and their subsequent results. This chapter divided into three major sections: (a) descriptions of the study sample, (b) results analysis and hypothesis testing, and (c) results discussion.

Descriptions of the Study Sample

Demographic Descriptions

A total of 278 data were analyzed. Participant distribution was as follows: 145 participants were female (52.2%) and 133 were male (47.8%). Participants were young, in general, with 93 participants in the range of 18 to 24 years of age (33.5%), 98 between 25 and 44 years of age (35.3%), 83 between 45 and 64 years of age (29.9%), and 4 being 65 years of age or older (1.4%). Most participants' educational backgrounds included at least some higher education; only 68 reported their level of education as high school graduate or less (24.5%). For the remainder, 70 attended some college (25.2%), 82 had received an associate's or bachelor's degree (29.5%), 51 held a master's or professional degree (18.3%), and 7 had earned a doctoral degree (2.5%).

As to marital status, 133 participants were married (47.8%), 113 never married (40.6%), 26 divorced (9.4%), 4 widowed (1.4%), and 2 separated (0.7%). With respect to ethnicity, the majority of participants were White/Caucasian with 185 (66.5%), followed by 38 Hispanic/Latino (13.7%), 29 Black/African American (10.4%), 17 Asian (6.1%), and 4 Other (1.4%). Tables 6 through 8 present detailed information concerning the demographic characteristics of the study sample.

Table 6

Demographic Characteristics of Participants (n = 278).

Variable	n	Percent
Gender		
Male	133	47.8%
Female	145	52.2%
Age		
18 – 24	93	33.5%
25 – 44	98	35.3%
45 – 65	83	29.9%
66 or older	4	1.4%
Educational Background		
High school graduate or less	68	24.5%
Some college	70	25.2%
Associate/Bachelor degree	82	29.5%
Master's or Professional degree	51	18.3%
Doctorate	7	2.5%
Marriage Status		
Married	133	47.8%
Widowed	4	1.4%
Divorced	26	9.4%
Separated	2	0.7%
Never Married	113	40.6%
Ethnicity		
American Indian/Alaskan Native	1	0.4%
Asian	17	6.1%
Black/African American	29	10.4%
Hispanic/Latino	38	13.7%
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	4	1.4%
White	185	66.5%
Other	4	1.4%

In addition, participants were asked where in the US they lived. Participants resided throughout the country, although some states were more popular than others. The greatest number of participants, 31, live in New York (11.2%), followed by 30 in

California (10.8%), 18 in Florida (6.5%), 15 in Pennsylvania (5.4%), and 12 in Virginia (4.3%). More detailed information for the most prevalent living areas are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Demographic Characteristics of Participants (n = 278).

Variable	n	Percent
Most populated living area (> 9)**		
California	30	10.8%
Florida	18	6.5%
Georgia	11	4.0%
Illinois	10	3.6%
Indiana	10	3.6%
New York	31	11.2%
Ohio	10	3.6%
Pennsylvania	15	5.4%
Texas	10	3.6%
Virginia	12	4.3%

Note: States with more than 9 participants**

Additionally, job-related demographic descriptions were analyzed with detailed information, which appears in Table 8. Of the 278 data, the majority of participants, 182, work in privately owned retail (65.5%), while 73 participants work in publicly owned retail (26.3%). The remaining 23 participants (8.3%) did not know whether their employment was in private or publicly owned retail. Participants worked in companies of varying sizes: 41 worked in companies having between 2 and 10 employees (14.7%); 75 between 11 and 50 employees (27%); 82 between 51 and 250 employees (29.5%); 28 between 251 and 500 employees (10.1%); and 52 over 501 employees (18.7%).

In terms of job responsibilities, 114 of the participants have work relating to sales (41%), followed by 81 in store management (29.1%), 51 in buying or merchandising

(18.3%), 16 in human resources (5.8%), and 16 in various other areas (5.8%), such as creative design, department leadership, marketing, wholesale, quality assurance, and logistics. Relating to income level in 2015, 102 participants (36.7%) reported an earned income in the range of US\$25,001–\$50,000, followed by 74 participants (26.6%) earning US\$50,001–\$75,000; 39 participants (14%) earning US\$75,001–\$100,000; 35 participants (12.6%) earning US\$100,001 or more; and 28 participants (10.1%) earning US\$25,000 or less.

Table 8

Work Related Demographic Characteristics of Participants (n = 278).

Variable	n	Percent
Company owned by		
Private	182	65.5%
Publicly	73	26.3%
Don't know	23	8.3%
Number of employees		
Between 2 and 10	41	14.7%
Between 11 and 50	75	27.0%
Between 51 and 250	82	29.5%
Between 251 and 500	28	10.1%
Over 501	52	18.7%
Job Responsibility		
Sales	114	41.0%
Store Management	81	29.1%
Buying or Merchandising	51	18.3%
Human Resources	16	5.8%
Others	16	5.8%
Individual income in 2015		
\$25,000 or less	28	10.1%
\$25,001 – \$50,000	102	36.7%
\$50,001 – \$75,000	74	26.6%
\$75,001 – \$100,000	39	14.0%
\$100,001 or above	35	12.6%

Descriptive means and standard deviations were analyzed for participants' years of experience in the fashion retail industry, as it is a continuous demographic characteristic. Years of experience ranged from 1 year to 35 years, with a mean of 7.73 years. The demographic characteristics in this study sample were expected to some degree. The majority of participants resided in large cities where major retailers exist, in states such as New York, California, and Ohio. This was anticipated, considering that New York and Los Angeles are the two largest fashion hubs in the US, and the fashion industry employs more than 180,000 people in New York, NY alone, with approximately half of them working in fashion retail (NYCEDC, 2015). In addition, many participants reported that they work in sales, privately owned, and small and medium-sized enterprises with less than 250 employees in the company.

Results Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

This part discusses the results of the measurement and structural models of the proposed research model. First, the original *a priori* measurement model of variables in the hypothesized structural model was condensed and specified over several iterations to reduce standardized residuals and obtain acceptable model fit (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In consideration of modification indices, covariance relations were added to the model. Also, insignificant factor loadings were deleted (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). After carefully adding covariances and deleting items, the analysis of model fit became satisfactory (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

The next step of the analysis involved establishing the psychometric properties of the measures and the reporting of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (Nunnally, Bernstein, & Berge, 1967). Finally, the theoretical framework was subjected to an

analysis using structural equation modeling. The structural model's standardized path estimates, est./s.e. values, and *p*-values are discussed, along with the goodness of model fit indices. Moreover, *post hoc* analysis was conducted to investigate other relations and to obtain acceptable model fit.

The measurement model

Through the measurement model, a few items were suggested for deletion, and the item deletion procedure was conducted one at a time. Through this process, seven items from the ethical climate construct, including the "independence" dimension, were removed due to low factor loadings and high correlation. Thereafter, due to high correlations, one item from each of organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention was deleted.

Furthermore, the convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement model was checked with the average variance extracted (AVE). Convergent validity tests constructs that are expected to be related while discriminant validity refers to the distinctiveness of different constructs (Guo et al., 2008). First, the AVE of each latent construct was evaluated with a cut off criterion of .50 or higher (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). With two observed constructs (OCBI and OCBO) under organizational citizenship behavior, OCBO initially revealed an AVE of less than .50, which needed to be adjusted for further analysis. However, when OCBI and OCBO were combined into one latent construct of organizational citizenship behavior, the OCB construct satisfied the AVE cut off value of .50 (Hair et al., 2011). That is, overall AVEs of all latent constructs within the measurement model satisfied the criteria of the convergent validity (Hair et al., 2011).

In order to establish discriminant validity, it was necessary to evaluate if the square root of every AVE value belonging to each latent construct is much larger than any correlation among any pair of latent constructs. When comparing AVE with the correlation coefficient, it has to satisfy the condition that the items of the construct explain more variance than do the items of the other constructs (Guo et al., 2008). The AVE of each latent construct was higher than the construct's highest squared correlations with any other latent constructs, except environmental performance. The AVE values for environmental performance reflected a higher squared correlation than social performance. Removing one item of social performance solved this problem, and all latent variables within the measurement model were deemed to satisfy the discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2011).

As a result, the measurement model of all latent variables in the hypothesized structural model had χ^2 value of 571.588 (d.f. = 378; p -value < .001), a corresponding CFI of .963, a TLI of .958, an RMSEA of .043, and an SRMR of .040 at acceptable levels of model fit. Although p -value of χ^2 was less than .10 due to a high sample size, all other fit indices showed an acceptable fit. The loadings for all the factors were high, all above .60, and corresponding est./s.e. values were statistically significant.

Overall, the scales included in this model exhibited acceptable reliability with Cronbach's α over .70 (Hair et al., 2011). Cronbach α was .925 for job satisfaction, ethical climate as .771, and organizational citizenship behavior as .878, and turnover intention as .925. Moreover, the three dimensions of sustainability performance fell within the acceptable range of reliability: financial performance at .871, social performance at .805, and environmental performance at .864, all above the .7 lower limit,

indicating strong internal consistency of the respective items (see Table 9). Three observed constructs relating to ethical climate indicated its construct reliability as caring (.848), laws and rules (.723), and instrument (.688), indicating acceptable internal consistency of the items above .6.

Table 9

Confirmatory Factor Analysis, Measurement Model, and Scale Reliabilities (n = 278).

Construct	Item	Standardized Parameter Estimates	Est./S.E.*	p-value
Job Satisfaction	J1	.913	63.907	.001
<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i> = .925	J2	.927	69.484	.001
	J3	.858	45.804	.001
Ethical Climate				
	Caring $\alpha = .848$	E1	.873	.001
<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i> = .771		E2	.844	.001
	Law & Rule $\alpha = .723$	E4	.772	.001
		E6	.664	.001
		E8	.591	.001
	Instrument $\alpha = .688$	E9	.854	.001
		E10	.617	.001
Organizational Citizenship Behavior				
<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i> = .878	O1	.783	28.882	.001
	O2	.823	34.865	.001
	O3	.730	23.119	.001
	O4	.660	17.762	.001
	O6	.694	20.037	.001
	O7	.626	15.714	.001
	O8	.702	20.657	.001
Turnover Intention				
<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i> = .925	T1	.848	34.063	.001
	T2	.841	33.564	.001
	T3	.797	30.029	.001
	T5	.841	34.051	.001

	T6	.840	34.314	.001
Financial Performance	Z1	.850	38.584	.001
<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i> =.871	Z2	.872	42.651	.001
	Z3	.781	28.061	.001
Social Performance	S1	.855	32.044	.001
<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i> =.805	S2	.788	26.205	.001
Environmental Performance	P1	.782	22.860	.001
<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i> =.864	P2	.798	24.150	.001
	P3	.808	26.217	.001
Goodness-of-Fit Indices				
$\chi^2 = 571.588$, d.f. = 378, <i>p-value</i> = .0001; CFI = .963; TLI = .958; RMSEA = .043; 90% C.I. RMSEA = .036 .050; SRMR = .040				

Note: Item numbers with their corresponding survey questionnaire number can be found in Appendix D.; EST./S.E. is the estimates divided by their respective standard errors *

Initial Structural Model Analysis

The structural model reported its goodness of model fit indices to be $\chi^2 = 759.589$ (d.f. = 387, *p-value* < .000), CFI = .930; and TLI = .921; RMSEA = .059. However, the SRMR of .150 exceeded its acceptable value of less than .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999) (see Figure 10). Due to the high SRMR, the hypothesized model indicated to be a poor fit, suggesting that the structural model is not optimal based on mis-specified factor covariance (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Subsequently, further model modifications were performed to find a better model fit. This was done with theoretical consultation, which showed three statistically insignificant paths.

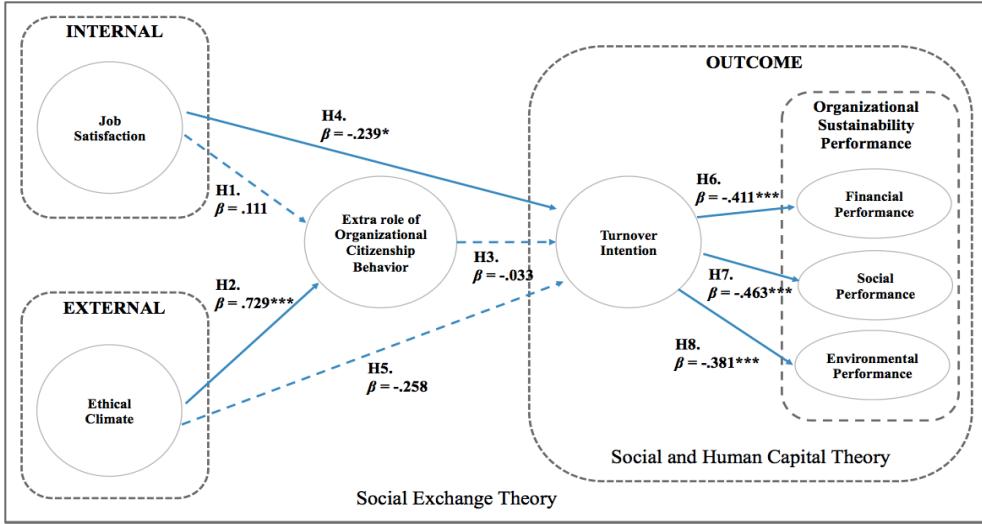


Figure 10: Results of the Initial Structural Model Analysis.

Note: The results showed a poor fit, suggesting further model modifications ($\chi^2 = 759.589$ (d.f. = 387, p -value < .000), CFI = .930; and TLI = .921; RMSEA = .059; SRMR = .150); *** is significant at $p < .001$; ** is significant at $p < .05$

Modified Structural Model Analysis

Based on modification indices and theoretical support, two modifications were made to the model. First, three statistically insignificant relations were removed. They were, the relation between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (standardized parameter estimate = .111; p -value = .088), the relation between organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention (standardized parameter estimate = -.033; p -value = .793), and the relation between ethical climate and turnover intention (standardized parameter estimate = -.258; p -value = .057).

Second, the model modification indices suggested adding the three paths from organizational citizenship behavior to each of the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance. These suggested relations were consistent with previous studies in that one of the most important outcomes of organizational citizenship behavior is enhanced organizational performance (Nielsen, Hrvnak, & Shaw, 2016; Oh, Chen, &

Sun, 2015; Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007). Blau's (1964) social exchange theory is often cited as a theoretical framework to support the positive relation between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational performance.

That is, the literature supports the idea that organizational citizenship behavior has a direct effect on organizational sustainability performance, rather than an indirect effect through turnover intention. Although the purpose of this research was to find the role of turnover intention between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational sustainability performance, the effects of turnover intention were found to be statistically insignificant in this study. Thus, the direct effect of organizational citizenship behavior on organizational sustainability performance had to be considered.

After the modification to the initial structural model, the results of the modified structural model showed an acceptable model fit ($\chi^2 = 609.925$ d.f. = 387, p -value < .001), CFI = .958; TLI = .953; RMSEA = .046; SRMR = .057), suggesting a better and more acceptable model compared to the initial structural model. Figure 11 presents the structural model results of a suggested modified structural *hoc* model, and detailed information on the model fit indices is discussed in Appendix D.

All path relations presented in Figure 11 were statistically significant, as more particularly set out in Table 10. Within this modified structural model, the remaining study hypotheses were assessed.

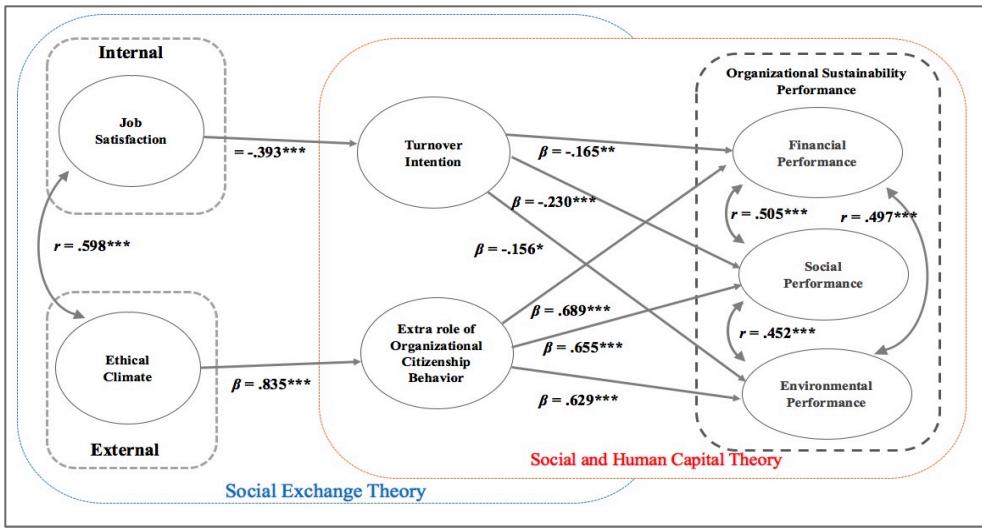


Figure 11: Modified Research Model.

Note: $\chi^2 = 609.925$, d.f. = 387, $p\text{-value} < .0001$; CFI = .958; TLI = .953; RMSEA = .046; 90% C.I. RMSEA = .039 .052; SRMR = .057); *** is significant at $p < .001$; ** is significant at $p < .05$

Table 10

Modified Structural Model's Parameter Estimates, est/s.e., and significance levels (n=278).

Paths in the Model	Standardized Parameter Estimates	EST./S.E.*	p-value
Ethical climate (EC) → Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)	.835	27.046	.001
Job satisfaction (JS) → Turnover intention (TI)	-.393	-6.963	.01
Turnover intention (TI) → Financial performance (FP)	-.165	-3.025	.05
Turnover intention (TI) → Social performance (SP)	-.230	-3.912	.001
Turnover intention (TI) → Environmental performance (EP)	-.156	-2.543	.050
Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) → Financial performance (FP)	.689	16.438	.001

			Goodness-of-Fit Indices
Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) → Social performance (SP)	.655	13.550	.001
Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) → Environmental performance (EP)	.629	12.436	.001
Job satisfaction (JS) ↘ Ethical climate (EC) ↗	.598	12.857	.001
Financial performance (FP) ↗ Social performance (SP) ↗	.505	6.718	.001
Financial performance (FP) ↗ Environmental performance (EP) ↗	.452	6.029	.001
Social performance (SP) ↗ Environmental performance (EP) ↗	.497	6.174	.001
Job satisfaction (JS) → Turnover intention (TI) → Financial performance (FP)	.065	2.750	.005
Job satisfaction (JS) → Turnover intention (TI) → Social performance (SP)	.090	3.373	.001
Job satisfaction (JS) → Turnover intention (TI) → Environmental performance (EP)	.061	2.366	.05
Ethical Climate (EC) → Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) → Financial performance (FP)	.575	13.180	.001
Ethical Climate (EC) → Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) → Social performance (SP)	.547	11.388	.001
Ethical Climate (EC) → Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) → Environmental performance (EP)	.526	10.693	.001

Note: EST./S.E. is the estimates divided by their respective standard errors *

$$\chi^2 = 609.925, \text{ d.f.} = 387, p\text{-value} < .0001; \text{ CFI} = .958; \text{ TLI} = .953; \\ \text{RMSEA} = .046; 90\% \text{ C.I. RMSEA} = .039 \text{ } .052; \text{ SRMR} = .057$$

First, the relation between ethical climate and organizational citizenship behavior was found to be statistically significant (standardized parameter estimate = .835; p -value < .001), supporting hypothesis 2 of the study. The relation between ethical climate and organizational citizenship behavior was also shown to have strong positive influences. Previous literature (Leung, 2008; Okpara & Wynn, 2008; Smith et al., 1983) suggested ethical climate was an imperative antecedent for organizational citizenship behavior. For example, Ensher and his colleagues (2001) asserted the importance of developing an ethical climate that could lead to higher organizational citizenship behavior among employees.

Hypothesis 4 predicted a negative relation between job satisfaction and turnover intention. The result supporting this hypothesis was statistically significant (standardized parameter estimate = -.393; p -value < .01). Through social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the direct relation between job satisfaction and turnover intention is well established in the literature (Chen et al., 2011; Mulki et al., 2008). Consistent with previous studies, this study also found that job satisfaction had a negative effect on turnover intention.

Hypothesis 6 tested the negative relation between turnover intention and financial performance, which was found to be statistically significant (standardized parameter estimate = -.165; p -value < .05), supporting this hypothesis. Moreover, Hypothesis 7 examined the negative relation between turnover intention and social performance. Its result was also statistically significant (standardized parameter estimate = -.230; p -value < .001), supporting this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 8 assessed the negative relation between turnover intention and environmental performance. Analysis results indicated that it was statistically significant

(standardized parameter estimate = -.156; p -value < .05), supporting Hypothesis 8. A recent study by Park and Shaw (2013) found that turnover intention was strongly associated with different types of organizational performance, regardless of the specific industry domains. In this study, the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance were proposed, and all three—financial, social, and environmental—negatively influenced by turnover intention. Meanwhile, the study hypotheses 1, 3, and 5 were not statistically significant.

In addition to the study's hypotheses, three new paths in the modified structural model—the direct effects of organizational citizenship behavior on each of the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance—were also reviewed. First, organizational citizenship behavior had a statistically significant positive influence on financial performance (standardized parameter estimate = .689; p -value < .001). Second, organizational citizenship behavior had a statistically significant positive influence on social performance (standardized parameter estimate = .655; p -value < .001). Third, organizational citizenship behavior had a statistically significant positive influence on environmental performance (standardized parameter estimate = .629; p -value < .001). These relations have been well documented in the previous literature (Bolino et al., 2002; Nielsen et al., 2016; Oh et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2007). When employees exceed their job requirements, they tend to be more helpful and cooperative and to perform better, leading to improved performance for the team or group. Likewise, Nielsen et al. (2016) also found strong positive relations between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational performance.

Further, four correlations were suggested in the modified structural model. The first correlation was observed between ethical climate and job satisfaction ($r = .598$; p -value $< .001$). This relation is consistent in previous research (Elçi & Alpkhan, 2009; Valentine & Fleischman, 2004), as job satisfaction and ethical climate can be correlated. A recent study by Okpara and Wynn (2008) reporting correlations between job satisfaction and ethical climate revealed that ethical climate explained 58% of the variation in overall job satisfaction among nurses in hospitals. This suggests that job satisfaction and ethical climate are indeed affecting each other. Further research is recommended to clarify this relation in more detail.

Second, the remaining three correlated relations were observed among the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance. A correlation was revealed between financial performance and social performance ($r = .505$; p -value $< .001$). Additionally, a correlation was detected between financial performance and environmental performance ($r = .452$; p -value $< .001$). The last correlation was observed between social performance and environmental performance ($r = .497$; p -value $< .001$). These correlated relations were deemed appropriate as they are expected to measure overall organizational performance. This concurs with the triple bottom line theory (Elkington, 1998), which suggests that all three of these relations simultaneously facilitate each other in achieving superior organizational performance.

The indirect effects from the modified structural model were reviewed. First, turnover intention was found to mediate between job satisfaction and organizational sustainability performance, as well as between ethical climate and organizational sustainability performance. There was statistically significant evidence that turnover

intention mediates the relation between job satisfaction and financial performance (standardized parameter estimate = .065; p -value < .050). Moreover, turnover intention mediates the relation between job satisfaction and social performance (standardized parameter estimate = .090; p -value < .001), and between job satisfaction and environmental performance (standardized parameter estimate = .061; p -value < .050).

Finally, organizational citizenship behavior mediated between ethical climate and the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance. There was statistically significant evidence that organizational citizenship behavior mediates the relation between ethical climate and financial performance (standardized parameter estimate = .575; p -value < .001), as well as the relation between ethical climate and social performance (standardized parameter estimate = .547; p -value < .001). There was also statistically significant evidence that organizational citizenship behavior mediates the relation between ethical climate and environmental performance (standardized parameter estimate = .526; p -value < .001). This finding signifies that good employees with citizenship behavior support their organization, which, in turn, increases organizational performance, even when such support is not verbally demanded (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). As organizational citizenship behavior seeks to sustain the balance through a social exchange between employees and the organization, organizational citizenship behavior is more directly intended to benefit the organization (Mohammad et al., 2011).

Results Discussion

The results of the study found, first, that although both ethical climate and job satisfaction were highly associated, only ethical climate positively influenced organizational citizenship behavior. While job satisfaction may be a strong predictor of

organizational citizenship behavior, ethical climate seemed to have a more direct effect on organizational citizenship behavior in this study model. This supports the notion that external factors are highly important to employees' attitudes toward employment and citizenship behavior (Okpara & Wynn, 2008).

Second, only one internal factor was found to negatively influence turnover intention. Under the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the direct effect of job satisfaction is to negatively affect turnover intention (Chen et al., 2011; Mulki et al., 2008). That is, if employees feel satisfied with their jobs, their attitude toward turnover intention tends to decrease (Schwepker, 2001). However, ethical climate as an external factor would not positively affect an employee's attitude toward turnover intention. It may be due to the correlation between ethical climate and job satisfaction. More study is recommended to explore the relation between ethical climate and turnover intention.

Third, the relation between organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention was not supported in this study. Though previous studies reported a direct relation between organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention in various domains (Mossholder et al., 2005; Tsai & Wu, 2010), this study did not support such a relation. In this study, results indicated that an employee's behavior toward coworkers and organizations did not directly relate to the employee's turnover intention. This implies that retail employees' turnover intention may be inspired more by how employees were satisfied with their job compared to ethical climate and organizational citizenship behavior.

Fourth, the relations between turnover intention and each of the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance were found to be positive. These direct

relations are well explained by social and human capital theory (Leana & Van Buren, 1999; Shaw et al., 2005). In other words, if employees have higher turnover intention, it would affect not only financial performance but also both the social and environmental performance of organizations. This implies that any fashion retail businesses should consider how to reduce turnover intention among employees to result in positive organizational performance in sustainability.

Furthermore, the relations between organizational citizenship behavior and each of the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance were found to be positive. Previously, the positive effects of organizational citizenship behavior on organizational performance were studied by many researchers (Oh et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2007). This places a great importance on encouraging organizational citizenship behavior toward coworkers and organization as employees' behavior directly stimulates organizational performance in sustainability.

Additionally, four correlations were suggested in the modified structural model. The first correlation was observed between ethical climate and job satisfaction. Recent study findings by Okpara and Wynn (2008) showed that ethical climate had high explanatory power for overall job satisfaction among nurses in hospitals. The other three correlations were found between financial and social performance, financial and environmental performance, and social and environmental performance. These correlations imply that all three relations simultaneously help each other to achieve superior organizational performance (Elkington, 1998).

Interestingly, this study's modified structural model recognized some indirect effects of turnover intention and organizational citizenship behavior. First, turnover

intention mediated between job satisfaction and all dimensions of organizational sustainability performance—financial, social, and environmental. Supported by Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975/1991) framework of planned behavior, it is important to encourage employees to feel satisfied with their jobs to reduce turnover intention. Consequently, having more satisfied employees could help organizations to have better sustainability performance.

Lastly, the indirect effect of organizational citizenship behavior was assessed between ethical climate and all three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance—financial, social, and environmental. Through social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), these indirect relations could explain how employees with higher organizational citizenship behavior may positively enhance the triple bottom line of organizational sustainability performance when they are employed in an ethical working environment (Mohammad et al., 2011). Accordingly, Table 11 presents a summary of the research hypotheses and the additional paths in the modified structural model.

Table 11

Summary of Study Results.

Hypotheses	Results
H1: Job satisfaction positively influences U.S. fashion retail employees' extra-role organizational citizenship behavior.	→ Not Supported
H2: Ethical climate influences U.S. fashion retail employees' extra-role organizational citizenship behavior.	→ Supported
H3: Extra-role organizational citizenship behavior negatively influences U.S. fashion retail employees' turnover intention.	→ Not Supported
H4: Job satisfaction negatively influences U.S. fashion retail	→ Supported

employees' turnover intentions.

H5:

An organization's overall ethical climate influences U.S. fashion retail employees' turnover intentions. → Not Supported

H6:

U.S. fashion retail employees' low turnover intentions positively influence the organization's financial performance. → Supported

H7:

U.S. fashion retail employees' low turnover intentions positively influence the organization's social performance. → Supported

H8:

U.S. fashion retail employees' low turnover intentions positively influence the organization's environmental performance → Supported

Additional Paths from Modified Structural Model

U.S. fashion retail employees' extra-role organizational citizenship behavior positively influences the organization's financial performance. → Statistically Significant

U.S. fashion retail employees' extra-role organizational citizenship behavior positively influences the organization's social performance. → Statistically Significant

U.S. fashion retail employees' extra-role organizational citizenship behavior positively influences the organization's environmental performance. → Statistically Significant

Correlated Paths

There is relationship between job satisfaction and ethical climate. → Statistically Significant

The organization's financial performance relates to social performance. → Statistically Significant

The organization's financial performance relates to environmental performance. → Statistically Significant

The organization's social performance relates to environmental performance. → Statistically Significant

Indirect Effects

Turnover intention mediates between job satisfaction and financial performance. → Statistically Significant

Turnover intention mediates between job satisfaction and social performance. → Statistically Significant

Turnover intention mediates between job satisfaction and environmental performance.	→ Statistically Significant
Organizational citizenship behavior mediates between ethical climate and financial performance.	→ Statistically Significant
Organizational citizenship behavior mediates between ethical climate and social performance.	→ Statistically Significant
Organizational citizenship behavior mediates between ethical climate and environmental performance.	→ Statistically Significant

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSIONS

Chapter 5 is comprised of the following sections: (a) an overview of the study, (b) its contribution and implications, and (c) the study limitations and future research opportunities.

Overview of the Study

In the US, the retail sector is the largest employment sector, and the third largest category of employers in this category is apparel and accessories retail stores, which report 1.4 million workers, following general merchandise stores and vehicle and parts dealers (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). Retail jobs require working in stores while standing for long periods, and working hours are often irregular, including holidays and weekends. This has resulted in a gradual turnover rate of 3.0 in 2015 in the retail industry and retail trade, which has increased from 2.7 in 2014 (U.S. Department of Commerce). The fashion retail industry's working environment and high rate of employee turnover may lead to short- and long-term negative organizational performance (Park & Shaw, 2013). However, little is known about fashion retail employees' behaviors and attitudes toward fashion business' organizational sustainability performance.

In this light, based on social exchange theory and on social and human capital theory (Leana & Van Buren, 1999; Shaw et al., 2005), this research was designed to investigate the internal and external antecedents of U.S. fashion retail employees' organizational citizenship behavior and its consequences on the triple bottom line of organizational sustainability performance. Through Blau's (1964) social exchange framework, the roles of job satisfaction and ethical climate were examined in the context

of fashion retail employees' organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention. Within a social and human capital theoretical background (Leana & Van Buren, 1999; Shaw et al., 2005), the direct relation between organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention was also considered. In addition, this study examined the relation between turnover intention and the triple bottom line of organizational sustainability performance.

With regard to the method used in this study, U.S. fashion retail employees were surveyed online. Due to the study objective, purposive sampling was used, and the research firm Qualtrics was engaged to permit data collection to occur in a timely manner. Qualtrics collected a total of 309 responses, and the researcher paid \$11.75 per response. During the data screening procedure, 31 data were removed due to indications of extreme values and multivariate outliers. This resulted in a total of 278 responses being employed in the development of the measurement model and structural model for the proposed research questions.

In the initial structural model testing, a total of eight relations were hypothesized, and five hypotheses were supported. First, statistically insignificant relations were excluded. This meant excluding the relation between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior, between organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention, and between ethical climate and turnover intention. Second, the relation between organizational citizenship behavior and each of the three dimensions—financial, social, and environmental—of organizational sustainability performance were added, with defensible theoretical backgrounds.

Through the modified structural model, all paths were statistically significant, including the additional paths. Ethical climate positively influenced organizational citizenship behavior, while job satisfaction negatively influenced turnover intention. Further, turnover intention showed negative effects on all three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance. Likewise, the three added paths for the relation between organizational citizenship behavior and each of the financial, social, and environmental dimensions of organizational sustainability performance were found to have positive effects.

Moreover, four correlation paths, each supported in the existing literature, were also observed to be statistically significant. The relation between job satisfaction and ethical climate was correlated. Also, a correlation among three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance was found, such as correlation between financial and social performance, between financial and environmental performance, and between social and environmental performance.

Finally, indirect paths were found to be statistically significant. First, the mediating effects of turnover intention between job satisfaction and financial performance were found to be statistically significant. Moreover, that turnover intention mediates between job satisfaction and social performance, and between job satisfaction and environmental performance, was found to be statistically significant. Finally, the mediating effects of organizational citizenship behavior between ethical climate and all three dimensions—financial, social, and environmental—of organizational sustainability performance were found to be statistically significant.

Contributions and Implications

This study provides several important contributions to the literature on organizational citizenship behavior, particularly regarding the U.S. fashion retail industry. This section discusses the study's contributions to and implications for theoretical, industry, and educational perspectives.

Theoretical Contributions and Implications

First, to investigate organizational citizenship behavior, as well as its antecedents and outcomes, this study combined two grand theories: social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and human and social capital theory (Leana & Van Buren, 1999; Schultz, 1961; Shaw et al., 2005). Through a social exchange between employees and organizations, when an organization provides an ethical working environment, employees may have lower turnover intention or may develop a higher level of organizational citizenship behavior. Accordingly, employees' attitudes and behaviors can positively improve organizational performance—specifically sustainability performance. This has theoretical implications, suggesting that the two theories are helpful when explaining the role of employees' organizational citizenship behavior in organizations' overall sustainability performance.

Second, this study was one of the few studies to investigate the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance. Previous studies examined sustainability performance primarily focused on social and financial aspects (Adamczyk, 2015). Because sustainability has begun to encompass the triple bottom lines—social, financial, and environmental—this study therefore included environmental performance to measure

a more complete framework for the sustainability performance of organizations. This study's findings show that environmental performance is positively associated with financial and social performance, supporting the triple bottom line theory of sustainability.

Third, the study found different effects of internal and external antecedents on employees' organizational citizenship behavior. Although previous literature addressed job satisfaction as an important predictor of organizational citizenship behavior (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Leung, 2008), the results of this study indicate that job satisfaction does not have direct influence on organizational citizenship behavior. Rather, the findings suggest that the external factor of ethical climate plays a critical role in organizational citizenship behavior. Furthermore, the study shows that ethical climate could affect employees' job satisfaction, regardless of employee's job satisfaction. A recent empirical study by Okpara and Wynn (2008) had similar findings and proposed that ethical climate is an extremely important factor in influencing favorable job attitudes and organizational outcomes. Therefore, the findings imply that when an organization has an ethical environment, the organization could achieve a higher level of sustainability performance regardless of employees' job satisfaction.

As job satisfaction had been known as a major contributing factor for employees' turnover intentions in various domains and disciplines (Chen et al., 2011; Mulki et al., 2008), this study supports the theory that job satisfaction may be important to turnover intention. On the other hand, although ethical climate and turnover intention have also been extensively studied by many researchers and found to be highly influential for organizational performance in service-related industries (Coldwell et al., 2008; Mulki et

al., 2008), the results of this study support the notion that ethical climate is significant in lowering employees' turnover intentions through job satisfaction.

Fourth, in order to investigate the outcome of organizational citizenship behavior, turnover intention was examined in this study. Although previous studies found a direct relation between organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention in various domains (Mossholder et al., 2005; Tsai & Wu, 2010; Van Breukelen et al., 2004), this study's results did not support this relation. This finding was unexpected, as previous literature found a negative relation. Thus, more research is required to explore this particular relation.

Fifth, the research found a positive relation between turnover intention and the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance. Through social and human capital theories, many turnover studies have reported a negative relation between turnover rates and organizational performance within various disciplines (Park & Shaw, 2013). These findings reveal similar results and indicate that negative employee attitudes may negatively affect not only financial performance, but also social and environmental performance.

These direct relations were previously recognized by many researchers through social exchange theory (Nielsen et al., 2016; Oh et al., 2015). Therefore, the findings suggest that both employees' organizational citizenship behavior and low turnover intentions may promote positive organizational sustainability. This is an important new theoretical contribution because very few studies focus on organizational sustainability performance from the perspective of low turnover intention. Further research is recommended to benefit from employees with low turnover intention for the purpose of

organizational sustainability performance. That is, since they are less likely to move, organizations would reap the benefit of training long-term employees.

Seventh, the study showed that turnover intention mediated the relation between job satisfaction and all three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance. This relation suggests that when employees are satisfied with their employment, turnover intention may decrease, which will, in turn, give effect to an improved triple bottom line for organizational sustainability performance.

Lastly, the study's findings showed that organizational citizenship behavior mediated between ethical climate and organizational sustainability performance. Similarly, previous studies argued that organizational citizenship behavior positively influences organizational performance (Oh et al., 2015). The study results suggest that organizational citizenship behavior plays an important role in enhancing organizational sustainability performance when employees perceive an ethical climate. Thus, to promote organizational citizenship behavior, the working environment should be perceived as ethical, trustful, and caring by employees. This leads to better organizational citizenship behavior from employees and, further, could create progressive organizational sustainability performance in the long term.

Industry Contributions and Implications

First, this study found noteworthy results for organizational citizenship behavior in the U.S. fashion retail industry. Organizational citizenship behavior did not affect turnover intention but ultimately boosted the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance. Today, many fashion retail organizations strive to improve the social aspects of their organizational performance. For instance, many well-known

global fashion brands have recently initiated new sustainability practices, such as Fashion Positive, aimed at improving material health, material reuse, renewable energy, water stewardship, and social fairness (Adamczyk, 2015). If fashion retail businesses aspire to improve their financial, social, and environmental performance, they should consider developing organizational citizenship behavior among employees. This would assist in reducing the pressures and burdens associated with social and environmental performance for many fashion retail organizations. By offering, for example, various human resources tools such as training and developmental seminars, businesses could facilitate the development of high organizational citizenship behavior among employees, which would result in positive social and environmental outcomes and drive organizational performance in the long term.

On the other hand, this study found that turnover intention significantly influences the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance. Because the fashion retail industry has high turnover rates compared to other industries, turnover intention is a critical issue for many retail businesses (Human Capital Editor, 2014). Similar to previous study findings, the present study shows that high turnover intention may harm not only organizations' financial performance but also their social and environmental performance. This implies that employees' positive attitudes toward their jobs are a central component of improving organizational sustainability performance. One effective way to increase job satisfaction is to listen thoughtfully to employees' ideas for job improvement, or their problems, concerns, frustrations, and conflicts. Another way to encourage job satisfaction among employees is to offer mentoring, coaching, and

additional training. This could encourage employees to be more satisfied with their job, and perceive themselves as highly valued.

Third, job satisfaction was found to negatively affect turnover intention. As many fashion retail businesses suffer from high turnover rate, increasing employee job satisfaction should become a focus in order to lower turnover intention. Based on the study results, if employees are satisfied with their job, they are likely to display less turnover intention, which, in turn, increases social performance and potentially financial performance. Consequently, fashion retail businesses should consider offering a variety of developmental and educational opportunities to improve employee productivity and innovation, which may increase job satisfaction. Moreover, offering assistance services, such as employee discount programs, childcare information, money orders, postage stamps, check cashing, and bus passes, may encourage employees to be more satisfied with their everyday work, in turn leading to less turnover intention.

Fourth, this study finds that ethical climate plays a central role in employees' organizational citizenship behavior. Similarly, previous studies posited that ethical climate could influence a number of outcomes, such as employees' job satisfaction (Elçi & Alpkан, 2009), turnover intentions (Mulki et al., 2008), and organizational citizenship behavior (Cullen et al., 2003; Tsai & Huang, 2008). Likewise, for the fashion retail industry, where businesses are highly involved with people, it is strongly recommended that the expectations of employees be outlined by developing written standards of ethical workplace conduct, providing training to ensure awareness of these expectations, and equipping managers to reinforce the company's values through their actions. Moreover, human resource professionals should consider hiring candidates who may have a good

“cultural fit” by asking how potential hires have, in the past, managed competing values or responded to unethical behavior in others. In this way, employees would behave more favorably toward their employers and, moreover, perform above and beyond their job requirements.

In addition to positive attitude and behavior, the influence of ethical climate on organizational citizenship behavior also positively affected the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance. This result emphasizes the importance of creating an ethical climate, not only in a retail environment, but also in any organization, as organizational performance measures success and achievement in any context. To stimulate all three aspects of organizational sustainability performance, ethical climate must be embedded within the retail business’ environment. Accordingly, to provide an improved ethical climate, performance evaluation systems could be introduced to survey the workplace from the employee perspective. This may assist employees in developing more trustful and caring perceptions toward their organizations, which could lead to superior social, financial, and environmental performance through organizational citizenship behavior.

Lastly, this study found that all three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance were highly correlated. In other words, the results addressed the importance of including social and environmental aspects of organizational performance in the U.S. fashion retail industry. In the past, many fashion businesses have been criticized for causing negative environmental impact and damage around the world. Due to the profit-driven nature of the industry, many fashion retail businesses focused solely on the financial aspect of organizational performance, often causing social and environmental

problems. If the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance are equally or similarly weighted in evaluating fashion retail business performance, it would not only positively affect U.S. fashion retail businesses but would certainly influence other parts of fashion supply chains in other countries as well. Thus, fashion retail businesses should consider evaluating organizational performance based on all three components of sustainability, including financial, social, and environmental, as they all seem to go hand in hand.

Educational Contributions and Implications

First, this study's results suggest that an ethical climate is critically important for encouraging employees to have positive attitudes toward their jobs and to develop organizational citizenship behavior in the U.S. fashion retail industry. In other words, a working environment that is perceived as ethical is particularly critical to enable fashion retail employees to work well within their teams, departments, or organizations. Educators can thus develop new business plans or entrepreneurial business development curricula in order to better help students, especially those who want to own a fashion business in the future, to create and offer highly ethical working environments. A project in such an entrepreneurship course could be to manage and operate a kiosk related to fashion products for local fashion businesses. Through this project, each group would be required to develop different types of ethical climates to operate their own fashion retail location. For the final assignment, they would report and share their ethical climate experience with the class. This project can help students to understand importance of ethical climate in the fashion retail industry for better organizational performance. By having real, practical experience working in the retail setting, students would learn how

to provide a stronger ethical work environment and to understand the importance of an ethical climate to better organizational performance in the fashion retail industry.

Second, this study finds that employee's attitudes toward jobs and turnover intention can seriously affect organizational performance. Because a high employee turnover rate has been one of the central issues facing many fashion retail businesses (Human Capital Editor, 2014), it is extremely important to stimulate retail employees' attitudes toward their jobs and to decrease employee turnover. In academia, an internship course is often required so that college students have applied experience in the industry. To accommodate a better learning experience in internship programs, educators can ask students to share their internship experience with the classroom. Through their internship program, students can interview their direct manager and thereby learn about different ways to promote employee involvement and create an ethical climate. Further, this opportunity can help students experience corporate culture, ethics, training, and other engaging activities for retail employees. Thus, students become more aware of different fashion retail businesses' environments, involve themselves with a company, and develop better attitudes toward their jobs.

Third, this study finds that organizational citizenship behavior plays an important role in organizational performance. In order to help students learn the importance of organizational citizenship behavior, educators can offer sessions with individuals in upper level positions in the fashion retail industry, such as executives, CEOs, and retail business owners. During such sessions, invited guests can share their industry experiences, provide advice on how to be successful in career opportunities, predict future trends in the fashion retail industry, as well as describing the other organizational

citizenship behavior they had to demonstrate in order to climb the corporate ladder themselves. Consequently, students may understand how important it is to develop organizational citizenship behavior as an individual if they want to be promoted to better positions and to enhance the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance.

Lastly, this study addresses the importance of including the three dimensions of organizational performance to evaluate the U.S. fashion retail industry. The findings emphasize that fashion retail businesses must strive to fulfill other aspects of organizational performance in addition to financial performance. Further, this suggests that educators may need to integrate course projects related to the three dimensions of sustainability. It would be more effective if educators developed a project collaborating with local or small-sized fashion retail businesses to teach the triple bottom line approach. Students could research and report current business strategies for organizational performance. Based on their research, they could suggest future business strategies to enhance the social and environmental aspects of organizational performance. Significantly, this can assist students in learning about current fashion retail business trends and becoming more prepared for career opportunities. Moreover, small, local fashion retail businesses can benefit by learning different approaches and strategies to improve their social and environmental performance. It can thus be a rewarding situation for both students and local fashion retail businesses.

Limitations and Scope of Future Research

This study has several limitations, which may lead to future research opportunities. First, the objective of this study focused exclusively on U.S. fashion retail employees.

Although the results are valuable, different findings may result in terms of organizational citizenship behaviors or the three dimensions of organizational sustainability performance in other parts of the fashion supply chain operating in other countries or in wholesales that primarily deal with manufacturers in other countries. Therefore, it is suggested that future research compare and contrast the cultural influences on outcomes of the triple bottom line of organizational sustainability performance.

Second, the study employed a purposive sampling technique, and it cannot be assumed that the study is representative of the whole population of U.S. fashion retail employees. Also, in order to accommodate data collection in a timely manner, a research firm recruited panels from among their contacts to participate in the survey. Thus, it may be difficult to generalize the study findings to the whole population of U.S. fashion retail employees. Hence, future research could garner a larger number of participants, in addition to utilizing a randomized sampling technique.

Third, this study adapted ethical climate questionnaires developed by Victor and Cullen (1988). Although previous literature suggested five dimensions of ethical climate (Huang et al., 2012; Victor & Cullen, 1988), the present findings could not replicate five dimensions through data analysis in SEM. In this study, one of the dimensions—the instrumental dimension—was not statistically significant in measuring ethical climate in the model. On the other hand, the law and code and the rule dimensions were highly correlated, which necessitated combination into one dimension. Thus, further research could examine the Victor and Cullen's (1988) ethical climate questionnaires and dimensions that their questionnaires could be adapted to fit the fashion retail industry.

Finally, according to structural model analysis, job satisfaction was not found to be a statistically significant contributing factor in organizational citizenship behavior. Based on this study's results, it cannot be presumed that job satisfaction is not a contributing factor, however, as job satisfaction and ethical climate seemed to be correlated in the model. Further research could investigate the unique contribution of job satisfaction to organizational citizenship behavior and organizational sustainability performance.

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APPENDIX A.

Survey Questionnaire

The relation between OCB and fashion retail businesses' sustainability performance: Investigating internal and external antecedents

This survey will be only used for academic research. By completing the surveys, you agree that you understand the procedures, and any risks and benefits involved in this research. Your participation is voluntary and you have the right to decline to participate or to withdraw during the course of the study.

It will take you approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete this survey. It will ask few questions about you to obtain demographic information relevant and important to the study. However, the survey collects no personally identifiable data. Your privacy will be protected, as all the information is strictly confidential and anonymous.

If you have any questions concerning your rights as a participant, you may contact Campus Institutional Review Board at 573-882-9585. If you have any questions regarding this study, you may contact Stacy Lee at shlvf6@mail.missouri.edu. Thank you for your time and your honest responses.

Screening Questions:

1. Are you 18 years old or above?

Yes _____

No _____

2. Are you working full-time in the US?

Yes _____

No _____

3. Have you worked more than one year with your current company?

Yes _____

No _____

4. Your company has more than 2 employees?

Yes _____

No _____

5. Fashion retail industry is an industry that engages in retail merchandises includes fashion clothing, fashion accessories, and fashion shoes to ultimate target consumers.

Do you work full-time as any of categories that are listed above or related to fashion retail?"

Yes _____

No _____

Quota questions

1. Your age

- a. 18 – 24
- b. 25 – 44
- c. 45 – 64
- d. 65 or older

2. Your gender:

- a. Male
- b. Female

3. The level of education you have completed: (Please pick one)

- a. High school graduate or less
- b. Some college
- c. Associate/Bachelor degree
- d. Master's or Professional degree
- e. Doctorate

First Part:

The phrases below describe your attitude toward your job. Please circle the number indicating how accurately each statement explains your attitude toward one's job.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	My work gives me a sense of accomplishment.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My work is satisfying.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am really doing something worthwhile in my job.	1	2	3	4	5

Second Part:

The phrases below describe your perception of ethic climate in your working environment. Please circle the number indicating how accurately each statement explains how you perceive of your company's climate.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	The most important concern is the good of all the people in my company as a whole.	1	2	3	4	5
2	What is best for everyone in my company is the major consideration here.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My major concern is always what is best for the other person.	1	2	3	4	5
4	In my company, the law or ethical code of the profession is the major consideration.	1	2	3	4	5
5	In my company, everyone is expected to strictly follow company policies or professional standards.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Everyone is expected to comply with the company policies and standards over and above other considerations.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Successful people in my company go by the book.	1	2	3	4	5
8	People in my company strictly obey company policies.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Employees are expected to do anything to protect my company's financial interests, regardless of the consequences.	1	2	3	4	5

10	In searching for the company's financial interests, there is no room for one's own personal morals or ethics in this company.	1	2	3	4	5
11	In my company, people protect their own interests above all else.	1	2	3	4	5
12	In this company, everyone is expected to follow their own personal and moral beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5
13	In this company, everyone is guided by their own personal ethics.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Each person in this company decides for themselves what is right and wrong.	1	2	3	4	5

Third Part:

The phrases below describe organizational behavior that you typically behave in your job.

Please circle the number indicating how accurately each statement describes your organizational behavior as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future.

Please read each statement thoroughly, and then circle the most appropriate number on the scale.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I go out of way to help new employees in my company.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I help other colleagues who have heavy workloads in my company.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I help other colleagues who have been absent in my company.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries in my company.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I attend functions that are not required but that help my company's image overall.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I make suggestions to improve my company.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I volunteer for tasks that are not required to help my company in general.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I follow my company's informal rules devised to help my company to be better.	1	2	3	4	5

Fourth Part:

The phrases below describe turnover intention toward your job. Please circle the number indicating how accurately each statement describes your intention toward your job.

Please read each statement thoroughly, then circle the most appropriate number on the scale.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I often think about quitting my present job.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I intend to quit my present job.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I often think about an alternative job.	1	2	3	4	5
4	During the next 12 months, I intend to search for an alternative role (another job, full-time student, etc.) from my current job.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I have searched for a new job recently.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I am constantly searching for a new job.	1	2	3	4	5

Fifth Part:

The phrases below describe the current organizational performance of your company as perceived by you. Your responses will be kept in absolute confidence. Please read each statement carefully, and then circle the most appropriate number on the scale.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I am aware that my company has competitive advantages in its sales and profit growth.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I am aware that our company has a competitive advantage in cost saving and efficiency	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am aware that our company has a competitive advantage in its brand value	1	2	3	4	5
4	I am aware that my company has a policy to strive to be a good corporate citizen.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I am aware that my company has a policy to respect business ethics.	1	2	3	4	5

6	I am aware that my company has a policy to advocate human rights in the selection or monitoring process of its business partners.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I am aware that my company has an initiative to reduce, reuse, and recycle.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I am aware that my company has an initiative to reduce the negative environmental impact of its products.	1	2	3	4	5
9	My company has a policy to improve its energy efficiency.	1	2	3	4	5

Demographics

Please check or fill in the appropriate answers.

4. The major areas of your job responsibility (just pick one)

- a. Sales
- b. Store management
- c. Buying or merchandising
- d. Human resources
- e. Other, Please specify _____

5. Years of experiences in the fashion retail industry: _____

6. Marriage status:

- a. Married
- b. Widowed
- c. Divorced
- d. Separated
- e. Never Married

7. The number of employees in your company:

- a. 1
- b. Between 2 and 10

- c. Between 11 and 50
 - d. Between 51 and 250
 - e. Between 251 and 500
 - f. Over 501
8. Is your company:
- a. Private owned
 - b. Publicly owned
 - c. Don't know
9. What was your individual income in year 2015?
- a. \$25,000 or less
 - b. \$25,001 - \$50,000
 - c. \$50,000 – \$75,000
 - d. \$75,001 – \$100,000
 - e. \$100,001 or above
10. In what state do you current reside? _____
11. Your ethnicity:
- a. American Indian/ Alaskan Native
 - b. Asian
 - c. Black/African American
 - d. Hispanic/Latino
 - e. Native Hawaiian/ Pacific Islander
 - f. White
 - g. Some others
12. Number of children _____
- a. If you have children, please specify age of your children

APPENDIX B.

Institutional Review Board Approval, Consent Form



Institutional Review Board
University of Missouri-Columbia

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Columbia, MO 65212
573-882-3181
irb@missouri.edu

March 14, 2016

Principal Investigator: Stacy Hyun Nam Lee
Department: Textile and Apparel Mgmt

Your Exempt Application to project entitled The relationship between OCB and fashion retail businesses' sustainability performance: Investigating internal and external antecedents was reviewed and approved by the MU Institutional Review Board according to the terms and conditions described below:

IRB Project Number	2005165
IRB Review Number	213813
Initial Application Approval Date	March 14, 2016
IRB Expiration Date	March 14, 2017
Level of Review	Exempt
Project Status	Active - Open to Enrollment
Exempt Categories	45 CFR 46.101b(2)
Risk Level	Minimal Risk

The principal investigator (PI) is responsible for all aspects and conduct of this study. The PI must comply with the following conditions of the approval:

1. No subjects may be involved in any study procedure prior to the IRB approval date or after the expiration date.
2. All unanticipated problems, adverse events, and deviations must be reported to the IRB within 5 days.
3. All changes must be IRB approved prior to implementation unless they are intended to reduce immediate risk.
4. All recruitment materials and methods must be approved by the IRB prior to being used.
5. The Annual Exempt Form must be submitted to the IRB for review and approval at least 30 days prior to the project expiration date. If the study is complete, the Completion/Withdrawal Form may be submitted in lieu of the Annual Exempt Form
6. Maintain all research records for a period of seven years from the project completion date.
7. Utilize all approved research documents located within the attached files section of eCompliance. These documents are highlighted green.

If you are offering subject payments and would like more information about research participant payments, please click [here](#) to view the MU Business Policy and Procedure:

The relation between organizational citizenship behavior and fashion retail businesses' sustainability performance: Investigating internal and external antecedents

This survey will be only used for academic research. By completing the surveys, you agree that you understand the procedures, and any risks and benefits involved in this research. Your participation is voluntary and you have the right to decline to participate or to withdraw during the course of the study.

Anyone who are age 18 and older, and currently is enrolled as student in Department of Textile and Apparel Management is qualified to participate in this study. It will take you approximately 10 minutes to complete this survey, and it will ask few questions about demographic information relevant and important to the study. However, the survey collects no personally identifiable data. Your privacy will be protected, as all the information is strictly anonymous.

If you have any questions concerning your rights as a participant, you may contact Campus Institutional Review Board at 573-882-9585. If you have any questions regarding this study, you may contact Stacy Lee at shlvf6@mail.missouri.edu or Jung Ha-Brookshire at habrookshirej@mail.missouri.edu

Thank you for your time and your honest responses.

Regards,

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APPENDIX C.

Code Book

Questionnaire Number	Code Number
First Part: Job Satisfaction (J)	
1 My work gives me a sense of accomplishment.	J1
2 My work is satisfying.	J2
3 I am really doing something worthwhile in my job.	J3
Second Part: Ethical Climate (E)	
1 The most important concern is the good of all the people in my company as a whole.	E1
2 What is best for everyone in my company is the major consideration here.	E2
3 My major concern is always what is best for the other person.	E3
4 In my company, the law or ethical code of the profession is the major consideration.	E4
5 In my company, everyone is expected to strictly follow company policies or professional standards.	E5
6 Everyone is expected to comply with the company policies and standards over and above other considerations.	E6
7 Successful people in my company go by the book.	E7
8 People in my company strictly obey company policies.	E8
9 Employees are expected to do anything to protect my company's financial interests, regardless of the consequences.	E9
10 In searching for the company's financial interests, there is no room for one's own personal morals or ethics in this company.	E10
11 In my company, people protect their own interests above all else.	E11
12 In this company, everyone is expected to follow their own personal and moral beliefs.	E12
13 In this company, everyone is guided by their own personal ethics.	E13
14 Each person in this company decides for themselves what is right and wrong.	E14
Third Part: Organizational Citizenship Behavior (O)	
1 I go out of way to help new employees in my company.	O1
2 I help other colleagues who have heavy workloads in my company.	O2
3 I help other colleagues who have been absent in my company.	O3
4 I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries in my company.	O4

5	I attend functions that are not required but that help my company's image overall.	O5
6	I make suggestions to improve my company.	O6
7	I volunteer for tasks that are not required to help my company in general.	O7
8	I follow my company's informal rules devised to help my company to be better.	O8

Fourth Part: Turnover Intention (T)

1	I often think about quitting my present job.	T1
2	I intend to quit my present job.	T2
3	I often think about an alternative job.	T3
4	During the next 12 months, I intend to search for an alternative role (another job, full-time student, etc.) from my current job.	T4
5	I have searched for a new job recently.	T5
6	I am constantly searching for a new job.	T6

Fifth Part: Sustainability Performance

Financial Performance (Z), Social Performance (S), and Environmental Performance (P)

1	I am aware that my company has competitive advantages in its sales and profit growth.	Z1
2	I am aware that our company has a competitive advantage in cost saving and efficiency	Z2
3	I am aware that our company has a competitive advantage in its brand value	Z3
4	I am aware that my company has a policy to strive to be a good corporate citizen.	S1
5	I am aware that my company has a policy to respect business ethics.	S2
6	I am aware that my company has a policy to advocate human rights in the selection or monitoring process of its business partners.	S3
7	I am aware that my company has an initiative to reduce, reuse, and recycle.	P1
8	I am aware that my company has an initiative to reduce the negative environmental impact of its products.	P2
9	My company has a policy to improve its energy efficiency.	P3

APPENDIX D.

SEM Analysis and Mplus Output

Measurement Model

MODEL FIT INFORMATION

Number of Free Parameters 117

Loglikelihood

H0 Value	-8607.014
H1 Value	-8321.220

Information Criteria

Akaike (AIC)	17448.028
Bayesian (BIC)	17872.460
Sample-Size Adjusted BIC ($n^* = (n + 2) / 24$)	17501.466

Chi-Square Test of Model Fit

Value	571.588
Degrees of Freedom	378
P-Value	0.0000

RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error Of Approximation)

Estimate	0.043
90 Percent C.I.	0.036 0.050
Probability RMSEA <= .05	0.952

CFI/TLI

CFI	0.963
TLI	0.958

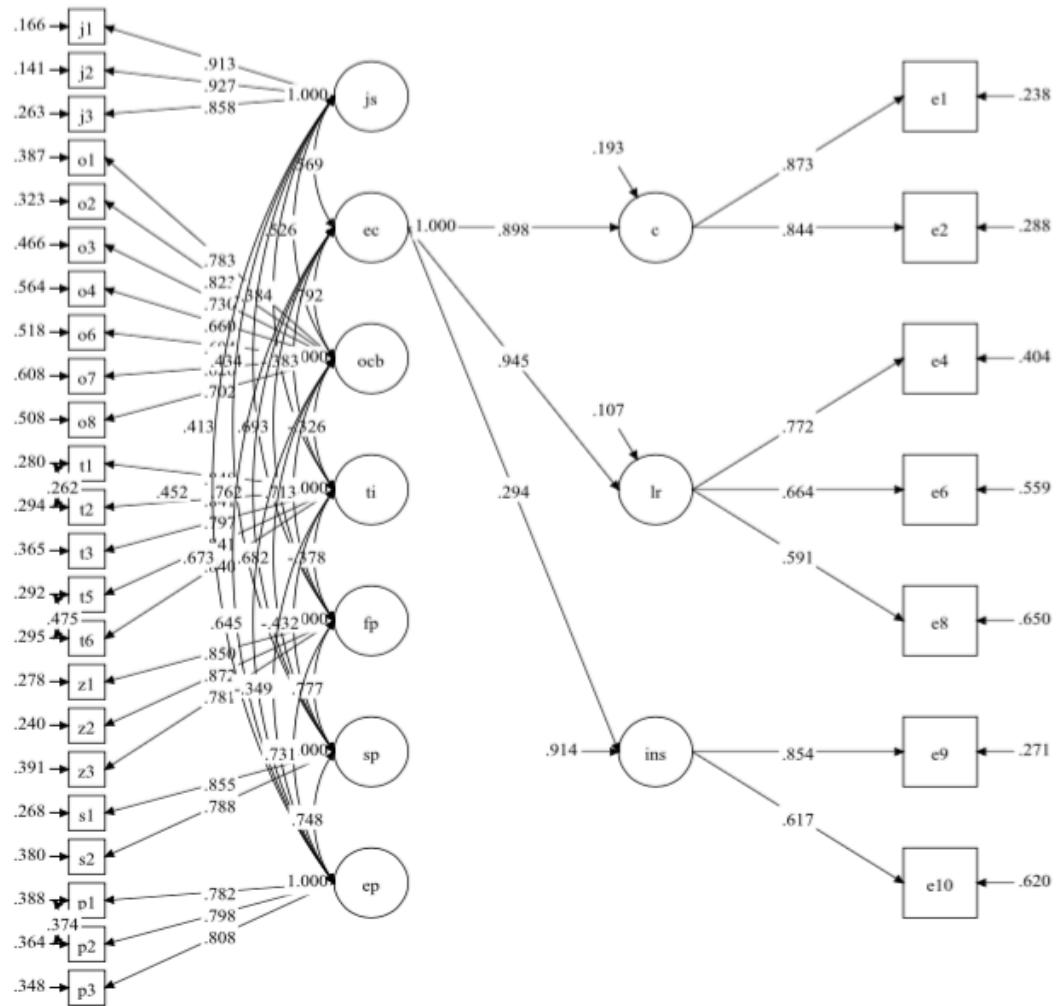
Chi-Square Test of Model Fit for the Baseline Model

Value	5723.947
Degrees of Freedom	435
P-Value	0.0000

SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual)

Value	0.040
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Final Measurement Model with Model Fit Output



Initial Structural Regression Model

MODEL FIT INFORMATION

Number of Free Parameters 108

Loglikelihood

H0 Value	-8701.015
H1 Value	-8321.220

Information Criteria

Akaike (AIC)	17618.029
Bayesian (BIC)	18009.812
Sample-Size Adjusted BIC ($n^* = (n + 2) / 24$)	17667.357

Chi-Square Test of Model Fit

Value	759.589
Degrees of Freedom	387
P-Value	0.0000

RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error Of Approximation)

Estimate	0.059
90 Percent C.I.	0.053 0.065
Probability RMSEA <= .05	0.010

CFI/TLI

CFI	0.930
TLI	0.921

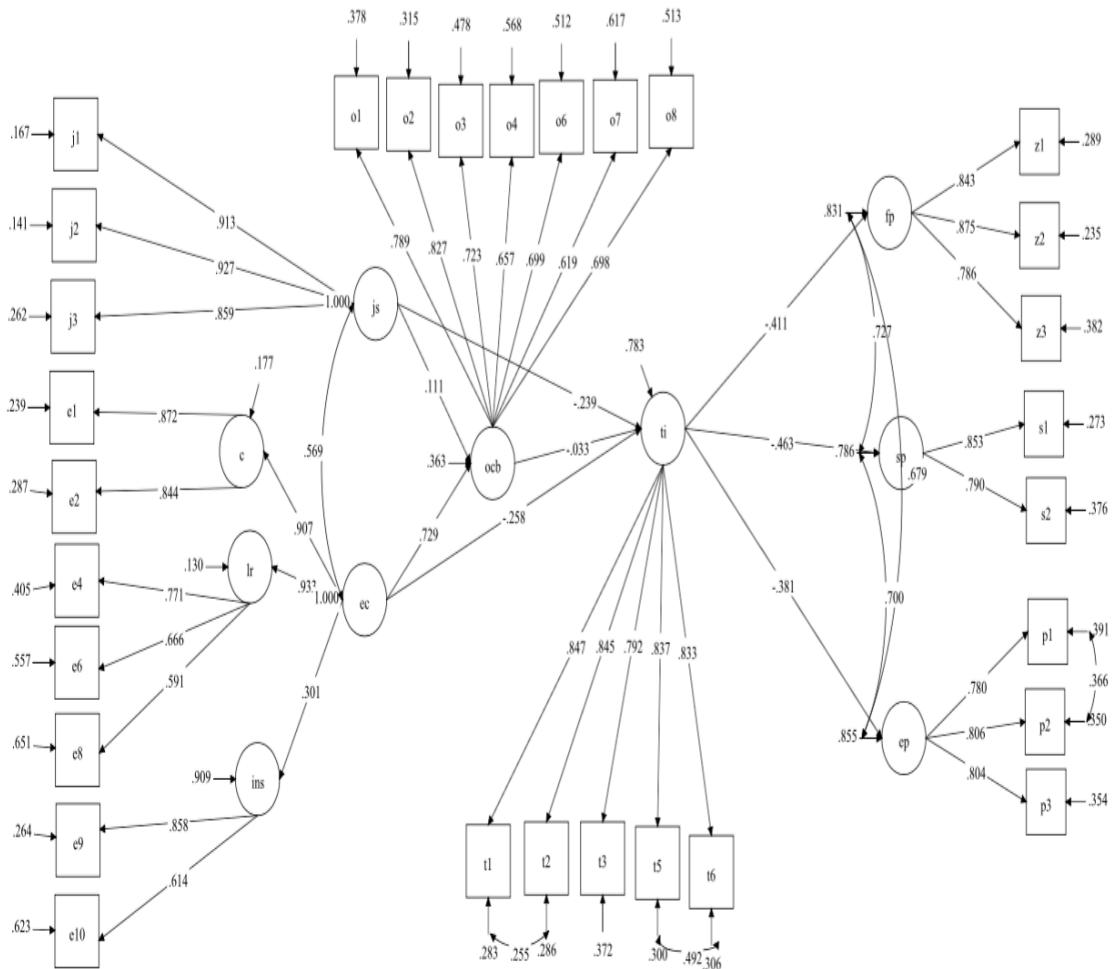
Chi-Square Test of Model Fit for the Baseline Model

Value	5723.947
Degrees of Freedom	435
P-Value	0.0000

SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual)

Value	0.150
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Initial Structural Regression Model with Model Fit Output



Modified Structural Model

MODEL FIT INFORMATION

Number of Free Parameters 108

Loglikelihood

H0 Value	-8626.183
H1 Value	-8321.220

Information Criteria

Akaike (AIC)	17468.365
Bayesian (BIC)	17860.148
Sample-Size Adjusted BIC ($n^* = (n + 2) / 24$)	17517.693

Chi-Square Test of Model Fit

Value	609.925
Degrees of Freedom	387
P-Value	0.0000

RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error Of Approximation)

Estimate	0.046
90 Percent C.I.	0.039 0.052
Probability RMSEA <= .05	0.859

CFI/TLI

CFI	0.958
TLI	0.953

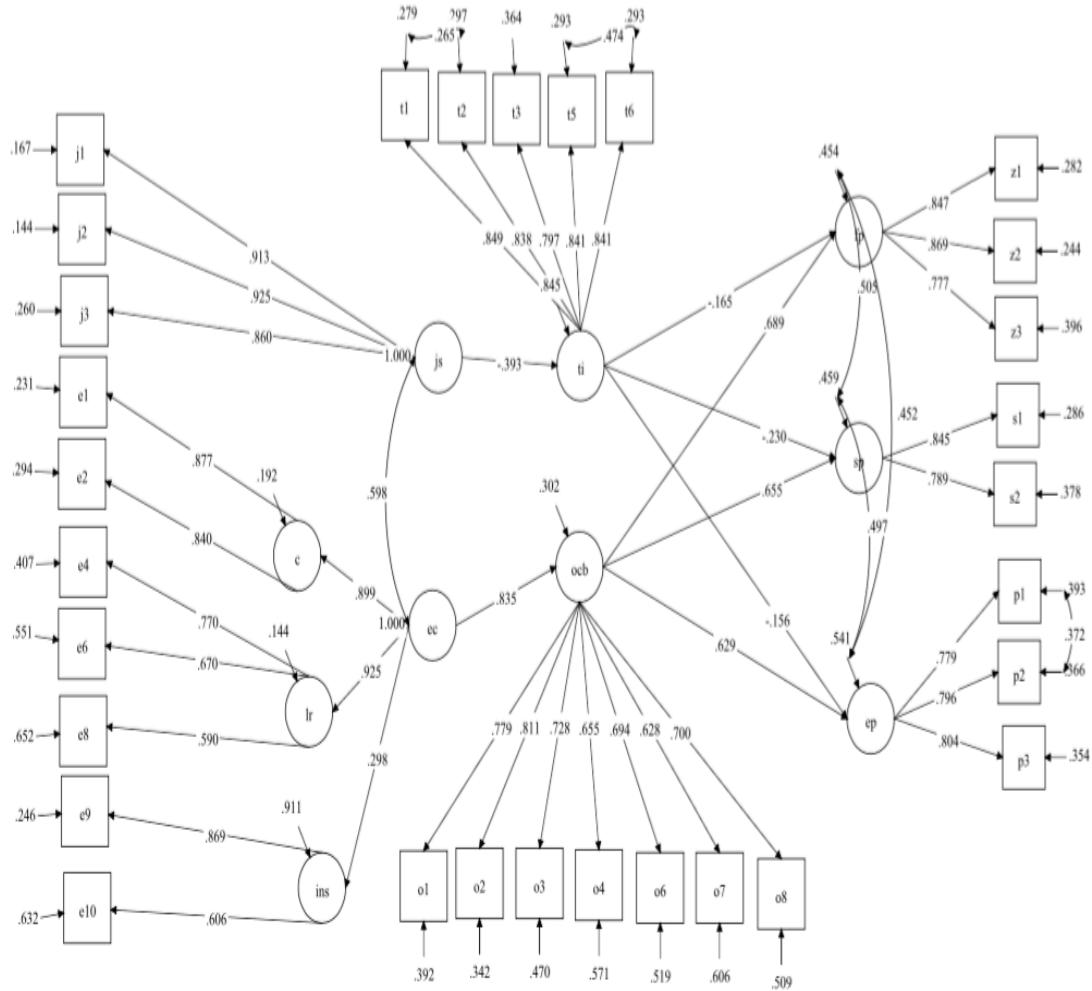
Chi-Square Test of Model Fit for the Baseline Model

Value	5723.947
Degrees of Freedom	435
P-Value	0.0000

SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual)

Value	0.057
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Modified Structural Model with Model Fit Output



VITA

Stacy Hyun-Nam Lee was born and raised in South Korea. After completing her degree at Plano Senior High School, Plano, Texas, in 2000, she studied part time at community college while working full time. When she decided to pursue further education in fashion merchandising, she transferred to the University of North Texas at Denton, Texas. During her senior year, she was participated the Lotte Green Marketing Strategy Competition sponsored by the Ministry of the Environment of the Republic of Korea,, and her research, "*O.P.E.N. (On-demand, Personal, Engaged, and Networked) Lotte: Sustainability Framework for Global Consumers*" was selected as *Top third finalist* in 2009. In December 2009, she obtained the degree of Bachelor of Science in the College of Merchandising, Hospitality & Tourism. Following year, she entered the Graduate school in the College of Merchandising, Hospitality & Tourism at the University of North Texas at Denton, receiving a Master of Science in 2011. Even after completing her master degree, she was actively participated in numerous conferences, such as *Global Marketing Conference*, and *International Textile and Apparel Association Annual conference*. She started her doctorate program at the University of Missouri in 2013. During her doctorate study, she has written for a number of publications such as *Fashion and Textile*, *Journal of Textile and Apparel, Technology and Management*, *Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing*, and *International Journal of Consumer Studies*.