

**ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR IN NON-PROFIT
SECTOR: ANTECEDENTS, OUTCOMES, AND
VOLUNTEER-PROFESSIONAL COMPARISON**

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Department : Management Engineering

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**KAR AMACI GÜTMİYEN ÖRGÜTLERDE ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK
DAVRANIŞI: NEDENLERİ, SONUÇLARI VE
GÖNÜLLÜ-PROFESYONEL KARŞILAŞTIRMASI**

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FOREWORD

This study is the very special outcome of my last nine year in non-profit sector, as a volunteer. Since 2001. I want to thank to everybody that I have met in my volunteering process for sharing my motivation, for our discussions about social responsibility and for expanding the limits of our perceptions, by breaking prejudices and taboos on our minds together. Also I want to thank to every organization that I have been in, for feeding me with invaluable experiences and for great moments that I have been spent in them. Volunteering in social responsibility field has been a part of my life, and I can count this study as a voluntary contribution for the sector which I deeply belong to.

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ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR IN NON-PROFIT SECTOR: ANTECEDENTS, OUTCOMES, AND VOLUNTEER-PROFESSIONAL COMPARISON

SUMMARY

This study aims to explain Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) in non-profit organizations, and develops a framework to determine social antecedents and organizational outcomes of OCB. Organizational Citizenship Behavior has been the major concern of the study, and has been investigated under four categories, helping behavior, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship. By using Tromso Social Intelligence Scale, the study attempts to find significant relationships between social intelligence of non-profit workers and organizational citizenships that they perform.

Because of the target field is non-profit sector, voluntary work constitutes core of the sector and the great difference from other sectors. On the other hand, Organizational citizenship behaviors are performed voluntarily from employees, because they are extra-role behaviors, not included into in-role requirements. Therefore, volunteers are expected to perform higher OCBs than professional workers.

Organizational outcomes has also been considered in the framework of the study under three different outcome levels, which are individual, group and organizational outcomes. In terms of individual outcomes, turnover intention has been taken into account, and it was proposed that volunteers are more likely to make turnover, because they are not obliged to work by any formal procedure, and there is a possibility that they can leave at any time. For group outcomes, group cohesiveness were chosen to analyze, and for organizational outcomes, organizational identification and organizational trust have been considered, because all those three are related with motivation, commitment and job satisfaction, it is thought that they can give related results.

A survey, consisting three parts plus demographics has been conducted to 151 individuals in non-profit sector. Of the 151 individuals, 118 of them were volunteer workers, and rest of them was paid workers.

Results of the survey has found important correlations between social intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational outcomes. It was concluded from this study that social intelligence has a trigger effect on organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational citizenship behavior increases positive perception of individuals towards their organizations. Additional findings from the study have shown that volunteers and professionals differs in some factors of organizational outcomes, professionals have more organizational commitment than volunteers.

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ÖZET

Bu araştırma, kar amacı gütmeyen kurumlarda Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı'nı (ÖVD) ölçmeyi, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarına neden olan etmenleri ve bu davranışların sergilenmesi sonucunda ortaya çıkan sonuçları incelemeyi, ve bu kurumlarda çalışan gönüllüler ile profesyoneller arasındaki farklılıklar ve benzerlikleri bulmayı amaçlamaktadır. Örgütsel Vatandaşlık davranışı araştırmanın çekirdeğinde yer almakta olup dört alt başlık altında ele alınmıştır. Bu başlıklar, yardımlaşma, örgütsel erdem, centilmenlik ve ileri görev bilincidir. Bunun yanı sıra Tromsö Sosyal Zeka Ölçeği kullanılarak sivil toplum alanındaki çalışanların sosyal zeka düzeylerini ve bunlara etki eden unsurları bulmak da araştırmanın amaçları arasındadır.

Kar amacı gütmeyen şirketlerin, diğer bir tabirle sivil toplum sektörünün diğer sektörlerden en önemli farkı, sahip olduğu gönüllü çalışan gücüdür. Öte yandan, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı da çalışanların kurum içerisinde gönüllü olarak sergiledikleri hareketlere verilen addır. Buradan yola çıkarak bu araştırma, gönüllü çalışanların profesyonel çalışanlara kıyasla daha yüksek örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı değerlerine sahip olacağını öngörmüştür.

Örgütsel sonuçlar da araştırmanın ilgi alanında bulunmakta olup, araştırmanın iskeletini oluşturan üç temel öğeden biridir. Örgütsel sonuçlar araştırma içinde bireysel, grup ve kurumsal olarak üçe ayrılmıştır. Bireysel sonuçlar bazında çalışanların işten ayrılma niyetleri, grup bazında grup bütünlüğü, ve örgütsel bazda pozitif örgüt algısı araştırma kapsamına dahil edilmiştir.

Araştırma kapsamında üç ana kısım ve demografik sorulardan oluşan bir anket hazırlanmış ve sivil toplum sektöründe çalışmakta olan, 118'i gönüllü, 33'ü profesyonel 151 çalışan tarafından doldurulmuştur.

Araştırma sonucunda örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışının öncülü olarak sosyal zeka ile, ardılı olarak da örgütsel sonuçlarla pozitif yönde ilişkisi ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu ilişkiler alt boyutlar halinde de ortaya konulmuştur. Ayrıca profesyonel ve gönüllü çalışanlar arasındaki davranışsal ve çıktısal olarak benzerlikler farklar da sonuçlarda belirtilmiştir.

1. INTRODUCTION

Performances of individuals in the workplace have been widely researched in the literature so far. Employee behaviors are divided into two different subjects, as in-role and extra-role behaviors. Many researchers are agreed on that distinction between in-role and extra-role behavior, and these concepts have been investigated thoroughly. However, there is also significant number of researches which argues in-role and extra role definition is dependable. Morrison (1994) argues that position of the employee in an organization affects the perception of in-role and extra-role behaviors. Her research supports the hypothesis that managers are more likely to define behaviors as in-role behavior than their subordinates. The perceptual difference may also be affected by cultural influence (Kwantes, Karam, Kuo, & Towson, 2008)

Organizational citizenship behavior is one of the most important descriptive of extra-role behaviors, with the lead of Bateman and Organ (1983). Organ defined the term 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”* (Organ, 1988). Under this definition, he defined five dimensions of citizenship behavior, as altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship (Organ, 1988). OCB has been researched in many different areas with an increasing interest after the beginning of 1990's, and it still exists as a substantial concept of today.

There is not so much research about understanding the role behaviors of workers of non-profit organizations, including professional and/or volunteer ones, both or separately. Non-profit organizations are organizations those do not distribute their surplus funds to owners or stakeholders, and uses them to achieve their organizational goals (Grobman, 2008). These organizations specialize in many different areas, mostly under the purpose of providing benefits to society, without expecting individual or organizational profits. NPOs are highly supported by voluntary work, as participation of temporary or permanent volunteers. Volunteers of those organizations may help in almost all areas of the organizations, from the basic works such as cleaning to being board members. Volunteer motivation is the core

issue of obtaining and retaining volunteer workers in an organization, and there are some researches for understanding volunteers' motivation to improve managerial perception about the issue. Non-profit organizations mostly work on social services, so they basically do a social interactive work. Those civil society works are based on the sensitiveness of the public for the social issues, so social awareness must be a great factor affecting this kind of sensitivity. Social Intelligence is one of the crucial concepts for observing, understanding and analyzing people's perceptions in their social interactions. Thorndike used the term Social Intelligence (SI) to describe the skill of understanding and managing other people (Thorndike, 1924). Later the concept was expanded to understanding the big picture in a wider perspective, and the term Emotional Intelligence (EI) was introduced by the researchers. (Greenspan, 1989), (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and (Goleman, 1995) made significant studies and obtained models to describe Emotional Intelligence.

This study offers to test the relationship between Social Intelligence and Organizational Citizenship Behavior, and the affects of Organizational Citizenship Behavior on the employees' perception towards their organizations, on organizational, individual and group level in Non-Profit Organizations (NPOs). To obtain the relationships offered, a survey has been conducted with the participation of 151 volunteer and professional NPO workers, in the light of the literature research and the hypotheses built.

Chapter 2 explains the literature background of this research to increase the understanding of the concepts and their interior relations, by reviewing OCB and its relations with organizational performance, organizational perception, and organizational commitment. Also the review shows the importance of social intelligence towards the employee behavior, based on the several researches about various facets of the concept. Management in Non-profit organizations has also been considered and reviewed in the next chapter, also similarities and differences between profit organizations has been argued out. Organizational outcomes are one of the key elements of this research, so its dimensions have widely covered in the next chapter as well. Organizational outcomes have been reviewed in three level, as organizational, individual and group level, respectively. In the organizational level of outcomes, two sub-dimensions were suggested to draw the organizational perception figure of employees. These sub-dimensions are determined as organizational identification and organizational trust. On the individual outcome level, turnover intention has been taken to define individual perceptions of

employees towards their tasks and jobs. Finally, on the group level, group cohesiveness has been set as the measure element of the current dimension.

On Chapter 3, theoretical model of the research has been established and showed. Hypotheses between three big elements of the research have been built, regarding the ways of those relations and the sub-dimensional correlations as well. Also some descriptive questions have been suggested to investigate, to determine the relations between demographics and three core concepts of the research. The theoretical connections which provided to reach to the hypotheses has been supported and showed with the previous studies.

Methodology of the research follows the introduction of the hypothetical model, on Chapter 4. This section exhibits the big picture of data process, starting with the design of the survey, defining variables, selection of target group, reaching to target group and gathering data, and the way to analyze the data collected.

Results of the data analysis have been showed in Chapter 5 in detail. Statistical significance of the hypotheses are evaluated and these scores are shown in the original data analyze tables.

Finally, the interpretation of the results is performed in the last part, which includes the discussion of the results and the general conclusion of the research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The first traces of organizational citizenship behavior were introduced by Chester Barnard in 1938, where he observed employee behaviors outside of their role definition and noted these behaviors as “extra role behaviors” (Barnard, 1938). His definition of “willingness to cooperate” was followed by researches of Katz and Kahn on the social psychology of organizations, and they define these types of behaviors as innovative and spontaneous behaviors, “performance beyond role requirements for accomplishments of organizational functions” (Katz & Kahn, 1966). Smith, Organ and Near (1983) called the discretionary behaviors that goes beyond one’s official role and the intention of helping other people in the organization or to show conscientiousness and supporting the organization as organizational citizenship behavior.

2.1.1 Dimensions of OCB

Although OCB is a popular and well-researched concept in the literature, there are dissimilarities between the models built to define and measure citizenship behavior. Many researchers has reviewed the previous studies and brought different perspectives to similar results, and some of them also has discovered or proposed new dimensions of OCB. In the research of LePine, Erez and Johnson (2002), it is identified that more than 40 dimensions of OCB has been defined by scholars so far.

In the book “Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its Nature, Antecedents and Consequences” (Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006), these various dimensions has been organized under seven groups. These groups are named as;

- 1) Helping
- 2) Sportsmanship
- 3) Organizational Loyalty
- 4) Organizational Compliance
- 5) Individual Initiative
- 6) Civic Virtue
- 7) Self-Development

2.1.1.1 Helping behavior

Helping behavior is the most researched area of organizational citizenship behavior; most of the studies in the literature about OCB examine helping behavior in detail than the other dimensions. Helping behavior can be identified as voluntary actions to help another individual, or group, without expecting any reward from the organization or any individual benefits. It is a type of pro-social behavior (Eisenberg, 1989), which means caring about the welfare and rights of others, feeling concern and empathy for them, and acting in ways that benefit others (Sanstock, 2007). Smith, Organ and Near (1983) took the helping behavior dimension from the altruistic perspective, and defined altruism as the behavior that directly and intentionally aims helping a specific person in face-to-face situations. Orienting new employees, helping someone's workload when it's too much for him, doing another employee's work while he's absent, can be the examples of altruistic behavior. Organ has later re-defined altruism on a more work-based perspective than social, as voluntary actions that help another person with a work problem (Organ, 1990). With this definition, Organ also brought another dimensions for the helping behavior, such as courtesy, peacemaking and cheerleading. Courtesy is related to undertaking and carrying out the obligation of cooperation with others (Organ, 1988). Peacemaking is an easy to understand concept, which are the actions that aims to prevent the conflict between individuals in the workplace. The encouraging effect on coworkers and reinforcements on that way are called as cheerleading. Of those three dimensions, only courtesy has been used widely in the literature, peacemaking and cheerleading is not regarded as a separate dimension under the organizational citizenship behaviors.

There are other perspectives for helping behavior as well, Graham (1989) and Moorman & Blakely (1995) have defined the term interpersonal helping. Interpersonal helping is a narrower version of helping behavior in general, covers only helping to coworkers' jobs when needed. This perspective excludes the encouraging vision, or altruistic perception, rather focuses on the performance stability in organization. Interpersonal helping can be also viewed as an extra-role behavior that is applied to complete or support another coworker's in-role assignment. So there is a complementary interaction between two actors of the action. George & Jones (1997) has a very similar definition of that type of helping behavior, but they named this behavior as helping coworkers. Farh et al. (2004) has widened this perspective a bit more, including non-work matters as well as work-related matters. He also put interpersonal harmony for the understanding of helping

behavior, which is close to a combination of Organ's peacemaking and cheerleading. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bacrach (2000) brought the widest and relatively more accurate and covering definition of helping behavior, as helping others or preventing work-related problems to occur.

2.1.1.2 Sportsmanship

Sportsmanship is not complaining about individual or in-group conflicts, uncomfortable and challenging conditions in the organization (Organ, 1988). People who are low on sportsmanship are defined as consuming time about complaining all the time, finding fault with coworkers', group and organization, overrating, overplaying, and exaggerating the things that are not going well, being pessimistic about the situations. These types of behaviors affect the coworkers' and group motivation negatively, because there always gray clouds exist over the person who is bad on sportsmanship behavior.

From a wider perspective towards the definition of Organ, it is argued that sportsmanship should not be only "not being negative", rather it should include exhibiting positive attitudes and behaviors when necessary (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). Good sportsmen should also maintain a positive attitude and show positive behaviors to their environment, even in the troubled, or stressed situations. A sportsman should not offend or accuse people with the inconvenient situation; rather they should build the stabilization of the ambience. The wider perspective of sportsmanship also proposes to sacrificing personal interests for the goodness of the group, being more empathic about feeling others and behaving in consideration of whole as a group, rather than personal.

Finally, Farh et al. (2004) defines the workplace consideration and protection. It supports that a person with high on sportsmanship should keep his environment safe and sound, clean, and neat. This definition has some similarities with Organ's peacemaking dimension, but this considers the workplace as a living place and considers the welfare of it in general, not individuals separately.

2.1.1.3 Organizational loyalty

Organizational loyalty requires from employees to promote their organizations to the people outside of the organization, such as friends, family, and other people, defending the organization with strong feelings against the threats and accusations, and being committed to the organization even the unwanted conditions happen (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). Organizational identification is

also an essential element of loyalty, and representative behaviors such as contributing the good reputation of the organization is crucial elements of organizational loyalty behaviors (Graham, 1991).

Loyal boosterism is also suggested by Moorman & Blakely (1995), which is the promotion of the organizational image to outsiders. Spreading goodwill is another perspective under the organizational loyalty definition, and is the contribution to the organizational effectiveness by voluntary actions to represent the organization to provide benefit, supporting and caring organization in general, and spreading goodwill (George & Jones, 1997).

It is proposed that organizational loyalty is distinct from the other elements of organizational citizenship behavior (Moorman & Blakely, 1995), but there is no significant argument to support this hypothesis of them. Moreover there are some collinearity between organizational loyalty and civic virtue, and sportsmanship as well.

2.1.1.4 Organizational compliance

Organizational compliance has started to define with the beginning of the organizational citizenship behavior, and exists as an element of the one of the first models, developed by Smith, Organ and Near (1983). They defined this concept as generalized compliance, and this was meant to a more impersonal type of conscientiousness. Generalized compliance is indirectly beneficial to the organization, with exhibition of behaviors, and they can be seen essential for a good employee to show.

Also the term organizational obedience was used to define the same form of citizenship behavior (Graham, 1991). Obedience is the form of behavior that can be displayed as respecting rules and regulations in the organization, being punctual to the attendance and in task completion, and using organizational resources efficiently. This definition of obedience includes actions and behaviors from in-role behaviors, which are mostly defined and expected as in task definition, and it can be argued that whether they are extra-role behaviors to be able to define as an organizational citizenship behavior element.

Another different perspective views organizational citizenship behavior from the distinction between individual and organizational effects. Williams & Anderson (1991) has defined OCB-O as “behaviors that benefit the organization in general”, considering the effects on OCB to the big picture. Informing others when not being

able to come to work, being in harmony with the rules to be set to maintain order are some of those form of behavior and its effects can be seen on the organizational level, as suggested in the definition.

2.1.1.5 Individual initiative and civic virtue

Individual initiative is the form of behavior which is basically going beyond the role requirements, especially for the task definitions. Task definitions of the employees show the minimum acceptable level of performance that expected from the employee, and meeting that much of expectation is employee's duty, to complete in-role requirements. Exceeding the minimum expectations are the area of individual initiative, such as coming with creative and innovative ideas to improve the effectiveness of the specific task or organization in general, willing to take extra responsibilities, feeling enthusiastic to complete the task and going beyond it, and motivating coworkers to feel the same spirit. Interacting with others to improve their performance and group effectiveness can also be considered as an individual initiative behavior.

Organ has defined this form of behavior as civic virtue and explained basically as "responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organization, including expressing opinions". (Organ, 1990) Civic virtue is also one of the 5-key elements of OCB defined by Organ, which is the most used model of OCB by scholars.

Voice is also a crucial subject that can be considered under individual initiative and civic virtue. Voice in organizations is speaking out for the improvement of the organization and being against status-quo, being against conformism (Le Pine & Van Dyne, 1998). Rising up the voice to make criticisms to the current situation and making new suggestions may disappoint some people in the organization, but employees should feel virtuous to their organizations and defend their rights if they believe they are doing right for the organization, and for no personal benefits. Voicing can be done in both positive and negative ways, one to support and suggest constructive ideas for the improvement of the organization, and on the opposite side, speaking up to prevent harmful behaviors to the organization (Farh et al., 2004).

2.1.1.6 Self-development

Employees care about their self-development, seek out and take advantage of training courses, keep abreast of latest developments and updates in the sector,

and improving themselves by adding new skills to become more productive in the organization (George & Brief, 1992). Self-development has not been empirically supported by any research yet, but it is thought as an important employee behavior for the wellness of the organization, so it can be considered as an extra-role behavior. Nevertheless, self-development is more related with personal benefits than organizational benefits, that's why individuals may not see this kind of behavior as a concerning behavior for the organization. Even they concern about the organization, trainings are mostly provided by firms to develop their employees to meet the requirements that they expect from them.

2.1.2 Antecedents of OCB

Organizational citizenship behavior studies have become more intense over the last two decades. These researches brought many different aspects to the concept. Some of the researchers have researched about the antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior (Borman et al., 2001; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Ng and Van Dyne, 2005; Torlak, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2000). In one research, Organ and Ryan (1995) have noted that job satisfaction, perceived fairness, organizational commitment and leader supportiveness have significantly affects on OCB as its antecedents.

A meta-analysis conducted by Podsakoff et al. (2000) showed that the researches on the antecedents of OCB have mainly majored on four subjects. Those subjects are specified as individual (employee) characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics and leadership behaviors.

On the subject of employee characteristics, morale has been considered as one of the primal elements to be discussed and investigated. Organ and Ryan (1995) supported that morale builds the base for employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, perception of fairness and perception of leader supportiveness. In the meta-analysis of Podsakoff et al., it is shown that all these concepts are correlated with citizenship behaviors with the correlations ranging from .23 to .31, so we can conclude this view by saying that morale is an important determinant of citizenship behaviors. In terms of understanding the role definition, role perception is significantly related with some dimensions of OCB. Role ambiguity and role conflict have significant relationships with altruism, courtesy and sportsmanship.

Task characteristics also have found as consistently related with organizational citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakoff, Niehoff,

MacKenzie and Williams, 1993). When task characteristics are considered as a three-dimensional construct, which can be defined as task feedback, task routinization and intrinsically satisfying tasks, they are all significantly related with altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, sportsmanship and conscientiousness. Two of the three elements but task routinization are positively related with OCB elements, whether task routinization affects citizenship behaviors negatively.

On the organizational characteristics level, the most significant correlation with OCB elements has observed for group cohesiveness, ranging on .12 to .20. Despite there is a significant relationship between group cohesiveness in the organization to the citizenship behaviors, the statistical results can just support a weak definition between them, according to the meta-analysis of Podsakoff et al. Other dimensions of organizational characteristics, such as organizational formalization, organizational inflexibility, advisory/staff support, rewards outside the leader's control and distance from the leader could not being able to relate with the OCB elements significantly. Only the relationship that is worthwhile to take into account is perceived organizational support – altruism correlation, which has a score of .31.

The fourth and last category of antecedents of OCB is leadership behaviors. Leadership behavior has been defined in sub-terms variously by many researchers (Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer, 1996; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Rich, 2001; Chen and Farh, 1999; Organ and Ryan, 1995). Some of these sub-concepts are named as core transformational leadership, articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward behavior, contingent punishment behavior, non-contingent reward behavior, noncontingent punishment behavior, leader role clarification, leader specification of procedures, supportive leader behaviors and leader-member exchange (LMX). Among all these sub-dimensions, it could be said that there is a general positive correlation between leadership behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors. The only significant negative correlation factor is non-contingent punishment behavior, has a negative effect on employees' organizational citizenship behavior. Leader-member exchange behavior has the highest significance score on the positive way; it is positively correlated with helping behavior with a score of .36, and with overall average of OCB.

Borman and his colleagues proposed a three-category model that attempts to summarize and conceptualize the citizenship behavior (Borman et al., 2001).

According to his research, three dimensions of citizenship behavior are personal support, organizational support and conscientious initiative.

2.1.3 Consequences of OCB

Organizational citizenship behavior has various effects on the organizational consequences, and many researches have been established and many evidences have been found on this field. Organizational effectiveness is one of the major concerns of the scholars who researched about the consequences of OCB, and they found many significant relationships with different dimensions of effectiveness, depending of the sector, company type, culture, country and so on.

In the research of Koys (2001), OCB has been significantly related with profitability of the organization. He aimed to understand the relationship between employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors, turnover rates and organizational effectiveness. In terms of organizational effectiveness, profit as % of sales, overall profit and customer satisfaction have been taken into account. The relationship between OCB and number of sales has been measured as .55, and the relationship between OCB and profit in general is .39 on the positive way as found in the data analysis. Despite that the research showed the positive correlation between OCB and profitability, no significant correlation could be found between OCB and customer satisfaction. Another research about OCB and customer behaviors has showed some significant relationships, conducted by Walz (2000). That study has shown that only helping behavior has correlated significantly with customer satisfaction, with a score of .62. Furthermore, when customer complaints were considered, three of the OCB dimensions, helping behavior, sportsmanship and civic virtue were all significantly correlated on a negative way, with a correlation of -.40. OCB also has effects on perceived service quality, Bell and Menguc (2002) showed that all five dimensions of OCB (altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue) affects perceived level of service quality positively, with correlation scores ranging on .23 to .35.

As it is said before, helping behavior element has received more interest from the scholars, and most of OCB studies took helping behavior as the primal research element. In one crucial research in OCB literature is belong to Ehrhart (2006), who examined consequences of helping behavior among soldiers, and he has found out that unit-level helping behavior has an increasing effect on team cohesion, leader effectiveness, and practical combat-based scores (combat readiness, physical fitness, award rate, M16 scores). It also showed a negative relationship between

unit-level helping behavior and relationship conflict, which means that helping behavior, reduces number of conflicts in the groups and/or organizations. Close to the same direction, another study has found a moderately strong correlation between helping behavior and group cohesion, which has a score of .62 (Ng & Van Dyne, 2005). Parallel to the research of Ehrhart, Ng and Van Dyne have also found negative correlation between helping behavior and group task conflict, with a rate of -.46. Furthermore, they also found additionally a strong correlation between helping behavior and cooperative norms. It can be concluded from the results of those studies that helping behavior brings a positive climate to the organization, which increases group synergy and cohesion, and also decreases conflicts.

2.1.3.1 OCB and individual outcomes

We can also consider individual outcomes as a potential consequence of OCB. Researches show that OCB contributes positively to the individual outcomes (Borman et al., 1995; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Walz & Niehoff, 1996). OCB is positively effective on individual performance, but it also varies on the level of citizenship behavior shown. Empirical works show that task performance has a more major effect on individual outcomes than OCB (Borman et al., 1995; Conway, 1999; Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999). Thus, there can be a trade-off between task performance and organizational citizenship behaviors of individuals. Spending too much time on OCB than task performance may decrease the organizational output level of employee (Bergeron, 2007).

Many organizations are using a reward system for employees based on the performance outputs. In those systems, individualism become more important than collectivity and group cohesion, and employees are highly focused on their own works to get better rewards and promotions (MacKenzie et al, 1993). Therefore, organizational citizenship behaviors may have diminishing effect on outcome productivity of employee in such kind of a reward system. In contrast, if promotion and rewards are based on behavioral position of employees, OCB becomes more valuable than task performance, social skills and group cohesion takes more importance than task-based reward systems (Eisenhardt, 1985, 1989).

Visibility of citizenship behaviors has also effects on the reward system as well. Employees who exhibit more visible citizenship behaviors, such as making innovative suggestions to managers for organizational improvement may attract their supervisors' interest more than the passive, less visible citizenship behaviors, such as not complaining about trivial matters (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Hui, 1993).

Visibility of the behaviors performed by employee affects manager evaluations about employees, so when managers see or realize more positive behaviors of employees, they give higher ratings for them and possibly they are rewarded and promoted easier than the others.

Time spent in workplace also moderates the intensity of OCB performed by employees. When employees have scarce time to complete their task assignments, they are more focused on their tasks to fulfill their job requirements in job definitions. This leads employees to concentrate on in-role behaviors under the time constraint, and extra-role behaviors are become discarded. That trade-off shows that under the time constraint, less citizenship behaviors could be observed, and when employees have more time on work for the same amount of job, they involve in the organization with more citizenship behaviors (Cascio & Ramos, 1986; Thurrow, 1975). In the same vein, levels of OCB may affect the outcomes too. When employees exhibit too much of citizenship behaviors, their overall productivity decreases, and they may have difficulties with completing their task requirements. Several researches have shown that (Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999; Werner, 1994; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Van Dyne et al., 1995) low to moderate levels of OCBs have more positive effects on outcomes than very high levels of OCB (Bergeron, 2007).

2.1.3.2 Negative effects of OCB

Organizational citizenship behavior is one of the primary desires of most of the managers from their employees, because it provides both individual and organizational benefits for no cost. Most of the researchers also identified the positive outcomes that caused by the performance of organizational citizenship behavior, but some scholars have also considered about the potential side effects of those form of behaviors.

As noted before, Bergeron (2007) have argued that very high levels of OCB may provide diminishing benefits to organizations, low to moderate level of OCB is more accurate in term of efficiency. Increasing levels of OCB may lead some negative situations. Bolino and Turnley (2005) have researched on the negative effects of OCB, and they have found significant relationships. They took individual initiative as the argument of OCB into account, and showed that individual initiative is positively related with job stress, role overload and work-family conflict. As individuals become more initiative in the organization, their role in the organization increases and at a certain point, they feel overloaded. Overloaded employees feel like they have too many responsibilities and organization have too many expectations from them which

they can carry out in limited time, with their certain abilities (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970). This overloading situation feels employees stressful, so job stress is both affected by individual initiative and work overload. When employees have too much work loads, and when they are under-stress because of the pressure to complete all tasks and to meet all responsibilities expected from them, they give extra-time and energy from their life for them. They may bring work to home to complete on time, or they may spend too much effort in the workplace and become emotionally exhausted. Emotional exhaustion may cause some emotional changes, such as anger, annoyance, sadness, anxiety, depression and so on (Motowidlo, Packard & Manning, 1986). Those behavioral disorders may cause individuals to have problems of communicating people, even in their families. Bolino and Turnley (2005) have proposed that individual initiative is positively associated with work-family conflict. Their analysis also showed significant results, where the correlations between individual initiative and role overload, job stress and work-family conflict were .51, .42, and .42, respectively.

2.2 Emotional and Social Intelligence

Intelligence is one of the primal meanings of human being in nature, basic explanation of understanding the human life, development, civilization processes and human interactions, even languages, signs and other gestures. Intelligence has been highly discussed for many years, and there are various definitions and conceptual models to understand the roots of intelligence. The theory of Structural Cognitive Modifiability describes intelligence as “the unique propensity of human beings to change or modify the structure of their cognitive functioning to adapt to the changing demands of a life situation” (Feuerstein, 1990). Feuerstein’s definition describes intelligence as the core material of human brain to perpetuate their lives, and adapting to the situations with their minds, even directing them when necessary. Sternberg & Salter supports this kind of adaptation perception by defining intelligence as goal-directed adaptive behavior (Sternberg, 1982). These changing situations of life conditions of human beings could be perceived by the existence of intelligence, therefore intelligence can be seen as the ability to deal with cognitive complexities (Gottfredson, 1998). All these definitions accept human beings in their social life, not just against the conditions of nature. Interpersonal relationships are also a sub-dimension of intelligence, which has termed as social intelligence in the literature (Kihlstrom & Cantor, 2000).

The first definition of social intelligence in the literature was relatively primitive, defining it as understanding and managing people, and acting wisely in human relations (Thorndike, 1920). Vernon has widened Thorndike's definition, including knowledge about social matters, being sensitive to the impulses that other peoples in the social groups distribute, discovering and understanding temporary moods of people and origins of personality features of strangers, recognizing human behaviors and traits, and acting in accordance with them Vernon (1933). Thorndike brought the first definition of social intelligence in the literature, and developments in this field have gained speed in the last three decades. In 1983, Gardner made a distinction between interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence, where one of them was meant to understanding other people, and the other was defined for understanding self and using this awareness in the daily life effectively (Gardner, 1983). As a brief and describing definition, social intelligence was described as the knowledge database of individuals about their social world (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1987).

2.2.1 Models of emotional and social intelligence

Emotional intelligence one of the major sub-concepts of intelligence, and it is also a high concept for today's management perception, managers, human resources of organizations, and employees themselves have more interest on emotional intelligence over the last two decades. The first use of the term "emotional intelligence" was done by Payne, and later, it is defined by Salovey and Mayer as "the subsequence of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). As defined here, some of the scholars defined emotional intelligence as a subsequence of social intelligence, whereas rest of emotional intelligence researchers defined emotional intelligence in a wider perspective and proposed social intelligence as a subset of it.

2.2.1.1 Goleman model

There are several models that examine and define conceptual frameworks for emotional intelligence. One of these models, probably the most popular and most used in organizations is the framework of Daniel Goleman, developed in 1998. In this model, Goleman focuses on emotional intelligence as sum of various skills, abilities and competencies that drive individual to effective performance and

leadership (Goleman, 1998). His model defines emotional intelligence in four sub-dimensions, which are:

- 1- Self-awareness: The ability to read one's emotions and recognize their impact while using gut feelings to guide decisions.
- 2- Self- management: Involves controlling one's emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.
- 3- Social awareness: The ability of sensing, understanding, and reacting to others' emotions while comprehending social networks.
- 4- Relationship management: The ability of inspiring, influencing, and developing others while managing conflict.

In his model, Goleman has defined social intelligence as the sum of last two elements of four, which are social awareness and relationship management. His definition of social awareness stayed as the more intrinsic role of social intelligence, and relationship management positioned as more interactive, more interpersonal role. Social awareness consists of three sub-dimensions, which are empathy, organizational awareness and service orientation. Relationship management has seven sub-dimensions, which are defined as inspirational leadership, developing others, influence, change catalyst, conflict management, building bonds, and teamwork and collaboration. His model of emotional intelligence has been widely used, but also there are important criticisms to that model. The main argument was the shallowness of that model, and scholars named this study of Goleman as popular psychology element, not scientifically respected (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008).

2.2.1.2 Salovey-Mayer model

Peter Salovey and John Mayer used the term “emotional intelligence” in their research in 1990, and they continued to make additional researches to build a conceptual model to define their definition of emotional intelligence with its sub-dimensions. Their concept of emotional definition has two categories. One is strategic facet of emotional intelligence, where understanding and managing emotions is the core of the concept, but perceiving feelings and emotions well or experiencing these feelings and emotions are not necessarily required. Other facet of the concept is contradictory to the first one, it is experiential side, which is perceiving, responding, sensing, and manipulating emotional information, without the need of understanding it.

These two facets of the model have also four branches. Emotional perception is the first sub-dimension of the model, which is being aware of emotions and displaying them and the emotional needs to others effectively. This ability may also help individuals to distinguish between honest and dishonest behaviors, or emotion expressions. Emotional assimilation is the second branch, which is basically the ability to perceive and to distinguish different emotions of other people, and identifying these emotions and feelings that influence their thought processes. This term can also be defined as emotional integration, because it drives individuals to a process of integrating with emotions.

Another branch of the model is emotional understanding, people who are high on emotional understanding can figure out complex emotions and feelings easier and more accurate, and they can realize the transitions of emotions from one to another of self and others. Fourth and the last conceptual sub-dimension of the model is emotion management, which gives individuals to regulate the transition of their emotions, choosing the emotion to feel by consciously, and leaving unwanted emotional situations when needed.

2.2.1.3 Bar-On model

Another important concept in the emotional intelligence literature is developed by Bar-On (1997). He has identified emotional and social intelligence together, under five categories and fifteen categories under these five. The five descriptive categories of emotional and social intelligence developed by Bar-On are:

- 1- Intrapersonal: Self-awareness and self-expression
- 2- Interpersonal: Social awareness and interaction
- 3- Stress management: emotional management and control
- 4- Adaptability: Change management
- 5- General mood: Self-motivation

In his model, intrapersonal dimension determines how the individuals are in touch with their emotions and feelings, ability of feeling good about themselves, and feeling positive about their lives. It has five sub-concepts, one of which is self-regard, defines being aware of and understanding and accepting oneself. Emotional self-awareness is slightly different from self-regard, differentiating from the point of not understanding and accepting themselves, but understanding and being aware of the emotions. Third factor under the intrapersonal dimension is assertiveness, which means expressing feelings and ourselves nondestructively. Independence is

another dimension of intrapersonal intelligence, and it is basically being self-reliant and emotionally dependent from others. Last factor stands for setting and achieving goals to actualize the potential, which was named as self-actualization.

Interpersonal intelligence is the second factor of Bar-On's social and emotional intelligence model, and this factor has similarities with social awareness dimension of Goleman's emotional intelligence model. Interpersonal intelligence consists of three sub-dimensions, which are empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationship, respectively. Empathy is the ability to being aware of and understanding others' feelings, and takes an important place in interpersonal relationships. Social responsibility stands for identifying the social groups and feeling as a part of them, which may also be called as social inclusion. Interpersonal relationship is the third factor of the current dimension, and is establishing mutually satisfying relationships.

Stress management and adaptability are more out of range concepts of social and emotional intelligence, however still found independent places for themselves in Bar-On's model. They are basically includes stress tolerance, impulse control, reality testing, flexibility and problem solving, which are not directly related with interpersonal or intrapersonal intelligence, but supplementary factors for them to complete the full conceptualization of the model.

The Bar-On model draws a different general picture than Goleman's model, because Bar-On puts the element "general mood" on the middle of his model, and proposes that the other four factors affects general mood, and general mood affects effective performance.

2.2.1.4 Trait EI model

Petrides, Pita and Kokkinaki have proposed a model of emotional intelligence that distinct ability based elements of emotional intelligence from trait based elements. They defined trait emotional intelligence as "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality" (Petrides, Pita & Kokkinaki, 2007). This trait based model more statistically reliable because it eliminates the self-report bias of ability-based models.

Trait EI framework consists of 15 distinct components under 4 factors. These factors and sub-components have been revealed after the three other important emotional intelligence frameworks which were developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990) Goleman (1995), and Bar-On (1997). A factor analysis has been used for the

components of these three models, and the 4 factor-15 facet model of trait EI framework has been established.

Well-being is one of the factors of the trait EI model, which includes the facets self-esteem, trait happiness and trait optimism. Self-esteem is defined as being adequate to deal with various challenges in a person's life, and being worthy of happiness (Branden, 1969). Self-esteem people are perceived by themselves and from other people as successful and self-confident. Trait optimism is also a factor of well-being, which brings confidence and the frame of mind to perceiving and being aware of the brightness in the life. People with trait optimism are known with their positive-attitude, and also positively affect people around them. Trait happiness is being satisfied from the life, and being bright and pleasant. When trait happiness is high on individuals, they become more peaceable with themselves.

Another factor defined in the model is self-control. Self-control is constructed by three elements, which are emotion regulation, stress management and impulsiveness. Emotional regulative people are more capable of controlling their feelings to others than other people. Stress management is the trait that helps people to keep their stress is under the harmful level. People good at stress management are can cope with pressure and they can regulate stress better in their lives. Impulsiveness is a negatively affecting factor over self-control, impulsive people lives difficulties with controlling themselves, so low level of impulsiveness is positively correlated with self-control of individuals.

Emotionality is the personal emotional part of the model, includes emotion perception, emotion expression, trait empathy and relationships as sub-dimensions. Emotion perception is the perceptual trait that makes people more understanding about their own and other people's feelings, emotions, emotional gestures and so on. People high on emotionality can also display their emotions towards other people easier than people low on emotionality; and this trait is defined as emotion expression under that factor. Emotionality is also highly correlated with empathy, named as trait empathy in the model, which means taking other people's perspective and thinking style for the situations easily. Last factor under emotionality trait is relationships; people good at relationships are capable of having fulfilling personal relationships.

Fourth and the last factor of the trait EI model is sociability, which has closer terms to social intelligence definitions described above. Sociability has three sub-dimensions that build it up, which are social awareness, emotion management and

assertiveness. Social awareness is close to the definition of Goleman, which makes people being able to accomplish stronger networks with their superior social skills. Emotion management is more related with being affective on other people, correlated positively with the influence on other people in terms of emotions. Finally, assertiveness stands for being honest, frank and straightforward to other people, and standing up for the rights of their own.

All these 4 factors and 15 facets has strongly correlated to each other. Based on the factor analysis of those elements, well-being has a significance level of .94, self-control has a score of .86, emotionality is .90 and sociability stands for .88. In overall, all of 15 facets has significantly related with each other, with an extremely high significance level of .96. So it can conclude based on these results that, trait EI scale has a very high internal reliability and can be taken into account as a reliable research measurement scale.

There are many criticisms towards the emotional intelligence concept from many different aspects, such as not accepting as a form of intelligence, or finding no substantial predictive value of emotional intelligence measures. Similar forms of criticisms are also directed to social intelligence concept, mostly about inconsistencies of measurements. Some authors proposed that different types of social intelligence measures are often not highly correlated with each other (Wong, Day, Maxwell & Meara, 1995). Also different interpretations of social intelligence, reliabilities among many non-verbal methods for measuring social intelligence, and self-report bias possibilities are the arguments of the social intelligence of the critics (Miller & Ross, 1975). Despite those negative perceptions towards social and emotional intelligences, many researches have found statistically significant evidences between social and emotional intelligence and individual or organizational issues that they tested for (Hopkins, 2007; Carmeli, 2006; Dogan, 2009).

2.3 Organizational Outcomes

2.3.1 Organizational identification

Individuals are associated with other people around them in daily life. As long as they need to communicate with each other, they build interpersonal bonds between each other. These bonds can be collaborations, friendships, marriage, corporations, organizations, and much more. People are in a need to define themselves in groups or organizations, in a bigger perspective. It can be figured out from here that human

beings need and desire involving in a larger group and defining themselves as a part of the larger communities (Barney et al. 1998).

Social identity theory proposes that individuals are likely to construct their images by considering how others perceive and interpret them, and how they give reactions for their images. People are linked in with in-groups and out-groups, which gives an impulsive effect on their self-esteem (Tajfel, 1979). People are in comparison with their groups that they belong to and the other groups and they categorize groups and individuals into stereotypes based on their social values. There is a strong sense of being superior to other groups and organizations; therefore they are in a desire to carry out their organizational identity to high as possible (Taylor, 1994). Social identities bring groups and collectivities, and group roles under them, which are based on the rights, regulations, obligations, and sanctions within the groups (Giddens, 1984). People perceive themselves as psychologically and emotionally committed to share the group's fate, and experiencing their successes and failures with including themselves in it as a part of that destiny (Tolman, 1943).

Organizational identification is a specified form of social identification, which people define themselves as a member of a group or organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Organizations are become formalized and reified concerning the prototype of the members; establish a common ground for them where they can feel identified themselves with the collectivity that they live in. This identification causes people to internalize the attributes of the organization for their own. This internalization process can also be perceived as personifying the organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1995).

Organizational identification is extremely useful when it is recognized by the members of organizations. Individuals feel more committed and give their best for their organization, put extra efforts for the sake of organization, because their values match with organizational values perfectly. They can go beyond their role requirements and can perform extra-role behaviors, also can be defined as organizational citizenship behavior, which means the discretionary behaviors that goes beyond one's official role and the intention of helping other people in the organization or to show conscientiousness and supporting the organization as organizational citizenship behavior (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). Strong identification causes strong commitment, and internalizing the goals of the organization as their own goals (Puusa, 2006).

There are many researches exist in literature for understanding and determining the relationships between identity and organizational consequences. For social and organizational identity, there are several researches who are concerned with the relationships with self-motivation and employee performance in workplace (van Knippenberg, 2000), absenteeism and turnover (Mael & Ashforth, 1995), organizational justice (Tyler, 1999; Tyler & Blader, 2000), relationships between groups in organizations (Richter, Van Dick & West, 2004; van Knippenberg, 2003), leadership relationships (Platow, Haslam, Foddy, Grace, 2003; van Knippenberg, 2004) and even more. Identification is a fruitful work field for researchers, as they can find many single and multiple relationships between them and organizational outputs, or personality traits.

2.3.2 Organizational trust

Trust is an outcome attitude or behavioral situation that comes up with the interactions of individuals with co-workers, teams, and organizations (Chathoth, 2007). Individual and organizational trust is defined as individuals' or groups' willingness to be vulnerable to other individuals or groups believing and concerning that they are competent, open, concerned and reliable (Mishra, 1996). Employees trust their organizations, if their criteria for trust have been satisfied. These criteria may depend on each individual, in accordance with personal values of them. Trust is the expectancy of positive outcomes that individuals can receive from the interactions with other people, or groups, or organizations, which are not certain before (Bhattacharya, 1998). Trust becomes important in risky situations and where uncertainty is high; the feeling of trust from somebody brings reliance for the wellness of the future directions of the uncertainty.

Organizational trust feels employees safe and confident about relationships with their organization, and brings positive expectations to employees about their future directions within the organization. Trust holds people together and gives them feeling of security (Mishra & Morrissey, 1990). Individuals give more of themselves if they feel trust towards their organization; they can bear their fears or worries easily, challenge with temporary difficulties occurred between individuals and management, or co-workers, or themselves. According to Mishra and Morrissey, trust is a sensitive and fragile feeling; it is hard to grow it, therefore it grows slowly and with patience in time, nevertheless breaking this fragile feeling is much easier and rapid than building it.

Many researchers have found similarities between organizational trust and organizational commitment, and even some of them used these two terms instead of each other (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989). The difference can be explained shortly as; organizational commitment is feeling identical with the purposes, goals, visions and directions of the organization, having the same type of behaviors and attitudes with the organizational culture and organizational climate. On the other hand, organizational trust stands for the belief that the organization will come with positive outcomes for the individual in any situation, and not doubting or being paranoid about the dynamics of organizations which are not obviously visible or understandable (Kim & Mauborgne, 1993; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991). Rather than replacing each other, some scholars have proved that there is a strong relationship between organizational trust and organizational commitment, where organizational trust also stands for a strong predictor of organizational commitment.

One of the most important conceptual frameworks for trust has been established by Mishra, he has conceptualized organizational trust under four dimensions. These dimensions are named as integrity, commitment, dependability and competence.

Integrity is an important issue for organizational trust, which refers to the organizational characteristic of being fair in intra-organizational and inter-organizational transactions. Integrity is defined as the relation to the reputation of the employees for their honesty and truthfulness (Butler & Cantrell, 1984). The perception and traits of the organization for justice and fairness is the primary necessity for the fulfillment of this dimension. Integrity also subsumes the concept of openness in trust, as defined by one of the key elements of organizational trust by some previous researches (Mishra, 1996).

Commitment is another dimension of trust in organizations. Affective organizational commitment bring the sense of belongingness to the employee, therefore it triggers and positively affects continuance organizational commitment (Chathoth, 2007). Commitment causes willingness to spend effort to build better relationships with other people in the organization, and promoting the positive, trust-based feelings and attitude among the organization. It is also related with organizational identification; related with managing the separation-association paradox as a member of the organization (Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000).

Dependability is another important factor that should be considered while discussing about organizational trust and it is the third factor of the current trust model. In

acceptable trust situations, employees who trust to groups and organizations are vulnerable, transparent and open for the any interactions or consequences that may caused by the action of the other actor of communication, whether a co-worker, a group or organization itself. So trust trusts on the reliability of the relationship, and if the conditions become dependent, the trust relationship becomes more sensitive. This dimension also covers the concern concept that was proposed by several researchers while defining sub-dimensions of organizational trust (e.g. Mishra, 1996).

The last dimension of the model is competence, which identifies trust from the point of view and perception of the others on the organizational skills to compete, including the leadership qualities of the organizational members, which collectively create an awareness of organizational competence, or incompetence (Mishra, 1996; Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000).

Organizational trust has been widely studied with its consequences, antecedents, and the factors that build up the concept itself. Employee satisfaction is one of the possible consequences of organizational trust, where it is considered and showed by analyses that trust at system level affects satisfaction in a positive way (Driscoll, 1978). A multi-dimensional model of trust that was developed by Shockley-Zalabak and his colleagues (2000) analyzed the effects of organizational trust into job satisfaction. Similarly, Chathoth (2007) has established an organizational trust model, consisted three sub-dimensions, which are integrity, commitment and dependability. He then made up a questionnaire to find the positive effect of organizational trust on job satisfaction, which consisted of four variables and twenty-five questions in total; seven questions for integrity, seven for commitment, five for dependability and six questions to determine employee satisfaction. Result of his research showed that there is a positive correlation between organizational trust and job satisfaction, which has a score of .45. Another result in the same research showed that service climate is also affected positively with high organizational trust. The correlation between organizational trust and service climate has been measured with a score of .62, which says that there is a moderately strong correlation between two factors.

Another important research developed by Shockley-Zalabak (2000) has defined organizational trust under five dimensions. Shockley-Zalabak has used the model of Mishra (1996), with an additional fifth element. The fifth element that he proposed was identification, which was inserted into the model to highlight the importance of

whether or not organizational members associate with an organization's goals, values, norms and beliefs. He proposed that if individuals associate or identify with organization's goals, norms, values, and beliefs, they become more likely to perform higher levels of organizational trust. The aim of the research was to define the relationship between organizational trust, job satisfaction and perceived effectiveness, and validating that five-dimensional model of organizational trust is statistically meaningful. He tested his model by a survey developed by him, and was conducted with participants of 367 individuals in 54 companies. As result, he found relatively high correlations between organizational trust and job satisfaction, which had a score of .52. Organizational trust has also correlated with perceived performance positively, with a correlation score of .31, relatively lower than the previous relation explained. Of the factors that construct the five-dimensional model of organizational trust, correlations varied between .73 and .90, which means that five-dimensional model stands strong behind for defining organizational trust.

2.3.3 Turnover intentions

Turnover intentions of an employee shows that how often or how intensely the employee thinks about leaving his/her job, and whether he/she has been looking for a new job or not. It is presumed that turnover intention is negatively correlated with both job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Lacity, Iyer & Rudramuniyaiah, 2008). This relationship shows that employees who are not happy with their jobs are more likely to leave their jobs. Similarly, if employees do not feel committed to the organization, they have weaker bonds with the organization and it is closer to break off.

Reasons of turnover intentions are various, and the concept of turnover intention has more than 1000 studies in the literature so far. One of the important models built for turnover intention was established by Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth (1978). Their model has tried to explain the turnover process step by step, beginning from job satisfaction. According to their model, job dissatisfaction is the trigger of the turnover intention. Job dissatisfaction is also affected by probability of alternatives, which means the alternative jobs in other organizations, ease of job change. For the next step of the process, "thoughts of quitting" has been put after the job satisfaction. They assume that employees, who are unhappy with their tasks and work conditions, start to think about leaving the organization in time. The next step becomes as "search intention", which is affected by thoughts of quitting, job satisfaction and probability of alternatives. When employees are dissatisfied with

their jobs, and they begin to think about quitting the job, they tend to search for alternatives. While searching for alternatives, some preferable alternatives may exist; therefore employees may tend to leave the organization at a suitable time. When they convince themselves about the job change, and when they become satisfied with the job alternatives that they can shift, turnover takes place. This long process is drawn by Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth, and the ways of relationships can be seen in the Figure 2.1.

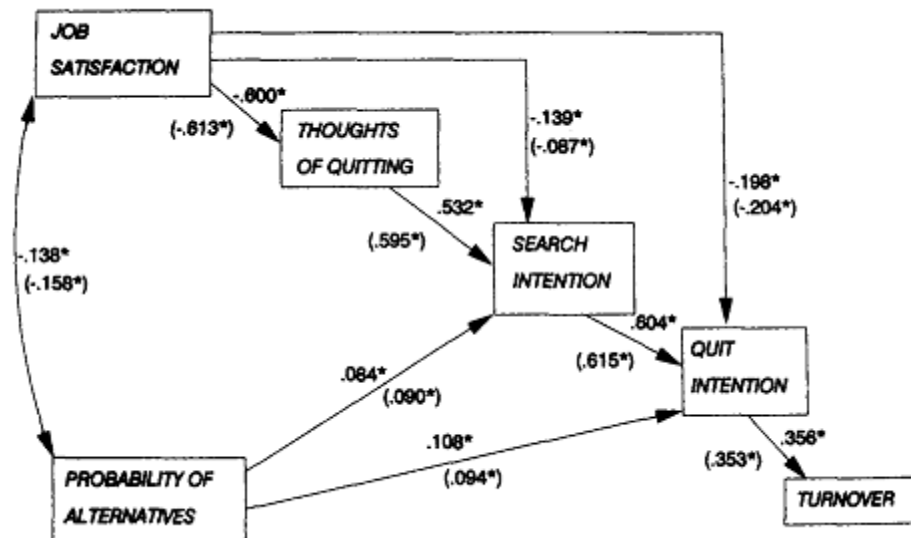


Figure 2.1: Turnover intention model developed by Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth (1978)

The Figure 2.1 shows that there is a high negative correlation between job satisfaction and thoughts of quitting, which has a score of $-.60$. Second and third step of the process is also relatively high significance scores, but quit intention to turnover correlation is not high enough, just remained at $.35$. So, there are some additional developments may required for the first model of this theory.

In time, many scholars has reviewed the turnover intention model of Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth, and made modifications on it. Bannister and Griffieth (1986) reviewed the model of Mobley et al., by testing and re-analyzing with the new directional model. They made changes about the relationship bonds of probability of alternatives, suggesting that alternatives may affect employees' mind in earlier stages of the process. They also removed the bond between job satisfaction and quit intention, which has got a low score on Mobley's model, $-.19$. Their re-analysis showed that the changing the way of probability of alternatives has increased the significance levels between thoughts of quitting and search intention, and between search intention and quit intention. Also the relationship between probability of

alternatives and thoughts of quitting is higher than the sum of two correlation scores that probability of alternatives had in the first research. Their re-defined model of turnover intention theory could be viewed in Figure 2.2.

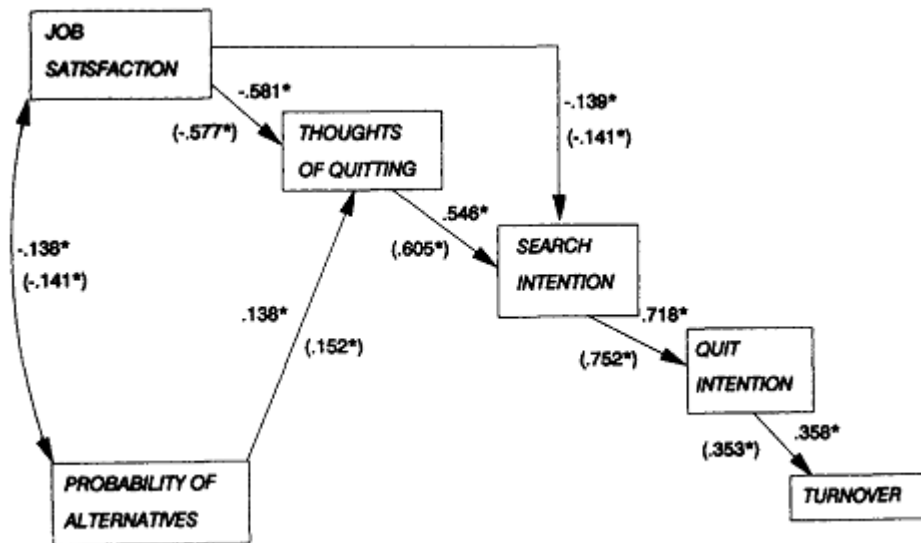


Figure 2.2: Turnover intention model developed by Bannister and Griffieth (1986)

The last model that will be discussed in here is developed by Hom, Griffieth and Sellaro (1984). These researchers have done important changes in the model, by shifting the places of probability of alternatives element and search intention. According to their perception, search intention is directly affected by both quit intention and probability of alternatives, which has not taken into account before. Also they wanted to test the direct correlative effect between search intention and turnover. They also assumed that thoughts of quitting have a positive effect on the probability of alternatives, so probability of alternatives are replaced between thoughts of quitting and search intention. Correlation scores of this third model are shown in Figure 2.3.

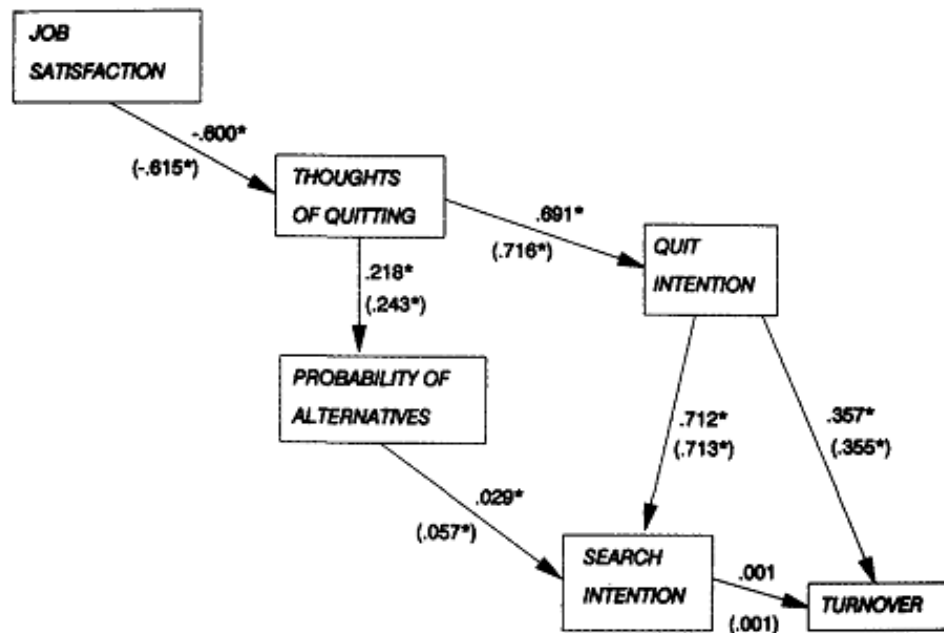


Figure 2.3: Turnover intention model developed by Hom, Griffieth and Sellaro (1984).

Their model showed two important relationships, one is between quit intention and search intention, who gave higher scores as .71 when the direction of the process between them has changed. The second significant output is thoughts of quitting have a reasonable correlation with probability of alternatives, with a score of .21.

As a result, turnover intention has to be perceived as a long process, which begins from job satisfaction, the managers should be aware of the satisfaction levels of their employees.

2.4 Non-Profit and Non-Governmental Organizations

Civil society defines the area that is out of the governmental structure and government agency. In this perspective, civil society has a smaller structure than the government, but larger than individuals and families. As Hegel explained, civil society stands between family and government (Neocleus, 1995). Civil society is conceptually the autonomous field of the society. Civil society is a voluntary social structure, which is developed by them, has their own supporters, autonomous from the government, and stands between private field of individuals and the government (Saribay, 2000).

Any social initiatives which are organized and institutionalized are called as civil society foundations (CSF), or non-governmental organizations (NGO) (Ozden,

2008). Civil society foundations are specialized from other institutional communities with the role identities in their own; they are formed based on volunteering, not for any profit (in terms of money) based purpose. That's why they are also called as non-profit organizations (NPOs).

NGOs have many different names in the literature, depending on the definition types. Some of the most known types of NGOs are:

- CBO (Community Based Organization)
- DONGO (Donor Organized Non-Governmental Organization)
- PDO (Private Development Organization)
- PSO (Public Service Organization)
- PVO (Private Voluntary Organization)
- CSO (Civil Society Organization)
- NPO (Non-Profit Organization)
- NGO (Non-Governmental Organization)
- BINGO (Business-oriented International Non-Governmental Organization)
- RINGO (Religious International Non-Governmental Organization)
- ENGO (Environmental Non-Governmental Organization)
- INGO (International Non-Governmental Organization)

Instead of these various names, the sector definition of NGOs has different definitions, such as:

- Third sector
- Non-profit sector
- Voluntary sector
- Philanthropic sector

NGOs have categorized under four categories according to Caha (1999), based on their working fields. These categories and the types of organizations are:

- 1- NGOs operating in economics field: Syndicates, chambers, trade associations, cooperatives, unions etc.
- 2- NGOs operating in political field: Think-tanks, politic organizations, environmental initiatives, women initiatives, idea platforms etc.
- 3- NGOs operating in cultural field: Media, sports associations, art and culture associations etc.

- 4- NGOs operating in religious field: Church and mosque associations, religious initiatives, religious foundations and unions etc.

3. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

3.1 Conceptual Framework

3.1.1 First stage of model development

Based on the literature review expressed in Chapter 2, the conceptual progress of this study has developed in three stages, with three different models. The starting point of this research was measuring organizational citizenship behaviors of volunteers in non-profit organizations. Because of the voluntary work in non-profit organizations are done with core motivation, because no financial benefit are expected or gained, it was expected that volunteers in those organizations shows high levels of organizational citizenship behaviors. The next step was developed by comparing citizenship behaviors of volunteers with professional workers in non-profit organizations, and contrasting the differences that the money causes.

The second stage of the development process was involvement of consequences to the conceptual framework. Based on the findings from the literature search, it was realized that citizenship behaviors have many consequences to organizations (Borman et al., 1995; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Walz & Niehoff, 1996). After a long research about consequences of OCB, those consequences were grouped into two, differentiating the consequences that affect individuals and the others that affect all organization. Therefore, consequences have been grouped as individual consequences and organizational consequences, respectively.

Third stage of the framework was searching about the antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors of volunteers and professionals in the non-profit sector; therefore next researches were conducted to define antecedents of OCB. Many different antecedents have been found in these researches (e.g. Borman et al., 2001; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Ng and Van Dyne, 2005; Torlak, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Emotional intelligence was picked out from those large antecedents database, based on the model developed by Goleman (1995). Goleman's model of Emotional Intelligence has been examined in detail, and the social facet of that construct was taken into account to be considered as possible antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors. Antecedents were also separated into two

parts, in accordance with Goleman's model. One of those two groups was social awareness, with sub-dimensions of empathy, organizational awareness and service. Other group was relationship management, with sub-dimensions as developing others, influence, conflict management, change catalyst, and teamwork & collaboration. These antecedents groups were named as social competence, to subsume both of the groups in one title.

Hence, the first model of our study has been built, and shown in the Figure 3.1 below.

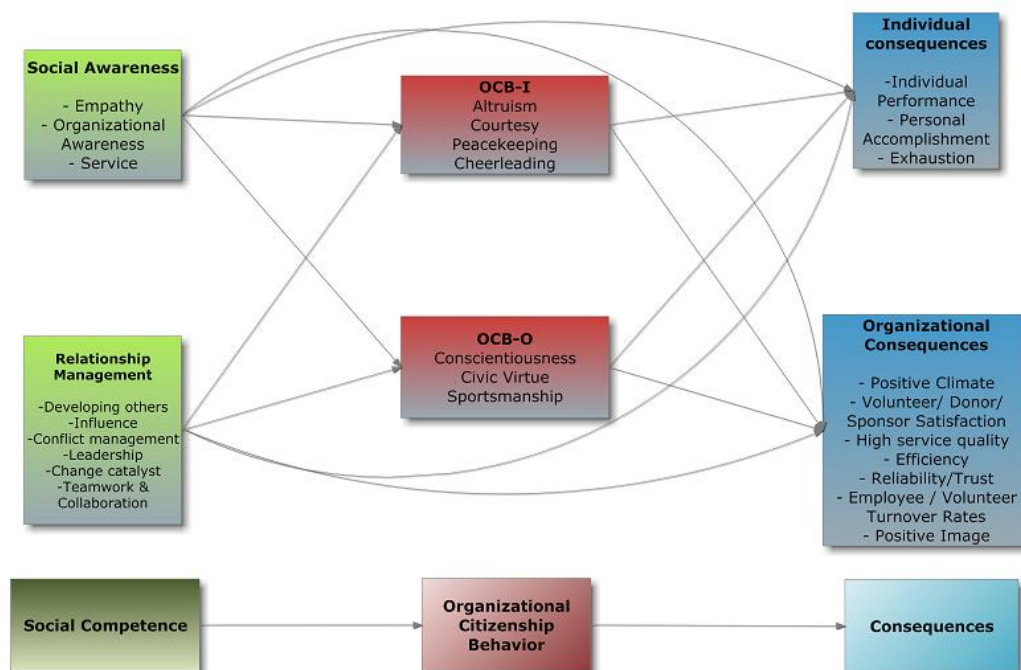


Figure 3.1: First conceptualized model of the study.

3.1.2 Second stage of model development

After building the first model of the study, more researched showed that Goleman's Emotional Intelligence Scale has not received enough significant validity from other scholars, and criticized intensely. One main reason of these criticisms was that model of Goleman was found as pop-psychology, not scientific enough. Even it that model was counted as acceptable, only half of the whole model were supposed to be used in the study, therefore it was hard to trust to the interpretation of a half-measuring emotional intelligence system. Since then, researches have continued to find a more suitable concept to measure social capabilities of the NGO volunteers and professionals, and finally a suitable measurement scale had found. The Tromso Social Intelligence Scale, a self-report measure of social intelligence developed by

Silvera, Martinussen and Dahl (2001) was taken into account and analyzed in detail to decide to use for the antecedent part of the model. Tromso Social Intelligence Scale model has three sub-dimensions, which were constructed the model after elimination of 103 questions by grouping similar ones together, and then conducting a factor analysis for the rest of 21 questions. These sub-dimensions were named as “Social Information Processing (SI)”, “Social Skills (SS)” and “Social Awareness (SA)”.

On the OCB side of the model, where OCB was differentiated as individual and organizational differences, that model had also revised. Factors of OCB-I, which are altruism, courtesy, peacemaking and cheerleading was re-named as “Helping Behavior”, based on the research of Podsakoff et al. (2000). Rest of the three factors, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship, which were already belong to OCB-O group, were separated from each other, and the last form of OCB in the study has become into a four-dimensional model, which is the same with the model which Podsakoff et al. defined and used in the literature.

In the consequences part of the model, individual and consequences model had brought all together again, and some of these dimensions had been eliminated because of the mismatching nature of non-profit sector with some of those elements, and other limitations of the study caused some outcomes to drop out from the research. Seven dimensions of organizational consequences are included into the second model of research, neglecting the groups that they may belong to, like individual, group or organizational consequence groups.

Visual display of the second version of the model can be shown below, as Figure 3.2.

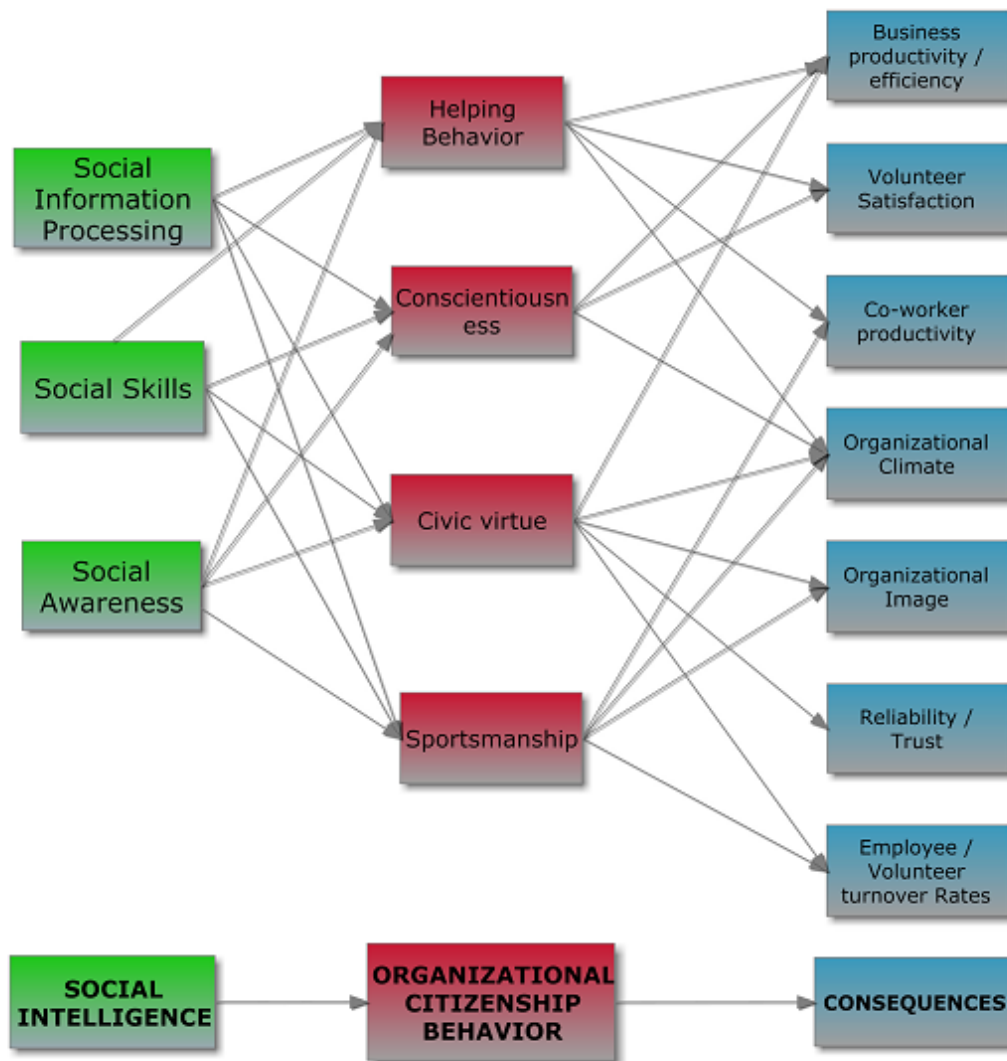


Figure 3.2: Second conceptualized model of the study.

3.1.3 Third stage of model development

After the second model, it became obvious that the consequences part of the model was in a mess and confusion; therefore it was immediately reviewed after it was realized. During the reviewing process, consequences were again grouped into three, which are individual, group and organizational consequences. By realizing that these three dimensions has too many sub-elements and not highly related with each other, individual level of consequences had thrown off from the model. Consequence units had also grouped as hard and soft values, where hard values are objective records and data, and soft values are subjective, dependable data. Hard-values had dropped out from the study, because of the difficulty of reaching, gathering, defining, understanding and interpreting the hard data in non-profit organizations. With a small field research, many NGOs do not have professional

reports (for example, volunteer turnover rate, or number of volunteers joined last year), and that made comparisons of hard values between organizations impossible. Another conceptual definition from the last part of the model was the name change; the name consequences were re-named as “effectiveness”, because measures remained after the elimination process were all related with organizational and group performance.

The third model is visualized below, as Figure 3.3.

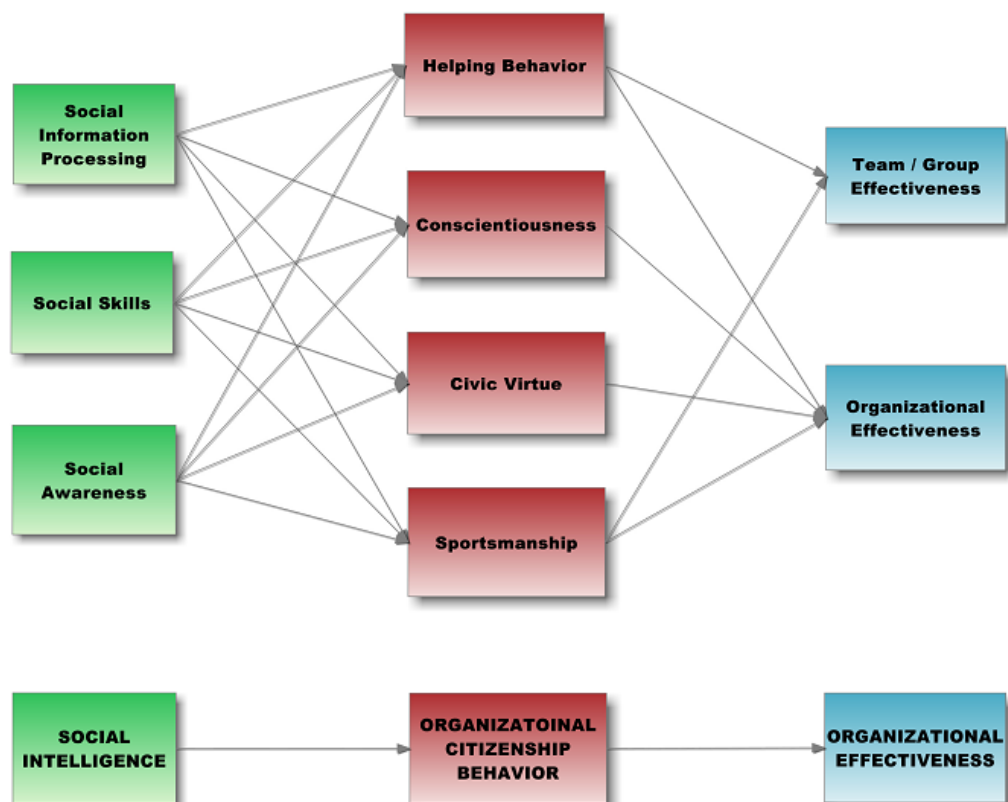


Figure 3.3: Third conceptualized model of the study.

3.1.4 Fourth stage of model development

On the last stage of the model development, the only problematic side of the model, organizational effectiveness has reviewed for the last time. In this concluding step, the term “organizational effectiveness” had changed, because it was limiting the consequences that can be obtained from the study with just effectiveness. Organizational Effectiveness had renamed as “Organizational Outcomes”, and consisted of three factors. The factors that constructed up organizational outcomes are in individual level, group level and organizational level, respectively. For individual level, “Turnover Intention” was chosen as the outcome that we seek for,

“Group Cohesiveness” was in the group outcomes side, and “Organizational Perception”, which is a combination of “Organizational Identification” and “Organizational Trust” was named in the organizational outcome part of the study.

All in all, the final model of the conceptual framework of study has been established like as shown in Figure 3.4.

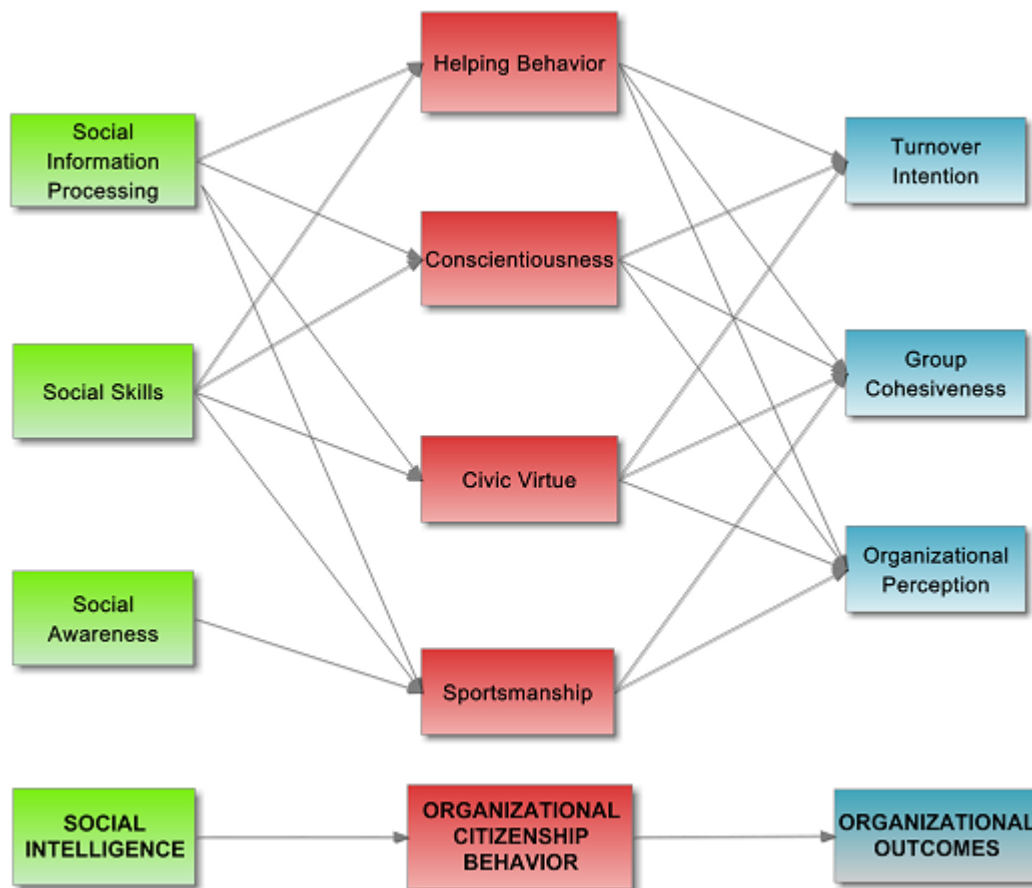


Figure 3.4: Final model of the conceptual framework.

3.2 Social Intelligence and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

As discussed in the previous chapter, social intelligence has a lot of consequences to the organization. Social intelligence is the way of understanding social relationships, defining and identifying types of social situations, and finding ways to act wisely. In an organization, individuals are usually involved in interactions with other people around them, and when they are emotionally intelligent, they gain the ease of control in the workplace. Organizational citizenship behaviors affect both individuals and organizations; they take place in the workplace, with the involvement

and interaction of other people who also build the social construct of the organization.

In the non-profit sector, the scope of the works are mostly about social issues, like saving the environment, increasing the literacy rate, defending rights of blue collar workers etc. Non-government foundations work for the welfare of society and provide social benefits for the people. And almost all non-profit organizations, specifically in Turkey, works in terms of providing service for society, manufacturing is not in the work scope of NGOs in Turkey with some exceptions, which only manufactures and sells small souvenirs or other basic stuffs for fundraising, again not-for-profit. In service sector, employees are expected high social capabilities, because they interact with other people much more than the heavy machinery workers in manufacturing companies.

Therefore, it can be expected that if individuals are more aware of the social situations, identifying and distinguishing accurately peoples' behaviors, attitudes and feelings, and have more ability of maneuver in different social situations should feel the sense of responsibility for their organizations, such as performing extra-role behaviors when necessary. This study aims to find meaningful relationships between social intelligence elements and organizational citizenship behavior, where it proposes social intelligence is an antecedent of organizational citizenship behavior. This concept could be defined as a hypothesis, which is;

H1: There is a positive relationship between social intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis H1 suggest that the overall averages of social intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior are correlated, where social intelligence may have a positive affect towards organizational citizenship behaviors.

If we discuss about sub-dimensions of social intelligence, there are many possible relationships can be proposed with them and the sub-elements of organizational citizenship behavior. The first sub-element of our model, which was derived from Tromso Social Intelligence Scale developed by Silvera et al. (2000), social information processing may also positively related with the sub-dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviors. Social information processing in the model includes statements about understanding behaviors, attitudes and feelings of other people and themselves, and interpreting them properly. Therefore, we can directly propose that social information processing positively affects helping behavior and

sportsmanship, because they are active citizenship behaviors and good interpretation is important to perform these extra-role behaviors. If we conceptualize the term of social in terms of organizational, which means taking organization as a characterized social unit, which develops by the people involving in it, social information processing should be expected to relate positively with conscientiousness and civic virtue as well. We can write the expected relationships between social information processing and organizational citizenship behavior as:

H1a: There is a positive relationship between social information processing and helping behavior.

H1b: There is a positive relationship between social information processing and conscientiousness.

H1c: There is a positive relationship between social information processing and civic virtue.

H1d: There is a positive relationship between social information processing and sportsmanship.

In accordance with social information processing, social skills has very similar relationships expected with the elements of organizational citizenship behaviors. Social skill statements in the model includes statements such as “I fit easily in social situations”, “I often feel uncertain around new people who I don’t know (Reverse)”, where it shows people on higher score can interact with other people easily and more effective. This ability can be a possible antecedent of helping behavior and sportsmanship in OCB elements, so we can conclude this relationship of social skills and OCB elements as:

H1e: There is a positive relationship between social skills and helping behavior.

H1f: There is a positive relationship between social skills and sportsmanship.

Third element of social intelligence model is social awareness, which is frequently used in the non-profit sector’s terminology. It is a common term, but has a slightly different meaning in non-profit sector, such as social awareness defines being able to realize and understand the social issues, being aware of the social problems and needs, having social sensitivity. In the social intelligence model, social awareness has more based on interpersonal relationships, and has statements such as “I often feel that it is difficult to understand others’ choices (Reverse)” and “I often hurt

people without realizing it". A realization process takes place in here also, but not like the other meaning of social awareness, that one is more personal realizations derived from social situations. Social awareness element of social intelligence can affect the sportsmanship element of organizational citizenship behavior, because when individuals are aware of what affects other people in the organization negatively, also for themselves, and when they realized these types of behavior or attitudes, they escape from them to avoid from the negative self and group atmosphere. The relationship between social awareness and sportsmanship can be defined as:

H1g: There is a positive relationship between social awareness and sportsmanship.

3.3 Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Organizational Outcomes

Organizational citizenship behavior has been researched for many times to discover its consequences to organizations. Several consequences of OCB have been found and showed with significantly statistical evidences from many researchers (e.g. Allison, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Liu et al., 2005; Cropanzano, 2003). In this study, we only took four organizational outcomes which were expected with various elements of organizational citizenship behavior. These outcomes are organizational identification, organizational trust, and turnover intention and group cohesiveness.

It is explained in the previous chapter that OCB is related with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. When employees have higher job satisfactions and higher commitment to the organization, they perform more citizenship behaviors. Another research had shown that job satisfaction is negatively correlated with turnover intention. When employees are not happy with their jobs, they start to look for other job opportunities. Also organizational citizenship behavior brings positive mood to organizations, so it could be expected that it may increase organizational trust, and organizational identification, and group synergy. We can leave for a conclusion of general organizational citizenship behavior may affect organizational outcomes positively. This idea has been hypothesised below:

H2: There is a positive relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational outcomes.

When it is time to consider the sub-elements of organizational citizenship behavior one by one, again strong relationships can be identified. In an organization, where

employees are in good harmony with each other, understand and coordinate well, becomes as helping hands when needed, has a positive atmosphere inside and becomes more productive and efficient. In such kind of an organization, employees are less likely to leave the job, and they identify themselves and their groups with the organization easily. Trust can be established because of this positive mood as well. Therefore, helping behavior is expected to be related with all three dimensions of organizational outcomes in our model. Hypotheses of the relationship between helping behavior and organizational outcomes are shown below.

H2a: There is a positive relationship between helping behavior and organizational perception.

H2b: There is a negative relationship between helping behavior and turnover intention.

H2c: There is a positive relationship between helping behavior and group cohesiveness.

Conscientiousness is caring the efforts of the individuals' themselves in the workplace, building their own ethical values that are based on their role in the organization and obeying the rules of organizations. This element of organizational citizenship behavior is an intrinsic form of behavior that does not affect other people in the organization directly. There is an instant positive association with job satisfaction can be thought, because if employees are conscientious for their roles in the organization, they are more likely to be satisfied of their roles. Therefore, we can conclude that conscientiousness is related with organizational and individual outcomes, as explained in hypotheses below:

H2d: There is a positive relationship between conscientiousness and organizational perception.

H2e: There is a negative relationship between conscientiousness and turnover intention.

Civic virtue is close to the understanding in conscientiousness, where civic virtue stands as an intrinsic set of behaviors and actions. It has statements like "Attends meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important." and "Reads and keeps up with organizational announcements, memos and so on". These statements refer to the organizational identification level of employees. If employees feel themselves identified with their organization, they can easily perform civic virtue

behaviors. And when they care about their organization, it is expected that job satisfaction should also has high rates, so turnover intention should be low. The proposed relationships between civic virtue and organizational outcome elements are displayed below:

H2f: There is a positive relationship between civic virtue and organizational perception.

H2g: There is a negative relationship between civic virtue and turnover intention.

Sportsmanship is the dimension or organizational citizenship behavior which is not complaining about the unwanted situations between individuals or between individual and organization (Organ, 1988). Individuals who are bad sportsmen consume lots of time for complaining about trivial matters, and create a negative mood on themselves, their groups and the organization in general. Good sportsmen maintain a positive attitude and behaviors, instead of being negative and complainant about situations. Sportsmanship behavior has the effect of peacekeeping in the organization, so it could be basically related with group cohesiveness. Also job satisfaction can be a positive antecedent of sportsmanship, therefore turnover rates may be expected lower from the employees who are good at sportsmanship. Finally, good sportsmen identify themselves with the organization, instead of being opposed to it; therefore we can expect a positive correlation between sportsmanship and organizational perception. This conceptualization of the relationship between sportsmanship behavior and organizational outcome elements are displayed below as hypotheses:

H2i: There is a positive relationship between sportsmanship and organizational perception.

H2j: There is a negative relationship between sportsmanship and turnover intention.

H2k: There is a positive relationship between sportsmanship and group cohesiveness.

3.4 Differences Between Volunteer and Professional Workers

Non-governmental organizations have three types of human sources; they are grouped as professional workers, volunteer workers and donors.

Professional workers are like the same type of workers with any company that make profit, these employees are paid regularly for the job that they do.

Donors are one of the most important money sources of NGOs. These members of NGOs make regular or discrete donations to the organization, and in some associations, they pay a monthly or annual membership fee.

Volunteers are the most important work source of non-profit organizations, they do not get paid for the job that they do for the organization. Volunteer workers of NGOs do not have to do any task for any signed work contract, and they do not expect any financial benefit from the task that they committed.

Being a volunteer does not mean that volunteers shouldn't get anything from the organization. There are several other contributions of volunteering for individuals, such as helping someone, touching a social problem to solve it, or discussing and creating solutions for the benefit of the society can feel individuals as valuable and important, as standing strong on their own, feeling responsible for the society that they live in, and doing things for the welfare of the society gives a motivational booster to them. Beyond that motivational benefits, individual gain important work experiences during these social responsibility works; they sometimes work as hard as the professionals and gains all experience that a professional can gain, with the possibility of not feeling forced to do any of the works that they do. Volunteering is highly related with self development, experienced volunteers become well-developed and sophisticated individuals in time. Volunteers can gain specific skills during their work experiences, such as interpersonal skills, communication skills, increased knowledge, managerial skills, fundraising skills, technical or office skills etc.

Although there are several similarities between volunteer and professional workers of non-profit organizations, there are many differences exist. The biggest difference is obvious, professional workers are paid for their works they do, volunteer workers are not paid. This can cause motivational variations between two groups, which requires volunteer to have a higher degree of motivation for their job, to provide same efficiency with a professional worker. Also there can be significant differences between organizational citizenship behaviors of the volunteers and professionals. Voluntary based work is done by intrinsic motivation, and usually volunteer communities more collaborative than professional groups, because they have one common vision, instead of personal goals. So, it can be expected that the group motivation should be higher in the organization, and this provides the way of

displaying more helping behaviors in organization for volunteers, more sportsmanship behaviors and having higher group cohesion levels than professionals. Also there can be a significant difference between turnover intentions of volunteers, because of voluntary work is not obligated for staying in the organization, and that type of workers may be more likely to intend to leave the organization at any time. When organizational perception are taken into account, it can be expected that professional workers spend more time in the organization, and they work regularly, whereas the voluntary work does not have to be regularly all the time, so professionals can feel more committed to organizations than volunteers, and there can be a significant difference between organizational perceptions of professionals and volunteers. The hypotheses based on the occupation in the organization are defined below:

H3a: There is a significant difference between helping behavior scores with respect to their occupation in the organization.

H3b: There is a significant difference between conscientiousness scores with respect to their occupation in the organization.

H3c: There is a significant difference between sportsmanship scores with respect to their occupation in the organization.

H3d: There is a significant difference between turnover intention scores with respect to their occupation in the organization.

Among volunteers, the time spent for volunteering varies in a wide range. Some people participate into a charity activity at random times, and that type of volunteering is classified as irregular volunteering. On the other hand, in many organizations, volunteers have regular tasks, and they spend a constant time for it regularly. In many NGOs, there are no professional workers, and all work is done by volunteers, from financial accounting to activities. Therefore there is no exact definition of regular volunteering, it can be one hour per week, as well as forty hours per week, as the same as with a professional worker in any corporate company.

Different voluntary hours of work that volunteers spend regularly can affect organizational outcomes of volunteers. As told above, volunteers who spend more time for the organization are expected to feel more committed, and they are less likely to leave the organization. The reasoning for the variance of voluntary hours among volunteers depends on several factors, but if we generalize at a certain point, we can conclude that more volunteering is done with more motivation, and more

social sensibility. So that, we can expect that individuals that have higher scores on social intelligence spend more time for regular volunteering. The same structure can be built for organizational citizenship behaviors; we can expect that helping behavior, conscientiousness and civic virtue is positively associated with voluntary hours spent regularly. Hypotheses based on the voluntary hour element are displayed below:

H4a: There is a significant difference between social information processing with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

H4b: There is a significant difference between social skills with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

H4c: There is a significant difference between social awareness with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

H4d: There is a significant difference between helping behavior with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

H4e: There is a significant difference between conscientiousness with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

H4f: There is a significant difference between civic virtue with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

H4g: There is a significant difference between organizational perceptions with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

H4h: There is a significant difference between turnover intentions with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

H4i: There is a significant difference between group cohesiveness with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

The measurement unit of voluntary hours covers only volunteers, and does not give any idea about how professionals are affected by their time spent in their organizations. To define this, we can compare NGO differences of both volunteers and professionals, and we can test whether there are significant differences with social intelligence, organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational outcomes. NGO experience is measured by number of years that individuals have spent in civil society foundations, whether as a volunteer or a professional. The

amount of year experience of individuals in NGO sector may affect some elements of social intelligence, such as social information processing and social awareness. During the time in the civil society field, individuals are highly concentrated on social issues that concern society, and this may broaden the social perception and sensitivity of employees. They can gain experience by thinking, discussing, observing and creating solutions for social problems, and this may raise their social information processing skills and their social awareness up. As we discussed above, it is proposed that helping behavior is expected to be related with the time spent in the organization, so NGO experience could be significantly related with helping behavior of NGO workers. Similar to this, group cohesiveness is expected to correlate with the amount of NGO experience, on a positive way. As a conclusion, the hypotheses based on NGO experience of volunteers and individuals are stated below:

H5a: There is a significant difference between social information processing with respect to their NGO experience.

H5b: There is a significant difference between social awareness with respect to weekly voluntary hours average of volunteers.

H5c: There is a significant difference between helping behavior with respect to weekly voluntary hours average of volunteers.

H5d: There is a significant difference between group cohesiveness with respect to weekly voluntary hours average of volunteers.

There is also a final demographic measurement unit to test the correlations between that and social intelligence, OCB and outcomes, which is gender. It is highly proposed that those men have higher scores on IQ, but women are more emotionally intelligent. Therefore we can propose that women volunteers and professional workers may have higher levels of social processing and social skills than men. In the same vein, while it is supposed that women are more sensitive than men, their helping behavior should be expected significantly different from men positively. There are three basic hypotheses built to test the gender relationship over our measurement elements, and they are displayed below:

H6a: There is a significant difference between social information processing with respect to gender.

H6b: There is a significant difference between social skills with respect to gender.

H6c: There is a significant difference between helping behavior with respect to gender.

4. METHODOLOGY

In the previous chapter, 35 hypotheses under 6 categories have been defined. To test the validations of these hypotheses, various measurement tools and elements are used in the research. These measurement units can be grouped into four, social intelligence elements, organizational citizenship behavior elements, organizational outcomes elements, and demographic and descriptive elements.

4.1 Scales and Variables

4.1.1 Social intelligence scale and variables

As explained in development stages of the conceptual model, social intelligence variables had taken a long way to find its last definition. The first concept that were considered for measuring social intelligence was Goleman's (1995) model, which was actually named as "social competence" instead of social intelligence. Researches to find a better alternative has continued until the current social intelligence scale that is used in this study has been found, which is named as Tromso Social Intelligence Scale, developed by Silvera et al. (2000).

Tromso Social Intelligence Scale has been developed by the academicians of University of Tromso, David H. Silvera, Monica Martinussen and Tove I. Dahl. At first, they started to define social intelligence with all possible dimensions, and they made a questionnaire to 14 member of psychology faculty in University of Tromso. There members were asked to define the construct of social intelligence. They were given 27 abilities that might be related with social intelligence, and they are asked to rate those abilities on the scale from 0 (not relevant) to 4 (very relevant).

After the questionnaire, the most embraced definition of social intelligence was existed as "the ability to understand other people and how they will react to different social situations". In that study, social intelligence was primarily based on cognitive skills like perspective taking and judging other people. Behavioral settings had received less interest by the participants.

In the second stage of the research, they constructed a 103-item questionnaire that consisted of statements about social intelligence. They conducted the survey to 202

students, and as results, they applied factor analysis on results. After the factor analysis, and grouping and eliminating similar questions, 21 questions were left, under 3 different factors. These three factors were named as “Social Information Processing (SP)”, “Social Skills (SS)” and “Social Awareness (SI)”.

Social information processing dimension of social intelligence scale consisted up questions those aim to measure the level of understanding and perceiving behaviors, attitudes and feelings of other people. Social skills questions are more interaction based measurement units, measuring how the individual is being able to use his social abilities in daily life. Social awareness includes questions which are more likely to measure perception and identification of emotions, feelings, attitudes and behaviors of other people, slightly different than social information processing dimension.

Measurement of social intelligence scale was re-designed, there were some changes made for the order of the questions. 6-point scale was used in the questionnaire, where the answers and their coding were arranged as:

1 = Never

2= Rarely

3= Sometimes

4= Usually

5= Very often

6= Always

The final display of questions is shown below:

1. I fit in easily in social situations.
2. I can predict other peoples' behavior.
3. I often feel that it is difficult to understand others' choices. (R)
4. I know how my actions will make others feel.
5. Other people become angry with me without me being able to explain why. (R)
6. People often surprise me with the things they do. (R)
7. I am good at entering new situations and meeting people for the first time.
8. I understand others' wishes.

9. It seems as though people are often or irritated with me when I say what I think. (R)
10. I have a hard time getting along with other people. (R)
11. I understand other peoples' feelings.
12. I can often understand what others are trying to accomplish without the need for them to say anything.
13. I often feel uncertain around new people who I don't know. (R)
14. People often surprise me with the things they do. (R)
15. I have often hurt others without realizing it. (R)
16. It takes a long time for me to get to know others well. (R)
17. I can predict how others will react to my behavior.
18. I am good at getting on good terms with new people.
19. I find people unpredictable. (R)
20. I can often understand what others really mean through their expression, body language, etc.
21. I frequently have problems finding good conversation topics. (R)

Questions 2, 4, 8, 11, 12, 17 and 20 constructed the first category of the scale, "Social Information Processing".

Questions 1, 7, 10, 13, 16, 18, 21 constructed the second category of the scale, "Social Skills"

Questions 3, 5, 6, 9, 14, 15, 19 constructed the third category of the scale, "Social Awareness".

4.1.2 Organizational citizenship behavior scale and variables

There are many scales used for measuring organizational citizenship behavior of individuals, with many different conceptual models and dimensions, as discussed in Chapter 2.

Bateman and Organ (1983) defined the first measurement scale of OCB, consisted of 30 statements about general organizational citizenship behaviors. They used a 7-point scale for the questionnaire, ranging on -3 (disagree completely) to +3 (agree completely).

The next model developed by Smith, Organ and Near (1983), which is still respected and used for other researchers. Their model of OCB consisted two sub categories, "Altruism" and "Generalized Compliance". Altruism has defined as capturing

behavior that is directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face-to-face situations. Generalized compliance has defined as the behavior which seems to represent something akin to compliance with internalized norms defining what a good employee should do.

Their questionnaire consisted of 16 statements, and they had used 5-point scale for measurement, ranging on “very characteristic” to “not at all characteristic”, and with a separate column for “does not apply”.

In 1990, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter has come up with a new conceptual model of OCB, which includes the five major categories of organizational citizenship behavior, and is still most used categorization in the literature.

Their 5-category model consisted of “Altruism”, “Conscientiousness”, “Sportsmanship”, “Courtesy”, and “Civic Virtue”. They had built up a 24-item scale for the questionnaire, and used a 7-point scale for measurement, ranging on “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”.

Williams and Anderson (1991) brought a new conceptualization to the OCB literature, dividing organizational citizenship behaviors into two categories as OCBI and OCBO. OCBI has defined as behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly through this means contribute to the organization. OCBO has defined as behaviors that benefit the organization in general. They had built a 21-item questionnaire with a 7-point scale, ranging on “strongly disagree” through “strongly agree”.

Another multi-dimensional concept was developed by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994), where they defined 6 categories to define organizational citizenship behavior. These categories are named as “Altruism”, “Courtesy”, “Cheerleading”, “Peacekeeping”, “Civic Virtue”, “Sportsmanship”. Cheerleading and peacekeeping was the new concepts introduced by the authors, peacekeeping was defined as consisting actions that help prevent, resolve or mitigate unconstructive interpersonal conflict, and cheerleading was defined as encouraging and reinforcing coworkers’ accomplishments and professional development. They dropped conscientiousness out of the model, because they proposed that conscientiousness was not viewed as a discretionary form of behavior in many works settings, and differs from in-role behavior only in terms of degree rather than kind.

They have built up a 14-item questionnaire for measuring those 6 categories of OCB, by using 7-point scale, ranging on “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”.

In the first stage of the model development, Williams & Anderson model of OCB had been considered as the suitable one for this study. On the next stages, it was changed into the Podsakoff et al. (1990) model had taken into account. Based on that model, some important changes has been made, such as grouping the four categories of altruism, courtesy, peacekeeping and cheerleading in one category named "Helping Behavior". Other factors remained in the model, and the OCB Scale model was conceptually developed with 4 major categories. For developing the statements under the categories, several previous questionnaires were examined again, and a questionnaire which consists 19 statements under 4 categories has been established. In the questionnaire, As Podsakoff et al. (1990) model was the core of our scale, 16 of 19 questions were taken from their questionnaire. Other 3 questions were taken from Podsakoff (1994) and Van Dyne (1995).

6-point scale was used in the questionnaire, where the answers and their coding were arranged as:

1= Totally Disagree

2= Disagree

3= Slightly Disagree

4= Slightly Agree

5=Agree

6=Totally Agree

The final display of questions is shown below:

- 1- Reads and keeps up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.
- 2- Encourages other people when they are down.
- 3- Believes in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.
- 4- Tends to make "mountains out of molehills" (R)
- 5- Is a stabilizing influence in the organization when dissension occurs.
- 6- Always finds fault with what the organization doing. (R)
- 7- Considers the impact of his/her actions on coworkers.
- 8- Only attends work-related meetings if required by job. (R)
- 9- Always focuses on what's wrong, rather than the positive side. (R)
- 10- Obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.
- 11- Keeps abreast of changes in the organization.

- 12- Takes steps to try to prevent problems with other workers.
- 13- Attends functions that are not required, but help the company image.
- 14- Does not take extra breaks.
- 15- Helps orienting new people even though it is not required.
- 16- Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters. (R)
- 17- Attendance at work is above the norm.
- 18- Attends meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.
- 19- Helps others who have heavy workloads.

Questions 2, 5, 7, 12, 15, 19 constructed the first category of the scale, "Helping Behavior".

Questions 3, 10, 14, 17 constructed the second category of the scale, "Conscientiousness"

Questions 1, 8, 11, 13, 18 constructed the third category of the scale, "Civic Virtue".

Questions 4, 6, 9, 16 constructed the third category of the scale, "Sportsmanship".

4.1.3 Organizational outcomes scale and variables

For the third and last part of the conceptual model, a three category model has been defined. These categories are defined as "Organizational Perception", "Turnover Intention", and "Group Cohesiveness", which are meant to measure organizational, individual and group outcomes, respectively. Organizational perception has also divided into two categories, as "Organizational Identification" and "Organizational Trust".

Statements of different categories have different sources, and they are concluded after examining and evaluating many possible outcome categories.

Organizational identification questions have been received from Mael & Ashforth's (1992) organizational identification questionnaire. Organizational Trust questions are developed by the author himself, by considering and researching for many sources about trust in non-profit organizations (Coskun, 2008).

Turnover intention statements were taken from the 3-item scale of Cammann et al. (1979), and adding one more statement "I think I would work for this organization for long years", which was developed by the author.

Statements about group cohesiveness were taken from Stashevsky & Koslowsky's (2006) "Team cohesiveness" measures, with an additional statement; "Group members increase productivity of each other".

After the combination of these four elements under three categories, a 16-item questionnaire of organizational outcomes has established. 6-point scale was used in the questionnaire, where the answers and their coding were arranged as:

1= Totally Disagree

2= Disagree

3= Slightly Disagree

4= Slightly Agree

5=Agree

6=Totally Agree

The final display of questions is shown below:

- 1- My organization does its best to achieve maximum utility for society.
- 2- Group atmosphere is good.
- 3- When I talk about my organization, I usually saw "we" rather than "they".
- 4- I often think of leaving the organization.
- 5- When someone praises this organization, I feel like a personal accomplishment.
- 6- The contributions of the group members are balanced.
- 7- I can present my organization to the other people as a trustworthy organization.
- 8- If I may choose again, I will choose to work for the current organization.
- 9- Group members increase productivity of each others.
- 10- When someone criticizes my organization, I feel like a personal insult.
- 11- If the media criticizes my organization, I feel embarrassed.
- 12- It is very possible that I will look for a job next year.
- 13- I am very interested in what others think about my organization.
- 14- My organization protects the rights of its employees/volunteers.
- 15- Group decisions are participative.
- 16- I think I would work for this organization for long years.

Questions 3, 5, 10, 13 constructed the first category of the scale, “Organizational Identification”.

Questions 1, 7, 14 constructed the third category of the scale, “Sportsmanship”.

Questions 4, 8, 12, 16 constructed the second category of the scale, “Turnover Intention”

Questions 2, 6, 9, 15 constructed the third category of the scale, “Group Cohesiveness”.

4.2 Demographic and Descriptive Questions

Instead of the three big dimension of the model, also demographic and descriptive questions were put into the questionnaire, to gather additional information; meanwhile some of those elements were already required for the testing of hypotheses proposed.

Type of NGO was one of the descriptive questions asked in the survey. Researches and limitations of the study have drawn a 7-item model for the question. These items in the question were “Foundation”, “Association”, “Club or community that is associated with a foundation/association”, “Club or community that is not associated with a foundation/association”, “Chamber”, “Syndicate”, and “Other”.

The activity level of NGOs that participants work for was another concern of the research, there were four choices for the question, which are defined as “Local”, “Regional”, “National” and “International”.

Work field or fields of NGOs are another descriptive item of the survey. Seventeen major subjects that the non-profit organizations in Turkey work for (Yurttaguler, 2006) was inserted into the question, which are expressed as “emergency and earthquakes”, “sheltering”, “environment”, “children”, “education”, “ethnic and cultural rights”, “development and research”, “youth”, “immigration and refugees”, “human rights”, “women”, “non-profit media”, “health”, “social exclusion”, “social services and development of society”, “social and economical rights”, “poverty” and the choice “other” for any other type of work field. For ease of coding and for keeping the scope at an acceptable level, it is asked from participants that to choose not more than 5 items. It is also noted that if the NGO that participants work for has more than 5 work fields, participants were asked to select the top 5 items.

Occupation in the organization is one of the identifying questions in the questionnaire. Regarding the scope of the study, two choices have been presented to participants, volunteer and professional. For the ease of understanding, there were small explanations inserted just after the items as “Volunteer (who is not paid for the job/task he/she does for the organization)” and “Professional (who is paid for the job/task he/she does for the organization)”.

Voluntary hour is another important descriptive question, which determines the average voluntary hours that an employee spends weekly. This question also defines the scope of volunteer participants of this survey. Individuals who are doing volunteering irregularly are not included into this research, therefore selection options begins from the interval of 1-2 hours per week. Other items in the question are “3-4 hours”, “5-6 hours”, “7-10 hours”, “10-15 hours”, “15-20 hours”, and “More than 20 hours”. The upper limit of this question has been set as “More than 20 hours”, because it is considered that a 20-hour per week work is more than a half-time paid job, and after that much of frequency, there is not significant differences expected between voluntary hours of workers.

Monthly income is another question asked in the survey, which is only for professionals to answer. The choices in the question were designed as “Less than 1000 TL”, “1000-2000 TL”, “2000-3000 TL”, “3000-5000 TL”, and “More than 5000 TL”. Because of the sector is perpetuating with donations and sponsorships, usually there are not so much budget for professionals’ salaries, so above 5000 TL is already recognized as a top level of professional NGO workers.

NGO Experience is the other question in the participants’ survey, which includes all volunteer and professional NGO experiences of participants. The ranges were given as “Less than 6 months”, “6 months-1year”, “1-2 years”, “2-3 years”, “3-5 years”, “5-10 years”, “10-20 years” and “More than 20 years”.

Age and year of education were given as open answers in the questionnaire, no range options were considered for them to use. The main reason for this was being able to having the average age and year of education of individuals, to make more meaningful comparisons for the relationships.

Last two questions in the survey are gender and marital status, which have typical choices, not have any specialty in definition.

4.3 Translation of the Questionnaire

The items in the questionnaire were translated into Turkish by two people who are experienced and educated about Turkish and English languages, and with the continuous support of the author. Some items had lost their original meanings, and changed to make more meaningful for Turkish language and culture.

After the translation from English to Turkish, a back-translation has been conducted by the support of an English language teacher, who is also experienced in translation. Necessary corrections were done after comparing the original with back-translation, and the first draft of the survey had built.

The first draft of the survey has been reviewed from a bunch of volunteers and professional workers from TOG – Community Volunteers Foundation, and a few more modifications had done. After the second editing process, survey has found its final shape, which can be found in Appendix A.

4.4 Data Collection Process

After the survey created successfully, target audience of the study were informed about the survey and its importance. The questionnaire was uploaded to an online survey site, and its web link has been shared with many non-governmental organizations, including foundations, associations, clubs and collectives about social responsibility issues majorly. Also a few chambers and syndicates were informed about the survey, and were asked for their participation. Because of the survey is free from the descriptive information of the organizations, we do not have an exact data about the detailed profile of participants organization by organization. Only we know about organizations is which type of NGO they are. Rest of the information about organizations was not needed, therefore not sought in the survey.

Three weeks after the distribution of the survey, the big picture of participants has drawn. 218 individuals participated to the survey, but only 151 of them could complete whole survey, so rest of them are discarded because of missing data. Possible reasons of this much incomplete surveys could be technical, like problems in internet connection, or users may not deal well with the online survey form. The length of survey could be a problem as well, as it is consisted of 67 questions in total, and takes around 10 minutes to complete.

Among the 151 valid survey participants, there is a high amount of volunteers than professional workers, which has a score of 118 to 33. This rate looks strange at first sight, but when it is thought that professional workers are not so much in the non-profit sector, this rate could be the real rate of volunteers over professionals in the sector, but research is needed to test the validity of this idea. Of 151 participants 83 of them were female, which is a rate of %55.0, and the rate of male participants was %45.0. Detailed descriptive studies will be discussed in next chapter, with results of the analysis and testing of hypotheses.

5. FINDINGS

This chapter displays the findings of this study.

5.1 Demographic and Descriptive Statistical Results

The study questionnaire has been completed from 151 individuals, where %78.1 of them is volunteer workers in non-profit organizations, and %21.9 are professional-paid workers in non-profit organizations (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Descriptive statistics for occupation of NGO workers.

Occupation	Frequency	Percent
Volunteer	118	78.1
Professional	33	21.9
Total	151	100.0

As discussed in the previous chapter, this rate between volunteers and professionals can be fairly normal, when compared with the actual volunteer/professional rate in Turkish non-profit sector. Among these 151 participants, %55 of them are female, and %45 are male (Table 5.2).

Table 5.2: Descriptive statistics for gender.

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	83	55.0
Male	68	45.0
Total	151	100.0

Among the volunteers, 67 of them are female, which has a rate of %56.8 (Table 5.3). Male volunteers have a rate of %43.2, with 51 volunteers.

Table 5.3: Descriptive statistics for gender distribution of volunteers.

	Gender	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Female	67	56.8
	Male	51	43.2
	Total	118	100.0

Among the professionals, numbers of male and female participants are closer to each other. 16 professionals are female, which has a rate of %48.5 (Table 5.4). Male professionals have a rate of %43.2, with 17 people.

Table 5.4: Descriptive statistics for gender distribution of professionals.

	Gender	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Female	16	48.5
	Male	17	51.5
	Total	33	100.0

Another table shows that the participants of the current survey are mostly single, with a rate of %85 (Table 5.5). Married NGO workers has a rate of %13.2, and 1 participant is divorced.

Table 5.5: Descriptive statistics for marital status.

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	129	85.4
Married	20	13.2
Divorced	1	.7
Other	1	.7
Total	151	100.0

NGO workers are categorized according to their NGO type, which the distribution is shown below (Table 5.6). Almost half of the participants are members of a foundation whether as a volunteer or professional. The following type is associations, which has a rate of %19.9. Clubs and communities have a total rate of %22.5, but they are divided into two groups, based on their associations with another foundation or association, such as university branches of a foundation.

Table 5.6: Descriptive statistics for type of NGO.

Type of NGO	Frequency	Percent
Association	30	19.9
Foundation	74	49.0
Club or community associated with a foundation/association	21	13.9
Club or community not associated with a foundation/association	13	8.6

Table 5.6 : Descriptive statistics for type of NGO.

Chamber	2	1.3
Syndicate	1	.7
Other	10	6.6
Total	151	100.0

Types of NGO has been categorized and showed above, and the work fields of these NGOs are displayed below (Table 5.7). Youth and education is concerned by most of the NGOs participated to this survey, where more than %70 of the organizations are included youth and education as their major work fields. The following fields that NGOs are highly concerned are human rights (%60.3), social services (%40.4), women (%36.4), children, and economic rights (both %34.4).

There are also 14 “other” answer exist, these other answers is the work fields that are not suggested in the question item. Some of the other work fields defined by participants are law, agriculture, art and culture, disabled people, ecology, mobilization, and environmental save.

Table 5.7: Descriptive statistics for work fields of NGOs.

	Percentages	Responses
Emergency and earthquakes	5.3	8
Sheltering	5.3	8
Environment	31.1	47
Children	34.4	52
Education	71.5	108
Ethnic and cultural rights	29.8	45
Development and research	19.2	29
Youth	78.8	119
Immigration and refugees	13.9	21
Human rights	60.3	91
Women	36.4	55
Non-profit media	5.3	8
Health	24.5	37
Social exclusion	18.5	28
Social services and development of society	40.4	61
Social and economical rights	34.4	52
Poverty	10.0	15
Other	9.3	14

This small work fields results may give an idea about the social issues in Turkey, such as it can be concluded that people is not happy with the position of youth in the society and they are not satisfied with the current education system, so they are mostly concentrated on those fields. Human rights is an interesting output of the table, human rights becomes as third among 17 subjects, and this may show that civil society is not happy with the current human rights in the country and making collectives, initiatives, getting together to talk about violations of human rights in Turkey and discussing the alternatives which civil society can do for it.

Table 5.8 shows the activity levels of non-governmental organizations, ranging on local to international. Before interpreting the results, it is useful to define the ambiguity of international organizations. It is realized in further interviews with volunteers and professionals an important portion of volunteers can not distinguish national and international organization definitions. National organizations who organizes international seminars, activities or projects within the country is perceived as international organization, so there can be some level of ambiguity bias for the international organizations' rate. Considering the ambiguity bias on mind, if we look at the activity levels of organizations, we can see that most of the organization is active in national and/or international ground. More than 80 per cent of the organizations are larger activity fields than their regions, and only %12.6 of organizations are locally operating.

Table 5.8: Descriptive statistics for activity level of NGOs.

Activity Level	Frequency	Percent
Local	19	12.6
Regional	5	3.3
National	67	44.4
International	60	39.7
Total	151	100.0

Descriptive statistics for average voluntary hours that volunteers spend weekly can be seen in Table 5.9. The statistical results of this table show that our grouping in this question is in a good harmony with the general distribution. The most selected option in the question is 5-6 hours of volunteering per week, which has a rate of %15.2. There are two important subsets within these results; one is the volunteer group who does volunteering less than 10 hours per week, which has a cumulative rate of %49.6. Second significant group is the volunteers who volunteer more than 15 hours per week, which has a cumulative rate of %21.8. Additional analysis has been made for these two distinct groups to test whether there is a significant

difference between them or not. The results show that the second group, which makes volunteering more than 15 hours per week, has an average age 26.4, where the first group has an average of 24.9.

Table 5.9: Descriptive statistics for voluntary hours/week.

Voluntary Hours	Frequency	Percent
1-2 hours	16	10.6
3-4 hours	20	13.2
5-6 hours	23	15.2
7-10 hours	16	10.6
10-15 hours	9	6.0
15-20 hours	12	7.9
More than 20 hours	21	13.9
Total	117	77.5

Total NGO experience of both volunteers and professionals are shown below in Table 5.10. Based on the results in the table, it can be observed that the peak of tenure in NGO experience is 3-5 years, where most participants have selected this interval. This distribution of results looks like normal, and symmetrical, and gives a good idea about the general NGO experience level of individuals in the survey.

Table 5.10: Descriptive statistics for NGO experience.

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Less than 6 months	12	7.9
	6 months-1 year	11	7.3
	1-2 years	18	11.9
	2-3 years	31	20.5
	3-5 years	36	23.8
	5-10 years	31	20.5
	10-20 years	12	7.9
	Total	151	100.0

Descriptive statistics for age and education are displayed below in Table 5.11. The results show that the average age is 26.24, where the median is 23. This can be a meaning that young people are more willing to volunteer, or they have more time and opportunities during that period of their lives. For the educational statistic, median and mode is almost similar, so it can be easily told that the average education year of NGO workers are 16 years, which basically means the end of 4-year university education.

Table 5.11: Descriptive statistics for age and education.

Statistics		Age	Education
N	Valid	151	151
	Missing	0	0
Mean		26.2450	15.9934
Median		23.0000	16.0000
Std. Deviation		8.43482	2.75559
Minimum		17.00	6.00
Maximum		64.00	24.00

5.2 Frequencies and Reliabilities

5.2.1 Social Intelligence Scale

The social intelligence scale used in this research has been examined question by question and category by category. For general, social intelligence average rate of the participants of the survey are 4.55 over 6, which is relatively good score. For sub-dimensions of social intelligence, Social Information Processing has an average of 4.33, Social Skills has an average of 4.74, and Social Awareness has an average of 4.58. Standard deviations of each category are close to each other, they have a standard deviation value of .69, .60 and .55, respectively. These results are displayed in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12: Descriptive statistics for social intelligence and its sub dimensions.

Statistics		Social Intelligence	Social Information Processing	Social Skills	Social Awareness
N	Valid	151	151	151	151
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		4.5494	4.3340	4.7379	4.5762
Median		4.5714	4.4286	4.7143	4.5714
Std. Deviation		.44663	.69319	.60281	.55461
Minimum		3.14	2.00	3.14	2.14
Maximum		5.81	6.00	6.00	5.86

When we look at the questions in the scale one by one, there are some highlights to be expressed. The statements in the scale which are highest rated by NGO workers are “I fit easily in social situations”, “I am good at entering new situations and meeting people for the first time”, “I am good at getting on good terms with new people”, and “I know how my actions will make others feel”, which have average scores of 4.89, 4.85, 4.58 and 4.48, respectively. The lowest scored statements are

“I have hard time getting along with other people”, “I find people unpredictable”, “I often feel uncertain around new people who I don’t know”, “I often hurt others without realizing it”, and “It seems as though people are often angry or irritated with me when I say what I think”, with the average scores of 1.89, 2.18, 2.23, 2.25 and 2.26, respectively. The whole view of the statistical data based on this scale can be seen in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13: Summary statistics for social intelligence statements.

	N	Min	Max.	Mean	Std.Dev
1. I fit in easily in social situations.	151	1	6	4.89	.891
2. I can predict other peoples' behavior.	151	2	6	4.38	.862
3. I often feel that it is difficult to understand others' choices.	151	1	6	2.85	.985
4. I know how my actions will make others feel.	151	1	6	4.48	.831
5. Other people become angry with me without me being able to explain why.	151	1	6	2.54	1.012
6. People often surprise me with the things they do.	151	1	5	2.59	.858
7. I am good at entering new situations and meeting people for the first time.	151	2	6	4.85	1.022
8. I understand others' wishes.	151	1	6	4.44	.928
9. It seems as though people are often or irritated with me when I say what I think.	151	1	6	2.26	1.024
10. I have a hard time getting along with other people.	151	1	5	1.89	.788
11. I understand other peoples' feelings.	151	2	6	4.35	.925

Table 5.13 (continued): Summary statistics for social intelligence statements.

12. I can often understand what others are trying to accomplish without the need for them to say anything.	151	2	6	4.00	.993
13. I often feel uncertain around new people who I don't know.	151	1	5	2.23	.834
14. People often surprise me with the things they do.	151	1	6	2.30	.808
15. I have often hurt others without realizing it.	151	1	6	2.25	.783
16. It takes a long time for me to get to know others well.	151	1	6	2.75	1.155
17. I can predict how others will react to my behavior.	151	2	6	4.23	.873
18. I am good at getting on good terms with new people.	151	2	6	4.58	.875
19. I find people unpredictable.	151	1	6	2.18	1.001
20. I can often understand what others really mean through their expression, body language, etc.	151	2	6	4.46	.823
21. I frequently have problems finding good conversation topics.	151	1	5	2.28	.912

Social intelligence scale has three sub-dimensions, as social information processing, social skills and social awareness. These groups have their own reliabilities on themselves. For social information processing, there are 7 questions that construct the group, and their result of reliability analysis shows that there is a high reliability and consistency within the group. Cronbach's Alpha value of the factor is .890, which is a very good score of reliability. The model also explains around %60 of the concept, as shown in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Factor analysis results for social information processing

Component Matrix ^a	Component
I can predict other peoples' behavior.	.757
I know how my actions will make others feel.	.673
I understand others' wishes.	.829
I understand other peoples' feelings.	.803
I can often understand what others are trying to accomplish without the need for them to say anything.	.819
I can predict how others will react to my behavior.	.780
I can often understand what others really mean through their expression, body language, etc.	.769
Cronbach's alpha	.890
KMO and Barlett's Test	.893
Total variance explained	%60.405
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 components extracted.	

Social skills category has 7 statements like social information processing, and their result of reliability analysis shows that there is a high reliability and consistency within the group. Cronbach's Alpha value of the factor is .768, which is a good score for reliability. The model also explains around %46 of the concept, as shown in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Factor analysis results for social skills

Component Matrix ^a	Component
I fit in easily in social situations.	.849
I am good at entering new situations and meeting people for the first time.	.847
I am good at getting on good terms with new people.	.665
I have a hard time getting along with other people.	-.537

Table 5.15 (continued): Factor analysis results for social skills

It takes a long time for me to get to know others well.	-.531
I frequently have problems finding good conversation topics.	-.594
Cronbach's alpha	.768
KMO and Barlett's Test	.760
Total variance explained	%46.717
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 components extracted.	

Social awareness category has 7 statements like social information processing and social skills, and their result of reliability analysis shows that there is a high reliability and consistency within the group. Cronbach's Alpha value of the factor is .70, which is a good score for reliability. The model also explains around %36 of the concept, as shown in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16: Factor analysis results for social awareness

Component Matrix ^a	Component
I often feel that it is difficult to understand others' choices.	.621
Other people become angry with me without me being able to explain why.	.607
I am often surprised by others' reactions to what I do.	.553
It seems as though people are often or irritated with me when I say what I think.	.571
People often surprise me with the things they do.	.691
I have often hurt others without realizing it.	.499
Cronbach's alpha	.699
KMO and Barlett's Test	.730
Total variance explained	%36.028

5.2.2 Organizational citizenship behavior scale

The organizational citizenship behavior scale used in this research has been examined question by question and category by category. For general, organizational citizenship average rate of the participants of the survey are 4.70

over 6, which is relatively high score. For sub-dimensions of social intelligence, Helping Behavior has an average of 4.89, Conscientiousness & Civic Virtue has an average of 4.70, and Sportsmanship has an average of 4.41. Standard deviations of each category are .57, .54 and .87, respectively. These results are displayed in Table 5.17.

The visible difference in grouping of dimensions can be seen here, as conscientiousness and civic virtue has been grouped into one, reasons of this integration are explained in reliability statistics.

Table 5.17: Descriptive statistics for organizational citizenship behaviors and its sub dimensions.

Statistics		Organization al Citizenship Behavior	Helping Behavior	Conscientio usness & Civic Virtue	Sportsmans hip
N	Valid	151	151	151	151
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		4.6968	4.8863	4.6968	4.4123
Median		4.7895	4.8333	4.7778	4.5000
Std. Deviation		.46897	.57393	.54673	.86900
Minimum		3.11	2.83	3.11	1.00
Maximum		5.74	6.00	5.78	6.00

Detailed statistics of organizational citizenship scale as question by question is given below in Table 5.18. Based on the information in the table, the highest rated statements are “Believes in giving an honest day’s work for an honest day’s pay”, “Attends meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important” and “Encourages other people when they are down”, as with the scores 5.64, 5.05 and 5.04, respectively. The lowest scored statements are “Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters”, “Only attends work-related meetings if required by job”, and “Tends to make “mountains out of molehills””, as with the scores of 2.13, 2.62 and 2.65, respectively.

Table 5.18: Summary statistics for organizational citizenship behavior statements.

	N	Min	Max.	Mean	Std.Dev
1- Reads and keeps up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.	151	1	6	4.59	.975
2- Encourages other people when they are down.	151	1	6	5.03	.770
3- Believes in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	151	1	6	5.64	.668
4- Tends to make "mountains out of molehills" (R)	151	1	6	2.65	1.271
5- Is a stabilizing influence in the organization when dissension occurs.	151	1	6	4.64	.962
6- Always finds fault with what the organization doing. (R)	151	1	6	2.90	1.153
7- Considers the impact of his/her actions on coworkers.	151	1	6	4.81	.955
8- Only attends work-related meetings if required by job. (R)	151	1	6	2.62	1.370
9- Always focuses on what's wrong, rather than the positive side. (R)	151	1	6	2.67	1.379
10- Obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.	151	1	6	4.62	1.284
11- Keeps abreast of changes in the organization.	151	2	6	4.85	.893
12- Takes steps to try to prevent problems with other workers.	151	1	6	4.97	.883
13- Attends functions that are not required, but help the company image.	151	1	6	4.62	1.050
14- Does not take extra breaks.	151	1	6	3.12	1.356

Table 5.18 (continued): Summary statistics for organizational citizenship behavior statements.

15- Helps orienting new people even though it is not required.	151	1	6	4.98	.962
16- Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters. (R)	151	1	6	2.13	1.181
17- Attendance at work is above the norm.	151	2	6	4.64	1.041
18- Attends meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.	151	2	6	5.05	.874
19- Helps others who have heavy workloads.	151	2	6	4.88	.824

Organizational citizenship behavior scale has three sub-dimensions, as helping behavior, conscientiousness & civic virtue, and sportsmanship. These groups have their own reliabilities on themselves. For helping behavior, there are 6 questions that construct the group, and their result of reliability analysis shows that there is a high reliability and consistency within the group. Cronbach's Alpha value of the factor is .713, which is a very good score of reliability. The model also explains around %42 of the concept, as shown in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19: Factor analysis results for helping behavior.

Component matrix	Component
I encourage other people when they are down.	.570
I help orienting new people even though it is not required.	.742
I consider the impact of my actions on coworkers.	.542
I take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers.	.721
I help orienting new people even though it is not required.	.617
I help others who have heavy workloads.	.650
Cronbach's alpha	.713

Table 5.19: (continued) Factor analysis results for helping behavior.

KMO and Barlett's Test	.745
Total variance explained	%41.553
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 component extracted.	

Conscientiousness and civic virtue category has 9 statements, and their result of reliability analysis shows that there is a high reliability and consistency within the group. Cronbach's Alpha value of the factor is .64, which is a good score for reliability. The model also explains around %28 of the concept, as shown in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20: Factor analysis results for conscientiousness & civic virtue.

Component matrix	Component
I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	.476
I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.	.575
I do not take extra breaks.	-.338
My attendance at work is above the norm.	.661
I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.	.396
I only attend work-related meetings if required by job.	-.357
I keep abreast of changes in the organization.	.580
Cronbach's alpha	.637
KMO and Barlett's Test	.720
Total variance explained	%27.902
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 component extracted.	

Sportsmanship category has 9 statements, and their result of reliability analysis shows that there is a high reliability and consistency within the group. Cronbach's Alpha value of the factor is .64, which is a good score for reliability. The model also explains around %48 of the concept, as shown in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21: Factor analysis results for sportsmanship.

Component Matrix ^a	Component
I tend to make "mountains out of molehills".	.709
I always find fault with what the organization doing.	.641
I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.	.745
I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	.684
Cronbach's alpha	.644
KMO and Barlett's Test	.679
Total variance explained	%48.391
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 component extracted.	

5.2.3 Organizational outcomes scale

The organizational outcomes scale used in this research has been examined question by question and category by category. For general, organizational outcome average rate of the participants of the survey are 4.54 over 6, which is relatively a good score. For sub-dimensions of organizational outcomes, Turnover Intention has an average of 2.50, Organizational Perception has an average of 4.55, and Group Cohesion has an average of 4.54. Standard deviations of each category are .98, .70 and .80, respectively.

It should be noted that turnover intention is a negative organizational outcome, so it was reversed while calculating the average of organizational outcomes. These results are displayed in Table 5.22.

Table 5.22: Descriptive statistics for organizational outcomes and its sub-dimensions.

Statistics		Organization al Outcomes	Turnover Intention	Organizatio nal Perception	Group Cohesion
N	Valid	151	151	151	151
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		4.5360	2.5017	4.5513	4.5430
Median		4.5625	2.2500	4.6250	4.7500

Table 5.22 (continued): Descriptive statistics for organizational outcomes and its sub-dimensions.

Std. Deviation	.65489	.98340	.70523	.79674
Minimum	2.00	1.00	2.13	2.25
Maximum	5.88	6.00	6.00	6.00

Each statement of organizational outcome scale has been put on the Table 5.23 with important statistical data. Based on the information in the table, the highest rated statements are “When I talk about my organization, I usually saw “we” rather than “they””, “I can present my organization to the other people as a trustworthy organization”, “My organization does its best to achieve maximum utility for society.”, as with the scores 5.21, 5.09 and 4.94, respectively. The lowest scored statements are “I often think of leaving the organization.” and “It is very possible that I will look for a job next year.” which has scores of 2.38 and 2.74, respectively.

It is notable that all highest score elements are belong to “Organizational Perception”, and lowest scores are belong to “Turnover Intention” categories. For the lowest scored statements, it can be also realized that both of them are reverse coded questions, so that negative score has reversed while calculating the category and the general average of the scale. Another notable information about organizational outcomes scale is; standard deviations in this scale is higher than social intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, NGO workers are less stable in organizational outcomes than abilities or behaviors.

Table 5.23: Summary statistics for organizational outcomes statements.

	N	Min	Max.	Mean	Std.Dev
1- My organization does its best to achieve maximum utility for society.	151	1	6	4.94	.961
2- Group atmosphere is good.	151	2	6	4.91	.931
3- When I talk about my organization, I usually saw “we” rather than “they”.	151	1	6	5.21	1.048
4- I often think of leaving the organization. (R)	151	1	6	2.38	1.248
5- When someone praises this organization, I feel like a personal accomplishment.	151	1	6	4.50	1.264

Table 5.23 (continued): Summary statistics for organizational outcomes statements.

6-	The contributions of the group members are balanced.	151	1	6	3.88	1.296
7-	I can present my organization to the other people as a trustworthy organization.	151	1	6	5.09	.901
8-	If I may choose again, I will choose to work for the current organization.	151	1	6	4.87	1.050
9-	Group members increase productivity of each others.	151	1	6	4.74	.969
10-	When someone criticizes my organization, I feel like a personal insult.	151	1	6	3.75	1.382
11-	If the media criticizes my organization, I feel embarrassed.	151	1	6	3.64	1.555
12-	It is very possible that I will look for a job next year. (R)	151	1	6	2.74	1.526
13-	I am very interested in what others think about my organization.	151	2	6	4.51	.979
14-	My organization protects the rights of its employees/volunteers.	151	2	6	4.78	.958
15-	Group decisions are participative.	151	1	6	4.64	1.074
16-	I think I would work for this organization for long years.	151	1	6	4.25	1.211

Organizational outcomes scale has three sub-dimensions, as organizational perception, turnover intention and group cohesiveness. These groups have their own reliabilities on themselves. For organizational perception, there are 8 questions that construct the group, and their result of reliability analysis shows that there is a high reliability and consistency within the group. Cronbach's Alpha value of the factor is .761, which is a very good score of reliability. The model also explains around %46 of the concept, as shown in Table 5.24.

Table 5.24: Factor analysis results for organizational perception

Component Matrix ^a	Component
My organization does its best to achieve maximum utility for society.	.780
When I talk about my organization, I usually saw “we” rather than “they”.	.698
When someone praises this organization, I feel like a personal accomplishment.	.440
I can present my organization to the other people as a trustworthy organization.	.839
If I may choose again, I will choose to work for the current organization.	.777
Cronbach’s alpha	.761
KMO and Barlett’s Test	.822
Total variance explained	%45.789
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 component extracted.	

Turnover intention category has 4 statements, and their result of reliability analysis shows that there is a high reliability and consistency within the group. Cronbach’s Alpha value of the factor is .777, which is a good score for reliability. The model also explains around %61 of the concept, as shown in Table 5.25.

Table 5.25: Factor analysis results for turnover intention.

Component Matrix ^a	Component
I often think of leaving the organization.	-.777
If I may choose again, I will choose to work for the current organization.	.720
It is very possible that I will look for a job next year.	-.778
I would work for this organization for long years.	.836
Cronbach’s alpha	.777
KMO and Barlett’s Test	.771
Total variance explained	%60.681
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 component extracted.	

Group cohesiveness category has 4 statements, and their result of reliability analysis shows that there is a high reliability and consistency within the group. Cronbach's Alpha value of the factor is .725, which is a good score for reliability. The model also explains around %56 of the concept, as shown in Table 5.26.

Table 5.26: Factor analysis results for group cohesiveness.

Component Matrix ^a	Component
Group atmosphere is good.	.733
The contributions of the group members are balanced.	.717
Group members increase productivity of each others.	.825
Group decisions are participative.	.710
Cronbach's alpha	.725
KMO and Barlett's Test	.732
Total variance explained	%55.907
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 component extracted.	

5.3 Testing Hypotheses

Hypothesis H1 proposes that there is a positive relationship between social intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior. Under that concept, the sub-hypotheses were like:

H1a: There is a positive relationship between social information processing and helping behavior.

As shown in the Table 5.27, there is a positive correlation between social information processing and helping behavior with a correlation score of .325 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H1a.

H1b&c: There is a positive relationship between social information processing and conscientiousness and civic virtue.

As shown in the Table 5.27, there is a positive correlation between social information processing and conscientiousness and civic virtue with a correlation score of .238 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H1b&c.

H1d: There is a positive relationship between social information processing and sportsmanship.

As shown in the Table 5.27, there is a no correlation between social information processing and sportsmanship behavior in no significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H1d.

H1e: There is a positive relationship between social skills and helping behavior.

As shown in the Table 5.27, there is a positive correlation between social skills and helping behavior with a correlation score of .452 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H1e.

H1f: There is a positive relationship between social skills and sportsmanship.

As shown in the Table 5.27, there is a positive correlation between social skills and sportsmanship with a correlation score of .213 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H1f.

H1g: There is a positive relationship between social awareness and sportsmanship.

As shown in the Table 5.27, there is a positive correlation between social awareness and sportsmanship with a correlation score of .272 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H1g.

Table 5.27: Correlation matrix of social intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior elements.

Correlations^a	Social Intelligence	Social Information Processing	Social Skills	Social Awareness	Org. Citizenship Behavior	Helping Behavior	Conscientiousness & Civic Virtue	Sportsmanship
Social Intelligence	1	.777**	.749**	.630**	.430**	.344**	.378**	.225**
Social Information Processing	.777**	1	.385**	.209**	.269**	.325**	.238**	.032
Social Skills	.749**	.385**	1	.241**	.510**	.452**	.458**	.213**
Social Awareness	.630**	.209**	.241**	1	.147	-.067	.120	.272**
Org. Citizenship Behavior	.430**	.269**	.510**	.147	1	.000	.000	.000
Helping Behavior	.344**	.325**	.452**	-.067	.000	1	.000	.000
Conscientiousness & Civic Virtue	.378**	.238**	.458**	.120	.000	.000	1	.000
Sportsmanship	.225**	.032	.213**	.272**	.000	.000	.000	1

Table 5.27 (continued): Correlation matrix of social intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior elements.

	.000	.010	.003		.072	.416	.142	.001
Organizational	.430 **	.269 **	.510 **	.147	1	.726 ^{**}	.880 ^{**}	.598 ^{**}
Citizenship	.000	.001	.000	.072		.000	.000	.000
Behavior								
Helping Behavior	.344 **	.325 **	.452 **	- .067	.726 ^{**}	1	.541 ^{**}	.105
	.000	.000	.000	.416	.000		.000	.201
Conscientiousnes	.378 **	.238 **	.458 **	.120	.880 ^{**}	.541 ^{**}	1	.304 ^{**}
s & Civic Virtue	.000	.003	.000	.142	.000	.000		.000
Sportsmanship	.225 **	.032	.213 **	.272 **	.598 ^{**}	.105	.304 ^{**}	1
	.006	.697	.009	.001	.000	.201	.000	

Hypothesis H2 proposes that there are positive relationships between organizational citizenship behavior elements and organizational outcome elements. Based on the data information from Table 5.28, hypotheses are evaluated below:

H2a: There is a positive relationship between helping behavior and organizational perception.

As shown in the Table 5.28, there is a positive correlation helping behavior and organizational perception with a correlation score of .342 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H2a.

H2b: There is a negative relationship between helping behavior and turnover intention.

As shown in the Table 5.28, there is a negative correlation helping behavior and turnover intention with a correlation score of -.303 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H2b.

H2c: There is a positive relationship between helping behavior and group cohesiveness.

As shown in the Table 5.28, there is a positive correlation helping behavior and group cohesiveness with a correlation score of .339 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H2c

H2d&g: There is a positive relationship between conscientiousness & civic virtue and organizational perception.

As shown in the Table 5.28, there is a positive correlation between conscientiousness & civic virtue and organizational perception with a correlation

score of .376 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H2d&g.

H2e&h: There is a negative relationship between conscientiousness & civic virtue and turnover intention.

As shown in the Table 5.28, there is a negative correlation between conscientiousness & civic virtue and turnover intention with a correlation score of -.322 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H2e&h.

H2f&i: There is a positive relationship between conscientiousness & civic virtue and group cohesiveness.

As shown in the Table 5.28, there is a positive correlation between conscientiousness & civic virtue and group cohesiveness with a correlation score of .304 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H2f&i.

H2j: There is a positive relationship between sportsmanship and organizational perception.

As shown in the Table 5.28, there is a positive correlation between sportsmanship and organizational perception with a correlation score of .203 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H2j.

H2k: There is a positive relationship between sportsmanship and group cohesiveness.

As shown in the Table 5.28, there is a positive correlation between sportsmanship and group cohesiveness with a correlation score of .172 in significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H2j.

Table 5.28: Correlation matrix of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational outcome elements.

Correlations^a								
	Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Helping Behavior	Sportsmanship	Conscientiousness & Civic Virtue	Organizational Outcomes	Turnover Intention	Organizational Perception	Group Cohesion
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	1	.726*	.598**	.880**	.478**	-.377**	.419**	.366**
Helping Behavior	.726**	1	.105	.541**	.401**	-.303**	.342**	.339**
Sportsmanship	.598**	.105	1	.304**	.240**	-.209**	.203*	.172*
Conscientiousne ss & Civic Virtue	.880**	.541*	.304**	1	.416**	-.322**	.376**	.304**
Organizational Outcomes	.478**	.401*	.240**	.416**	1	-.795**	.880**	.750**
Turnover Intention	-.377**	-.303*	-.209**	-.322**	-.795**	1	-.508**	-.478**
Organizational Perception	.419**	.342*	.203*	.376**	.880**	-.508**	1	.494**
Group Cohesion	.366**	.339*	.172*	.304**	.750**	-.478**	.494**	1
	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	.010	.012	.035
	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	.000	.000	.010	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	.000	.000	.012	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	.000	.000	.035	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Hypothesis H3 proposes that occupation has significant differences on social intelligence, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational outcome elements. Based on the results from Table 5.29, Table 5.30 and Table 5.31, hypotheses are evaluated below:

H3a: There is a significant difference between helping behavior scores with respect to occupation in the organization.

As shown in the Table 5.30, there is no difference between helping behavior with respect to occupation within the significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H3a.

H3b&c: There is a significant difference between conscientiousness and civic virtue scores with respect to occupation in the organization.

As shown in the Table 5.30, there is no difference between conscientiousness and civic virtue with respect to occupation within the significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H3b&c.

H3d: There is a significant difference between organizational perception scores with respect to occupation in the organization.

Table 5.29: t-test of occupation and social intelligence elements.

Independent t-test		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Social Intelligence	Equal variances assumed	2.074	.152	.475	149	.635
	Equal variances not assumed			.564	68.620	.575
Social Information Processing	Equal variances assumed	1.850	.176	.411	149	.682
	Equal variances not assumed			.461	61.724	.646
Social Skills	Equal variances assumed	.009	.924	1.049	149	.296
	Equal variances not assumed			1.140	58.327	.259
Social Awareness	Equal variances assumed	3.472	.064	-.501	149	.617
	Equal variances not assumed			-.628	77.317	.532

Table 5.30: t-test of occupation and organizational citizenship behavior elements.

Independent t-test		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Equal variances assumed	.432	.512	-.731	149	.466
	Equal variances not assumed			-.726	50.851	.471
Helping Behavior	Equal variances assumed	.196	.659	.370	149	.712
	Equal variances not assumed			.365	50.275	.717
Conscientiousness & Civic Virtue	Equal variances assumed	.158	.691	-.401	149	.689
	Equal variances not assumed			-.391	49.551	.698
Sportsmanship	Equal variances assumed	3.487	.064	-1.686	149	.094
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.063	73.388	.043

As shown in the Table 5.31, there is a difference between organizational perception with respect to occupation within the significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research supports H3d.

H3e: There is a significant difference between turnover intention scores with respect to occupation in the organization.

As shown in the Table 5.31, there is no difference between turnover intention with respect to occupation within the significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H3e.

Table 5.31: t-test of occupation and organizational outcome elements.

Independent t-test		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Organizational Outcomes	Equal variances assumed	1.191	.277	.751	149	.454
	Equal variances not assumed			.669	44.563	.507
Turnover Intention	Equal variances assumed	10.199	.002	-3.464	149	.001
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.785	40.404	.008
Organizational Perception	Equal variances assumed	.048	.828	.402	149	.688
	Equal variances not assumed			.386	48.535	.702
Group Cohesion	Equal variances assumed	.951	.331	-2.405	149	.017
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.169	45.127	.035

Hypothesis H4 proposes that voluntary hours has significant differences on social intelligence, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational outcome elements. Based on the results from Table 5.32, Table 5.33 and Table 5.34, hypotheses are evaluated below:

H4a: There is a significant difference between social information processing with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

As shown in the Table 5.32, there is significant difference between social information processing means with respect to voluntary hours of volunteers, and this evidence shows that the research supports H4a.

H4b: There is a significant difference between social skills with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

As shown in the Table 5.32, there is significant difference between social skills means with respect to voluntary hours of volunteers, and this evidence shows that the research supports H4b.

H4c: There is a significant difference between social awareness with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

As shown in the Table 5.32, there is no significant difference between social awareness means with respect to voluntary hours of volunteers, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H4c.

H4d: There is a significant difference between helping behavior with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

Table 5.32: Variance analysis for voluntary hours and social intelligence elements.

ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Social Intelligence	Between Groups	4.209	6	.701	3.586	.003
	Within Groups	21.321	109	.196		
	Total	25.529	115			
Social Information Processing	Between Groups	6.427	6	1.071	2.279	.041
	Within Groups	51.226	109	.470		
	Total	57.653	115			
Social Skills	Between Groups	9.579	6	1.597	5.019	.000
	Within Groups	34.672	109	.318		
	Total	44.251	115			
Social Awareness	Between Groups	1.064	6	.177	.485	.819
	Within Groups	39.881	109	.366		
	Total	40.945	115			

As shown in the Table 5.33, there is significant difference between helping behavior means with respect to voluntary hours of volunteers, and this evidence shows that the research supports H4d.

H4e&f: There is a significant difference between conscientiousness & civic virtue with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

As shown in the Table 5.33, there is significant difference between conscientiousness & civic virtue means with respect to voluntary hours of volunteers, and this evidence shows that the research supports H4e&f.

H4g: There is a significant difference between organizational perceptions with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

Table 5.33: Variance analysis for voluntary hours and organizational citizenship behavior elements.

ANOVA		Sum of	df	Mean	F	Sig.
		Squares		Square		
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Between Groups	3.339	6	.556	2.757	.016
	Within Groups	22.000	109	.202		
	Total	25.338	115			
Helping Behavior	Between Groups	4.113	6	.685	2.271	.042
	Within Groups	32.906	109	.302		
	Total	37.019	115			
Conscientiousness & Civic Virtue	Between Groups	6.255	6	1.043	4.072	.001
	Within Groups	27.908	109	.256		
	Total	34.163	115			
Sportsmanship	Between Groups	3.515	6	.586	.702	.648
	Within Groups	90.920	109	.834		
	Total	94.435	115			

As shown in the Table 5.34, there is no significant difference between organizational perception means with respect to voluntary hours of volunteers, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H4g.

H4h: There is a significant difference between turnover intentions with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

As shown in the Table 5.34, there is no significant difference between turnover intention means with respect to voluntary hours of volunteers, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H4h.

H4i: There is a significant difference between group cohesiveness with respect to weekly voluntary hours of volunteers.

As shown in the Table 5.34, there is no significant difference between group cohesiveness means with respect to voluntary hours of volunteers, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H4i.

Table 5.34: Variance analysis for voluntary hours and organizational outcome elements.

ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Organizational Outcomes	Between Groups	3.176	6	.529	1.389	.226
	Within Groups	41.538	109	.381		
	Total	44.714	115			
Turnover Intention	Between Groups	8.059	6	1.343	1.973	.076
	Within Groups	74.188	109	.681		
	Total	82.247	115			
Organizational Perception	Between Groups	2.658	6	.443	.897	.500
	Within Groups	53.825	109	.494		
	Total	56.483	115			
Group Cohesion	Between Groups	3.964	6	.661	1.219	.302
	Within Groups	59.055	109	.542		
	Total	63.019	115			

Hypothesis H5 proposes that NGO experience has significant differences on social intelligence, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational outcome elements. Based on the results from Table 5.35, Table 5.36 and Table 5.37, hypotheses are evaluated below:

H5a: There is a significant difference between social information processing with respect to their NGO experience.

As shown in the Table 5.35, there is no significant difference between social information processing means with respect to NGO experience, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H5a.

H5b: There is a significant difference between social awareness with respect to their NGO experience.

As shown in the Table 5.35, there is no significant difference between social awareness means with respect to NGO experience, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H5b.

Table 5.35: Variance analysis for NGO experience and social intelligence elements.

ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Social Intelligence	Between Groups	1.830	6	.305	1.564	.162
	Within Groups	28.092	144	.195		
	Total	29.922	150			
Social Information Processing	Between Groups	2.834	6	.472	.982	.439
	Within Groups	69.243	144	.481		
	Total	72.077	150			
Social Skills	Between Groups	3.018	6	.503	1.407	.216
	Within Groups	51.489	144	.358		
	Total	54.507	150			
Social Awareness	Between Groups	2.259	6	.376	1.235	.292
	Within Groups	43.881	144	.305		
	Total	46.139	150			

H5c: There is a significant difference between helping behavior with respect to their NGO experience.

As shown in the Table 5.36, there is a significant difference between helping behavior means with respect to NGO experience, and this evidence shows that the research supports H5c.

Table 5.36: Variance analysis for NGO experience and organizational citizenship behavior.

ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Between Groups	2.451	6	.409	1.926	.080
	Within Groups	30.539	144	.212		
	Total	32.990	150			
Helping Behavior	Between Groups	5.203	6	.867	2.825	.013
	Within Groups	44.207	144	.307		
	Total	49.409	150			
Conscientiousness & Civic Virtue	Between Groups	1.957	6	.326	1.095	.368
	Within Groups	42.881	144	.298		
	Total	44.838	150			
Sportsmanship	Between Groups	7.372	6	1.229	1.671	.132
	Within Groups	105.903	144	.735		
	Total	113.275	150			

H5d: There is a significant difference between group cohesiveness with respect to their NGO experience.

As shown in the Table 5.37, there is no significant difference between group cohesiveness means with respect to NGO experience, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H5d.

Table 5.37: Variance analysis for NGO experience and organizational outcome elements.

ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Organizational Outcomes	Between Groups	2.036	6	.339	.785	.583
	Within Groups	62.295	144	.433		
	Total	64.332	150			
Turnover Intention	Between Groups	4.701	6	.783	.804	.569
	Within Groups	140.361	144	.975		

Table 5.37 (continued): Variance analysis for NGO experience and organizational outcome elements.

	Total	145.062	150			
Organizational Perception	Between Groups	.883	6	.147	.287	.942
	Within Groups	73.719	144	.512		
	Total	74.602	150			
Group Cohesion	Between Groups	4.756	6	.793	1.262	.279
	Within Groups	90.465	144	.628		
	Total	95.220	150			

Hypothesis H6 proposes that gender has significant differences on social intelligence, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational outcome elements. Based on the data information from Table 5.38, Table 5.39 and Table 5.40, hypotheses are evaluated below:

H6a: There is a significant difference between social information processing with respect to gender.

As shown in the Table 5.38, there is no difference between social information processing with respect to gender within the significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H6a.

H6b: There is a significant difference between social skills with respect to gender.

As shown in the Table 5.38, there is no difference between social skills with respect to gender within the significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H6b.

Table 5.38: t-test for gender and social intelligence elements.

Independent t-test		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Social Intelligence	Equal variances assumed	.134	.715	-1.373	149	.172

Table 5.38 (continued): t-test for gender and social intelligence elements.

	Equal variances not assumed			-1.370	141.60	.173
					5	
Social Information Processing	Equal variances assumed	.965	.328	-1.663	149	.099
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.675	146.75	.096
					7	
Social Skills	Equal variances assumed	.891	.347	-1.311	149	.192
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.302	138.97	.195
					5	
Social Awareness	Equal variances assumed	2.386	.125	.179	149	.859
	Equal variances not assumed			.173	119.35	.863
					2	

H6c: There is a significant difference between helping behavior with respect to gender.

As shown in the Table 5.39, there is no difference between helping behavior with respect to gender within the significant bounds, and this evidence shows that the research rejects H6c.

Table 5.39: t-test for gender and organizational citizenship behavior elements.

Independent t-test		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Equal variances assumed	.181	.671	.297	149	.767
	Equal variances not assumed			.296	142.16	.768
Helping Behavior	Equal variances assumed	.199	.656	-1.064	149	.289
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.052	136.27	.294
Conscientiousness&Civic Virtue	Equal variances assumed	.024	.876	.446	149	.656
	Equal variances not assumed			.445	141.40	.657
Sportsmanship	Equal variances assumed	.019	.890	1.184	149	.238
	Equal variances not assumed			1.180	141.07	.240

Table 5.40: t-test for gender and organizational outcome elements.

Independent t-test		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Organizational Outcomes	Equal variances assumed	.453	.502	.532	149	.595
	Equal variances not assumed			.526	135.589	.600
Turnover Intention	Equal variances assumed	.189	.665	-.521	149	.603
	Equal variances not assumed			-.517	138.748	.606
Organizational Perception	Equal variances assumed	1.295	.257	.027	149	.979
	Equal variances not assumed			.026	131.057	.979
Group Cohesion	Equal variances assumed	.905	.343	1.063	149	.289
	Equal variances not assumed			1.054	137.838	.294

5.4 Regression Analyses

In addition to testing of hypotheses, to find the way of these correlations between social intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational outcomes, regression analyses have been conducted.

Each dimension of second and third group (OCB and organizational outcomes, respectively) have been taken into regression analysis with the three elements of first and second group (SI and OCB) and results are shown below.

For helping behavior, it is found that all three dimension of social intelligence have effect on helping behavior, where social information processing and social skills have a positive, and social awareness has a negative way of effect. The results of regression analysis for social intelligence over helping behavior are shown below in Table 5.41.

Table 5.41: Regression analysis of social intelligence as predictors of helping behavior.

Coefficients ^a		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.239	.429		7.552	.000
	Social Information Processing	.171	.064	.206	2.682	.008
	Social Skills	.403	.074	.423	5.465	.000
	Social Awareness	-.219	.076	-.212	-2.895	.004

a. Dependent Variable: Helping Behavior

Table 5.41 shows that social intelligence can account for %27.2 of the variation of helping behavior, and we can define the model by inserting β values into the formula, as:

$$\text{Helping Behavior}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (\text{Social Information Processing}) + \beta_2 (\text{Social Skills}) + \beta_3 (\text{Social Awareness}) \quad (5.1a)$$

$$\text{Helping Behavior}_i = 3.239 + 0.206 (\text{Social Information Processing}_i) + 0.423 (\text{Social Skills}_i) - 0.212 (\text{Social Awareness}_i) \quad (5.1b)$$

For conscientiousness and civic virtue, it is found only social skills dimension of social intelligence have effect on conscientiousness and civic virtue. The results of regression analysis for social intelligence over conscientiousness and civic virtue are shown below in Table 5.42.

Table 5.42: Regression analysis of social intelligence as predictors of conscientiousness and civic virtue.

Coefficients ^a		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.730	.316		8.654	.000
	Social Skills	.415	.066	.458	6.282	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Conscientiousness&Civic Virtue

Table 5.42 shows that social intelligence can account for %20.9 of the variation of conscientiousness and civic virtue, and we can define the model by inserting β values into the formula, as:

$$\text{Conscientiousness \& Civic Virtue}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (\text{Social Skills}_i) \quad (5.2a)$$

$$\text{Conscientiousness \& Civic Virtue}_i = 2.730 + 0.458 (\text{Social Skills}_i) \quad (5.2b)$$

For sportsmanship, it is found that only social awareness dimension of social intelligence has effect on sportsmanship. The results of regression analysis for social intelligence over sportsmanship are shown below in Table 5.43.

Table 5.43: Regression analysis of social intelligence as predictors of sportsmanship.

Coefficients ^a		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.461	.569		4.323	.000
	Social Awareness	.426	.124	.272	3.451	.001

a. Dependent Variable: Sportsmanship

Table 5.43 shows that social intelligence can only account for %7.4 of the variation of sportsmanship, and we can define the model by inserting β values into the formula, as:

$$\text{Sportsmanship}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (\text{Social Awareness}_i) \quad (5.3a)$$

$$\text{Sportsmanship}_i = 2.461 + 0.272 (\text{Social Awareness}_i) \quad (5.3b)$$

For organizational perception, conscientiousness & civic virtue and helping behavior have effect on organizational perception on organizational perception. The results of regression analysis for organizational citizenship behavior over organizational perception are shown below in Table 5.44.

Table 5.44: Regression analysis of OCB as predictors of organizational perception.

Coefficients ^a		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.740	.518		3.362	.001
	Conscientiousness & Civic Virtue	.347	.115	.269	3.020	.003
	Helping Behavior	.241	.110	.196	2.203	.029

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Perception

Table 5.44 shows that OCB can only account for %16.8 of the variation of organizational perception, and we can define the model by inserting β values into the formula, as:

$$\text{Organizational Perception}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (\text{Conscientiousness \& Civic Virtue}) + \beta_2 (\text{Helping Behavior}) \quad (5.4a)$$

$$\text{Organizational Perception}_i = 1.740 + 0.269 (\text{Conscientiousness \& Civic Virtue}_i) + 0.196 (\text{Helping Behavior}_i) \quad (5.4b)$$

For group cohesiveness, only helping behavior has effect on organizational perception on group cohesiveness. The results of regression analysis for organizational citizenship behavior over group cohesiveness are shown below in Table 5.45.

Table 5.45: Regression analysis of OCB as predictors of group cohesiveness.

Coefficients ^a		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.241	.526		4.258	.000
	Helping Behavior	.471	.107	.339	4.404	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Group Cohesion

Table 5.45 shows that OCB can only account for %11.5 of the variation of group cohesiveness, and we can define the model by inserting β values into the formula, as:

$$\text{Group Cohesiveness}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (\text{Helping Behavior}) \quad (5.5a)$$

$$\text{Group Cohesiveness}_i = 2.241 + 0.339 (\text{Helping Behavior}) \quad (5.5b)$$

For turnover intentions, conscientiousness & civic virtue and helping behavior have effect on organizational perception on turnover intentions on negative way. The results of regression analysis for organizational citizenship behavior over turnover intention are shown below in Table 5.46.

Table 5.46: Regression analysis of OCB as predictors of turnover intention.

	Coefficients ^a	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.918	.739		8.003	.000
	Conscientiousness & Civic Virtue	-.403	.164	-.224	-2.452	.015
	Helping Behavior	-.312	.156	-.182	-1.994	.048

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention

Table 5.46 shows that OCB can only account for %12.7 of the variation of turnover intentions, and we can define the model by inserting β values into the formula, as:

$$\text{Turnover Intention}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (\text{Conscientiousness \& Civic Virtue}) + \beta_2 (\text{Helping Behavior}) \quad (5.6a)$$

$$\text{Turnover Intention}_i = 5.918 - 0.224 (\text{Conscientiousness \& Civic Virtue}) - 0.182 (\text{Helping Behavior}) \quad (5.6b)$$

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusion and Further Research

The results of this study have shown that organizational citizenship behavior has significantly related with social intelligence of individuals, from multiple dimensions. Social intelligence can be perceived as an antecedent of organizational citizenship behavior, and we can conclude that employees who are socially intelligent can perform higher levels of citizenship behaviors. Another result from the study has shown that social information processing and social skills are more effects on organizational citizenship behaviors than social awareness. This can be explained by being aware of the situations are not enough to feel motivated for voluntary behaviors in workplace, those situations need to be interpreted well and individuals should perform in accordance with their positive perception.

Also OCB should be differentiated as active and passive behaviors to understand the behavioral concept better. Helping behaviors and sportsmanship can be perceived as active behaviors that directly affect other people in the organization, conscientiousness and civic virtue are passive behaviors, which individuals develop and perform them intrinsically and they are hard to be recognized from other people. This grouping method can bring ease of interpretation of analyses for further research.

Another fact that we found from the research is NGO experience and voluntary hours of volunteers are related with social intelligence. This field needs further research also, because one possible reason of that could be the positive contribution of non-profit working for social intelligence. Social sensitivity is the core of philanthropy and civil society, and while people engage in those situations for long times, they may become sophisticated in terms of understanding and sensing people, behaving more wisely, similar to Thorndike's (1924) definition of social intelligence. There is also very nice and slight nuance between NGO experience and job tenure of professional NGO workers. Professional NGO workers have stronger job commitment, and their group cohesiveness is better than volunteers, because they work regularly and under a more organized task definition. Their work

load is reasonably higher than volunteers, so they may not have enough time for self-development in organization.

In modern times, volunteering is not perceived as philanthropy, charity activities and organizations or not just fundraising. Volunteers have become as an actor of social life, and they now have an active role for many fields which are out of government control. So volunteering is not only done by money, or the good feelings; volunteering is not helping poor and disabled people anymore. People needs special abilities for different types of voluntary works in different fields, and they also develop themselves and learn these abilities while involving in organizations. Another research topic between volunteers and professional in non-profit sector could be their levels and sources of self-development, to determine how much they actually earn from the job that they do, instead of money.

Keeping volunteers in the organization is one of the most challenging managerial issues of non-profit organizations. Because of the only thing that hold volunteers in the organization is their motivation, managers should keep the motivations of their volunteers high, and they should search ways for this. Volunteer management is a key success issue for non-profit sector, maybe also profit sector, because volunteers basically works for nothing, and anything that they produce/service is a plus benefit for the organization.

This study draws a big picture of organizational citizenship behavior with their social antecedents, and perceptional outcomes in a non-profit field, with the comparison of professional and volunteer employees' outputs, also many descriptive information about volunteering, the non-profit sector and type of non-profit organizations. For the forthcoming studies, these sub-dimensions can be examined in detail considering the big definition on mind, and detailed results can be obtained. Also for the forthcoming studies, more homogenous distribution of participants for the survey can be considered, although the actual rate of volunteers over professionals are not equal in the non-profit sector, that way of analysis may give a more fair way of comparison.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Questionnaire in Turkish

APPENDIX A: Questionnaire in Turkish

Selim Temiz Yüksek Lisans Tez Araştırması

Bu araştırma, İstanbul Teknik Üniversitesi İşletme Mühendisliği Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Selim TEMİZ'in tez çalışması kapsamında Öğr. Gör. Dr. İdil EVCİMEN'in danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Çalışma, Sivil Toplum Kuruluşları'ndaki örgütsel davranışları anlamaya yöneliktir.

Anket 4 sayfadan oluşmakta olup ortalama 10 dk. sürmektedir.

Araştırma kapsamında tüm bulgular gizlilik esasına göre değerlendirilecek, kişisel bilgiler kesinlikle paylaşılmayacaktır.

Önemli Not: Araştırmanın hedef kitlesi, bir Sivil Toplum Kuruluşu'nda (dernek, vakıf, kulüp, oda, sendika vb.) ücretli çalışanlar ve gönüllülerden oluşmaktadır. Eğer bir Sivil Toplum Kuruluşu'nda ücretli çalışan veya gönüllü değilseniz anketi lütfen **doldurmayınız**.

Araştırma hakkında daha fazla bilgi sahibi olmak ve sormak istediğiniz her türlü soru için;

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Aşağıda bazı sosyal durumlara yönelik tutum ve davranışlara yer verilmiştir. Bu tutum ve davranışları ne derece gerçekleştirdiğinizi " hiçbir zaman "dan " her zaman "a uzanan ölçekte değerlendiriniz.						
	1 Hiçbir zaman	2 Nadiren	3 Bazen	4 Genellikle	5 Çoğu zaman	6 Her zaman
1- Sosyal ortamlara kolayca uyum sağlarım.						
2- İnsanların davranışlarını tahmin edebilirim.						
3- İnsanların tercihlerini anlamanın zor olduğunu hissediyorum.						
4- Hareketlerimin insanları nasıl hissettireceğini biliyorum.						
5- İnsanların bana öfkelenme/darılma/küsme sebeplerini						

anlayamıyorum.						
6- İnsanların yaptıkları şeyler beni şaşırtır.						
7- Yeni ortamlara girme ve yeni insanlarla tanışmada iyiyimdir.						
8- İnsanların ne istediklerini anlayabilirim.						
9- Ne düşündüğümü söylediğimde insanların bana öfkelendiğini veya rahatsız olduğunu düşünürüm.						
10- İnsanlarla iyi geçinmekte zorlanırım.						
11- İnsanların hissettiklerini/hislerini anlayabiliyorum.						
12- İnsanların ne yapmaya çalıştıklarını onların bir şey söylemesine gerek kalmadan anlayabilirim.						
13- Tanımadığım insanların yanında kendimi tedirgin hissediyorum.						
14- İnsanların yaptıklarına verdikleri tepkiler beni şaşırtır.						
15- İnsanları farkında olmadan kırarım/incitirim.						
16- İnsanları yakından tanımak benim için uzun zaman alır.						
17- İnsanların davranışlarına nasıl tepki vereceklerini tahmin edebilirim.						
18- Yeni tanıştığım insanlarla iyi geçinirim.						
19- İnsanları tahmin edilemez bulurum.						

20- İnsanların yüz ifadeleri ve beden dilleri ile ne anlatmak istediklerini anlarım.						
21- İyi sohbet konuları bulmakta zorlanırım.						

1) Aşağıda bir kurumda çalışanların iş tanımlarında yer almayan ancak isteğe bağlı gerçekleştirdikleri bazı davranışlar tanımlanmıştır. Bu tutum ve davranışları ne derece gerçekleştirdiğinizi " kesinlikle katılmıyorum "dan " kesinlikle katılıyorum "a uzanan ölçek üzerinde değerlendiriniz.						
	1 Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Kısmen Katılmıyorum	4 Kısmen Katılıyorum	5 Katılıyorum	6 Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
22- Kurumsal duyuru, bildiri, rapor ve benzeri gelişmeleri okur ve takip ederim.						
23- Motivasyonları düştüğünde insanları cesaretlendiririm.						
24- İşimi hakkıyla yapmanın önemine inanırım.						
25- Pireyi deve yapmaya eğilimliyimdir.						
26- Kurum içinde uyuşmazlıklar ortaya çıktığında dengeleyici etki yaratırım.						
27- Kurumun yaptıklarında her zaman hata bulurum.						
28- Eylemlerimin çalışma arkadaşlarım üzerindeki etkilerini göz önünde bulundururum.						
29- Sadece işin gerektirdiği toplantı ve etkinliklere katılırım.						
30- Genellikle olumludan ziyade olumsuz durumlara odaklanırım.						

31- Kimse tarafından görülmediğim zamanlarda bile kurumumun kural ve düzenlerine uyarım.						
32- Kurumumdaki değişikliklere ayak uydururum.						
33- Diğer çalışanlarla ortaya çıkabilecek problemleri önlemeye yönelik çaba harcarım.						
34- Zorunlu olmayan fakat kurumsal imajı destekleyen aktivitelere katılırım.						
35- Çalışırken çok sık ara veririm.						
36- Görevim olmadığı halde yeni insanların alışmasına yardım ederim.						
37- Önemsiz işlerden şikayet etmekle çok zaman harcarım.						
38- İşe katılımım olması gerekenin üstündedir.						
39- Zorunlu olmayan fakat önemli olduğu düşünülen toplantılara katılırım.						
40- İş yükü ağır olanlara yardım ederim.						

2) Aşağıda çalıştığınız kuruma yönelik bazı kurumsal ve bireysel ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Bu ifadeler ile ilgili düşüncelerinizi "**kesinlikle katılmıyorum**"dan "**kesinlikle katılıyorum**"a uzanan ölçekte değerlendiriniz.

	1 Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Kısmen Katılmıyorum	4 Kısmen Katılıyorum	5 Katılıyorum	6 Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
41- Kurumum topluma fayda sağlamak adına elinden gelenin en iyisini yapar.						

42- Çalışma arkadaşlarımla grup atmosferimiz gayet iyi.						
43- Kurumum hakkında konuşurken genellikle “onlar” yerine “biz” ifadesini kullanırım.						
44- Bu kurumdan ayrılmayı sık sık düşünüyorum.						
45- Biri kurumumu övdüğünde kendim övülüyormuşum gibi hissederim.						
46- Çalışma grubumuzun üyelerinin katkıları dengelidir.						
47- Kurumumu diğer insanlara güvenilir bir kurum olarak anlatırım.						
48- Yeniden seçecek olsam yine bu kurumda çalışmayı tercih ederim.						
49- Grubumuzun üyeleri birbirlerinin üretkenliklerini arttıırırlar.						
50- Biri kurumumu eleştirdiğinde bunu kişisel bir eleştiri olarak algılarıım.						
51- Eğer basın kurumumu olumsuz yönde eleştirirse bundan utanç duyarım.						
52- Büyük olasılıkla önümüzdeki yıl içinde kendime başka bir kurumda iş/görev arayacağım.						
53- İnsanların kurumum hakkında ne düşündükleri ile çok ilgilenirim.						
54- Kurumum çalışanının/gönüllüsünün						

haklarını korur.						
55- Grup kararlarına grubun her üyesi katkıda bulunur.						
56- Bu kurumda uzun yıllar çalışabileceğimi düşünüyorum.						

57- Bağlı olduğunuz Sivil Toplum Kuruluşunun türü	
Dernek	
Vakıf	
Vakıf veya derneğe bağlı kulüp/topluluk	
Vakıf veya derneğe bağlı olmayan kulüp/topluluk	
Oda	
Sendika	
Diğer (Lütfen Belirtiniz):	

58- Bağlı olduğunuz Sivil Toplum Kuruluşu'nun etkinlik düzeyi	
Yerel	
Bölgesel	
Ulusal	
Uluslararası	

59- Bağlı olduğunuz Sivil Toplum Kuruluşunun çalışma alanı/alanları (birden fazla işaretleyebilirsiniz - en fazla 5 tane - eğer daha fazla ise en ağırlıklı çalıştığınız alanları işaretleyiniz)
--

Acil durum ve deprem	
Barınma	
Çevre	
Çocuk	
Eğitim	
Etnik ve kültürel haklar	
Geliştirme ve araştırma	
Gençlik	
Göç ve mülteciler	
İnsan hakları	
Kadın	
Kar amacı gütmeyen medya	
Sağlık	
Sosyal dışlanma	
Sosyal hizmetler ve toplumun gelişmesi	
Sosyal ve ekonomik haklar	
Yoksulluk	
Diğer (Lütfen Belirtiniz):	

60- Kurumdaki Konumunuz	
Gönüllü (Yapılan iş/hizmet karşılığı maaş/ücret almayan)	

Profesyonel (Yapılan iş/hizmet karşılığı maaş/ücret alan)	
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61- Haftalık ortalama gönüllülük saatiniz (sadece gönüllü çalışanlar için)	
1-2 saat	
3-4 saat	
5-6 saat	
7-10 saat	
10-15 saat	
15-20 saat	
20 saatten fazla	

62- Aylık Gelir Düzeyiniz (sadece profesyonel çalışanlar için)	
1000 TL'den az	
1000 - 2000 TL arası	
2000 - 3000 TL arası	
3000 - 5000 TL arası	
5000 TL üstü	

63- Sivil Toplum alanındaki toplam deneyiminiz (gönüllü ve/veya profesyonel olarak)	
6 aydan az	
6 ay-1 yıl arası	
1-2 yıl arası	

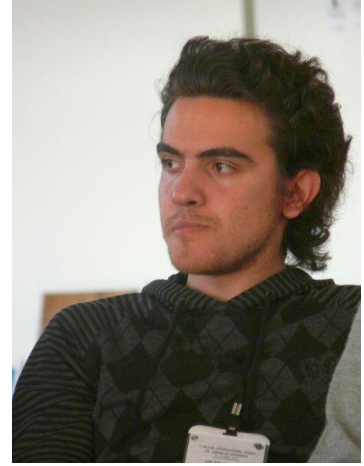
2-3 yıl arası	
3-5 yıl arası	
5-10 yıl arası	
10-20 yıl arası	
20 yıldan fazla	

3) 64- Yaşınız

65- Cinsiyet	
Kadın	
Erkek	

66- Medeni Durum	
Bekar	
Evli	
Boşanmış	
Diğer	
67- Toplam eğitim gördüğünüz süre (ilköğretimden itibaren toplam yıl sayısı olarak belirtiniz)	

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