Organizational Justice: An Analysis of Approaches, Dimensions and Outcomes

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Abstract

Organizational justice is identified as one of the core values of an organization. Over the years, research has confirmed that justice in an organization is a subjective term; what is important is employees' perception of what is just or unjust. Employees have high expectations from organizations in terms of fairness in both, the distribution of resources and the procedure adopted. Employees even adjust to some aberrations if the organization exhibits trust, is honest and extends respect and dignity to employees. The paper discusses at length the reasons that make justice critical to employees. The various dimensions of organizational justice: distributive, procedural and interactional are discussed, and how they are related to each other. In the latter part of the paper, the consequences of organizational justice are examined and how they influence individuals and organizations. A theoretical conceptual model is proposed and some hypotheses are also laid out. The authors assert the inevitability of fairness for long term sustainability of organizations. Managerial implications, limitations and future course for research are also suggested.

Key Words: Organizational justice, dimensions of justice, approaches to fairness, justice outcomes

Introduction

Homans (1961) first proposed the concept of organizational justice as distributive justice. This was followed by social scientists focussing their gaze on this very core aspect of human behaviour. Justice became relevant in organizational behaviour research after scholars like Blau (1964) and Adams (1965) produced their influential works.

"Justice keeps people together whereas injustice can pull them apart" (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998, p. xii). Studies on justice perceptions are a critical area of research in organizational behaviour because of its association with pertinent individual and organizational outcomes (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001).

Justice has been placed at the pinnacle of organizational values by Rawls (1971) when he referred to it as the "first virtue of social organizations". Similarly Barnard (1938), a legendary name in early management literature, asserted that fairness was an essential principle of cooperative action in organizations.

Business organizations are usually thought of as economic institutions. Implicitly and explicitly, this "logical" perspective has forged the relationship between employers and their workforce (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995).

Cropanzano et al., (2007) argue that though businesses definitely are economic institutions, they are also more than that. Understanding of business organisations as merely commercial entities without consideration of other possibilities may tend to develop problematic side effects. They explain that along with economic processes, we should have a

sense of obligation that is not restrictive to constricted quid pro quo exchanges. It incorporates the moral duty that both have towards each other. While employees are looking for various benefits, they are also seeking something beyond. The authors assert that organizational justice, described by them as employees' perception of the moral decorum of how they are managed, is the "glue" that motivates people to work together effectively. Justice exemplifies the basis of individuals' relationship to employers. Alternatively, injustice corrodes the bonding within the community; it is painful to individuals and damaging to organizations.

Cropanzano et al., (2007) argue that managerial scientists studying organizations are less interested in knowing what is just but care about employees' perception of what is just. They are also interested in why people view specific actions as just, and the after effect that follows from these assessments. It is very important to understand that in this context, justice is a subjective and descriptive concept, which tries to capture individuals' belief about right and wrong, and is not an objective reality. So, organizational justice is an individual's interpretation of actions, processes and structure within an organization. It is therefore essential to know the employees' perspective before structuring justice mechanisms in the organization.

Literature Review

As early as 1949, Fayol, in his classic book 'General and Industrial Management' (Fayol, 1949) mentions justice when talking about "authority and responsibility". He pointed out that "the need for sanction has its origin in a sense of justice" (Fayol, 1949, page 21). Equity forms one of the 14 principles of management outlined by Fayol (1949). Reference to involving individuals to solve conflicts in organizations is a direct assertion of

interactional fairness in Follett's (1949) work.

Organizational justice refers to "the just and ethical treatment of individuals within an organization" (Cropanzano, 1993). According to Greenberg (1990b), organizational justice is "the term commonly used by organizational psychologists to refer to the just and fair manner in which organizations treat their employees." Byrne and Cropanzano (2001) see it as "the psychology of justice applied to organizational settings." According to Fortin (2008), organizational justice helps in understanding how employees associated themselves with the complexity and multiplicity of employment relationships. Organizational sciences view justice as socially constructed, meaning an act by the organization is taken as just only if the individual perceives so on the basis of empirical research (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Proclaiming a transaction as "just" means that it is in line with basic standards of appropriate or ethical conduct (Cropanzano et al., 2002).

Early studies on organizational justice were directed towards two broad issues: employees' perception of what they receive (outcomes) and the process which led to these outcomes (procedures) (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Distributive justice, as defined by Greenberg (1990), is a perception of fairness regarding resource allocation, based upon input and output considerations. It is largely based on work by Adams (1965). Procedural justice emerged from the seminal work by Thibaut and Walker (1975). Procedures adopted should be fair in coming to any outcome (Leventhal, 1980), and employees should have some 'voice' and 'control' over the process (Lind et Tyler, 1988). The period of the late 1980s saw justice research highlighting the "social side of fairness" (Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1993). Interactional justice

was introduced as a third dimension of justice, having two facets. Interpersonal dimension evoked the elements of respect and dignity, while the informational dimension catered to transparency and openness (Greenberg, 1993).

Various theories have contributed in shaping the core and peripheries of organizational justice. These have helped in our understanding of how justice perceptions are formed and how individuals behave with respect to fairness perceptions. Equity theory (Adams, 1965) explains how individuals compare their input and output and form their perception about the fairness of the outcome. Referent Cognitions Theory (Folger, 1986) emphasizes that individuals feel let down when they perceive that their unfavourable outcomes were not warranted and they should have received a favourable outcome. Fairness Theory proposes that the idea of justice or injustice is mainly induced by assigning blame or accountability (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). It specifies cognitive and emotional channels through which judgment about fairness is formed.

The impression of unfair treatment may lead to an individual lowering his commitment to the organization, decline in job performance and job satisfaction and showing reluctance in helping his co-workers (Ambrose, 2002; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). He may also get involved in deviant behaviour affecting the workplace, including sabotage (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002). On the other hand, presence of justice may lead to higher commitment (Cohen-Charash et al. 2001), organizational citizenship behaviour (Masterson, 2001), reduced turnover intentions (Daly & Geyer, 1994), acceptance of strategic goals (Kim and Mauborgne, 1993) and high level of trust (Pillai et al,

2001). Perceptions of fairness are linked to employees' efforts towards expectations of the organization (Seok & Chiew, 2013). Perceptions of fairness are therefore important for effective working of organizations and also for the well-being of employees (Outcomes are dealt with in detail in a separate section in this study).

Newer understanding incorporates justice perceptions at the individual and collective levels (Li & Cropanzano, 2009), and makes a qualitative separation between reaction to the supervisor and the organization (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Studies on justice climate assert that supervisors and the organization are not unique as a source of injustice. It factors in moral norms and group relationships to explain justice climate [Rupp et al., 2007].

Cross-cultural research in organizational justice has gained momentum and Greenberg (2001a) asserts that cross-cultural research would be useful in discerning organisational justice. Culture essentially impacts our thinking in understanding rules for judging fairness and need for fairness (Colquitt et al. 2005). In a recent study, Fischer (2012) advocated that needs and motives of individuals regarding justice are culturally

constructed and aids in finer understating of justice perceptions and work outcomes. Leung and Tong (2004) advanced a three-stage model of justice rules, criteria and practices, to organise cultural distinctions. Justice rules are philosophical foundations on which decisions are based, whereas justice criteria are the execution of rules, and practices are precise actions used to put into effect the justice criteria.

Organizational Justice: A conceptual framework

Figure 1 below presents the model proposed in the study. The three major approaches: instrumental, relational and ethical illustrate the motive/reason why individuals crave for justice in organizations. The study examines these approaches in detail; new propositions are also discussed. Three dimensions of justice are distributive, procedural and interactional, which represent outcome, process and fairness in treatment respectively. These three together constitute organizational justice. How organizational justice may impact/influence an organization and its employees through its relation with important variables is represented. On the basis of previous research studies, hypotheses are formulated.

PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
(Figure: 1)
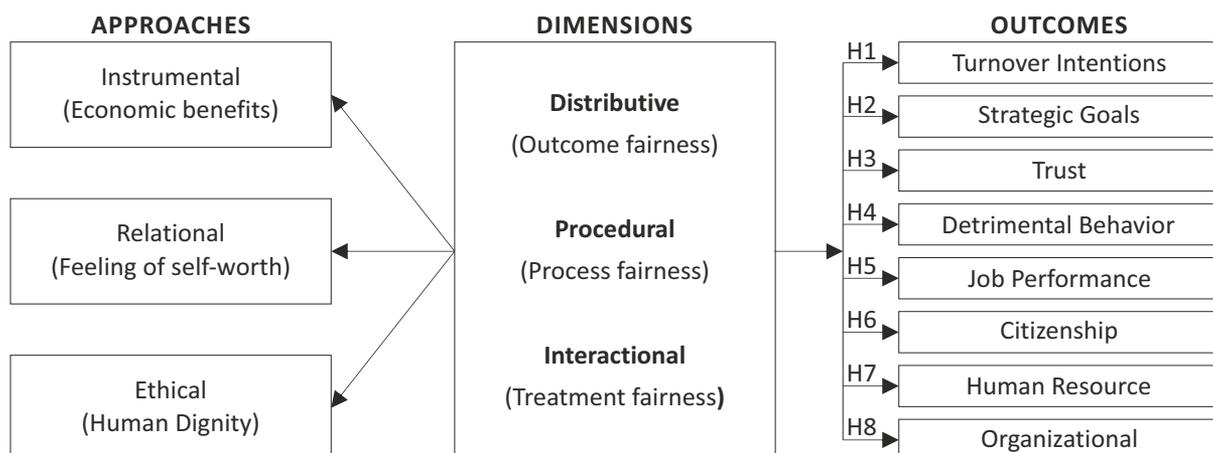
Why Justice Matters

Many scholars have researched the motives as to why justice is important to people (e.g., Colquitt, Greenberg & Scott, 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2001; Folger, 1998; Gillespie & Greenberg, 2005). Neuro-scientific research advocates that concern for fairness is an integral aspect of a human's brain functioning (Sanfey et al., 2003). Various approaches concerning justice are as follows:

Instrumental Approach: Research on organisational justice in its early avatar was led by instrumental perspectives arguing that employees care about justice because fair rules and regulations would, in more likelihood, give them valued economic benefits, especially in the long term. Even Adams' (1965) equity theory in its raw form contends that justice is matching one's inputs and benefits in terms of the decision-making system (Moliner et al., 2013).

Employees have a long term view when they enter an organization. So, they make an estimation of how they will be treated by the organization over a period of time. This is easy when the organization is just. The "control model" states that justice allows people to forecast and control the results that are expected from organizations (Folger, 1977). According to this model, adequate HR policies indicate that in the long haul, things would be just and satisfying. Though all decisions by the organization would not go in an employee's favour, justice gives them hope and certainty to an extent that future benefits are more likely.

Tyler & Smith (1998) affirm that the control model advocates that people are often motivated by economic and quasi-economic interests. People want fairness as it would help them reach their goals.

Rewards for completing a task result in employees being happy (Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999) and they take pride in their performance (Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000).

Relational or group value approach: Man is a social animal and wants to be accepted and appreciated by significant others. People also dislike being exploited by powerful decision-makers. The "group-value model" proposes that just treatment indicates that we are respected by the bigger group. Lind &Tyler (1998) explain it as an emphasis on identity-concerns like self-worth, esteem and acceptance by others as communicated by fair treatment. There is also less likelihood of manipulation. An impression of belongingness is very satisfying to people along with economic rewards (Tyler & Blader, 2000; Tyler & Smith, 1998).

Ethical approach: Folger (2001) contended that justice matters because people feel it is a morally superior way to treat others. Employees are concerned about justice because it establishes the basic human values of dignity and worth (Folger, 1998). Unethical and exploitative events lead employees, even at great risks, to seek vengeance (Bies & Tripp, 2001, 2002). This may occur not only when an individual is personally harmed but even if the individual is a mere spectator and others are being targeted (Ellard & Skarlicki, 2002; Spencer & Rupp, 2006). Cropanzano et al., (2007) explain this citing an example that in service organizations, when employees see customers mistreating a fellow employee unfairly, they also feel stress symptoms. This is explained by the concept of individuals' scope of justice. According to Brockner (1990), the scope of justice alludes to the group of employees which the individual thinks deserves fair treatment. This group is also construed as a social

identity group of the individual. It was Lemer (1981) who first attempted to understand the relation between social identity and commitment to justice

Barry & Shapiro (2000) and Kim & Leung (2007) put forth research outcomes proposing that there are varying justice motives, but specific justice motives may be understood in terms of multiple justice dimensions. So researchers are keen to know the relative hierarchy of these needs (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2001), and there has emerged a consensus for some basic needs or motives that are very relevant to justice. After interaction among the concerned people, more specific needs are charted out, but different scholars prioritize them differently. Gillespie and Greenberg (2005) assert that a sense of belonging is the most significant motive, whereas Colquitt et al. (2005) point out security (which takes into account both trust and uncertainty) as an important basic motive.

In recent advances, fairness heuristic theory (Lind, 2001) and uncertainty management theory (Lind & van den Bos, 2002; van den Bos & Lind, 2002) contend that individuals are apprehensive about potential exploitation in their working with groups and authorities, and justice acts as an instrument to know whether they can rely on these groups and authorities (example, Jones & Martens, 2009). In both the theories, there is an assumption that humans desire predictability and avoidance of uncertainty.

Dimensions of Justice

Taxonomy, which is very popular among scholars to explain organizational justice, is distributive and procedural justice (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991). But Bies & Moag, (1986) in their research on justice, introduced a third dimension of justice, naming it interactional justice. These three have been accepted as distinct from each other despite some correlation among them (Erdogan, 2002). Later, Greenberg (1993) contended that a four-dimension model of justice is better suited. He asserted that in addition to distributive and procedural justice, interactional justice should be divided into two separate types of justice: interpersonal justice and informational justice. The first one is seen as the fairness of interpersonal behaviour experienced during the making of procedures and distributions of outcomes, and the second one is seen as fairness in terms of explanations and information provided. Recent meta-analysis has supported the four-factor model of justice (Colquitt 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter and Ng 2001) and has clarified that interpersonal and informational justice indeed have distinct effects on managerial outcomes (Colquit 2001).

Loi et al. (2009) have distinguished between two patterns: justice as a counteraction to events against justice as a reaction to entities. They asserted that distributive and procedural aspects are essentially associated with stable organizational events, (like benefits, promotions and training opportunity). These are, by and large, stable. But interactional justice in contrast is centred around every day personal interactions with leaders, supervisors and managers, and is likely to change frequently. Others also provide that procedural and distributive justice or injustice reciprocation are more for the organization, and interactional justice is strongly associated to reactions to the supervisor or the manager (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Fassina et al., 2008; Olkkonen and Lipponen, 2006). This is in line with the agent-system model of justice (Moorman, 1991).

Distributive Justice: What is the outcome?

It is the impartiality of decision outcomes, and is compared by a perceived ratio of the input-output of others to oneself (Adams, 1965), or whether resource distribution match suitable norms (Leventhal, 1976). To resolve whether distributive justice has occurred, individuals usually focus on the distributive norms of their group/organization (Forsyth, D. R. 2006). If rewards and other outcomes are distributed as per the established norms of the group, distributive justice has occurred (Deutsch, M. 1975).

Adams' elaboration of the concept of equity is an essential pillar in understanding distributive justice. Adams (1965) elaborated many probable inputs (e.g., effort, education, experience, age and attractiveness) and both positively (e.g., pay, benefits, rewards intrinsic to the job, etc.) and negatively valenced outcomes (e.g., poor working conditions, monotony, fatigue, uncertainty, insults, rudeness, etc.). Equity theory proposes that people make a comparison of their outcomes and inputs with others and assess the even-handedness of this observation in a ratio. The comparison may be either with someone inside or outside the organization. Inside comparison is an indication of internal equity perception while the other is external equity perception. If after making a comparison, the individual believes that there is fairness, then equity exists. However, if the employee perceives inequity in any matter, it may lead to 'anxiety' or 'distress' in the form of resentment (if under-compensated) or guilt (if over-compensated). Adams (1965) clearly asserted that even when individuals profited from inequity, they would be under "inequity distress" and will make an effort to restore equity. Thus, dissonance is felt in situations where employees receive more as well as less than what they thought they deserved.

Distributive justice covers the actuality that not all employees are treated identically; the allotment of benefits is discriminated in the workplace. Employees are apprehensive of receiving their "just share." Sometimes they find distribution just when the most meritorious is promoted but sometimes they feel marginalized, as when a promotion goes to an employee with links to the top management.

In addition to equity, both equality, where all employees get the same treatment, independent of any other discriminating factor, and need, where the allocation is based on the most needy, independent of work performance, are some additional rules (Deutsch, 1975). McLean Parks, Conlon, Ang, and Bontenpo (1999) suggest that a distinction can be drawn between allocations based on business need and those based on personal need. While equity and equality rules have received the most research attention (e.g., Adams, 1965; Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1976; Pruitt, 1981), equity, equality, and need may all be applied in different situations in organizations.

Nowakowski and Conlon (2005) argue that salary adjustments are usually made on previous performance (equity). However, travel and support resources might be distributed identically (equality). Best of office space in a new office may be given on the basis of rank (another form of equity). While applying need based rule, an urgent business need will get large budgetary support in an organization. Similarly, if we take an example of a university, newly hired faculty will get more support and assistance. But a consensus is lacking as to how and which rule among equity, equality and need should be used.

A comprehensive study of equity, equality and need

principles by Conlon, Porter and McLean Parks (2004) indicated that past performance (equity) and random draw (equality) were viewed as fairer and would result in less intra-group conflict in comparison to other standards (like future performance, personal need, or rank).

Research indicates that varying contexts (e.g., work vs. family), organizational objectives (e.g., group harmony vs. productivity), and individual motives (e.g., self-interest motives vs. altruistic motives) may be the basis of triggering specific allocation rules (Deutsch, 1975). Other scholars like Kabanoff (1991) and Miles & Greenberg (1993) assert that the usage of these rules varies from organization to organization and between national cultures.

Procedural Justice: Fairness in making decision

Thibaut and Walker (1975) were the scholars who introduced the inquiry of process to the literature on justice. Procedural justice is the fairness that is sensed by the employees in the decision-making processes (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Procedures are seen to be fair when they encourage fair outcomes. When the individual faces outcomes that are not in consonance to his wishes or wants, here procedural justice can ease the effect of discontentment (Thibaut and Walker, 1975; Greenberg, 1987; Bies and Shapiro, 1987; Lind and Tyler, 1988, McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992). Studies also indicate that the procedural facets of outcomes are thoroughly analyzed if the result does not match the needs and aims of the individual (Greenberg, 1987; Lind and Tyler, 1988).

According to Folger & Greenberg (1985), the critical aspects are the 'means' by which 'ends' are achieved. Whether the outcomes are pay allocation among employees, settling a labour dispute or writing performance appraisals, a very critical element is how these decisions are made.

In their very influential work, Thibaut and Walker (1975; 1978) advocated that disputant control was a significant standard for determining procedural justice. They argued that disputants perceive the procedure as fair if they thought they had process control (i.e., control on the presentation of their viewpoint and adequate time to put up their case). This process control effect is usually known as the "fair process effect" or "voice" effect (e.g., Folger, 1977; Lind & Tyler, 1988), and it is a very commonly reported finding in the literature on organizational justice. Thibaut and Walker (1975) almost equalized process control with procedural justice (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Research in organizations indicates that procedures sharing control on the course of outcome attainment are viewed as fairer in comparison to procedures that disallow process control (Greenberg & Folger, 1983).

Procedural justice is imperative in sustaining institutional legitimacy. Certain very personal outcomes like promotion or otherwise, are often made when decisions are taken. Tyler and Blader (2000) assert that outcome positivity impacts satisfaction with a specific decision. This is expected. But very notably, procedural justice influences the thinking of individuals about the organization as a whole. If the decision making process is seen as just, employees exhibit more loyalty and eagerness to act in the best interest of the organization.

Lind & Tyler (1988) and Tyler & Lind (1992) showed that procedures by themselves are very vital as a self-expressing function and not solely due to their

association with the outcome. They attach the relevance of procedures with group process, where liberty to voice one's opinion is perceived as an expression of individual value as being fundamental to the group/organization. Lind, Kanfer and Earley (1990), in an experimental study, discovered that opportunity with regard to pre-decisional voice was seen as fairer than post-decisional voice and no-voice at all.

But recent research illustrates that there might be some limits to the affirmative effects of voice. Hunton, Hall, and Price (1998) reported that there was no related increase in the fairness perception even when there was a clear boost in voice.

Leventhal and colleagues were the ones that extended the notion of procedural justice to non-legal frameworks like organizational settings (Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal et al., 1980). In this pursuit, they also broadened the list of elements of procedural justice, taking them beyond process control. Leventhal's theory of procedural justice judgments that make the process seem fair covers six criteria. Procedures should:

(a) Be practiced consistently across individuals and time.
(b) Be absolutely free from favouritism.
(c) Make sure that correct information is collected and utilized in making decisions.
(d) Possess mechanisms to correct erroneous or inaccurate decisions.
(e) Accept and comply with standards of ethics and morality.
(f) Make sure that the voices of multiple groups/individuals who are impacted by the decision are heard.

Interactional Justice : The human touch

During the 1980s, pioneering work of Bies (1987) and Bies & Moag (1986) introduced the concept of interactional justice. Bies and others affirmed that along with assessing the process and outcomes, employees also examine the fairness of the interpersonal treatment they are subjected to. This they termed as interactional justice. Interactional justice, from the very beginning, was conceptually aligned to procedural justice. Some scholars explain it as a social aspect of procedural justice, and not an independent element in itself that explains justice (e.g. Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Tyler & Bies, 1990). But work by Bies (2001) and Bartle & Hayes (1999) have emphasized that interactional justice is a distinct dimension of justice.

According to Cropanzano & Mitchell (2005), social exchange theory and the principle of reciprocity are the basis on which interactional justice in the organization is established. Blau (1964) asserts that employees seek fair, honest, cordial and helpful behaviour from the organization. Cohen and Spector (2001) contended that based on the norm of reciprocity, employees who perceive fair treatment by authorities are more likely to exhibit positive behaviours by higher levels of commitment to objectives of the organization.

It is the degree of fairness in interpersonal treatment during decision-making procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986). Greenberg (1990a, 1993) divided interactional justice into interpersonal and informational dimensions. Interpersonal justice is understood as whether a person in authority treats people with respect and dignity while implementing organizational processes and procedures, and informational justice reflects whether proper justification and truthfulness

are practiced while offering explanations (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1993). Informational justice is seen as having factors that augment individual perceptions of potency of justification given by the organizational representative. These factors indicate that merely keeping employees informed creates a perception of fairness (Bies, 2001). As interpersonal justice is not necessarily a part of the allocation process, Greenberg (1993) contended that it could be seen as a social aspect of distributive justice.

Bies (2001), in a recent interesting study, found that there are actions and behaviours that create a sense of unfairness regarding interactional injustice. These include derogatory judgments, deception, and invasion of privacy, inconsiderate or abusive actions, public criticism, and coercion. Bies (2001) gives evidence asserting that insensitive attitude regarding these and related behaviours may lead to decreased perceptions of fair treatment.

In laying out the concept of interactional justice, Bies and Moag (1986) explained four principles that define fair interpersonal treatment by the executives with respect to subordinates: (a) Respect: earnestness and dignity should be the basis of dealing with subordinates; (b) Propriety: statements that are imprudent and prejudicial should not be made; (c) Justification: reasons behind all decisions should be clearly explained; (d) Truthfulness: these explanations should be open, frank and honest. Over the years, scholars have structured organizational justice in a manner where respect and propriety rules are brought under interpersonal justice and justification, and truthfulness explaining informational justice (Bies, 2005; Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt & Shaw, 2005; Greenberg, 1993).

The significance of interpersonal and informational justice can be understood with Bies' (2005) separation between "exchanges" and "encounters." According to Bies (2005), procedural and distributive justice is largely related to resource exchange issues which are not very frequent in organizations. But it is seen that interpersonal and informational justice are present in almost all interactions between managers and subordinates, irrespective of whether resource distribution decisions are being adjudged or not. This supports Folger's (2001) assertion that interactional justice scenarios provide managers a lot of discretion and opportunities to observe (or violate) justice rules. So, interactional justice possesses significance that can be seen in day-to-day activities which is absent in other justice dimensions.

Scholarship related to interactional justice primarily focuses on identifying key touchstones for fair interactions or treatment in a variety of organizational settings. Recent studies have demonstrated that managerial behaviour, which indicates interpersonal sensitivity in interactions with employees had a fairness–accentuating effect on employees' perceptions regarding the decision making process (Brockner, 1990; Tyler & Bies, 1990).

Interrelated, yet distinct

All three types of justice - distributive, procedural and interactional – function in correlation with each other. They can be meaningfully treated as three components of overall fairness (Ambrose & Arnaud, 2005; Ambrose & Schminke, 2007), and the three components can work together. However, if our objective is promoting workplace justice, it is proper to consider them separately and in detail. This is because each dimension is inherently distinct and also arises in relation to separate managerial actions. The negative

consequences of injustice can be partially diluted with the presence of at least one component of justice. For illustration, distributive and procedural injustice will have very meagre ill effects when interactional justice is high.

To support the above, a study by Goldman (2003) is relevant here. Goldman studied the association between justice and registering legal claims for purported workplace discrimination. Goldman (2003) found that claimants in all likelihood would pursue litigation if distributive, procedural, and interactional justices, all were low. In a scenario of even one dimension of justice being high, the chances of a legal claim dropped. This is positive for organizations as they have three cards to play with; if they get right even one justice factor, important benefits could occur.

Outcome of organizational justice in relation to individuals and organizations

Greenberg (1990a) also affirms that organizational justice is an elemental necessity for the effective working of an organization. In general, it is advocated that organizational justice lubricates the social system of the organization. Justice perceptions have been linked to many critical outcome variables (Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992) for the organization.

Turnover intention

Turnover intention refers to the relative strength of an employee's intention to leave the organization (Lee, et. al., 2012). Turnover intention precedes actual turnover behaviour (Daly and Dee, 2006). If employees think that the process of making a decision is fair, there is less likelihood of an intention to quit the organization (Daly & Geyer, 1994). Greenberg (1987) asserted that when employees perceive unfairness in

distributive justice, they will feel injustice is being done. That would affect their productivity, satisfaction levels will go down and as a result, employees would be more inclined to leave their job. Cohen-Charash et al. (2001) in their meta-analysis research reported that both procedural and distributive justice equally forecast turnover intentions and that interactional justice was the weakest predictor of intentions. Price (2001), in identifying the antecedents of turnover intentions, reports that absence of organizational justice is one important variable. In a recent study, Davoudi & Fartash (2013) found that organizational justice had a significant negative impact on employees' turnover intentions. A comprehensive study by Chang and Dubinsky (2005) advanced that all three - distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice are negatively related to the intentions to exit the organization.

Hypothesis 1: Organizational justice is inversely related to turnover intentions

Based on past research, Robinson and Greenberg (1998) established six categories of negative work behaviours. These are workplace deviance, antisocial behaviour, organizational aggression, retaliatory behaviour, organizational misbehaviour, and organization-motivated aggression. The authors also listed other forms of deviant behaviours: workplace violence, sabotage, vandalism, revenge, destruction, dishonesty, incivility, employee theft, absenteeism, and withdrawal.

Greenberg and Scott (1996) found that employee theft was a backlash to low payment inequity. DeMore, Fisher and Baron (1988) reported that vandalism was a form of inequity reduction when authorities unfairly treated employees. Further, Jermier, Knights and Nord

(1994) have contended that disgruntled individuals may first engage in masked reprisal (e.g., non-cooperation behaviour, psychological withdrawal, etc.) and then resort to open retaliation. Greenberg (1990a) has also reported an inverse relationship between perceived fairness and employee theft. Organizational injustice is positively related to aggression, anger and detrimental social behaviour (Colquitt et al., 2001; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Procedural injustice may lead to physical property destruction (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999). Referring to interactional justice, Bies and Moag (1986) assert that insensitive or harsh treatment could inflame bitter emotional and behavioural response. This could result in anger, moral outrage, etc., which according to Buss (1961), may be accompanied by revenge. Bensimon (1994) proposed that workplaces that are rigid and dictatorial may frequently add to workplace violence. Chory-Assad and Paulsel (2004), in their research in the education domain, highlighted that the consequence of justice perception is compliance and civility. Research by Gellatly (1995) in the hospitality industry concluded that absenteeism was significantly affected by perceptions of justice. Analysing 132 sabotage cases in organizations, Ambrose et al. (2002) found that injustice leads to employees engaging in sabotage behaviour, both towards the individual and the organization.

Hypothesis 2: Organizational justice is inversely related to behaviour detrimental to the organization

Strategic Goals

In terms of strategic planning, which encompasses the whole organization and lays the foundation of all activities in an organization, Kim and Mauborgne (1993) found that managers at the field offices were very supportive and committed to the plan and trusted their leaders if they perceived that their central office used a fair planning process. In their landmark book, Blue Ocean Strategy, Kim and Mauborgne (2005) answer why. If processes are fair, it creates a form of psychological recognition. This develops reciprocity in the form of trust and commitment, and leads to deep cooperation in strategy implementation. Procedural injustice, in contrast, generates "intellectual and emotional indignation," leading to "distrust and resentment" (p. 183). Eventually, it causes fissures in cooperation regarding strategy execution. The pursuing of procedural justice enlivens managers to go beyond official expectations and put in dynamic actions, and impromptu collaboration in their execution of decisions (Kim and Mauborgne, 1996). This is supported by findings of Korsgaard et al. (1995) that procedural justice increases the support to a decision that has been taken by the top management. Kim and Mauborgne (1995) found positive correlation between procedural justice and quality of strategic decisions, and enhances the ability of a transnational firm to achieve its strategic objectives. Application of fairness by corporate managers promotes formulation and implementation of strategy (Kim and Mauborgne, 1993). They also report that perceptions of justice lead to accomplishment of acutely complex and far off goals by securing voluntary support from employees.

Hypothesis 3: Organization justice will positively relate to acceptance and execution of strategic goals

Trust

Trust is viewed as a willingness to become assailable in relation to another party. Colquitt and his colleagues (2001) noted that all the three components of justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) predict trust. Employees perceiving justice in their organisation are willing to reciprocate positively

(Gaudet et al., 2014). Employees would exhibit greater loyalty and willingness to act in the interests of the organization (Cropanzano et al., 2007). These create trust in the minds of the employees. Consistent with previous research, scholars expect (e.g., Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994) that there is a likelihood of a stronger relationship between trust and procedural justice in comparison to trust and distributive justice. Nonetheless, as trust is normally associated to a particular person, as per the agent-system model, interpersonal and informational forms of justice are even greater predictors of trust than procedural justice. Pillai et al (2001) advocated that when outcomes in organizations are seen as fair, trust manifests in employees.

Folger and Konovsky (1989), in their research, found that employees who thought that their supervisor had presided over a fair appraisal process, were inclined to assess their trust more positively. A study by Brockner and Siegel (1996) also confirmed the positive relation between procedural justice and higher levels of trust. Employees would even accept decisions that are unfavourable to them if they are given a genuine and reasonable explanation (Daly and Geyer, 1994); interactional justice comes into the picture. According to Folger and Cropanzano (1998), in the context of organizational change, effective communication (an integral manifestation of interactional justice practice) would play a critical role in keeping trust intact and may negate any disbelief. Mayer et al. (1995) also suggest that benevolent treatment of subordinates will help in generation of trust.

Hypothesis 4: Organizational justice has a positive association with trust

Job performance

Job performance includes formal job duties entrusted by legal-formal authorities in an organization which are assessed during performance appraisals (Organ, 1988). According to Colquitt et al., (2001) workplace justice forecasts the efficacy with which employees perform their job duties. This is seen more in field tests (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Lerner (2003) asserted that justice ramifications are generally strongest in actual life. This happens due to interpersonal relations that develop over a period of time. In two different studies, Cropanzano, Prehar & Chen (2002) and Rupp & Cropanzano (2002) studied whether supervisors wrote their reports keeping interactional justice factors in mind. When the supervisors were sensitive to these justice factors, the leader-subordinate relationship was of a very high quality. This strong and quality relationship became the basis of motivating employees to higher job performance.

In the literature on justice, the relationship between procedural justice and performance is not clear. For instance, Barley and Lind (1987) found a positive relation between procedural fairness judgments and performance in a laboratory study but there are no corresponding findings in a field study. Kanfer, Sawyer, Barley & Lind (1987) discovered a negative correlation between procedural justice and performance while Keller & Dansereau (1995) reported a fairly strong relationship between procedural justice and performance as measured by performance evaluation data. In light of predictions of equity theory (e.g., Ball et al., 1994; Griffeth, Vecchio, & Logan, 1989), studies have associated distributive justice to performance. Masterson, Lewis, et al. (2000) have found a stronger impact of interactional justice on performance in line with the agent-system model.

Cohen-Charash et al. (2001) reported in their meta-analysis that general job satisfaction is highly related to all the three types of justice. McFarlin and Sweeney (1992), in their work, suggested that distributive justice and procedural justice are powerful predictors of job satisfaction. Masterson et al (2000) also reported in their study that distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice were positively correlated with job satisfaction. Lambert (2003), in his study of correctional workers, found that distributive and procedural forms of justice have positive effects on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5: Organizational justice will be positively related to job performance

Organizational citizenship behaviour

Organizational citizenship behaviour is viewed by Organ (1988) as employee behaviour that goes beyond the official job description. Numerous studies indicate that if employees are treated in a just manner, they are likely to adhere to organizational policies, display additional conscientiousness behaviour and act altruistically with fellow employees (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Workers observe citizenship behaviour selectively; they are positive in OCB's to groups or individuals who are just to them and restricting OCB's to those who behave or act unjustly towards them. Bowen, Gilliland and Folger (1999), in a very interesting study, found that a spill over effect is observed in organizations where justice prevails. In these organizations, OCBs by employees "spill over" to customers. As a consequence, customers feel they are taken care of very well; this leads to customer satisfaction and loyalty. Masterson (2001) and Maxham and Netemyer (2003), in their studies, also observe this relation between the organization, employee and the customer. Work on OCBs has

frequently validated a stronger connection between procedural justice and OCBs than between distributive justice and OCBs (Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1994; Moorman, 1991). Illustrating this, Moorman (1991) indicated that procedural justice affected majority of OCB dimensions while distributive justice failed to impact any dimensions. Skarlicki and Latham (1996) even indicated that giving training to supervisors regarding procedural justice elements had the potential to enhance OCB levels. Viswesvaran & Deniz (2002), in their meta-analysis, report that procedural justice is a better predictor of workplace behaviours.

Hypothesis 6: Procedural justice will be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviour

Human Resource systems

According to Noe et al. (2003), human resource systems and practices are compelling and potent only when they are acceptable by the employees whom these impact. Acceptability is highly dependent on the perception of fairness by the employees.

Usually recruitment and selection procedures become first interaction events with the organization. How one treats job applicants at this stage has a lasting impression. The selection process engulfs all communication with job applicants (Gilliland & Hale, 2005). Bauer et al., (2001) reported that individuals who felt justly treated would in all likelihood form a positive opinion of the organization and also recommend it to their friends (Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, & Stoffey, 1993). On the flip side, perceptions of unjust behaviour might lead to litigation as remedy (Bauer et al., 2001). Prevalence of just practices in the hiring process sets the foundation for a relationship of trust and confidence.

Cognitive ability and personality tests as screening methods show high validity (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998), but significantly they are not seen as fair by job applicants (Steiner & Gilliland, 1996). On the other hand, traditional unstructured interviews have shown feeble predictive validity (Huffcutt & Arthur, 1994). But job applicants view these interviews as a platform to exhibit their skills and hence, perceive these as possessing procedural justice (Latham & Finnegan, 1993). Interactional justice, according to research, is very important for job candidates (Bies & Moag, 1986; Gilliland, 1995).

McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) surveyed more than 600 banking employees. When distributive justice was low, workers conveyed dissatisfaction with pay and job. This is a normal tendency, but on the brighter side, when procedural justice was high, workers reported elevated organizational commitment and had positive feelings towards their supervisor. In pay cuts, interactional justice plays an important role. This is explained by Greenberg (1993) when he found in a study of manufacturing plants that pay cut when accompanied by managers' sensitivity, openness and willingness to explain the pay cut, is absorbed relatively easily by employees with few after-effects. After a few weeks, it was reported that employee theft was around 80% lower in the plant where interactional justice was practiced. They were also 15 times less likely to resign. They obviously did not want the pay cut but they accepted why it happened, praised the friendly interpersonal treatment, and spared the organization with their anger.

Justice also critically impacts the arbitration process in any organization and improves the overall situation (Goldman, 2003). Managers can make hard choices as long as those choices and the processes are laced with justice (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Even if we cannot provide the outcome to suit each individual, we should at least give them a fair process.

Similarly, procedural and interactional justice affects layoff scenarios. Employees are less likely to discredit their former employers (Brockner et al., 1994). Indeed, justice can have direct bottom-line effects. Lind, Greenberg, Scott & Welchans (2000) found that of all the layoff victims who believed that they were treated unjustly, close to 66% considered litigation. But those who perceived justice was at play, among them only 16% thought of litigation.

The performance appraisal process is often riddled with contrary viewpoints - one of the management (appraiser) and other of the employee. In a meta-analysis of 27 studies, Cawley, Keeping & Levy (1998) assessed employee participation in the appraisal process. They professed that employees having a voice in the process were more satisfied, perceived the process as fair, and were inspired to excel. The most astounding finding of the meta-analysis was that even when participation in the process did not alter the rating, the perception of employees remained positive. Cawley, Keeping & Levy (1998) asserted that it is "value-expressive" participation, meaning the employees are at least able to voice their opinion and this leads to employees being more benevolent toward the performance appraisal system.

Hypothesis 7: Organizational justice is positively related to the effectiveness and fairness perceptions of human resource practices

Organizational Commitment

Most measures of organizational commitment assess affective commitment, the degree to which employees

identify with the company and make the company's goals their own (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Prior work by Tyler (e.g., Tyler, 1990) argues that procedural justice has stronger relationships with support for institutions than does distributive justice. This is also consistent with the two-factor model and has been supported in several studies (e.g., Folger & Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). However, we should note that several studies have instead supported the distributive dominance model. For example, Lowe and Vodanovich (1995) found a stronger relationship for distributive justice and organizational commitment than for procedural justice, as did Greenberg (1994). Other results support the agent-system model, in which procedural justice is a stronger predictor of organizational commitment than interactional justice (Masterson et al., 2000). Lambert, Hogan and Griffin, (2007) reported that procedural and distributive justice both impacted the organizational commitment level of an employee.

As affective commitment emerges due to processes and systems in the organization, it is perceived to be related to procedural justice rather than distributive justice (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991). Views of Cohen-Charash et al. (2001) are also aligned to this finding that affective commitment has a significant and substantial association with procedural justice. Continuance commitment was found to be unrelated to justice (Konovsky & Cropanzano 1991). But, Cohen-Charash et al. (2001) found that continuance commitment has a negative relationship with procedural and interactional justice.

Hypothesis 8: Organizational justice will be positively related to organizational commitment

The above inferences are drawn on the basis of previous research, with regard to outcomes of organizational justice. These are indicators that can be pursued further to test these hypotheses through quantitative studies or new inferences can be drawn depending on the direction of the study.

Managerial Implications, Limitations and Future Direction

An organization's real asset is its employees; they are the reason for competitive advantage in any industry. Satisfaction, commitment, performance and well-being of employees are the core concern for any organization. Any initiative to bolster these has to integrate justice in their framework. Wang et al. (2010) asserted that justice has a strong influence on employees' performance. It is only through employee performance and results beyond expectations that organizations can hope not only to survive but create a long term legacy in the market space. In the long run, any effort towards enhancing effectiveness and performance of managers will have to first improve fairness in organizations. No organization can think of surviving in today's volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous (VUCA) environment without strengthening its internal working and culture which is reflected in fairness in the organization.

The basis of a strong foundation on which institutions are built is fairness in all acts, processes, procedures and functioning. The distribution of resources and outcomes has to be fair and the processes adopted should be transparent and laced with equity and equality. When and how employees feel let down by the organization is hard to know but if systems and processes are designed to eliminate injustice and promote fairness, then organizations are at least moving in the right direction.

As pointed out earlier, Neo et al. (2003) affirmed that human resource systems in organizations should be acceptable to employees to be of any utility. Critical HR areas like performance appraisal which has an overbearing impact on employees' motivation and performance has to be just and fair. Top management with HR managers need to deliberately create fair mechanisms which are principle driven and not subject to whims and fancies. Taking direction from the work of Cawley, Keeping & Levy (1998) on appraisal, managers should make appraisals an interactive and integrative process, giving voice to the employee. This enhances the fairness quotient. Findings by Brockner et al., (1994) has a direct implication that employers who are conscious of their goodwill should use principles of interactional justice to part ways with exiting employees, whether voluntarily or in layoffs.

As learned earlier, excellent strategic plans are executable only when the managers are convinced that the planning process and implementation is fair. This is true not only in private undertakings but is starkly evident in government functioning. Policy implementation is India's 'special weakness' (Maira, Sep 08, 2013)). Officers and planners in government should undertake comprehensive audit with respect to organizational justice issues when addressing reasons for failure of policy implementation that emanates from internal functioning.

Research clearly indicates that avoidance of theft, vandalism, non-cooperative behaviour and any behaviour detrimental to the organization should include justice principles. This becomes highly important in industrial settings employing blue collar workers. Flare ups, violence, destruction to property and even killings have been reported in auto industries in the NCR region in India. Managers should not delay or brush under the carpet any issues that may result in perception of injustice.

Outlining limitations helps in understanding the study in its entirety. Organizational justice studies have increased over the years. Its relationship with other variables has been studied extensively but this study managed to bring out its relationship with only a handful of variables. While these are important, other outcomes of justice in organizations have not been incorporated. Also, the impact of justice could have been outlined separately for individuals and organizations. Antecedents of organizational justice could have been integrated with the work, but it would have extended the paper.

Scope for further research in justice studies has exciting prospects. Organization justice has wide contours and therefore, many directions are open for scholars. Specific organizations could be studied finding out possible sources of fairness or unfairness. Every organization works differently with various internal and external factors playing a unique role vis-à-vis justice perceptions. General studies with standardized measures provide only an overall assessment but does not help organizations with their specific needs.

Individual level studies related to gender can be targeted as gender studies in organizational behaviour are becoming popular. This is in consonance with the emphasis on gender equality and sensitivity in the corporate world. Studies could find out whether there is any difference in male and females perceptions of justice. Do processes and practices operational in organizations contribute to gender injustice? Gender studies can also be linked to other variables. Strategic

human resource management has become a key concern in organizations where the role of HR is seen as dynamic and innovative that adds directly to competitive advantage and attaining the objectives of the organization. The HR strategy aids overall corporate strategy. Krishnan (2005) shows how transparency and fairness as an unending process assists in the success of corporate strategy. How fairness, with all its facets, as a long term policy impacts organizational strategy making and implementation, which could be an intriguing area for exploration.

With public services largely provided by the state, unlike western countries, in countries like India, public organizations and institutions need attention from scholars of justice studies. Failure of public institutions to deliver even basic services has been seen as an Achilles' heel in India's growth story. This may be one of the biggest domains in which scholars could come up with useful insights that would not only enrich behavioural studies but contribute in understanding perceptions of public servants and working of public institutions.

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