Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes in Service Sector of Nepal

A Dissertation

Submitted by:

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Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation entitled "**Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes in Service Sector of Nepal**" submitted to Faculty of Management, Tribhuvan University, is my own work carried out under supervision and guidance of Prof. Dr. Dev Raj Adhikari for the fulfillment of the requirement of Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.). No part of the research has been submitted to any other University/Institution by me or by anybody and conferred with any degree. The resources that I have been used or referred are acknowledged by means of bibliography.

September, 2016   **Prakash Shrestha**

Recommendation

I certify that the dissertation submitted by Mr. Prakash Shrestha entitled "**Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes in Service Sector of Nepal**" has been prepared as per the format prescribed and approved by the Faculty of Management, Tribhuvan University. This dissertation work is completed under my supervision and guidance. This dissertation is the candidate's original research work. I am fully satisfied with the language and substance of this dissertation submitted to Faculty of Management, Tribhuvan University.

To the best of my knowledge, the candidate has fulfilled all the requirements of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) degree, Faculty of Management, Tribhuvan University.

I, therefore, recommend that this dissertation be considered for the award of Ph.D. degree.

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VIVA-VOCE SHEET

We have conducted the viva-voce examination of the dissertation submitted by

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**"Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes
in Service Sector of Nepal"**

is found that the dissertation to be the original work of the candidate and written as per the format prescribed by the Faculty of Management, Tribhuvan University. We recommend the dissertation to be accepted as the fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Management.

Viva-Voce Committee

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Acknowledgements

This dissertation entitled "**Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes in Service Sector of Nepal**" has been prepared for the fulfillment of requirement of Ph. D. degree in management as per the format prescribed and approved by the Faculty of Management, Tribhuvan University. I have tried to incorporate all the literatures related to organizational justice and employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance. This study analyzes the perceptual data and examines the level of organizational justice as perceived by employees of service sector organizations of Nepal. It also examines the relationship and effects of organizational justice on employee work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance).

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AC	:	Affective Commitment
ADBL	:	Agricultural Development Bank Limited
ALICL	:	Asian Life Insurance Company Limited
ANOVA	:	Analysis of Variance
BOD	:	Board of Directors
CBIL	:	Citizens Bank International Ltd.
CBL	:	Civil Bank Ltd.
CC	:	Continuance Commitment
CCBL	:	Century Commercial Bank Ltd.
CEO	:	Chief Executive Officer
c.f.	:	Compare
CP	:	Contextual Performance
df	:	Degree of freedom
Diss.	:	Dissertation
DJ	:	Distributive Justice
ed.	:	Editor
eg.	:	Example given
et al.	:	'et alii' and others
EWOs	:	Employee Work Outcomes
GBNL	:	Grand Bank Nepal Ltd
GDP	:	Gross Domestic Product
GIMEBL	:	Global IME Bank Ltd.
H	:	Hypothesis
HPWP	:	High Performance Work Practice
HPWS	:	High Performance Work System
HR	:	Human Resource
HRD	:	Human Resource Department
HRM	:	Human Resource Management
i.e.	:	That is
IJ	:	Interactional Justice
IRIS	:	Institutional Reform and the Informal Sector

IT	:	Information Technology
JBNL	:	Janata Bank Nepal Ltd.
JI	:	Job Involvement
JP	:	Job Performance
KMO	:	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
M	:	Mean (Average)
MBL	:	Machhapuchhre Bank Ltd.
MBNL	:	Mega Bank Nepal Ltd.
MOF	:	Ministry of Finance
MRA	:	Multiple Regression Analysis
NBICL	:	N.B. Insurance Company Ltd.
NBL	:	Nepal Bank Ltd.
NC	:	Normative Commitment
NEPSE	:	Nepal Stock Exchange
NIBL	:	Nepal Investment Bank Ltd.
NICANBL	:	NIC Asia Nepal Bank Ltd.
NLGICL	:	National Life and General Insurance Company Ltd.
NLICL	:	Nepal Life Insurance Company Limited.
NLICNL	:	Nepal Life Insurance Corporation (Nepal) Limited.
NRB	:	Nepal Rastra Bank
OC	:	Organizational Commitment
OCB	:	Organizational citizenship behaviour
OJ	:	Organizational Justice
PrimeBL	:	Prime Bank Ltd.
PBL	:	Prabhu Bank Ltd.
PCA	:	Principal components analysis
PCBL	:	Prime Commercial Bank Ltd
PJ	:	Procedural Justice
r	:	Correlation coefficient
R^2	:	Indicates the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable which is accounted for by the model.
RBB	:	Rastriya Banijya Bank Ltd.
RBSL	:	Rastriya Beema Santhan Ltd.
R&D	:	Research and Development

RQ	:	Research Question
S.D.	:	Standard Deviation
SBL	:	Siddhartha Bank Ltd.
SaniBL	:	Sanima Bank Ltd.
SEBON	:	Securities Board of Nepal
SHRM	:	Strategic Human Resource Management
Sig. (p)	:	Overall significance of the model
Sig.	:	Significance
SPSS	:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SunriseBL	:	Sunrise Bank Ltd.
SWOT	:	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats
T.U.	:	Tribhuvan University
TCM	:	Three-Component Model
TP	:	Task Performance
VIF	:	Variance Inflation Factor
Vs	:	Versus
www	:	World Wide Web

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

Service sector is one of the important sectors in Nepalese economy in terms of employment, capital investment and scope of activities (Pant, 2014). During the last 25 years, this sector has grown at an annual average rate of about 6.3 percent (MOF, 2015). It now accounts for almost 51 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP). Nepal is marching towards a service-oriented economy (Agrawal, 2012a). This sector is perhaps untouched area of research in terms of justice and organizational behaviour perspectives. So, this study focuses on organizational justice and work outcomes perspectives of employees of Nepalese service sector organizations.

Organizational justice is one of the topics of greatest interest to scientists in the fields of industrial-organizational psychology, human resource management, and organizational behavior in recent years (Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997). It is a relatively recent concept in organisational studies and refers to 'the extent to which people perceive organizational events as being fair' (Colquitt and Greenberg, 2003). The concept has emerged as a powerful predictor of people's affective, cognitive and behavioural reactions in various work contexts (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). Organizational justice also refers to the people's perceptions of fairness in organizations. It is the ways and manner by which employees are treated at workplace with or without any prejudice and preference. However, the problem of unequal treatment of human resources in organization on the bases of gender, relationship, ethnicity, partiality has received attentions of researchers in the recent times (Akintayo and Ayodele, 2012).

There is a compelling need for innovative approaches to the solution of many problems involving human relationships in today's work environment. Although the technical competence of employee is essential, it is not a sufficient condition for success. Today's HR managers must also attend to the personal needs and concerns of the people they are managing. They are increasingly recognizing the importance of human social interaction as a basic requirement for the effective functioning of their organizations. People are social beings and organizations therefore have to create settings in which employees are

able to interact socially. One concept which is fundamental to human social interaction is justice. Whether it is a promotion decision, the assignment of tasks, the allocations of rewards or just about any other type of social exchange, matters of fairness are bound to arise. Employees' perceptions of fairness in organizational settings, also known as organizational justice, influence their attitudes and behaviour and consequently their work outcomes and the organization's success. That is why research on organizational justice is so vital.

Organizational justice is the employees' perceptions of fairness in the workplace. It is concerned with the ways in which employees determine if they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which those determinations influence other work-related variables (Moorman, 1991). Greenberg (1990) argues that perceptions of organisational justice are 'a basic requirement for the effective functioning of organisations and the personal satisfaction of the individuals they employed which, in turn, shapes employee behaviours. Justice researchers have typically distinguished between three types of justice: the perceived fairness of outcomes (distributive justice); the fairness of the procedure used to make decisions about who gets what outcome (procedural justice); and the interpersonal treatment received during the implementation of the procedure (interactional justice) (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter and Ng, 2001).

Employees should perceive the organizational system as fair, equitable and transparent (Agrawal, 2012b). They will only be happy with an organizational setting if their organization fulfills the criteria of "fairness", expressed by many researchers in terms of organizational justice (Cook and Crossman, 2004). Therefore, there are links between organizational justice and work outcomes of employees. In this study it is revealed that employees' perceptions of justice influence their work related behaviour and outcomes.

A number of studies have examined the contextual antecedents of employee work outcomes. For example, Kidwell and Bennet (1993) identify task characteristics and work group interaction in a study of individual motivation in groups. Goodman (1986) reports the importance of examining how the task and the context affect the behavior of

individuals in groups. The findings of these studies show that how tasks are assigned and how the individual gets along with other members of the organization are both important in the formation of employee attitudes and perceptions.

Moreover, past research has noted that when people are asked to report what constitutes unfair treatment, their responses have focused on interpersonal rather than structural factors (Greenberg, 1993). Bies and Moag (1986), and Tyler (1986) argue that the quality of the interpersonal treatment one receives constitutes another source of perceived fairness, one that is not immediately recognized by the prevailing emphasis on the structural aspects of outcome distributions and procedures. The key to understanding group effectiveness is found in the on-going interaction process which takes place between individuals while they are working on a task. Thus, research is needed to explore how organizational justice relates to employees' attitudes and behavior and their work outcomes. Research is also required to examine the organizational justice perceptions as the contributors of employee work outcomes in the Nepalese organizations.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The organizational justice (OJ) has been taken as a popular concept in Western society but the validity of this concept is still unclear in Nepalese setting. The issue related to the validity of OJ concept appears as a major challenge of justice research. Therefore, the organizational justice concept is to be replicated in Nepalese sample.

Employee work outcomes have been recognized as the important aspects that are affected by employees' perception on organizational justice. When employees feel that they are treated fairly by the organization in every aspect, they are inclined to show more positive attitude, behaviors and work outcomes. Therefore, employee work outcomes (represented by organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) are the important concepts in Nepalese organizational research perspective. These behavioural outcomes are taken into consideration in this study.

This research addresses a central research question: *how do employees' perceptions on organizational justice contribute to their work outcomes?* Therefore, to examine the organizational justice and its effects on employee work outcomes in Nepalese context, this study focuses on the following research questions:

RQ1:

What is the situation of perceived organizational justice and employee work outcomes in service sector organizations of Nepal?

RQ2:

Does perceived organizational justice explain the employee work outcomes in Nepalese service sector organizations?

RQ3:

Do perceived organizational justice dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice) affect the organizational commitment in Nepalese organizations?

RQ4:

Do perceived organizational justice dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice) explain the employees' job involvement in Nepalese organizations?

RQ5:

Do perceived organizational justice dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice) affect the employees' job performance in Nepalese organizations?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The present study focuses on examining the influence of organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) on employee work outcomes

(organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) in service sector organizations of Nepal. This study also attempts to find out the relationship between the organizational justice and employee work outcomes. Attempts are made to seek answers of the above mentioned research questions. In this context, this study attempts to achieve the following objectives:

a. To examine the level of organizational justice as perceived by employees of service sector organizations of Nepal.

b. To examine the relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) in Nepalese service sector organizations.

c. To examine the employee work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) as the outcomes of organizational justice.

d. To examine the difference between the employee work outcomes of employees from public and private organizations on the basis of organizational justice.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

The major hypothesis of this study is perceived organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) has positive and significant associations with employee work outcomes. The following hypotheses are developed to test the relationship between the construct of perceived organizational justice and employee work outcomes:

H 1: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on organizational commitment.

> **H 1a:** There is a positive and significant effect of perceived distributive justice on organizational commitment.

H 1b: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived procedural justice on organizational commitment.

H 1c: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived interactional justice on organizational commitment.

H 2: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on employee job involvement.

H 2a: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived distributive justice on employee job involvement.

H 2b: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived procedural justice on employee job involvement.

H 2c: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived interactional justice on employee job involvement.

H 3: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on job performance.

H 3a: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived distributive justice on job performance.

H 3b: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived procedural justice on job performance.

H 3c: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived interactional justice on job performance.

H4: There is a significant different between employee work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) of respondents from public and private organizations on the basis of organizational justice.

1.5 Significance of the Study

In today's context, organizations have to be more organic, flexible and adaptive because they need dynamic, committed and involved employees to lead the organizations towards the expected direction. To make the employee more dynamic, committed and involved, organizations need to treat them fairly. They need to accept concept of organizational justice. Even though, organizational justice concept was developed in the Western context, it is gaining popularly all over the world. As discussed in literature review, much of the empirical evidences show its theoretical and applied value for today's organizations.

The significance of this study is to expand the acquisition of knowledge about employees' perception on organizational justice and their work related behaviour and outcomes. Justice or fairness perceptions of employees influence their attitude and behaviour and consequently their work outcomes and the success of their organization. Therefore, the research on organizational justice is very important in Nepalese workplace.

Studies on organizational justice can contribute for both of the academicians and managers. Present research attempts to fill up some research gaps appeared in the organizational justice area. Perception of organizational justice, its linkage with organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance, its theoretical process can be of academic interest for the future researchers. Nepalese managers may be interested to assess their employees' perception of organizational justice and to know the commitment and involvement building process. They may also be interested to find some of the ways to increase employee job performance level. In this context, present justice research can be a valuable milestone for academicians as well as for practitioners.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study is concerned about employee perception towards organizational justice in service sector organizations of Nepal, specially, banking sector and insurance sector. It highlights the effect of the organizational justice on employee work outcomes.

The findings and results of this study could be important for Nepalese managers in formulating appropriate strategies, policies, and procedures to enhance their employee work outcomes. It is also hoped that empirical findings of this research may help the top management of Nepalese organizations to treat employees in more fairly so that their work outcomes can be enhanced properly.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

Some limitations of this study are as follows:

This study has confined only to selected service sectors (i.e. banking and insurance). Based on purposive sampling, it considers only few banks and insurance companies, so that it does not claim to cover the characteristics of other sectors and companies.

Most of the data used in the study are collected from primary sources through questionnaire survey method.

This study does not show the time lag effects of the variables under study.

Employee work outcomes consist of various variables such as like employee turnover, absenteeism, performance, organizational commitment, engagement, involvement and job satisfaction, etc. However, based on the research model, only organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance have been selected as the variables of employee work outcomes in this study.

1.8 Operational Definitions of Terms

Several concepts and definitions are applied in this study. The concepts have been applied to maintain the uniformity and flows of the research.

The operational definitions of key terminologies are presented in the following table:

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Table 1.1: List and Definitions of Key Terminologies

Key Terminologies	Definitions	Author(s)
Organizational Justice	Organizational justice refers to employees' perceptions of the fairness of treatment received from organization.	Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997)
Distributive Justice	Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the outcomes that an employee receives from organization.	Folger and Cropanzano (1998)
Procedural Justice	Procedural justice is the perceived fairness of the policies and procedures used to make decisions in organization.	Greenberg (1990)
Interactional Justice	Interactional justice is concerned with the interpersonal treatment individuals are given during the implementation of procedures. It refers to how one person treats another.	Colquitt et. al. (2001)
Organizational Commitment	Organizational commitment is a physiological state that binds the individual to the organization.	Allen and Meyer (1990)
Affective Commitment	Affective commitment is an employee's emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in an organization.	Allen and Meyer (1990)
Continuance Commitment	Continuance commitment refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization (due to the high cost of leaving).	Allen and Meyer (1990)

Normative Commitment	Normative commitment is an employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. It is also known as moral commitment.	Allen and Meyer (1990)
Job Involvement	Job involvement refers to an individual's psychological identification or commitment to his / her job. It is a belief descriptive of an employee's relationship with the present job.	(Kanungo, 1982a), (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).
Job Performance	Job performance represents employees' adherence to and completion of formal job duties. It refers to the traditional performance of behaviors that is expected of an employee at a certain position. Job performance consists of two forms of job performance namely task performance and contextual performance.	Katz (1964), Williams and Anderson (1991)
Task Performance	Task performance refers to job-specific behaviors including core job responsibilities that are directly related to the organization's purpose.	Nasurdin and Khuan (2007)
Contextual Performance	Contextual performance describes a set of interpersonal and volitional behaviors that support the social and motivational context in which organizational work is accomplished.	Aryee et al. (2004), Wang et. al. (2010)

1.9 Overview of Contents

This research work is presented in eight chapters such as introduction, review of the literature, research methodology, perceived organizational justice, work outcomes,

relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes, effects of organizational justice on employee work outcomes in Nepal, and findings and conclusions.

Following figure 1.1 shows the relationship among the chapters in this study.

FIGURE 1.1: Outline of the Study

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                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │    Introduction     │
                    │     Chapter 1       │
                    └─────────────────────┘
                              │
                              ▼
                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │ Review of the Literature │
                    │     Chapter 2       │
                    └─────────────────────┘
                              │
                              ▼
                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │ Research Methodology │
                    │     Chapter 3       │
                    └─────────────────────┘
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| Perceived Organizational Justice in Nepal Chapter 4 | → | Employee Work Outcomes in Nepal Chapter 5 | → | Relationship between Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes in Nepal Chapter 6 | → | Effects of Organizational Justice on Employee Work Outcomes in Nepal Chapter 7 |

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The introduction chapter deals background, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research hypotheses, significance of the study, scope of the study, limitations of the study and operational definitions of terms.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

This chapter is a review of the literature and it deals with general literature review on organizational justice and other closely related concepts. It presents the theoretical foundations for the study. Literature related to organizational justice is presented into multiple aspects such as distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice. This chapter also presents conceptual clarity of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance, and their linkage to organizational justice. This chapter also reviews some key aspects of labour-related legislations of Nepal.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

This chapter is one of the important parts of the study. It explains theoretical framework, research design, sources of data, population and sampling, administration of the instruments, instruments and measurements, design of questionnaire and variables, methods of data analysis, and ethical considerations in the study.

It also presents results of pilot study of the survey instrument, test of reliability, validity and test of assumption of regression model. This chapter also presents profile of the respondents, relationship among demographic characteristics used in the study and demographic backgrounds of participants involved in discussions.

Chapter 4: Perceived Organizational Justice in Nepal

The chapter four presents the collected empirical data based on perceived organizational justice in Nepal. It presents Nepalese socio-cultural context and organizational context, perceived organizational justice in Nepalese organizations, demographic characteristics and organizational justice, perceived organizational justice based on ownership pattern

and gender. It also presents differences of three-component organizational justice in Nepalese banking and insurance sector. Finally, this chapter deals with some important opinions of managers about employees and perceived organizational justice.

Chapter 5: Employee Work Outcomes in Nepal

This chapter deals the descriptive statistics related with employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance. Similarly, this chapter also deals with some opinions of managers about the employee work outcomes and behaviour in Nepalese work environment.

Chapter 6: Relationship between Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes in Nepal

This chapter presents the relationship between independent variables (organizational justice in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and dependent variables (employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) with the help of correlation analysis.

Chapter 7: Effects of Organizational Justice on Employee Work Outcomes in Nepal

This chapter presents the empirical results based on linear regression analysis to determine the contribution or effect of the independent variable which is organizational justice towards employee work outcomes such as organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance (in terms of task performance and contextual performance) among employees in service sector of Nepal. This chapter also presents results for hypotheses.

Chapter 8: Findings and Conclusions

The chapter eight provides summary of the study. It also answers the research questions and highlights the major findings, discussions and conclusions. Similarly, this chapter deals with managerial implications and some recommendations for further research.

At the end, references and selected bibliography, and appendices provide very useful information on extended literature review, used instruments and results of analyses.

1.10 Concluding Remarks

This chapter has presented background, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research hypothesis, significance of the study, scope of the study, limitations of the study, operational definitions of terms and overview of contents.

The next chapter reviews the relevant literature relating to organizational justice and employee work outcomes and other closely related concepts.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

2.1 Background

This study is an attempt to examine the relationship between organizational justice (that is employees' perceptions of workplace justice) and work outcomes. This study, indeed, investigates the relationship among the justice dimensions and employee work outcomes in Nepalese environment. In this regards, this chapter deals with general literature review on organizational justice and other closely related concepts. The literature review presents the theoretical foundations of research. Literature related to *organizational justice* is presented into multiple aspects such as distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice.

Employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance are taken as positive outcomes of organizational justice in Nepalese organizations. Therefore, conceptual clarity of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance, and their linkage to organizational justice are presented in this chapter. This chapter also reviews some key aspects of labour-related legislations of Nepal.

2.2 Theoretical Foundation of the Research

2.2.1 Conceptualization of Organizational Justice

The term organizational justice, is used in this study, is the degree to which employees perception about the overall organizational procedures, rules, and policies which are connected to their job should be fair. Organizational researchers have declared that organizational justice is a necessary demand for effective organizational management. Perceived organizational justice is predicted to influence employees' sentiments toward their job and workplace meaningfully (Choi, 2011).

The issue of organizational justice or fairness is by far the most challenging aspect in managing human resources in workplace. It is difficult to define the concept of fairness as it is not a psychometric property and cannot be statistically or objectively determined (Cascio, 1998). Research has established that people' perceptions of fairness and justice

are largely based on their norms and values (Cascio, 1998, Greenberg, 2001, Huysamen, 1995, Potgieter and Van der Merwe, 2002). What people believe to be fair depends on their repeated exposure to specific standards and instilled expectations that form the basis of fairness assessments. If behavior complies with these expectations, it is considered fair, whereas a violation of these expectations is considered unfair (Beugre, 2005, Greenberg, 2001, cited in Esterhuizen, 2008).

Justice and its execution is one of the basic and instinctive needs of human beings that its existence provides the ground for more progress and development of human societies. Its importance is proposed by Rawls (1999) who claims 'justice is the first virtue of social institutions, as truth is of systems of thought'. The study of fairness and justice have been of great interest to both philosophers (e.g. Rawls, 1999) and social scientists (e.g. Deutsch, 1985) alike. Both social scientists and philosophers would agree that a 'just' act is one that is perceived to be good or righteous. Similarly both groups of scholars would also suggest that an act can be good without being fair (or unfair). However, divergence exists with regard to definitions of justice. Justice, in a philosophical sense, refers to the extent to which a given action, outcome or circumstance is in alignment with a certain ethical paradigm (Hosmer, 1995, cited in Heffernan, 2012).

Theories and definitions of justice have been developed beside development of human societies and its range has been extended towards experimental researches from theories of religions and philosophers so that justice plays an effective and major role in studying the organization and individuals either inside or outside of it. Given that the organization is a social system life and permanence of each system depends on a strong link among its constituting elements. This link is affected by degree of observing justice in that system. Evaluation of individuals' responses regarding what they obtain from work in the organization against what they give to it has been the subject of many social researches in the field of justice (Mehrabi et al., 2012). Organizational justice is one of the topics of greatest interest to scientists in the fields of industrial-organizational psychology, human resources management, and organizational behavior in recent years. This justice, or

fairness in an organization, has emerged as an important concept contributing to the understanding of workplace attitudes and behavior in recent years. Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997) have noted that organizational justice has been one of the primary topics of interest during the 1990s for scientists in industrial-organizational psychology, human resources management, and organizational behavior. Furthermore, they indicate that this interest continues today and appears to show no sign of decreasing in the foreseeable future.

Let us review some of the important definitions of organizational justice that are given by many researchers and authors.

Table 2.1: Definition of Organizational Justice

Author(s)	Definitions
Bierhoff et al. (1986)	Organizational justice is the employees' perception concerning their equal behavior in organizations. The employees who are treated unjustly in their organizations become annoyed, which results in disappointment.
James (1993)	Organizational justice describes the perception of individuals or groups towards fair treatment from the organization and their responses to such perception.
Moorman (1991)	In fact, organizational justice is a term used to describe the role of fairness as it directly relates to the workplace. Specifically, organizational justice is concerned with the ways in which employees are treated. If they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which those determinations influence other work-related variables.
Greenberg (1990), Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997)	Organizational justice refers to employee perceptions of fairness in the workplace or organizational setting. The term organizational justice pertains to the function that fairness has as a consideration in the organization.
Folger (1986); Lee et al. (1999)	Organizational justice is an evaluative judgment about the appropriateness of treatment by others.
Mikula et al. (1990a cited in Tata, 2000)	Justice has been defined in terms of conceptions of what ought to be, actions that correspond to standards, and outcomes that match entitlements.

Shalhoop (2003)	Organizational justice concerns employees' perception of fair treatment by an organization and its agents.
Greenberg and Baron (2003)	Organizational justice refers to people's perception of fairness in organizations, consisting of perceptions of how decisions are made regarding the distribution of outcome and the perceived fairness of those outcomes themselves (as studied in equity theory).
Fernandes and Awamleh (2006)	Organizational justice is individual's perception of the fairness of treatment received from an organization and their behavioral reactions to such perceptions.
Alsalem and Alhaiani (2007)	Organizational justice can explain why employees retaliate against inequitable outcomes or inappropriate processes and interactions. Employee's perceptions relate to three dimensions of organizational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice.
Grayson (2010)	Organizational justice refers to perceptions regarding the fairness of procedures, outcomes, and treatment that employees have throughout their interaction with their organization.
Barkhordar (2014)	The description of fairness in the workplace is considered as organizational justice.

The concept of organizational justice has been driven from different angles by different researchers. Most researchers agree that it is "a dominating theme in organizational life". Generally, organizational justice is overall perceptions of fairness in all organizational processes and practices are assumed to influence the behavior and work outcomes.

Organizational justice is best described as the role of fairness that is directly related to the workplace. In recent years, the study of work-place justice has been growing. Research on justice started with Adams's work on Equity Theory. In his Equity Theory, Adams (1963, 1965) studied distributive justice which is the perceived fairness of outcomes. But study shifted from distributive justice to procedural justice in the following years, because Adam's theory did not explain fully how people really reacted to perceived injustice (Crosby, 1976; Folger, 1984). Consequently, the interest in procedural justice

grew and so did research of the subject. The reason of interest in distributive justice was that findings showed that the process implemented in allocating or distributing rewards was sometimes more important than the rewards themselves. In the meantime, another type of justice, interactional justice, emerged that required additional study (Bies and Moag, 1986). It involves the relationship between the authorities in the organization, who are implementing the procedures, and the employees. So basically, it is related to the way the managers communicate with their subordinates and the way they treat them.

In an article assessing the past, present, and future states of research on organizational justice, Greenberg (1990) suggested that organizational justice research may potentially explain many organizational behavior outcome variables. In fact, organizational justice is a term used to describe the role of fairness as it directly relates to the workplace. Specifically, This justice is concerned with the ways in which employees are treated. If they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which those determinations influence other work-related variables (Moorman, 1991).

Organizational justice can explain why employees retaliate against inequitable outcomes or inappropriate processes and interactions (Alsalem and Alhaiani, 2007). People compare the treatment they receive in organizations of which they are members with the treatments that other people receive, and make judgments about the level of justice in the organization in accordance with their own perceptions. It is believed that these evaluations play a key role in the way members perform their organizational duties and responsibilities. Therefore, the concept of organizational justice is frequently included in studies concerning organizations and management (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Thompson and Heron, 2005; Konovsky, 2000). Organizational justice, in its most general sense, is the way individuals perceive justice regarding practices in their organizations (Bies and Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1990).

2.2.2 Forms of Organizational Justice

The most often used taxonomy to describe organizational justice is distributive and procedural justice (Cropanzano and Folger, 1991). Whereas distributive justice refers to

the fairness of outcome distributions or allocations, procedural justice refers to "the fairness of the procedures used to determine outcome distributions or allocations. However, a third type of justice called interactional justice has also been introduced (Bies and Moag, 1986). This is deemed to be an extension of procedural justice and is associated with human side of the organizational practices. Although these three types are correlated, they are accepted as distinct.

Thus, organizational justice is the fairness of the organization's rewards, procedures and treatment of employees. When the relevant literature is examined, it is found that the perception of organizational justice comprises the sub-dimensions of 'distributive justice', 'procedural justice' and 'interactional justice' (combine of interpersonal justice and informational justice), and the perception of overall organizational justice emerges from a combination of these three sub-dimensions (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2001; Masterson et al., 2000). These all are presented in the following figure:

FIGURE 2.1: Organizational Justice Model

(Source: Harris, 2014)

Therefore, organizational justice is generally considered to consist of three sub-dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Distributive justice is concerned with the fairness of outcomes, such as pay, rewards, and promotions (Colquitt, Greenberg, and Zapata-Phelan, 2005). Procedural justice refers to fairness issues concerning the methods, mechanisms, and processes used to determine outcomes (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). Interactional justice deals with the fairness of interpersonal communication. This justice means that people are sensitive to the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organizational procedures (Bies and Moag, 1986).

FIGURE 2.2: Forms of Organizational Justice
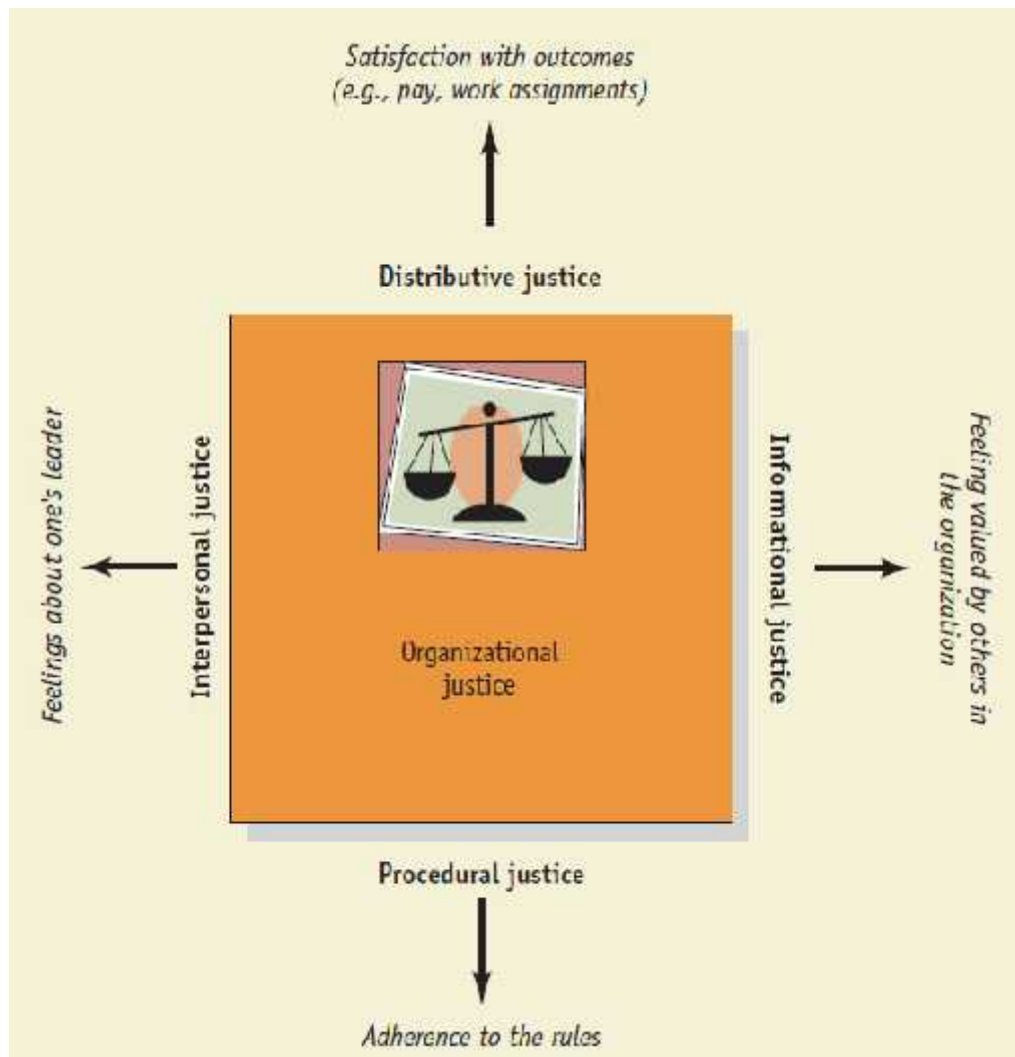
(Source: Colquitt et al., 2006)

Note: Interactional justice consists of both interpersonal justice and informational justice.

Distributive Justice

Concern for the fairness of outcomes is the first form of justice to capture the attention of organizational scientists (Greenberg, 1987). Philosophically, Aristotle was the first writer to coin the phrase *distributive justice* when considering resource allocation. His view of justice analyzed what constituted fairness in the distribution of resources between individuals and proposed the primacy of merit as a criterion of fairness. For him, justice meant treating individuals in accordance with their deserts, treating equals equally and treating unequals unequally. He contrasted distributive justice with corrective justice. Distributive justice called for honour or political office or money to be apportioned in accordance with merit while corrective justice (or rectificatory justice) concerned punishment (Heffernan, 2012). Aristotle argued that distributive and corrective justice represents norms of equality. In the former case, the equality exists in the fact that everyone is rewarded in proportion to their merits, such that it is unjust for unequals in merit to be treated equally or equals in merit to be treated unequally. Justice for Aristotle was primarily a political concept. At the heart of this principle is 'merit', but Aristotle accepted that not all individuals define merit in the same terms and not all persons have equal merit (Cohen and Greenberg, 1982, cited in Heffernan, 2012).

Distributive justice is related to personal gain from allocation of resources in an organization. During the period between the 1950's and the 1970's, most organizational justice studies focused on distributive justice, which is based on social exchange theory (Colquitt et al., 2005). It is the form of organizational justice that focuses on employees' beliefs that they get their fair share of valuable organizational outcomes such as pay, promotions, recognition (Harris, 2014). A study by Moorman (1991) indicates that distributive justice describes the fairness of the outcomes that employee receives. Meanwhile, according to Fernandes and Awamleh (2006), distributive justice refers to the concerns expressed by employees with regard to the distribution of resources and outcomes. It is the individual within the organization who determines the fairness of the distribution through comparison with others.

Distributive justice deals with the employee's perception of whether the outcomes are fair or not. This justice is concerned about employees' satisfaction with their work outcomes which will lead to organizational effectiveness (Suliman, 2007). Every employee is concerned about the equity aspect of justice in the form of workloads, work schedules, salary levels, bonuses, promotions or housing allowances.

Employee perceptions of distributive justice are based largely on comparisons with others that are inevitable in the workplace. For example, co-workers may compare their salaries. If the comparison result is positive, they are likely to feel positive towards the system. However, if the result is negative, employees may sense that they are at an unfair disadvantage relative to others. They may wish to challenge the system that has given rise to this state or affairs. Systems in which resources are distributed unfairly can become quite prone to disputes, mistrust, disrespect and other social problems. So, management needs to focus on distributive justice.

Let us review some of the important definitions of distributive justice that are given by many researchers and authors.

Table 2.2: Definition of Distributive Justice

Author(s)	Definitions
Adams (1965)	Distributive justice is the perceived fairness of outcomes.
Folger and Konovsky (1989)	Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the amounts of compensation employee receive.
Greenberg (1990)	Distributive justice is defined as the perceived fairness of the amounts of outcomes employees receive.
Farh et al. (1990); Folger and Konovsky (1989).	Basically, distributive justice reflects how significant rewards (such as compensation) from organized organizational efforts are fairly distributed among employees.
Greenberg and Baron (2003)	Distributive justice concern people's perceptions of the fairness of the distribution of resources between people.

Alsalem and Alhaiani (2007)	Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the outcomes that an individual receives from organization. Outcomes may be distributed on the basis of equality, need or contribution and individuals determine the fairness of distribution through comparison with others.
Wang et al. (2010)	Distributive justice focuses on the fairness of organizational outcomes such as payment and promotion.
Turgut, Tokmak and Gucel (2012)	Distributive justice is the justice of an employee which he perceives as a result of comparing the contribution he makes to his work and the outcomes of these such as rewards, duties and responsibilities, with the contribution the other employees make and the outcomes of them.
Harris (2014)	Distributive justice is the form of organizational justice that focuses on employees' beliefs that they get their fair share of valuable organizational outcomes (e.g. pay, promotions, and recognition).

Thus, distributive justice is a perception of justice that encompasses the perceptions of the members of the organization regarding fair distribution of resources among the members of the organization. It is based on 'Equity Theory' developed by Adams (1965) and 'a theory of justice' by Rawls (1999). Both of these theories concern distribution of resources. Rawls (1999) believes that every human being should enjoy fundamental rights and freedoms as much as other human beings and that social and economic inequality should be handled so that they will benefit everybody. According to Adams (1965), individuals compare the effort they spent and the result they obtained with the effort others in the same workplace spent and the result they obtained. This situation is important for the organizational justice perception of a person who is a member of an organization. In this sense, the counterpart of both theories developed by Rawls (1999) and Adams (1965) in the organizational framework can be explained through the concept of distributive justice. Distributive justice in organizations is a concept that explains the

distribution of all kinds of acquisitions such as duties, goods, services, opportunities, punishments/rewards, roles, status, wages and promotion among individuals, on the basis of their similarities and differences (Walster et al., 1978; Greenberg, 1990; Foley et al., 2002, cited in Yavuz, 2010).

Procedural Justice

The second primary category of organizational justice is *procedural justice*, which is defined as an individuals' perception of the procedural components of the social system that regulate the allocative process (Leventhal, 1976a). In other words, the existence of procedural justice, which is one of the sub-dimensions of organizational justice, can be understood by investigating how justice works in the decision-making processes that affect employee relationships with the organizations and each other (Korgaard and Sapienza, 2002). In organizational justice research, the focus on distributive justice moved to procedural justice between the mid-1970s and mid-1990s (Colquitt et al., 2005). In the organizational context, procedural justice is considered an important resource in social exchange (Loi et al., 2006). This justice refers to the perceived fairness of the means used to determine the amount of benefits (Folger and Konovsky 1989). It is the fairness of the procedures used to determine the outcomes that will be received by employees (Mooreman, 1991). Whereas Korsgaard and Roberson (1995), defined procedural justice as the perceived fairness of the procedures used to make allocation decisions. It is independently related to attitudes towards the decision and the organization. According to Fernandes and Awamleh (2006), these procedures should be consistent, bias free and take into account the concerns of all parties and be morally acceptable. Here, employee concern about whether the decision process is fair and the process used to determine the outcome is just. It is mainly concerned with the fairness of the means that an organization uses to determine outcomes.

Let us review some of the important definitions of procedural justice that are given by many researchers and authors.

Table 2.3: Definition of Procedural Justice

Author(s)	Definitions
Lind and Tyler (1988)	Procedural justice refers to an employee's evaluation of perceived fairness of the processes and methods used to make decisions.
Folger and Konovsky (1989)	Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the means used to determine the amount of benefits.
Greenberg (1990)	Procedural justice is defined as a person's judgments about the fairness of the process of making outcome allocations decisions.
Moorman (1991)	Specifically, procedural justice reflects the extent in which an individual perceives that outcome allocation decisions have been fairly made according to the organization's formal procedures and from the treatment given by the organization's authorities in enacting those procedures.
Nabatchi, et al. (2007)	Procedural justice refers to participants' perceptions about the fairness of the rules and procedures that regulate a process.
Wang et al. (2010)	Procedural justice stresses the fairness of the process by which the outcomes are achieved, that is, the fairness of means and procedures by which the decisions are made.
Turgut, Tokmak, and Gucel (2012)	Procedural (process) justice implies that, while justifying the fairness of the organizational decisions, the employees are not interested in what these decisions are; however, they are concerned about the processes which determine these decisions.
Harris (2014)	Procedural justice occurs in situations in which individuals feel that they have a "voice" in the making of decisions, where rules are applied consistently, safeguards against bias are in place, and the information used in the decision is accurate.

According to Suliman (2007), perceptions of procedural justice have consistently been shown to affect variety of outcomes variables. Tyler and Belliveau (1995) argue that fair procedures tend to inspire feelings of loyalty to one's team or group, legitimize the authority of leaders and help to ensure voluntary compliance with the rules. In general, procedural justice in organizational decision-making has been shown to have positive impact on a variety of employees' decisions and some emotional and behavior reactions. These consequences of procedural justice include variables such as organizational commitment, job involvement, trust, satisfactions, compliance with decision and performance.

According to Heslin and Walle (2009), one defining element of procedural justice is providing individuals with voice in making decisions that affect them. Further, they have proposed that fair procedures also include, where for an instance, bias suppression rather than decisions based on preconceptions, accuracy in terms of reflecting all available and relevant information and correct ability in light of employee input. In addition, when looked in the context of performance appraisals, procedural justice pertains to the apparent fairness of the procedures by which an individual's performance is evaluated. Moreover, Lind and Tyler (1988) suggested that when procedures stand for principles that are normatively accepted by people then procedural justice will prevail. On the other hand, Leventhal (1980) came up with six rules that if followed will lead to procedures that are perceived as fair by the employees. The six rules can be summarized as follows:

a. **Consistency rule:** This rule dictates that allocative procedures must be applied consistently across persons and time. The rule of consistency can be applied to any of the structural components. Leventhal gives the example of a situation where, when gathering information about job applicants, some are given more difficult aptitude tests than others.

b. **Bias-Suppression rule:** Decision makers must be neutral and avoid self interest of ideological preconceptions.

c. **Accuracy rule:** This rule dictates that it is necessary to base the allocative process on as much good information and informed opinion as possible. Information must be gathered and processed with minimum error. This rule is also important with regard to safeguards that discourage people from violating fair procedures. This highlights issues of accountability, monitoring (through record keeping for example) and sanctions.

d. **Correctability rule:** This dictates that opportunities must exist to modify or reverse decisions made e.g. appeal procedures exist for correcting bad outcomes. Leventhal claims that the perceived level of fairness will be increased by the presence of appeal procedures that allow for review and modification of decisions at various stages of the allocative process.

e. **Representativeness rule:** This rule dictates that all subgroups in the population affected by the decision are heard from and their basic concerns and values must be considered during the allocation process. For example, decision making bodies or committees should include representatives of important subgroups. The application of this rule brings up issues of power sharing and participatory decision making. Research has shown that employees attribute greater fairness to allocative procedures where there is genuine participatory decision making and frequent consultation with management.

f. **Ethicality rule:** This predicts that the procedures uphold personal standards of ethics and morality of the individual. Leventhal (1980) provides the example of procedures that involve bribery are seen as unfair when related to a larger intrapsychic system of moral and ethical values and standards.

Similar to distributive justice, and since the procedures adopted by the organization correspond to the manner in which allocation of rewards takes place in the organization, a strong relation is also predicted between procedural justice and cognitive, affective, and behavioral reactions of employees (Martin and Bennett, 1996; Mossholder, Bennett, Kemery and Wesolowski, 1998). However, contrary to distributive justice, reactions to perceived procedural injustice are predicted to be aimed at the organization itself and not

the outcome or the person implementing the procedure (Cropanzano and Folger, 1991; Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993).

Interactional Justice

Organizational justice researchers developed the notion of interactional justice, defined it as the quality of interpersonal treatment received during the enactment of organizational procedures (Bies and Moag, 1986). In general, interactional justice reflects concerns about the fairness of the non-procedurally that dictated aspects of interaction; however, research has identified two subcategories of interactional justice: informational justice and interpersonal justice (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). These two subcategories of informational and interpersonal justice overlap considerably (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001).

Interactional justice includes various actions displaying social sensitivity, such as when managers treat employees with respect and dignity. Mikula et al. (1990a) reported that a considerable proportion of perceived injustices did not concern distributional or procedural issues in the narrow sense, but instead referred to the manner in which people were treated interpersonally during interactions and encounters.

Justice research began to focus on interactional justice that focuses on the fairness of the interpersonal treatment the individual receives from the decision maker (Ambrose et al., 2002). Interactional justice refers to the interpersonal treatment and communication surrounding the process and distribution of outcomes (Bies and Moag, 1986). It deals with dignity and respect towards employees by their manager and subordinates. Example for such case would be treating all employees with respect and dignity showcases equity in the organization. Interactional justice will deal with the factors of communication between the employees and the manager.

Let us review some of the important definitions of interactional justice that are given by many researchers and authors.

Table 2.4: Definition of Interactional Justice

Author(s)	Definitions
Bies and Moag (1986)	Interactional justice is defined as the quality of interpersonal treatment received during the enactment of organizational procedures.
Mikula et al. (1990a)	Interactional justice includes various actions displaying social sensitivity, such as when supervisors treat employees with respect and dignity. It is referred to the manner in which people are treated interpersonally during interactions and encounters.
Sitter (2003).	Interactional justice has focused on supervisors' behavior, and their role in organizational justice and as conceptual is similar to the quality of informal behavior.
McDowall et al. (2004).	The fairness of interpersonal communication is associated with, organizational procedures.
Poole (2007)	Interactional justice refers to the quality of a person's interpersonal behavior before and after decision making are exposed to others.
Wang et al. (2010)	Interactional justice concerns the interpersonal treatment individuals are given during the implementation of procedures.
Turgut, Tokmak, and Gucel (2012)	Interactional justice concentrates on the interpersonal relationships; behaviors among employees and the fairness of the communication within the organizations.
Harris (2014)	Individuals make determinations about fairness not only on the basis of outcomes received and the procedures used to determine those outcomes, but also in terms of how these outcomes and procedures are explained. This is interactional justice.

Interactional justice manifests itself in to two forms. The first is ***informational justice***, which can be defined as the amount and quality of information provided to explain outcomes and procedures. Sharing lots of accurate information helps employees to perceive that decisions are made in a careful, thoughtful and unbiased manner. Mainly informational justice refers to the sensitivity, politeness and respect people receive from their superiors during procedures. This serves primarily to alter reactions to outcomes, because sensitivity can make people feel better even if the outcome is unfavourable (Colquitt et al., 2001). The interpersonal aspect of justice is generally sensitive to differences in culture (Greenberg, 2001).

The second is ***interpersonal justice***, which can be defined as the level of respect and professionalism accorded to all employees. It refers to the explanation, justification or information provided by decision makers as to why outcomes are distributed in a certain way. Information should be comprehensive, reasonable, truthful, timely and candid. This information helps people to evaluate the structural aspects of the process (Colquitt et al., 2001).

Mainly, interactional justice focuses on the quality of the interpersonal treatment that people receive in the process of procedure implementation (Bies and Moag, 1986). Interactional justice exists when decision makers treat people with respect and sensitivity and explains the rationale for decisions thoroughly. This justice relates to the fairness of interpersonal communication relating to organizational procedures (Fernandes and Awamleh, 2006). It is concerned with how the information is communicated and whether the individuals affected by a decision are treated with respect in a courteous and civil manner in other words being treated with respect and dignity. Whereas, Suliman (2007), stated that fairness is one of the most important factors of work environment that influence manager-employee relationships, employee-employee relationships and the organizational-employee relationship. The employees' perception of fairness in the organization procedures and processes is assumed to influence their relationship with the organization, co-worker and managers, which in turn affect their behavior and work

outcomes. Cottringer (1999) argued that creating and managing fairness is important for work organization because it has an impact on employee attitudes and outcomes.

As mentioned above, organizational justice consists of three major components such as distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice which are presented in the following table 2.5 and figure 2.3:

Table 2.5: Components of Organizational Justice

1. Distributive Justice:	Appropriateness of outcomes.
	Equity: Rewarding employees based on their contributions.
	Equality: Providing each employee roughly the same compensation.
	Need: Providing a benefit based on one's personal requirements.
2. Procedural Justice:	Appropriateness of the allocation process.
	Consistency: All employees are treated the same.
	Lack of Bias: No person or group is singled out for discrimination or ill-treatment.
	Accuracy: Decisions are based on accurate information.
	Representation of all Concerned: Appropriate stakeholders have input into a decision.
	Correction: There is an appeals process or other mechanism for fixing mistakes.
	Ethics: Norms of professional conduct are not violated.
3. Interactional Justice:	Appropriateness of the treatment one receives from authority figures.
	Interpersonal Justice: Treating an employee with dignity, courtesy, and respect.
	Informational Justice: Sharing relevant information with employees.

(Source: Cropanzano et al., 2007)

FIGURE 2.3: Principle of Organizational Justice

Procedural Justice
Consistent procedures
Avoidance of bias
Accurate information
Way to correct mistakes
Representation of all
interests
Ethical standards

Outcome Fairness
Consistent outcomes
Knowledge of outcomes
Outcomes in proportion
to behaviours

Interactional Justice
Explanation of decision
Respectful treatment
Consideration
Empathy
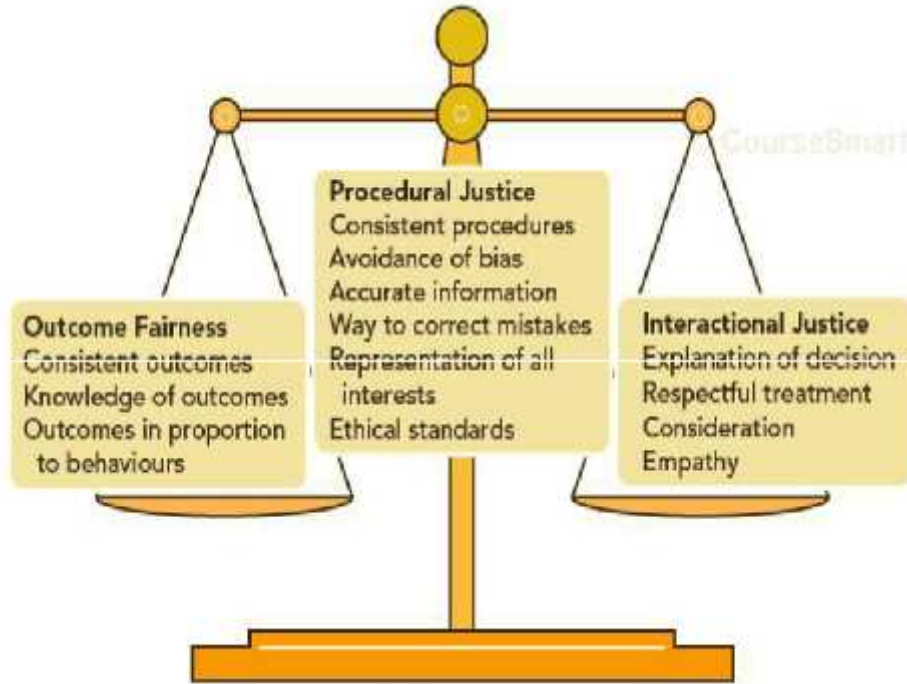
(Source: Steen, Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, and Wright, 2009)
Note: Distributive justice is also known as outcome fairness.

2.3 Fairness and Perceptions of Justice

Employees are concerned with both the fairness of the outcomes that they receive and the fairness of their treatment within the organization. The first fairness perception is distributive justice, and it addresses the organizational reward system (i.e. equity theory). The second perception is procedural justice, which involves the organization's decision-making procedures (Greenberg, 1990a). Third perception is interactional justice, where the study goes beyond decision outcomes and formal decision-making procedures to show that people also react to their perceptions regarding the social sensitivity of the interpersonal treatment they receive from decision makers (Bies and Moag, 1986). Researchers have suggested that these types of justice perceptions are important determinants of meaningful organizational outcomes (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Greenberg, 1987). A number of theories suggest that perceptions of fairness and non-traditional types of job behaviors are related.

Distributive justice is just reward of favourable results and outcomes for employees (Colton, 2002). Therefore, distributive justice finally deals with the degree of perceived fairness in distribution and allocation of outcome, as an organization refers with input of employees (Cohen, 1985).

Procedural justice refers to the fairness of decision making. There should be consistency across individuals and times in shape of promotions and outcomes among the employees (Hegtvedt and Markovsky, 1995). Thaibaut and Warker (1975) described that employee of any organization prefers fair outcomes followed by fair procedure. Hence the desire of procedural justice in an organization is the desire of every fair employee. One way to increase employees' perceptions that they have been treated fairly is through procedural justice. Procedural justice occurs when the processes and procedures taken to make a decision are perceived as fair. If the employees believe that the steps taken to reach a decision are fair and just, then they are more likely to be pleased with the outcome of the decision - even if it is not in their favour.

Organ (1990) has proposed that distributive justice concerns may influence citizenship according to predictions derived from equity theory (Adams, 1965; Greenberg, 1990b). If employees perceive unfair compensation, then they may be less likely to perform, produce, and commit to the organization. Organ (1990) suggested that perceived procedural unfairness alters an employee's relationship with the organization from one of social exchange (i.e. diffuse obligations based on reciprocal trust), in which citizenship behaviours are likely to be one of economic exchange (i.e., contractual obligations and precise terms of exchange), to one in which the employee does only what is required. Aquino (1995) has proposed that interactional justice is in action when the supervisor gives an accurate performance rating.

The justice literature showed that, if the employees perceived that they had received fair treatment in the organization, that perception gives them a feeling of job security (Brett, 1986) that leads to their work outcomes.

2.4 Organizational Climate for Research

Organizational climate has traditionally been described as a set of shared perceptions of policies, practices, and procedures that an organization rewards and supports (James, Joyce and Slocum, 1988; Schneider and Reichers, 1983). As such policies and practices are considered to be objective properties of organizations; climate indicates what goals are important to the organization and how such goals are to be accomplished (Schneider, Brief, and Guzzo, 1996). Properties of an organization have the effect of creating similar organizational experiences for employees of the organization. In other words, employees who are subject to the same policies and procedures in organizations may have shared interpretations of such practices. Thus, consistent perceptions and meanings manifest themselves as climates in organizations (Schneider and Reichers, 1983).

Climate scholars have explored climate at the organizational level, which is represented by aggregated individual perceptions of organizational events and practices (James and Jones, 1974). Rather than focusing on individual psychological representations of work situations, organizational climates signify collective meanings that people attach to particular characteristics of the organization. Consequently, organizations tend to have climates for specific elements of the work setting, for example, climate for service (Schneider, Parkington, and Buxton, 1980) and climate for safety (Zohar, 1980). As climates are, by definition, characterized by shared perceptions of organizational policies, practices, and procedures, organizations may also have climates for fairness. Such climates are considered for fairness or organizational justice in this study.

2.5 Reasons behind Justice

Managers too often assume that justice, in the minds of employees, means only that they receive desirable outcomes. These managers are confusing outcome favorability with outcome justice. The former is a judgment of personal worth or value; the latter is a judgment of moral propriety. Evidence shows that outcome justice and outcome favorability are distinct (Skitka, Winquist, and Hutchinson, 2003) and correlated between

0.19 and 0.49, depending on where and how the variables are measured (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). For this reason it is useful to consider three reasons justice matters to people (Cropanzano et al., 2007).

1.   **Long-range Benefits:** People often "sign on" for the long haul. Consequently, they need to estimate now how they are likely to be treated overtime. A just organization makes this prediction easy. According to the "control model," employees prefer justice because it allows them to predict and control the outcomes they are likely to receive from organizations. According to the control model of justice, appropriate personnel policies signal that things are likely to work out eventually. Most of us understand that every personnel decision cannot go our way, but justice provides us with more certainty regarding our future benefits.

For this reason the control model proposes that people are often motivated by economic and quasi- economic interests (Tyler and Smith, 1998). People want fairness because fairness provides things they like. There is more than a little truth to this idea. For instance, when individuals are rewarded for successfully completing a task they report being happy (Weiss, Suckow and Cropanzano, 1999) and having pride in their performance (Krehbiel and Cropanzano, 2000). This is so even when their success resulted from cheating. At the same time, these individuals also report feeling guilty for their unfair behavior, suggesting that individuals can recognize and react to injustice, even when it is personally beneficial. There is sometimes a certain tension between getting what we want and playing by the rules. The two tend to go together, but less so than many believe. For example, pay satisfaction is only modestly correlated with perceptions of pay justice (Williams, McDaniel and Nguyen, 2006). If "justice" were based exclusively on obtaining benefits, then one would expect a higher association. Individuals can accept an unfortunate outcome as long as the process is fair and they are treated with interpersonal dignity (e.g., Goldman, 2003; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997).

2. **Social Considerations:** People are social animals. We wish to be accepted and valued by important others while not being exploited or harmed by powerful decision-makers. In the "group-value model," just treatment tells us that we are respected and esteemed by the larger group. We are also at less risk for mistreatment. This sense of belonging is important to us even apart from the economic benefits it can bring (Tyler and Blader, 2000; Tyler and Smith, 1998). As you might expect, this can pose a potential problem for organizations. To the extent that justice signals our value to an employer, the more we care about the organization the more distressed we become when we are treated unfairly. Brockner, Tyler, and Cooper- Schneider (1992) assessed the commitment of a group of employees before a layoff occurred. After the downsizing those people who were initially the *most* committed responded the *most* negatively to the downsizing. When we treat workers unfairly, we may end up doing the most harm to those who are most loyal.

3. **Ethical Considerations:** People also care about justice because they believe it is the morally appropriate way others should be treated (Folger, 1993). When individuals witness an event they believe is ethically inappropriate, they are likely to take considerable risks in the hopes of extracting retribution (Bies and Tripp, 2001, 2002). Such unfortunate (from the organization's point of view) reactions may occur even when an employee simply witnesses the harm and is not personally wronged (Ellard and Skarlicki, 2002; Spencer and Rupp, 2006). Consider, for example, a day to- day problem faced by many service workers. When these employees see a customer treating one of their coworkers unfairly, the observing worker is apt to experience stress symptoms. Through this mechanism, injustice may spread ill will throughout a workgroup.

2.6 Consequences of Organizational Injustice

Some organizational justice researchers have investigated the antecedents and consequences of experiences of injustice. The field has not reached clarity about what specific contexts generate fair or unfair treatment, but Colquitt and Greenberg (2003)

speculate that injustice could be more common in contexts that are more complex, novel or stressful. When some individuals perceive injustice, among other counterproductive behaviors, they may engage in thievery (Greenberg, 1990a) or may even have issues with the quality of their work (Cowherd and Levine, 1992).

Fear, anger, hopelessness, and sadness have been associated with perceived injustice (Harlos and Pinder, 2000). Unfair treatment has been shown to lead to decreasing levels of job commitment, job involvement and organizational citizenship (Konovsky, 2000). Exploring the context and practices that trigger judgments of unfairness represents one approach and perspective. In order to understand what promotes productive workplaces, other researchers have studied the elements that lead to judgments of fairness and accompanying positive behavioral outcomes. Researchers who have taken this approach have found that fair practices lead to support for organizational policies and procedures, increased organizational commitment, satisfaction, better performance, and an increased likelihood of engaging in organizational citizenship behaviors (Tyler and Blader, 2003).

Research demonstrates that there are important relationships between organizational justice and work outcomes. Scholars have discovered the benefits of employees' positive perceptions of justice as well as the consequences of perceptions of injustice in the workplace (Cropanzano and Folger, 1991; Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997; Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). For example, scholars have found that organizational justice is positively associated with outcome satisfaction, rule compliance, group commitment, and communal esteem (Colquitt et al., 2001; Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). Other scholars found that organizational injustice is positively related to feelings of anger, aggression, and counterproductive social behavior (Colquitt et al., 2001; Folger and Cropanzano, 1998; Skarlicki et al., 1999).

Research also suggests that an employee's perception of organizational injustice may negatively influence creative performance (Simmons, 2006). Similarly, the finding of the study supports Akintayo and Babajide (2008) who submits that employees might react to

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perceived inequalities in their organizations by decreasing their normal organizational behaviours in terms of commitment and morale at work place.

Let us review some of the important consequences of organizational injustice that are given by many researchers and authors.

Table 2.6: Consequences of Organizational Injustice

Author(s)	Consequences of Organizational Injustice
Brockner, Tyler, and Cooper-Schneider (1992)	When we treat workers unfairly, we may end up doing the most harm to those who are most loyal.
Harlos and Pinder (2000)	Fear, anger, hopelessness, and sadness have been associated with perceived injustice.
Konovsky (2000)	Unfair treatment has been shown to lead to decreasing levels of job commitment, job involvement and organizational citizenship
Folger and Cropanzano (1998); Skarlicki et al. (1999); Colquitt et al. (2001)	Organizational injustice is positively related to feelings of anger, aggression, and counterproductive social behavior.
Colquitt and Greenberg (2003)	Injustice could be more common in contexts that are more complex, novel or stressful.
Goldman (2003)	Applicants of workplace discrimination are most likely to pursue litigation when distributive, procedural, and interactional justice are all low.
Spencer and Rupp (2006)	Injustice may spread ill will throughout a workgroup.
Simmons (2006)	An employee's perception of organizational injustice may negatively influence creative performance.
Akintayo and Babajide (2008)	Employees might react to perceived inequalities in their organizations by decreasing their normal organizational behaviours in terms of commitment and morale at work place.

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Therefore, it is likely that, for the most part, an employee's perception of organizational injustice may negatively influence their work outcomes, while an employee's perception of organizational adherence to a high level of justice may have a positive influence on their work outcomes. So, today's organizations need to follow this reality in their organizational practices.

2.7 Theories Underlying Organizational Justice

2.7.1 Theories Underlying Distributive Justice

This section deals with the theories underlying distributive justice research (Lee, 2000). The research on distributive justice in organizations today focuses primarily on people's perceptions of the fairness of the outcomes they receive, that is, their evaluations of the end state of the allocation process (Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997). The concept of distributive justice has its basis in equity theory (Adams, 1965) and Leventhal's justice judgment model (1976a). While equity theory has focused on reactions to pay inequities, Leventhal studied the conditions under which people proactively employed various justice norms.

Equity Theory

The major structural components of equity theory are inputs and outcomes. Inputs are described as what a person perceives as his or her contributions to the exchange, for which he or she expects a just return (Adams, 1965). Outcomes are described as the rewards an individual receives from the exchange, and can include such factors as pay and intrinsic satisfaction (Cohen and Greenberg, 1982). Adams (1965) argued that social behavior is affected by beliefs that the allocation of rewards within a group should be equitable, that is, outcomes should be proportional to the contributions of group members. In other words, equity theory argues that people are satisfied when the ratios of their own inputs to outcomes (i.e., rewards) equal the ratios of inputs to outcomes in comparison to others. Perceived inequity through this comparison feels unpleasant, and motivates people to reduce those unpleasant feelings (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). The presence

of inequity will motivate people to achieve equity or to reduce inequity, and the strength of the motivation to do so will vary directly with the magnitude of the inequity experienced. In other words, Adams (1965) suggested that when allocation outcomes do not meet this criterion, people would perceive inequity distress and attempt to behaviorally or cognitively restore equity.

Adams (1965) proposed six different modes of reducing inequity based on the theory of cognitive dissonance:

(1)　Altering inputs;

(2)　Altering outcomes;

(3)　Cognitively distorting inputs or outcomes;

(4)　Leaving the field;

(5)　Acting on the object of comparison by altering or cognitively distorting the other's inputs or outcomes; or

(6)　Changing the object of comparison.

Walster, Walster, and Berscheid (1978) have also attempted to predict when individuals will perceive themselves to be unfairly treated and how they will react to that perception. The key to this theory consists of four interlocking propositions:

(1)　Individuals will try to maximize their outcomes;

(2)　Groups evolve definitions of equity and sanction group members on the basis of those definitions;

(3)　Inequity leads to psychological distress proportional to the size of the inequity; and

(4)　Such distress will lead to attempts to eliminate it by restoring equity. Individuals can arrive at the belief that distributive fairness exists by distorting perceptions, rather than by actually changing the situation (Leventhal, 1976a).

In summary, Adams's equity theory (1965) focused on the reactions to unfair outcomes. If an outcome is believed to be inappropriate relative to some standard, then the

individual is likely to experience distributive injustice (Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997). Equity theory employs a unidimensional concept of distributive justice. The theory assumes that an individual judges the fairness of his/her own or others' rewards solely in terms of a merit principle.

Justice Judgment Model

Distributive justice has been discussed from the perspective of the individual who receives the outcome. On the other hand, another body of research has emerged that focuses on the allocation of outcomes among two or more recipients. Leventhal (1976a) considered distributive justice from the perspective of the individual making the allocation. Leventhal (1976a) provided a critique of equity theory and developed a justice judgment model to explain perceptions of justice. According to equity theory, an individual perceives fairness when rewards are in proportion to contributions. Thus, an individual's perception of fairness is influenced by a contributions rule which dictates that individuals who do better work should receive higher outcomes (Leventhal, 1980). In other words, equity theory recognizes the relevance of only one justice rule, the contributions rule.

Leventhal (1976b) pointed to the importance of various allocation norms that specify criteria by which the distribution of outcomes are defined as justice. A justice rule is a belief that outcomes must be distributed in accordance with certain criteria. Leventhal's (1976a) justice judgement model takes a more proactive approach than does equity theory. People judge their "deservingness" by using several different justice rules. There are primarily three distributive justice rules: (a) the contribution rule, (b) the equality rule, and (c) the needs rule. The justice judgment model posits a four stage sequence whereby an individual evaluates the justice of outcomes. The individual (1) decides which justice rules to use and how much weight to give them - *weighting*; (2) estimates the amount and types of outcomes the recipient deserves based on each justice rule - *preliminary estimation*; (3) combines the outcomes deserved on the basis of each rule into a final

estimate - *rule combination*; and (4) evaluates the fairness of the recipient's actual outcomes by comparing the actual to the deserved outcome - *outcome evaluation*.

Thus, the justice judgment model assumes that an individual's judgments of fairness may be based not only on the contributions rule, but also on an equality rule, or a needs rule. According to this judgment model, individuals evaluate allocation procedures used by decision-makers based on the situation, in effect proactively employing various justice norms such as equity, needs, and equality. While an equality rule dictates that everyone should receive similar outcomes regardless of needs or contributions, a needs rule dictates that individuals with greater need should receive higher outcomes. In other words, the central concept of the justice judgement is that an individual applies distribution rules selectively by following different rules at different times. Thus, the individual's basic criteria for evaluating fairness may change in various situations (Leventhal, 1980). For example, equitable reward allocations would maximize an individual's positive work behaviors such as work performance over the long term, whereas equality of rewards may foster a high level of satisfaction, harmony, and solidarity among group members (Leventhal, 1976b). Leventhal shifted the focus of research on justice toward allocation and the role of the allocator, and raised fundamental questions about the allocator's role in matters of distributive justice (Cohen and Greenberg, 1982).

Even though distributive justice research has provided potential insight into the organizational processes derived from both reactive and proactive approaches, it has failed to answer questions raised about justice in various organizational environments where concerns about fairness are more process-oriented. In other words, this legacy of theory and research provides little insight into possible effects caused by the manner in which these rewards are established. As a result, questions remain about the way organizational rewards influence reactions to them (Greenberg, 1987a). That is, how decisions are made as opposed to what those decisions are, has been the primary concern in organizational justice research (Folger and Greenberg, 1983; Greenberg and Folger, 1985). As a result, researchers have focused their attention on procedural justice issues.

A Taxonomy of Justice Classes

When people make fairness evaluations, they appear to be sensitive to two distinct focal determinants: *structural determinants* and *social determinants*. The distinction between structural and social determinants is based on the immediate focus on just action. In the case of structural determinants, justice is sought by focusing on the pattern of resource allocations and procedures perceived as fair under such organizational concerns as performance appraisals (Greenberg, 1986a), employee compensation (Miceli and Lane, 1991), and managerial dispute resolution (Karambayya and Brett, 1989). By contrast, the social determinants of justice focus on the treatment of individuals. Thus, structural determinants ensure fairness by structuring a decision-making context, whereas social determinants ensure fairness by concentrating on the interpersonal treatment one receives. The act of following a prevailing rule of justice is structurally fair, while the act of treating others in an open and honest fashion is socially fair (Greenberg, 1993a).

Greenberg (1993a) proposed a taxonomy that seeks to clarify the role of social factors in conceptualizations of justice. In other words, a taxonomy is proposed that is designed to highlight the distinction between the structural and social determinants of justice by noting the place of these determinants in either distributive and procedural justice. A taxonomy of justice involves classes created by combining categories of justice with focal determinants of justice. Table 2.7 presents a taxonomy of justice classes and shows the names given to the resulting classes.

Table 2.7: Taxonomy of Justice Classes

Focal Determinant	Procedural Justice	Distributive Justice
Structural	Systematic Justice	Configural Justice
Social	Informational Justice	Interpersonal Justice

(Source: Greenberg, 1993a).

Configural justice refers to the type of distributive justice that is accomplished via structural means (Greenberg, 1993a). Distributions of reward allocations may be structured either by forces to conform to existing social norms such as equity and equality (Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1976b), or by the desire to achieve some instrumental goal

such as minimizing conflict or promoting productivity (Greenberg and Cohen, 1982). These are all ways of structuring the context of reward allocations. On the other hand, interpersonal justice refers to the social aspects of distributive justice. Interpersonal justice may be sought by showing concern for individuals regarding the distributive outcomes they received (Greenberg, 1993a). Several studies provide evidence that people consider the nature of their treatment by others as a determinant of fairness. For example, Tyler (1988) examined citizens' reactions to dealing with police and courts. This study found that perceptions of honesty and ethical appropriateness such as politeness and respect for rights were perceived as being among the most important determinants of the fairness of the treatment they received. Bies and Moag (1986) also found that job candidates who were displeased with the outcomes they received (i.e., they were turned down) believed those outcomes to be fairer when the authority figure demonstrated concern for their difficulty than when no such concern was communicated. Thus, it appears that the quality of the interpersonal treatment received is a major determinant of people's assessment of fair treatment (Greenberg, 1990a).

2.7.2 Theories Underlying Procedural Justice

This section deals with the models or theories underlying procedural justice (Jahangir, Haq and Ahmed, 2005).

Self-interest Effect Model

The first models used to explain procedural justice effects are based on the *self-interest effect model* of procedural justice. These models propose that interest in fair procedures is due to a belief that fair procedures lead to favorable outcomes. The self-interest model claims that individuals posit no value for fair procedures independent of their association with fair outcomes. One early example of the self-interest model is Thibaut and Walker's *process control model*. Thibaut and Walker (1975) investigated two types of control that people have in dispute-resolution procedures: the amount of control over procedures used to settle grievances (process control) and the amount of control over determining the outcomes (decision control). They suggested that the distribution of control among

disputants and a third-party decision maker is the key procedural characteristic shaping people's views about the fairness of the procedures and that individuals view procedures as most fair when control is vested in the participants. They then suggested that people prefer procedures that maximize their personal outcomes and that procedural control is perceived as the best means for ensuring the best personal outcome. Thus, the desire for procedural control is related to the desire to achieve a favorable outcome (Tyler, 1994).

Social Exchange Model

Another example of self-interest model of procedural justice is the *social exchange model*. Social exchange theories deal with how people form relationships and how power is dealt within those relationships. Blau (1964) posited that relationship formation is one of the basic problems of social interaction that must be resolved for society to remain stable. Blau contrasted economic exchange with social exchange as the basis for relationships. Social exchange refers to relationships that entail unspecified future obligations. Like economic exchange, social exchange generates an expectation of some future return for contributions; however, unlike economic exchange, the exact nature of that return is unspecified. Furthermore, economic exchange occurs on a calculated basis, whereas social exchange relationships are based on individuals trusting that the other parties to the exchange will fairly discharge their obligations in the long run (Holmes, 1981). This trust is necessary for maintaining social exchange, especially in the short term, when some temporary asymmetries or irregularities may exist between an individual's inducements and contributions to the relationship. According to Blau, trust provides the basis for relationship formation. Trust is a multidimensional construct and includes factors such as an expectation that another party will act benevolently, a belief that one cannot control or force the other party to fulfill this expectation, and a dependence on the other party (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard and Werner, 1998). Although trust is a key element in the emergence and maintenance of social exchange relationships, social exchange theorists have largely ignored the issue of how trust emerges in these relationships (Holmes, 1981). One important source of trust is procedural fairness (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994). In

organizations, managers can have considerable impact on building trust (Naumann and Bennett, 2002; Whitener et al., 1998). Fair treatment by management can create feelings of trust by removing fears of exploitation. Fair treatment by management also demonstrates respect for the rights and dignity of employees, leading to the development of trust (Folger and Konovsky, 1989). This emergent trust is then the engine that propels further positive reciprocation, resulting in the stabilizing of relationships (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994). In addition to stabilizing relationships, procedural justice induced trust also predicts important employee behaviors such as citizenship behavior (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994). Additional procedural justice research is based on the social exchange model. For example, Moorman, Blakely and Niehoff (1998) found that organizational support within a social exchange process mediated the relationship between procedural justice and citizenship behaviour.

Group Value Model

In contrast to procedural justice theories concerned with instrumental results, the *group value model* of procedural justice (Tyler, 1989; Tyler and Lind, 1992) describes factors influencing procedural justice judgments. The group value model stipulates that people value long-term relationships with groups because group membership is a means for obtaining social status and self-esteem. Social status and self-worth are evaluated according to three relational concerns: *neutrality, trust,* and *standing* (Tyler, 1989). Neutrality indicates that an individual is treated without bias. Trust emerges from a decision maker using unbiased procedures. Standing is conveyed when group authorities treat people with politeness, respect for their rights, and dignity (Tyler, 1994). These relational concerns influence judgments of procedural justice. Treatment by group authorities that enhances neutrality, trust, and standing enhances judgments of procedural justice. These processes, in concert, also contribute to the stability of a group.

Leventhal et al. (1980) also addressed the factors that enhance justice judgments. Justice judgment theory proposed several procedural criteria indicating the presence of

procedural justice. These justice judgment rules include, for example, consistency over time, bias suppression, accuracy, correctibility, and representativeness. Leventhal's justice judgment theory contributed greatly to understanding the criteria leading to procedural justice perceptions.

Fairness Heuristic Theory

Fairness heuristic theory also focuses on the relationship between objective fairness and fairness perceptions. The fairness heuristic model focuses on how procedural justice and distributive justice function together to determine fairness perceptions. Furthermore, fairness heuristic theory proposes that individuals are largely uncomfortable with authority relations because they provide opportunities for exploitation. As a result, when individuals must give up some control to an authority, they ask themselves whether the authority can be trusted. Van den Bos and his colleagues argue that individuals do not often have information regarding the trustworthiness of authorities so individuals refer to the fairness of an authority's procedures to determine trustworthiness (Van den Bos, Wilke, and Lind, 1997). If an authority figure treats an individual in a procedurally fair manner, the authority is described as trustworthy and the individual reacts positively to that authority. Thus, procedural justice is not only an antecedent of trust; it can also serve as a substitute for trustworthiness. In addition to procedural justice guiding trust judgments, fairness heuristic theory addresses why procedural justice information can affect judgments of distributive justice. Lind and Tyler (1988) argued that fairness judgments depend more on the order in which an individual receives information. When procedural information is available before outcome information, information about procedures will affect fairness judgments about outcomes. Another component of fairness heuristic theory is that the fairness of outcomes may be more difficult to judge than the fairness of procedures. There is often little or no information available about the outcomes for others. For example, employees typically do not know pay level information for another person. Under these conditions when outcome information is

unavailable, Van den Bos, Vermunt, and Wilke (1997) demonstrated that individuals use procedural fairness to judge the fairness of the outcomes.

The review of the four theories of procedural justice aforementioned reveals several key similarities and differences. First, the theories differ in terms of whether procedural justice and distributive justice judgments are inter-related. For example, the instrumental model asserts that perceptions of distributive justice influence perceptions of procedural justice, while the group value model does not. Second, the theories differ in their emphasis on the relationship between objective fairness and subjective fairness perceptions versus the relationship between subjective fairness perceptions and their consequences. The social exchange models focus on the consequences of procedural justice, while the fairness heuristic model and the group value model focus on the relationship between objective fairness and subjective fairness perceptions. Finally, the role of trust is differently emphasized by each of the theories. Trust is a central explanatory construct in the group value model, for example, but not in the instrumental model. A natural question to ask at this point is which theory really explains procedural justice and its effects? In contrast to the voluminous literature devoted to developing theories of procedural justice, there are only a few studies that compare alternative models of procedural justice. One example is Shapiro and Brett's study (Shapiro and Brett, 1993) comparing instrumental, noninstrumental, and procedural enactment models. This study of the grievance process indicated that each of these procedural justice models accounted for some variance in procedural justice and related perceptions.

Konovsky (2000) suggests that the search for "the best" procedural justice model may be misdirected, as there can be multiple causes of procedural justice judgments. In general, the self-interest model and the group value model have received empirical support. Though there are four models that could be used to interpret how various actions by supervisors could affect employees' procedural justice perceptions (Cropanzao and Greenberg, 1997), it is useful however to consider the employees' perceptions of managers' power use in terms of the self-interest model and the group value model

(Mossholder et al., 1998). Mossholder et al. argued that the self-interest model and the group value model are useful tools in the organizational context to study the employees' perceptions of managers' use of power over employees.

2.7.3 Research in Interactional Justice

As a special case of procedural justice, the concept of interactional justice has recently been proposed (e.g. Bies and Moag, 1986; Lind and Tyler, 1988). Interactional justice refers to the quality of interpersonal treatment an individual receives in the process of a resources allocation. The importance of interactional justice lies in its potential in sustaining human dignity and enhancing self-esteem (Lind and Tyler, 1988). In other words, being treated fairly in social interactions and communications provides individuals with the opportunity to "experience their own dignity" (Lane, 1988). Folger (1988) also conceptualizes justice as dignity and argues that it is an intrinsic human desire to treat others, and to be treated by others, in a just and fair manner.

Research on interactional justice has focused primarily on the identification of the key criteria for fair interactions or treatments in a variety of organizational settings. The criteria identified include "open and honest communications" in recruiter-candidate interactions (Bies, 1986), "sincerity" (Bies, 1987a) and "providing vital information and discussing expectations" in manager-subordinate interactions (Singer, 1993), as well as "seriousness of treatment" in entrepreneur and bank personnel interactions (Koper and Vermunt, 1988). Several recent studies further showed that managerial behavior, indicative of interpersonal sensitivity in interactions with employees, had a "fairness-enhancing effect" one employees' perceptions of the decision making processes (e.g., Brockner, 1990; Greenberg, 1990; Tyler and Bies, 1990). In a study, Harris (2014) concluded that employees who believe that they have been treated with a high level of interactional justice tend to be good organizational citizens, going "above and beyond" to assist others even when they do not have to.

2.8 Employee Work Outcomes

Different perspectives of employee work outcomes have been viewed by previous scholars and researchers (Samad, 2005, 2012). Scholars have referred employees' outcomes in terms of work-related attitudes and behaviors (Greenberg, 1990). Examples are like turnover, absenteeism, performance, organizational commitment, engagement, involvement and job satisfaction. Research evidences also showed that the perceptions of organizational justice are related to critical job-related attitude such as job satisfaction, compliance and productivity. Keashley, Wilson and Clement (1994) found that experiences of hostile organizational behaviours were related to lower job satisfaction and affective job commitment. Further empirical evidence reports that there was a significant relationship between fair treatments at workplace and employees' behaviour (Cobb and Frey, 1996, Fryxell and Gordon, 1989). However, this study focuses on three important components of employee work outcomes mainly ***organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance***.

2.9 Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment

One of the important variables used for the purpose of this study is organizational commitment which acts as an outcome variable of organizational justice. Organizational commitment is one of the basic activities as well as one of the ultimate goals in the efforts of organizations to maintain their existence. The reason for this is that individuals with a high level of organizational commitment are more compatible, satisfied and productive, work with a sense of greater loyalty and responsibility and thus cost less to the organization (Yavuz, 2010).

Organizational commitment is an important issue in today's highly competitive business environment as business firms increasingly rely on their human capital or knowledge workforce to give them a sustainable competitive edge by being able to respond, adapt, or change to keep pace with rapid technological advancements, education advancements, workforce diversity, organizational restructuring, and new ways of doing business (Leow

and Khong, 2009). It refers to the employees' commitment to their respective organizations. It is employees' attitude towards their organizations. It binds employees with their organization thereby they want to continue their membership there. Committed employees are believed to attend work regularly, protect organizational assets, and share organizational goals. Thus, committed employees are the essence of every successful organization because they remain and work for the organization (Gautam, 2003). People have feelings of attachment or commitment toward the organization for which they work. Generally speaking, organizational commitment can be viewed as the level of dedication people possess for their employing organization, the extent to which people are willing to work on the behalf of the organization, and the likelihood that they will continue their organizational membership. Over the last four decades, organizational commitment has been identified as a critical factor in understanding and explaining the work-related behavior of employees in organizations, and many researchers have made efforts to study the construct.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) defined organizational commitment as the psychological attachment an employee feels for his or her organization. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) described organizational commitment as a link or bond between the individual to the organization. Steer (1977) defined organizational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization.

Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) suggested that commitment represents both the affective feelings and the behavioral tendencies that employees have toward the organization. Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) also specifically indicated that the affective response of employees moves beyond passive loyalty and they work with the goals of the organization strongly and desire to remain a part of the organization.

Organizational commitment is also known as *job commitment or employee commitment*. It is the extent to which employees are psychologically connected to their organizations, sustained by continued desires to remain employed in the organization and expressed as emotional feeling, bond, involvement and consideration of alternatives, sacrifices, and

costs due to internal and external influences (Ogba, 2007, cited in Mariam, 2011). Organizational commitment focuses on the employees' emotional attachment and involvement in the organization and its goals. Employees' commitment builds naturally where the participants perceive more important domain for them. In management perspective, employees need to be committed to the organization. If they are not committed towards the organization they may channel their commitment in other domains such as career, hobbies, or volunteer groups, etc. Commitment to one domain might marginalize the commitment in others. Hence, commitment outside the work might have a negative impact on the behavior that might be harmful for the organization (Gautam, 2003).

Organizational commitment has diverse definitions and measures in the scholarly literature. Despite various definitions and measures, organizational commitment share a common theme in that it is recognized to be a bond or linking of the individual to the organization.

Let us review some of the important definitions of organizational commitment that are given by many researchers and authors.

Table 2.8: Definitions of Organizational Commitment

Author(s)	Definitions
Salancik (1977)	Organizational commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization.
Weiner (1982)	Organizational commitment is the totality of normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests.
Morrow (1983)	Organizational commitment entails a high level of identification with an organization's goals and values, willingness to exert extra effort for the benefit of the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986)	Organizational commitment is the physiological attachment felt by the person for the organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes of adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization.
Randall (1987)	Organizational commitment suggests commitment to an institution and institutional goals.
Allen and Meyer (1990)	Organizational commitment is a physiological state that binds the individual to the organization.
Mathieu and Zajac (1990)	Organizational commitment is a bond or linking of the individual to the organization.
Spector (2000)	Organizational commitment is defined as the degree to which the employees feel devoted to their organization.
Hill and Huq (2004, cited in Mariam, 2011)	Organizational commitment focuses on the employees' emotional attachment and involvement in the organization and its goals.
Akintayo and Ayodele (2012)	Organizational commitment or job commitment refers to the degree of identification an individual employee has with the vision and mission statements of an organization.

A research found that employees with high level of organizational commitment have significant contributions to the achievement of the organization under competitive conditions (Feldman and Moore, 1982). Commitment of employees to the organization and using all their skills and expertise for the advancement of the organization concerned is a significance issue. Organizations may have a preference to work with those employees with high level of job commitment. The reason for this is the belief that challenges encountered on the way to reaching goals may be overcome with such employees. Attributes of employees in terms of organizational commitment is the key guide for the success of the business (Uygur and Kilic, 2009).

Aven, (1988) concludes that more often and more consistently committed employees are more likely to engage in the following four behaviors than are non-committed employees:

a.   Committed employees have higher level of participation;

b.   Committed employees for longer periods remain with the organization and make extra contributions for achieving organizational objectives;

c.   Committed employees are more highly involved in their jobs, and

d.   Committed employees exert considerably more effort on behalf of the organization.

Thus, organizational commitment has become one of the most popular work attitudes studied by practitioners and researchers (Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993; Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 2003). One of the main reasons for its popularity is that organizations have continued to find and sustain competitive advantage through teams of committed employees. Meyer, Gellatley, Goffin and Jackson, (2000) have found that committed employees are more likely to remain with the organization and strive towards the organization's mission, goals and objectives.

2.9.1 Components of Organizational Commitment

Commitment of employees to the goal of organization is important to organizational sustainability. Organizational or employee commitment is considered to be multi-dimensional, which has distinct policy implications for human resource management (Robbins and Judge, 2007). It is observed that many studies have been conducted on organizational commitment in recent years (e.g., Meyer and Allen, 1997; Keller, 1997; Hammer and Avgar, 2005, cited in Akintayo and Ayodele, 2012).

Allen and Meyer (1990) conceptualized and proposed a model of organizational commitment that included three components: affective, continuance and normative commitment each with its own underlying 'psychological states'.

FIGURE 2.4: Model of Organizational Commitment

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                              ┌─────────────────┐
                              │    Affective    │
                              │   Commitment    │
                              └─────────────────┘
┌─────────────────┐           ┌─────────────────┐
│  Organizational │───────────│   Continuance   │
│   Commitment    │           │   Commitment    │
└─────────────────┘           └─────────────────┘
                              ┌─────────────────┐
                              │    Normative    │
                              │   Commitment    │
                              └─────────────────┘
```
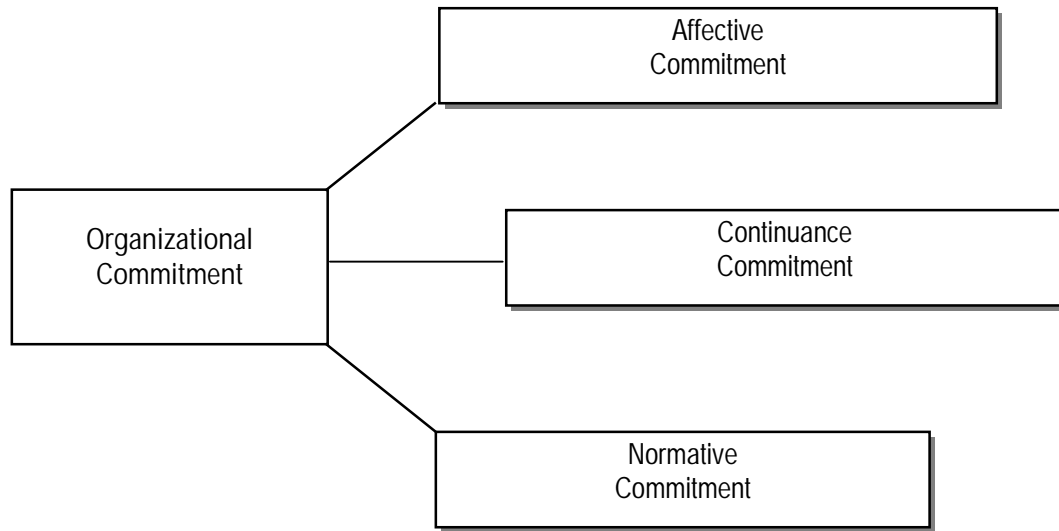
Source: Allen and Meyer (1990)

Affective Commitment

The most prevalent approach to organizational commitment in the literature is one in which commitment is considered an affective or emotional attachment to the organization such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved, and enjoys membership in the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Employees with strong affective commitment remain because they feel they want to (Meyer et al., 1993). When employees have affective commitment, core values will be absorbed easily by employees, which will accelerate the decision-making process (Mowday et al., 1979). Meyer and Allen (1997; 1991) indicated that affective commitment is defined as an employee's positive emotional attachment to the organization. As a result, the employee who is affectively committed will identify with the goals of the organization strongly and desire to remain a part of the organization.

Employees who hold affective commitment attitude are happy to spend rest of their career in their organization. They feel organizational problems as their own and also feel like a part of a family at their organization. They feel emotional attachment to their

organization, perceive great deal of personal meaning of their organization and feel strong sense of belonging to their organization (Gautam, 2003). Employees with strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so.

Let us review some of the important definitions of affective commitment that are given by many researchers and authors.

Table 2.9: Definition of Affective Commitment

Author(s)	Definitions
Kanter (1968)	Affective commitment refers to the attachment of an individual's bond of affectivity and a motion to the group.
Sheldon (1971)	Affective commitment is an attitude or an orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization.
Hall et al. (1970)	Affective commitment is the process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent.
Mowday et al. (1982)	Affective commitment refers to the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization.
Cohen (2003, cited in Mariam, 2011)	Affective commitment refers to a positive affection toward the organization, reflected in a desire to see the organization succeed in its goals and a feeling of pride at being part of the organization.
Hill and Huq (2004)	It focuses on the employees' emotional attachment and involvement in the organization and its goals.
Akintayo and Ayodele (2012)	Affective commitment refers to the emotional bond and the identification the employee has with the organization.

Affective commitment develops on the basis of work experience such as job challenge, degree of autonomy, and a variety of skills which employees find rewarding or fulfilling. These jobs characteristics have been found to be strongly and positively associated to affective commitment but less related to normative and continuance commitment in a study of Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) among employees from a wide variety of organizations. Other factors are communication fairness (Konovsky and Cropanzano, 1991), and participation in decision-making (Kim and Mauborgne, 1993), which are both positively related to affective commitment. Based on the above findings, favorable team climate and organizational culture can be responsible factors in development of affective commitment. This commitment is emotional attachment, sense of belonging, feeling of pride to be a member, and feeling of psychological ownership. For the employees the positives include enhanced feelings of devotion, belongingness, and stability.

Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization (due to the high cost of leaving). Potential antecedents of continuance commitment include age, tenure, career satisfaction and intent to leave. Age and tenure can function as predictors of continuance commitment, primarily because of their roles as surrogate measures of investment in the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

Continuance commitment is the willingness to remain in an organization because of the investment that the employee has with "nontransferable" investments. Nontransferable investments include things such as retirement, relationships with other employees, or things that are special to the organization (Reichers, 1985). It also includes factors such as years of employment or benefits that the employee may receive that are unique to the organization (Reichers, 1985). Meyer and Allen, (1997) further explain that employees who share continuance commitment with their employer often make it very difficult for an employee to leave the organization.

Employees holding continuance commitment feel very hard to leave their organization and also perceive that their life would be disturbed if they decide to leave the organization. They need to stay in organization because they feel that they have too few options to consider leaving the organization. One of the major reasons to continue membership in the existing organization is that leaving would require considerable sacrifice and other organization might not match overall benefits available in the present organization. They feel that if they had not already put so much contribution into their organization they might consider working elsewhere (Gautam, 2003).

Let us review some of the important definitions of continuance commitment that are given by many researchers and authors.

Table 2.10: Definition of Continuance Commitment

Author(s)	Definitions
Becker (1960)	Continuance commitment comes in to being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity.
Kanter (1968)	Continuance commitment refers to the profit associated with continued participation and a "cost" associated with leaving.
Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972)	Continuance commitment is a structural phenomenon, which occurs as a result of individual-organizational transactions and alterations in side bets or investments over time.
Hackett et al. (2001); Mathieu and Zajac, (1990, cited in Mariam, 2011)	Continuance commitment, sometimes termed calculative commitment is commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organization.
Meyer et al. (1993)	Employees with strong continuance commitment remain in the organization because they feel they need to.

Akintayo and Ayodele (2012)	Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain with the organization because they feel they need to do so for material benefits.
Van de Hooff and de Ridder (2004, cited in Omoniyi, and Adedapo, 2012)	Continuance commitment is created by high costs associated with leaving the organization, and creates a feeling of needing to continue employment.

Thus, continuance (economic/calculative) commitment refers to what the employee will have to give up if they have to leave the organization or in other terms, the material benefits to be gained from remaining. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain with the organization because they feel they need to do so for material benefits. Therefore, if the employees believe that fewer viable alternatives are available their continuance commitment will be stronger to their current employer.

Continuance commitment develops as a result of any action or events that increase costs of leaving the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Age and tenure, therefore, can be predictors of continuance commitment (e.g., Ferris and Aranya, 1983). It means that continuance commitment develops among older employees who have longer organizational tenure, although the results are somewhat mixed in this domain and should be interpreted with caution. Based on Becker's (1960) side bet theory, many other factors have been investigated as antecedents of continuance commitment such as employees' number of dependent family members.

Thus, continuance commitment is continued membership in the organization because of two main reasons – first, perceived costs of leaving such as pay, pension, benefits or facilities, and second, due to lack of alternative job opportunities.

Normative Commitment

Employees perceive the organization be on their side and the organization reminds a sense of mutual obligation in which both the organization and the employee feel a sense of responsibility to each other. This type of commitment is frequently referred to in the literature as normative commitment.

Normative commitment is an employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. It is also known as *moral commitment*. It focuses on the right or moral thing to do and concentrates on the obligation and/or moral attachment of employees which is produced by the socialization of employees to the organization's goals and values (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Employees with strong normative commitment remain in the organization because they feel they ought to (Meyer et al., 1993). People holding normative commitment attitude feel obligation to remain with current employer. They feel better not to leave organization even if it was to their advantage. They feel guilty if they would leave their organization and they also believe that the employer organization deserves their loyalty. These employees owe great deal to the organization and do not leave organization because of strong sense of obligation to other colleagues.

Let us review some of the important definitions of normative commitment that are given by many researchers and authors.

Table 2.11: Definition of Normative Commitment

Author(s)	Definitions
Wiener and Gechman (1977)	Normative commitment is that behaviors which are socially accepted behaviors that exceed formal and/or normative expectations relevant to the object of commitment.
Marsh and Mannari, (1977)	It is the commitment employees consider morally to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him or her over the years.

Allen and Meyer (1990)	Normative commitment refers as an employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. It focuses on the right or moral thing to do and concentrates on the obligation and/or moral attachment of employees which is produced by the socialization of employees to the organization's goals and values.
Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, and Sincich (1993)	Normative commitment or moral commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment.
Bakan, Büyükbe e, and Er ahan (2011)	Normative commitment is a feeling of obligation to stay in the organization and continue employment. Therefore, individuals think that they ought to stay with an organization and, thus, they remain by virtue of their belief that it is morally right to do so.
Van de Hooff and de Ridder (2004, cited in Omoniyi and Adedapo, 2012)	Normative commitment designates the feeling of obligation of needing to continue employment.

Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization (Bentein, Vandenberghe and Stinglhamber, 2005). Jaros et al. (1993) argue that the commitment is determined by being obligated to work in the organization, a sense of moral obligation following their parents, who may have been long-term employees of the organization therefore, a sense of duty to belong. Normative commitment develops on the basis of a collection of pressures that individuals feel during their early socialization from family and society (Wiener, 1982). Some of the organizational actions can make a person indebted toward the organization, which can build normative commitment (Gouldner, 1960). Thus, normative commitment is internalized pressure or feeling of obligation to continue employment due to work culture and other social norms. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization (Bentein, Vandenberghe and Stinglhamber, 2005). Study shows that employees with a high level of normative commitment believe they have the duty and responsibility to continue working for their current employer (Aube, Rousseau and Morin, 2007).

2.10 Organizational Justice and Organizational Commitment

There are various factors which affect the commitment of the institutional employees to their institutions. One of these factors is, without doubt, the organizational justice perceptions of the employees. The individuals with a higher organizational justice perception have more job satisfaction, higher performance, which leads to less resignation and as a consequence, they have a higher commitment to their institutions (Bakhshi, et. al, 2009).

The concept of organizational commitment has grown in popularity in the literature of industrial/organization psychology and organizational behavior over the last few decades (Chung, 2001). A study by Jaros (1997) indicates that dozens of studies addressing organizational commitment have been published in recent years in major organizational behavior journals. Much of the interest is due to the idea that organizational commitment is an important part of the employee's psychosocial state because employees who experience high organizational commitment are theorized to engage in many behaviors, such as citizenship activities and high job performance, which are believed to be beneficial for the organization (Chung, 2001). Organizational commitment research has focused on the psychological attachment of workers to their workplaces, the possible factors contributing to their attachment, and the consequences of the attachment (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Brown, 1996). Committed employee behavior is at the heart of human resources management (Mariam, 2011). Organizational justice has been identified as a critical factor for employee commitment to the objectives of the organization (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001). Yilmaz and Tasdan (2009) were of the view that positive perception of organizational justice assists employees to feel as members of the organization which influences their organizational commitment. Suliman and Iles (2000) argued that recognizing employees improves their morale and dedication to be emotionally attached to the organization.

In agreement, Bakhshi et al. (2009) were of the view that when employees perceive that the organization is just in terms of fulfilling its side of the contract, they are more likely to be committed. This implies that employees become continuancely committed to serving the organization. In contrast, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) argued that when employees perceive organizational injustice, they will feel negative continuance commitment and seek to leave or engage in behavior that is detrimental to the organization. Cremer et al. (2005) supported this notion by saying that if unfair procedures are used trust will be low and employees will most likely to show low commitment.

Pearce et al. (2000) in their study found out that procedural justice in form of fair human resource processes is positively related with organizational commitment. Bockerman and Ilmakunnas (2006) were of the view that employees' perception of fairness of pay affects their organizational commitment. Pearce et al. (2000) concurred by saying that procedural justice is associated with employee commitment to the organization. In relation, McKenna (2005) was of the view that by employees participating, being involved and making suggestions in the organization makes them affectively committed to the organization. Paulin, Ferguson and Bergeron (2005) argued that when workplace conditions are supportive and equitable create affective commitment. This is in line with earlier research by Price and Mueller (1986) who argued that treating employees fairly and considering employee needs increases employee commitment. When the supervisor is seen as following fair procedures and fair interpersonal processes, employees are likely to be committed to the organization (Cropanzano, Bryne, Bobocel and Rupp, 2001). Similarly Gilson et al. (2005), were of the view that when organizations adopt HRM practices that employees perceive as fair and considerate, it will be reflected in employees attitude demonstrated in the way they serve customers (Mishra and Mishra, 2010; Tzafrir and Gur, 2007; Wat and Shaffer 2005, cited in Mariam, 2011).

Bakhshi, Kumar and Rani (2009) reported that procedural and distributive justice both were significantly correlated with the organizational commitment of the employees.

Similar results were found by Masterson, Lewis, Goldman and Taylor (2000). They also described that organizational justice is an important forecaster of job satisfaction and employees commitment. Lambert et al. (2005) also established significant positive associations of employees' perceptions of distributive and procedural justice with commitment to the organization. Also Masterson et al. (2000) explained that procedural justice to be a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than distributive justice and this job satisfaction leads to the organizational commitment. Lambert et al. (2005) also argued that perceptions of procedural justice have a greater impact on organizational commitment of employees than perceptions of distributive justice.

Let us review some empirical findings of researches, relating to organizational justice and organizational commitment, which are given below:

Table 2.12: Some Empirical Findings of Organizational Justice and Commitment

Author(s)	Major Findings
Price and Mueller (1986)	Treating employees fairly and considering employee needs increases employee commitment.
Suliman and Iles (2000)	Recognizing employees improves their morale and dedication to be emotionally attached to the organization.
Cohen and Charash (2001)	There is a relationship between distributive justice and organizational commitment.
Cropanzano, Bryne, Bobocel and Rupp (2001)	When the supervisor is seen as following fair procedures and fair interpersonal processes, employees are likely to be committed to the organization.
Chang (2002)	There were positive and significant connections between organizational commitment and distributive and procedural justice.
Cremer et al. (2005)	If unfair procedures are used trust will be low and employees will most likely to show low commitment.
McKenna (2005)	By employees participating, being involved and making suggestions in the organization makes them affectively committed to the organization.

Bockerman and Ilmakunnas (2006)	Employees' perception of fairness of pay affects their organizational commitment.
Yilmaz and Tasdan (2009)	Positive perception of organizational justice assists employees to feel as members of the organization which influences their organizational commitment.
Bakhshi et al. (2009)	When employees perceive that the organization is just in terms of fulfilling its side of the contract, they are more likely to be committed. This implies that employees become continuancely committed to serving the organization.
Turgut, Tokmak, and Gucel (2012)	The employees' perceptions on the fairness of the organizations they work for lead to an increase in their job commitment.
Dehkordi, Mohammadi and Yektayar (2013).	Justice processes play important roles in the organizations and affect the quality of behavior with people in the organizations, their attitudes and commitments to the organization.
Barkhordar (2014)	Organizational justice very effective on organizational commitment. Positive perception of an employee regarding s/he is treated justly might affect her/his emotional reactions. Once employees think that they are treated unfairly, they develop negative feelings towards the organization in which they work. Therefore; increasing the perception of organizational justice of employees will decrease labor turnover, which stands as one of the leading problems, and increase positive attitude towards and commitment to the organization.

2.11 Conceptualization of Job Involvement

The present study anticipates that organizational justice has a positive influence on employees' job involvement. When employees perceive that there is positive organizational justice in their organization, they are likely to internalize the goals and values of their organization as their own which, in turn, may motivate them to become more involved in their jobs.

The definition of job involvement has been conceptualized in many ways, and modified over the past decades due to the complexity of the construct (Robbins, 1996). Researchers debate whether job involvement is a one-dimensional or multi-dimensional concept, as well. Allport (1943) defined it in terms of the degree to which employees participated in their job. The concept is also related, it is asserted, to the degree to which the job met the individual's needs for, for example, prestige and autonomy.

Simply, job involvement refers to a state of psychological identification with work—or the degree to which a job is central to a person's identity. From an organizational perspective, it has been regarded as the key to unlocking employee motivation and increasing productivity. From an individual perspective, job involvement constitutes a key to motivation, performance, personal growth, and satisfaction in the workplace. Job involvement contributes importantly to organizational effectiveness, productivity, and morale by engaging employees deeply in their work and making it a meaningful and fulfilling experience. People become involved in their jobs when they perceive in them the potential for satisfying salient psychological needs (e.g., for growth, achievement, meaning, recognition, and security). Job involvement enhances individuals' work performance by motivating them to exert greater effort and use their creativity to solve problems and work intelligently.

Job involvement is the extent to which one identifies psychologically with one's work (Kanungo, 1982a). This definition implies that a job-involved person sees her or his job "as an important part of his/her self-concept" (Lawler and Hall, 1970), and that jobs

"define one's self-concept in a major way" (Kanungo, 1982a). Job involvement is a belief descriptive of the present job and tends to be a function of how much the job can satisfy one's present needs (Ojo, 2009 cited in Akintayo and Ayodele, 2012).

Job involvement is defined as the degree to which a person psychologically identifies with. It is related with the work motivation that a person has with a job (Bashaw and Grant, 1994; Hackett et al., 2001; McElroy et al., 1995; Blau, 1986; Blau and Boal, 1987). Likewise, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) define job involvement as a belief descriptive of an employee's relationship with the present job. Joiner and Bakalis (2006) suggested that job involvement describes how interested, enmeshed, and engrossed the worker is in the goals, culture, and tasks of a given organization.

Let us review some of the important definitions of job involvement that are given by many researchers and authors.

Table 2.13: Definition of Job Involvement

Author(s)	Definitions
Kanungo (1982a)	Job involvement has been defined as an individual's psychological identification or commitment to his / her job.
Lodahl and Kejner (1965)	Job involvement involves the internalisation of values about the goodness of work or the importance of work in the worth of the individual.
Lawler and Hall (1970)	It is a cognitive state pertaining to an individual's psychological connection to the current job.
Paullay et al. (1994)	Job involvement is the degree to 'which one is cognitively preoccupied with, engaged in, and concerned with one's present job.
Joiner and Bakalis (2006)	Job involvement describes how interested, enmeshed, and engrossed the worker is in the goals, culture, and tasks of a given organization.
Rogelberg (2007)	Job involvement refers to extent in which employees engage in working in an organization. It is the key of motivation and satisfaction.

Thus, job involvement is the internalization of values about the work or the importance of work according to the individual. It may appraise the ease with which a person can be further socialized by an organization. Organizational socialization is the process by which an individual understands the values, abilities, behaviors, and social knowledge indispensable for an organizational role and for taking part in as a member (Ramsey et al., 1995). Job involvement is a belief about one's current job and is a function of how much the job can satisfy one's wishes. Highly job involved individuals make the job a central part of their personal character. Besides, people with high job involvement focus most of their attention on their job (Hackett et al., 2001).

Job involvement is the degree to 'which one is cognitively preoccupied with, engaged in, and concerned with one's present job (Paullay et al., 1994). It involves the internalisation of values about the goodness of work or the importance of work in the worth of the individual (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). As such individuals who display high involvement in their jobs consider their work to be a very important part of their lives and whether or not they feel good about themselves is closely related to how they perform on their jobs. For highly involved individuals performing well on the job is important for their self esteem (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). Because of this people who are high in job involvement genuinely care for and are concerned about their work (Kanungo, 1982b).

The construct of job involvement is somewhat similar to organizational commitment in that they are both concerned with an employee's identification with the work experience. However the constructs differ in that job involvement is more closely associated with identification with one's immediate work activities whereas organizational commitment refers to one's attachment to the organization (Brown, 1996). It is possible for example to be very involved in a specific job but not be committed to the organization or vice versa (Blau and Boal, 1987). Hence, job involvement is generally described as an attachment to one's job that exceeds normal levels of commitment (www.ehow.com). The employee can become so involved with his job that it affects performance in other life role areas.

2.11.1 Categories of Job Involvement

Job involvement is grouped into four diverse categories. These categories are as follows: (Ramsey et al., 1995; Blau and Boal, 1987):

a.   **Work as a central life interest:** In work as a central life interest, job involvement is thought of as the degree to which a person regards the work situation as important and as central to his/her identity because of the opportunity to satisfy main needs.

b.   **Active participation in the job:** In active participation in the job, high job involvement hints the opportunity to make job decisions, to make an important contribution to company goals, and self-determination. Active participation in the job is thought to ease the achievement of such needs as prestige, self-respect, autonomy, and self-regard.

c.   **Performance as central to self-esteem:** In performance as central to self-esteem, job involvement implies that performance on the job is central to his/her sense of worth.

d.   **Performance compatible with self-concept:** In this concept, job involvement refers to the degree to which the individual perceives performance as consistent with his/her existing self-concept. According to Vroom (1962), the self-esteem of someone showing high levels of job involvement would increase with good performance and decrease with poor performance.

2.11.2 Organizational Justice and Job Involvement Research

Organizational justice is in fact necessary to achieve organizational goals (Jenaabadi, 2014). It is concerned with how fairly the organization treats employees in terms of distributing outcomes and making decision for allocation of outputs. Organizational justice has significant impact on employee work outcomes. One of these outcomes is job involvement. Involvement is the concept newly entered to organizational issues and not more than two decades since its advent. Employees engaged in working, usually

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energetic and active; they interact positively with their work and try to do their jobs effectively. Job involvement as an attitude is an important factor helps to increase the effectiveness of the organization (Jenaabadi, 2014).

Job involvement has emerged an important variable in organizational research. It has drawn the attention of management scientist and organizational psychologists. This variable is being studied with different prospective in the organization. It has great importance and significance in organizational development. As an attracting issue for many industrial, organizational, and managerial researchers, job involvement is a feedback related to the work, examined from different aspects. High job involvement is a favorable feature. According to Kanungo (1982a), job involvement has an important role in the psychological identity of the people. The jobs of highly-involved people are intermingled with their identities, goals, and motivations. The personnel may be involved in workplace in reaction to specific environmental features or job situations (Winter and Sarros, 2002); or own a set of needs, values, or qualities which provide the fields for job involvement (Rabinowitz and Hall, 1977).

Researches show that employee involvements in work have a significant effect on an organization's profitability and productivity (Harter et al., 2002). The literatures and researches in this area indicate that employees involved in work affected by several factors personal, professional and organizational (Mello et al., 2008). Among the most important organizational factors that may affect the involvement, are employees' perceptions of fairness in the work environment. This occurs in the context of social exchange theory, in theory, the social exchange, managers/leaders in their relationships with employees in organizations is as an informal trading, according to a psychological contract. When the organization wants to meet the expectations of employees, the employees will meet the expectations of the organization. Including an important expectation that staff is leaders in their organizations, is fair and equitable treatment with them. Employees expect their leaders have fairness and equity behaviors. In this case, they brought in their attempts to be fair to the organization, and more involved theirs in

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work and leave higher performance (Sachs, 2006). Research shows that there is a significant correlation between organizational justice and its dimensions include distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice and job involvement. The involvement of priorities of the predictor variables of job, the results showed that distributive justice and procedural justice have the ability to predict job involvement (Jenaabadi, 2014).

In addition, previous research has examined the relationship between justice types and job involvement. Job involvement is "the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his or her work or the importance of work in his or her total self-image" (Singh and Kumari, 1988). Ahmadi (2011) found a positive relationship of distributive and procedural justice with job involvement. Akintayo and Ayodele (2012) also found a positive relationship of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice with job involvement.

2.12 Conceptualization of Job Performance

Organizations need highly performing individuals in order to meet their goals, to deliver the products and services they specialized in, and finally to achieve competitive advantage. Performance is also important for the individual. Accomplishing tasks and performing at a high level can be a source of satisfaction, with feelings of mastery and pride. Low performance and not achieving the goals might be experienced as dissatisfying or even as a personal failure. Moreover, performance—if it is recognized by others within the organization—is often rewarded by financial and other benefits. Performance is a major—although not the only—prerequisite for future career development and success in the labor market. Although there might be exceptions, high performers get promoted more easily within an organization and generally have better career opportunities than low performers (Van Scotter, Motowidlo, and Cross, 2000).

The meaning of job performance in the field of organizational behavior has changed over the last few decades. There has been a growing realization that job performance is not a

unitary construct. In fact, researches have shifted from a focus on fixed tasks associated with the jobs to encompass a broader perspective in a dynamic organizational context (Ilgen and Hollenbeck, 1991). Traditionally, performance was evaluated in terms of the proficiency with which an individual carried out the tasks that were prescribed in his or her role descriptions (Griffin et al., 2007). This conceptualization is in tandem with those of earlier scholars (such as Katz, 1964; Katz and Kahn, 1978).

Job performance is a commonly used, yet poorly defined concept in industrial and organizational psychology, the branch of psychology that deals with the workplace. It's also part of human resources management (HRM). It most commonly refers to whether a person performs their job well. Despite the confusion over how it should be exactly defined, performance is an extremely important criterion that relates to organizational outcomes and success (Campbell, 1990 and Campbell et al., 1993). Coming from a psychological perspective, Campbell describes job performance as an individual level variable. That is, performance is something a single person does. This differentiates it from more encompassing constructs such as organizational performance or national performance which are higher level variables.

Let us review some of the important definitions of job performance that are given by many researchers and authors.

Table 2.14: Definition of Job Performance

Author(s)	Definitions
Campbell (1990)	Performance is the behavior or people's actions that have an effect on the objectives of the organization. This behavior can be positive or negative and can be either provided as part of the work or outside the scope of the duties set forth.
Ilgen and Schneider (1991); Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit (1997)	Job performance is not defined by the action itself but by judgmental and evaluative processes.

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Campbell et al. (1993)	Job performance is what the organization hires one to do, and do well.
Aquinis (2007)	Job performance is about behaviour or what employees do and not about what employees produce or the outcome of their work.
Khan et al. (2010)	Job performance has been defined as work performance in terms of quantity and quality expected from each employee.

Thus, performance of work, in terms of quantity and quality, expected from each employee is called the job performance. These standards are the foundation for performance evaluation. Performance is about behaviour or what employees do and not about what employees produce or the outcomes of their work (Aquinis, 2007). Job performance is determined by a combination of declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and motivation.

2.12.1 Features of Job Performance

There are several key features to Campbell's conceptualization of job performance which help clarify what job performance means.

a. Performance versus outcomes

First, Campbell (1990) defines performance as behavior. It is something done by the employee. This concept differentiates performance from outcomes. Outcomes are the result of an individual's performance, but they are also the result of other influences. In other words, there are more factors that determine outcomes than just an employee's behaviors and actions.

Campbell allows for exceptions when defining performance as behavior. For instance, he clarifies that performance does not have to be directly observable actions of an individual. It can consist of mental productions such as answers or decisions. However, performance

needs to be under the individual's control, regardless of whether the performance of interest is mental or behavioral.

The difference between individual controlled action and outcomes is best conveyed through an example. On a sales job, a favorable outcome is a certain level of revenue generated through the sale of something (merchandise, some service, insurance). Revenue can be generated or not, depending on the behavior of employees. When the employee performs this sales job well, he is able to move more merchandise. However, certain factors other than employees' behavior influence revenue generated. For example, sales might slump due to economic conditions, changes in customer preferences, production bottlenecks, etc. In these conditions, employee performance can be adequate, yet sales can still be low. The first is performance and the second is the effectiveness of that performance. These two can be decoupled because performance is not the same as effectiveness (Campbell et al., 1970). Another closely related construct is productivity (Campbell and Campbell 1988). This can be thought of as a comparison of the amount of effectiveness that results from a certain level of cost associated with that effectiveness. In other words, effectiveness is the ratio of outputs to inputs—those inputs being effort, monetary costs, resources, etc.

Utility is another related construct which is defined as the value of a particular level of performance, effectiveness, or productivity. Utilities of performance, effectiveness, and productivity are value judgments.

b. Organizational goal relevance

Another key feature of job performance is that it has to be goal relevant. Performance must be directed toward organizational goals that are relevant to the job or role. Therefore, performance does not include activities where effort is expended toward achieving peripheral goals. For example, the effort put toward the goal of getting to work in the shortest amount of time is not performance (except where it is concerned with avoiding lateness).

c. Multidimensionality

Despite the emphasis on defining and predicting job performance, it is not a single unified construct. There are vastly many jobs each with different performance standards. Therefore, job performance is conceptualized as a multidimensional construct consisting of more than one kind of behavior. Campbell (1990) proposed an eight factor model of performance based on factor analytic research that attempts to capture dimensions of job performance existent (to a greater or lesser extent) across all jobs.

The first factor is **task specific behaviors** which include those behaviors that an individual undertakes as part of a job. They are the core substantive tasks that delineate one job from another.

On the other hand, **non-task specific behaviors**, the second factor, are those behaviors which an individual is required to undertake which do not pertain only to a particular job. Returning to the sales person, an example of a task specific behavior would be showing a product to a potential customer. A non-task specific behavior of a sales person might be training new staff members.

Written and oral communication tasks refer to activities where the incumbent is evaluated, not on the content of a message necessarily, but on the adeptness with which they deliver the communication. Employees need to make formal and informal oral and written presentations to various stakeholders in many different jobs in the workplace.

An individual's performance can also be assessed in terms of **effort**, either day to day, or when there are extraordinary circumstances. This factor reflects the degree to which people commit themselves to job tasks.

The performance domain might also include an aspect of **personal discipline**. Individuals would be expected to be in good standing with the law, not abuse alcohol, etc.

In jobs where people work closely or are highly interdependent, performance may include the degree to which a person **helps out the groups and his or her colleagues**. This might include acting as a good role model, coaching, giving advice or helping maintain group goals.

Many jobs also have a **supervisory or leadership component**. The individual will be relied upon to undertake many of the things delineated under the previous factor and in addition will be responsible for meting out rewards and punishments. These aspects of performance happen in a face to face manner.

Managerial and administrative performance entails those aspects of a job which serve the group or organization but do not involve direct supervision. A **managerial task** would be setting an organizational goal or responding to external stimuli to assist a group in achieving its goals. In addition a manager might be responsible for monitoring group and individual progress towards goals and monitoring organizational resources.

2.12.2 Determinants of Job Performance

Campbell (1990) suggested determinants of performance components. Individual differences on performance are a function of three main determinants: declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and skill, and motivation.

Declarative knowledge: It refers to knowledge about facts, principles, objects, etc. It represents the knowledge of a given task's requirements. For instance, declarative knowledge includes knowledge of principles, facts, ideas, etc.

Procedural knowledge and skill: If declarative knowledge is knowing what to do, procedural knowledge and skill is knowing how to do it. For example, procedural knowledge and skill includes cognitive skill, perceptual skill, interpersonal skill, etc.

Motivation: The third predictor of performance is motivation, which refers to "a combined effect from three choice behaviors—choice to expend effort, choice of

level of effort to expend, and choice to persist in the expenditure of that level of effort" (Campbell, 1990). It reflects the direction, intensity, and persistence of volitional behaviors (Dalal, and Hulin, 2008). Campbell (1990) emphasized that the only way to discuss motivation as a direct determinant of behavior is as one or more of these choices.

2.12.3 Job Performance as a Multi-Dimensional Concept

Job performance is a multi-dimensional concept (Sonnentag, and Frese, 2002). On the most basic level, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) distinguish between task and contextual performance. Task performance refers to an individual's proficiency with which he or she performs activities which contribute to the organization's 'technical core'. This contribution can be both direct (e.g., in the case of production workers), or indirect (e.g., in the case of managers or staff personnel). Contextual performance refers to activities which do not contribute to the technical core but which support the organizational, social, and psychological environment in which organizational goals are pursued. This performance includes not only behaviors such as helping coworkers or being a reliable member of the organization, but also making suggestions about how to improve work procedures. Three basic assumptions are associated with the differentiation between task and contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999): (1) Activities relevant for task performance vary between jobs whereas contextual performance activities are relatively similar across jobs; (2) task performance is related to ability, whereas contextual performance is related to personality and motivation; (3) task performance is more prescribed and constitutes in-role behavior, whereas contextual performance is more discretionary and extra-role. Thus, the job performance can be divided in terms of task and contextual (citizenship and counterproductive) performance.

1.   Task Performance

Task performance is an important outcome of organizational justice. It is also known as **in-role performance**. It refers to "those officially required outcomes

and behaviors that directly serve the goals of the organization" (Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke, 2004). It refers to job-specific behaviors including core job responsibilities that are directly related to the organization's purpose. According to Katz (1964); Katz and Kahn (1978), for an organization to function, its members must be able to exhibit dependable role performance, i.e. meet and preferably exceed certain minimal standards. Such role-prescribed work behaviors reflect task performance. According to Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994), task performance comprises two types of behaviors. The first type consists of activities which directly transform raw materials into the goods and services which the organization produces. The second type comprises of activities that serves and maintains the technical core. In other words, when employees use technical skills and knowledge to produce goods or services through the organization's core technical processes, or when they accomplish specialized tasks that support these core functions, they are engaging in task performance (Van Scotter, 2000).

Task performance in itself is multi-dimensional. For example, among the eight performance components proposed by Campbell (1990), there are five factors which refer to task performance (Campbell, Gasser, and Oswald, 1996; Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999): (1) job-specific task proficiency, (2) non-job-specific task proficiency, (3) written and oral communication proficiency, (4) supervision—in the case of a supervisory or leadership position—and partly (5) management/administration. Each of these factors comprises a number of subfactors which may vary between different jobs. For example, the management/administration factor comprises subdimensions such as (1) planning and organizing, (2) guiding, directing, and motivating subordinates and providing feedback, (3) training, coaching, and developing subordinates, (4) communication effectively and keeping others informed. In recent years, researchers paid attention to specific aspects of task performance. For example, innovation and customer-oriented behavior become increasingly important as organizations put greater emphasis on customer service (Anderson and King, 1993; Bowen and Waldman, 1999).

Hence, task performance refers to behaviors that are directly involved in producing goods or service, or activities that provide indirect support for the organization's core technical processes (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Werner, 2000). These behaviors directly relate to the formal organization reward system.

2. Contextual Performance

Contextual performance is defined as individual efforts that are not directly related to their main task functions. It is also known as **extra-role performance**. Contextual performance is another important outcome of organizational justice. This performance in service sector refers to "discretionary behaviors of contact employees in serving customers that extends beyond formal role requirements" (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997). Contextual performance, describes a set of interpersonal and volitional behaviors that support the social and motivational context in which organizational work is accomplished (Aryee et al., 2004). This performance has been further suggested to have two facets: interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. **Interpersonal facilitation** describes interpersonally oriented behaviors that contribute to the accomplishment of the organizational purpose. These include encouraging cooperation, consideration of others, and building and mending relationships. **Job dedication**, on the other hand, describes self-disciplined motivated acts such as working hard, taking initiative, and following rules to support organizational objectives (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996). Contextual performance also captures many of the helping and cooperating elements of organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988).

Researchers have developed a number of contextual performance concepts. On a very general level, one can differentiate between two types of contextual performance: behaviors which aim primarily at the smooth functioning of the organization as it is at the present moment, and proactive behaviors which aim at changing and improving work procedures and organizational processes. The 'stabilizing' contextual performance behaviors include organizational citizenship behavior with its five components altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, courtesy, and sportsmanship (Organ, 1988), some aspects of organizational

spontaneity (e.g., helping coworkers, protecting the organization (George and Brief, 1992) and of prosocial organizational behavior (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986). The more pro-active behaviors include personal initiative (Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, and Tag, 1997; Frese, Garst, and Fay, 2000; Frese, Kring, Soose, and Zempel, 1996), voice (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998), taking charge (Morrison and Phelps, 1999). Thus, contextual performance is not a single set of uniform behaviors, but is in itself a multidimensional concept (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998 cited in Sonnentag, and Frese, 2002).

The increasing interdependence and uncertainty associated with work and organizations have challenged the traditional views of individual job performance (Ilgen and Pulakos, 1999). Although early approaches to job performance have highlighted the need for organizational members to innovatively and spontaneously go beyond prescribed roles to accomplish organizational goals (Katz, 1964; Katz and Kahn, 1978), the full range of behaviors that contribute to effectiveness when systems are uncertain and interdependent are not adequately emphasized (Murphy and Jackson, 1999). Uncertainty in an organizational context occurs when the inputs, processes, or outputs of work systems lack predictability (Wall et al., 2002). According to Burns and Stalker (1961), the existence of uncertainty in the work environment may be attributed to many factors such as increasing competition, changing technology, and evolving customer demands. When the organizational context is more dynamic, it becomes more difficult for task performance alone to be effective. In such situation, there is greater need for role flexibility whereby employees are required to engage in adaptive and proactive behaviors.

Hence, new constructs have emerged that encompass an expanded set of duties and responsibilities. One of such constructs relates to contextual performance, which includes a variety of non-job specific behaviors (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). When employees voluntarily help coworkers who are getting behind, act in ways that maintain good working relationships, or put in extra effort to complete assignment on time, they are engaging in contextual performance (Van Scotter, 2000).

In sum, contextual performance behaviors do not support the technical core itself as much as they support the broader organizational, social and psychological environment in which the technical core must function (Motowidlo, 2000). Therefore, any measure of performance should capture all aspects of behaviors that have value for the organization. Consistent with this principle, classification of the job performance domain into task performance and contextual performance is important. Managers who help employees' progress in their careers and encouraged their professional development, supported subordinates through professional development by providing feedback about performance are likely to stimulate employee job performance.

2.12.4 Relationship between Task and Contextual Performance

Task and contextual performance can be easily distinguished at the conceptual level. There is also increasing evidence that these two concepts can also be separated empirically (e.g., Morrison and Phelps, 1999; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996; Williams and Anderson, 1991). Additionally, task performance and contextual performance factors such as job dedication and interpersonal facilitation contributed uniquely to overall performance in managerial jobs (Conway, 1999).

Moreover, contextual performance is predicted by other individual variables, not only task performance. Abilities and skills tend to predict task performance while personality and related factors tend to predict contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Hattrup, O'Connell, and Wingate, 1998; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994). However, specific aspects of contextual performance such as personal initiative have been shown to be predicted both by ability and motivational factors (Sonnentag, and Frese, 2002).

2.13 Organizational Justice and Job Performance Research

It is widely accepted that organizational justice contributes to employee performance. Organizational justice is concerned with employees' perception of fair treatment by an

organization and its agents (Shalhoop, 2003). It is popularly accepted that organizational justice consists of three constructs: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2001; Masterson et al., 2000). Distributive justice focuses on the fairness of organizational outcomes such as payment and promotion, while procedural justice stresses the fairness of the process by which the outcomes are achieved, that is, the fairness of means and procedures by which the decisions are made. The third construct, interactional justice concerns the interpersonal treatment individuals are given during the implementation of procedures. Since the 1970s, scholars have studied the correlation between organizational justice and employees' sentiments, and attitudes such as job satisfaction (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Masterson et al., 2000), and organizational commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Colquitt et al., 2001; Masterson et al., 2000). The association with the employees' behavior, for example work performance (Konovsky and Cropanzano, 1991), was also examined. In this study, it is shown that job performance was significantly correlated to organizational justice.

Organizational justice's contribution to the employees' work performance has become a focus of justice researchers. Justice improves job performance. As is true for other scholars, we use the term "job performance" to refer to formal job duties, assigned by organizational authorities and evaluated during performance appraisals. Workplace justice predicts the effectiveness with which workers discharge their job duties (Colquitt et al., 2001). As Lerner (2003) observed, justice effects are often strongest in real life. In part, this is because, over time, fairness leads to strong interpersonal relationships. In two studies, Cropanzano, Prehar, and Chen (2002) and Rupp and Cropanzano (2002) examined whether supervisors treated their employees with interactional justice. When they did, the leader and the subordinate had a higher quality relationship. This strong relationship, in turn, motivated employees to higher job performance.

2.13.1 Distributive Justice and Job Performance

Distributive justice is defined as the perceived fairness of the amounts of outcomes employees receives (Greenberg, 1990). Basically, it reflects how significant rewards

(such as compensation) from organized organizational efforts are fairly distributed among employees (Farh et al. 1990; Folger and Konovsky, 1989). The positive relationship between distributive justice and performance may be due to the predictions derived from Adam's (1965) equity theory. The theory posits that human motivation is affected by the outcomes people receive for their inputs, compared to the outcomes and inputs of other people (Pierce and Gardner, 2002). When employees feel that they are being treated unequally, they will restore equity by altering their behaviors, attitudes, or both such as to be less productive or vice-versa (Greenberg, 1990). In other words, unfair distribution of work rewards relative to work inputs creates tension within an individual, which may ultimately results in a reduction in work inputs. Based on Blau's (1964) economic exchange, distributive justice may results in an increased exhibition of in-role task behavior. On the other hand, when employees define their employment relationships as that of a social one, contextual performance may be deemed as an appropriate response to distributive fairness. Findings from past studies in the West have been divided. Some studies (Moorman 1991; Niehoff and Moorman, 1993) find that when two types of justice were measured separately, procedural justice predicts citizenship behaviors but not distributive justice. In contrast, Williams (1999) using an experimental design discovers that distributive justice perceptions are significantly and positively related to task performance. Given the lack of research on the justice-performance relationship in Eastern societies, testing a model linking these variables using a sample of Nepalese employees will be able to address this issue. We expect that there will be similarity in the findings on the positive effect of distributive justice on individual performance as discovered by Western scholars.

Organizational justice's contribution to the employees' work performance has become a focus of justice researchers. Adams' equity theory indicates that an individual can alter his quality and quantity of work to restore justice when he perceives the outcome/input ratio to be unjust (Adams, 1965). Interestingly, some empirical studies have found that individuals decrease their performance to reduce input when they are underpaid, and increase their performance to produce more input when they are overpaid (Adams and

Freedman, 1976; Greenberg, 1982). The equity theory has provided a theoretical explanation to the distributive justice's effect on job performance.

2.13.2 Procedural Justice and Job Performance

Procedural justice is defined as a person's judgments about the fairness of the process of making outcome allocations decisions (Greenberg, 1990). Specifically, procedural justice reflects the extent in which an individual perceives that outcome allocation decisions have been fairly made according to the organization's formal procedures and from the treatment given by the organization's authorities in enacting those procedures (Moorman 1991). Since process issues are equally important to people whenever allocations are made (Tyler, 1987), it is highly likely that procedural justice may have a strong effect on employees' job performance. Organ (1990) opines that perceived procedural fairness alters an employee's relationship with the organization from one of economic exchange to one of social exchange. In social exchange relationships (Blau, 1964), when employees are satisfied with the fairness of procedures, they are more likely to reciprocate by engaging in discretionary behaviors that lie outside of their formal role requirements. These extra-role behaviors relate to contextual performance. Besides, procedural justice is comprised of fair procedures, which include actions such as allowing employees a voice in the decision process, and fair treatment, which is comprised of actions such as providing employees with information justifying the outcome they receive, are thought to increase the probability that the distribution of outcomes will be fair (Williams, 1999). As a result, employees will be more likely to feel satisfied, and subsequently perform their duties as specified in their job descriptions. Some studies (Jin and Shu 2004; Williams 1999) support the positive relationship between procedural justice judgments and task performance. Others also provide empirical evidence for the positive impact of procedural justice on contextual performance (Jin and Shu 2004; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Konovsky and Organ, 1996; Nasurdin and Ramayah, 2003). Based on the aforementioned discussion and findings, it appears that employees' experience of procedural justice may lead to increased job performance.

The relation between procedural justice and performance has been tested by some studies (Earley and Lind, 1987; Konovsky and Cropanzano, 1991; Lind et al., 1990; Masterson et al., 2000), with research findings revealing procedural justice and job performance are correlated. In one study, Aryee et al. (2004) examined the impact of organizational justice on performance from the perspective of organizational politics and procedural justice; they found that a fair environment affects both task and contextual performances.

2.13.3 Interactional Justice and Job Performance

Since organizational practices involve a human factor, which is the behavior of the implementer of the procedures in the organization, interactional justice is assumed to be a branch of procedural justice. In view of the above, qualities such as politeness, honesty and respect, which are the basis of the communication process between the direct organizational authority and employee, are also predicted to be crucial and contributing factors to interactional justice (Bies and Moag, 1986; Tyler and Bies, 1990). Moreover, interactional justice is also related to the employee reactions mentioned in distributive justice and procedural justice which are namely cognitive, affective, and behavioral reactions but these reactions are not directed towards the organizational outcomes nor towards the organization as a whole, but to the direct supervisors of the employees (Bies and Moag, 1986; Cropanzano and Prehar, 1999; Masterson, Lewis-Mcclear, Goldman, and Taylor, 2000). Consequently, it is predicted that an employee will react negatively against the direct supervisor, when he/she perceives any sort of interactional injustice, as opposed to negatively reacting against the organization or the organizational outcome itself (Cropanzano and Prehar, 1999; Masterson et al., 2000).

Of course, the above predictions on interactional justice are considered as true if and only if the employee perceives that the source of injustice is the person implementing the procedures and not the procedures themselves. However, if the employee believes that the person implementing the procedure is part of the procedure, then the employee will perceive procedural injustice (Bies and Moag, 1986).

Interactional justice comes from an employee's supervisor or other organizational agents, which renders it as interpersonal justice; the employee may regard it as an outcome he receives, thus possibly influencing his outcome/input ratio. Therefore, if managers treat employees fairly, these employees will reciprocate through better performance (Wang et al., 2010).

2.14 Empirical Research in Organizational Justice

Various conclusions have been drawn from the available empirical research and literature in the area of organizational justice. As organizational justice studies proliferated, the visibility of fairness concerns has also enhanced and diversified. A large number of studies focused on the effects of organizational justice, including the impact of specific types of justice, and how different types of justice work together to influence employee attitudes and behavior. While the studies concentrated on different specifics, they all highlighted the favorable effects of justice and unfavorable effects of injustice in workplace. In general, studies have found that justice can build trust and commitment, improve performance, foster organizational citizenship behaviors, and, in business organization, strengthen customer satisfaction and loyalty (Cropanzano, Bowen, and Gilliland, 2007).

In a meta-analytic review of organizational justice, Colquitt et al. (2001) found that all three components of justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional justice) predict trust. The correlation between perception of just procedures and trust can be as high as 0.60. In another study, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) found that when employees are justly treated, they are more likely be committed to the organization they serve. The correlation between perceived justice and affective commitment ranged from 0.37 and 0.43 depending on how justice is measured.

Many scholars are concerned about the effects of justice on job performance, which is referred to as the formal job duties assigned by organizational authority and evaluated through periodical performance appraisals (Organ, 1988). Lerner (2003) found that

justice affects employees' effectiveness because the perception of fairness leads to strong interpersonal relationships over time. In two studies examining whether supervisors treated subordinates with interactional justice, researchers observed that interactional justice improved the quality of leader-member relationship, and the positive relationship also motivated employees to have better job performance (Rupp and Cropanzano, 2002; Cropanzano, Prehar, and Chen, 2002).

Several studies have discovered that the perception of justice will influence employee behaviors that go beyond the call of duty, and the behaviors were defined as organizational citizenship behaviors i.e. contextual performance (Organ, 1988). Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) stated that justly treated employees are more likely to comply with organizational policies, show extra conscientiousness, and behave altruistically toward others. Since the organizational citizenship behaviors are beyond the formal duties of employees, it is straight-forward that employees tend to show their OCBs to their organization or individuals when they are treated justly, but withhold them when they are not. In a study on the relationship among the contingent workers, the temporary agency and the organization that contracts with it, researchers discovered that citizenship behaviors toward the organizations in which the workers performed their duties were influenced by the procedural fairness with which the organization treated the workers (Liden, Wayne, Kraimer, and Sparrowe, 2003). In other words, contingent employees who perceived the processes of the contracting organization as just performed significantly more OCBs. Nonetheless, in the study the perceived procedural justice from the employment agency did not have an effect on the employees' OCBs toward the contracting organizations.

As justice can inspire employees to go beyond the call of their formal duties and behave altruistically toward others, it is logical to infer that OCBs will help the organization to meet the needs or mandates of its clients or, more broadly, its stakeholders. Bowen, Gilliland and Folger (1999) conducted research on the impact of perceived justice on customers of an organization, and suggested that the OCBs of justly treated employees

have spill-over effect on customers of the organization. More specifically, they indicated that when employees perceived justice within organization, they would be more willing to help others and listen carefully to the needs of others. When these behaviors resulted in customers feeling appropriately treated, customers' satisfaction and loyalty will be fostered.

When taking into account distributive, procedural and interactional justice all together in predictive models for important organizational outcomes, researchers have paid special attention to the interaction among the three dimensions. Some researchers found evidence for the existence of interaction (Cropanzano, Slaughter, and Bachiochi, 2005; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997) and described that although the three components of justice interact in different ways, the key is that the ill effects of injustice can be at least partially mitigated if at least one component of justice is maintained. Generally speaking, people appear to be reasonably tolerant of a distributive injustice if the procedures for allocation are perceived to be fair; likewise, if the outcomes are regarded as appropriate, a procedural injustice will be tolerated. Similarly, two-way interaction also exists between distributive justice and interactional justice. Specifically, when an unfavorable outcome is assigned via proper interaction with sufficient information and respectful manner, individuals will be more likely to accept it. Conversely, when the outcomes are fair or favorable, people will have greater tolerance for interactional injustice.

A study by Goldman (2003) considered the interaction among all three types of justice together. Goldman found that applicants of workplace discrimination were most likely to pursue legal action when distributive, procedural, and interactional justices were all low. As long as one component of justice remained high, there would be a significant drop in legal claim. In other words, justice perceptions would be most negative when individuals experienced all three types of injustice at the same time. The findings suggest that the organizations should at least get one of the three types of justice right to maintain the positive perceptions of organizational justice in their employees' mind.

Some of important findings regarding researches in organizational justice are summarized below:

Table 2.15: Some Selected Empirical Researches in Organizational Justice

Author(s)	Major Findings
Adams (1965)	Initially he gave notion of equal treatment by stating distributive justice is all about equal treatment of all employees at the workplace, and making sure that they are being paid, within their cadres, according to their work hours as well output.
Greenberg (1987)	Organizational justice reflects through the members view whether they are satisfied with the outcomes or not.
Folger and Konovsky (1989)	They stated about the procedural justice that it concentrates on the equally behavior of the managers in which they make general decisions.
Greenberg (1990)	He suggested that the two aspects of justice have a somewhat different effect on organizational variables depending on their focus. The 'two-factor model' to indicate that both justice dimensions are important, but that they affect different outcome variables. Distributive justice relates more to outcome satisfaction or the evaluation of some final decision concerning somebody personally, than to attitudes about the system.
Tyler, Degoey, and Smith (1996)	They have indicated that fair interpersonal treatment leads to pride and feelings of respect and these, in turn, lead to group-serving behaviors. In addition they have suggested not only does this lead to group identification but also to positive evaluation of the group. Therefore, it appears reasonable to assume that increased perceived fairness, due to fair interpersonal treatment, would be predictive of increased work group performance as judged by a member of the work group.
Meyer and Allen (1997)	Perceptions of fairness also communicate that organizations are committed to their employees.
Cottringer (1999)	He argued that creating and managing fairness is important for work organization because it has an impact on employee attitudes and performance.

Robbins (2003)	Issues such as fair pay, validity of performance appraisals and adequacy of working conditions are judged by employees. In a way, it is to ensure common perceptions and these perceptions are able to influence organization productivity.
Colquitt, Greenberg, and Zapata-Phelan (2005)	Research in the justice literature has linked fair treatment to a number of beneficial employee attitudes and behaviors.
Robbins and Judge, (2007)	Organizational justice is overall perceptions of fairness in all organizational processes and practices are assumed to influence the behavior and work outcomes.
Heslin and Walle (2009)	One important function of performance appraisals is to encourage and guide improved employee performance. If performance appraisals are perceived as unfair however, they can diminish rather than enhance employee attitudes and performance.
Fatt et al. (2010)	They considered the justice climate of the procedural, distributive and interactional and suggested that the provision of training of managers to ensure that all of their employees perceived fair treatment.
Fatt, Khin and Heng (2010)	Employees were more satisfied when they felt they were rewarded fairly for the work they have done by making sure rewards were for genuine contributions to the organization and consistent with the reward policies.
Wang et al. (2010)	They found that – first, the relationship of organizational justice to work performance was mostly indirect, mediated by organizational commitment and LMX. Second, among the three kinds of organizational justice, interactional justice was the best predictor of performance. Lastly, organizational commitment accounted for more of the variance than LMX did in the mediating mechanism.
Nasurdin et al. (2011)	The results demonstrated that distributive justice had a significant and positive relationship with task performance. In a similar vein, procedural justice was found to be significantly and positively related to contextual performance. Age, however, did not moderate the justice-performance relationships.

Akintayo and Ayodele (2012)	The finding of the study revealed that there was a significant influence of organizational justice on job commitment, job involvement and absenteeism behaviour of employees. They suggested that the employees should be involved in planning and implementation of organizational programmes in order to motivate them towards job commitment, job involvement and reduction in absenteeism behaviour.
Moazzezi, Sattari, and Bablan (2014)	There is a positive relationship between organizational justice and its dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice, informational justice) and job performance and its dimensions (context and obligation). There is a weak relationship between the above cases and procedural justice, so to promote employees' job performance in the area of organizational justice and its dimensions.

The above literature review reveals that there is some definite relationship exists between organizational justice and employees' work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance. Hence, present study replicates this relationship in Nepalese setting to explore whether there are consistent results to western results or not.

2.15 Reviews in Nepalese Context

In Nepal very few researches were undertaken in the area of organizational justice. Few researchers attempted this area. However, this section reviews some of the justice perception researches in Nepalese context.

Adhikari and Gautam (2010) argued the government and employers have failed to follow and implement proper mechanism for implementing labour legislations at the organizational level.

Ghimire (2012) concluded that distributive and procedural justice has significant relationship with employee's commitment and retention. Findings implied that the

higher the level of employee's perception towards fairness to the means used to determine outcomes (procedural justice) and fairness of the outcomes employees receive (distributive justice) tended to increase the level of employees' commitment while reduces turnover intention.

Shrestha (2013a) found that regarding the task performance, the result demonstrates that there was no significant relationship between employees' perceptions of distributive justice and procedural justice on their task performance. However, the result showed that, there was significant relationship between interactional justice and task performance. Meanwhile, regarding the contextual performance, there was significant relationship among all three organizational justice dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice and interaction justice) and contextual performance.

Shrestha (2013b) reported that the interactional justice was the more important component in evaluating employee performance appraisal. This can be achieved by improving interactional justice, giving employee greater involvement in the performance appraisal process and also train all the participants who are involved so that they can use the feedback more effectively.

Shrestha (2013c) found that the employees' perceptions on distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice were found moderate, but the results showed that their job performance was high. The results of this study specified that there was positive relationship between the organizational justice and job performance. The results of this study also signified that all perceptions of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice were important for employees but interactional had greatest degree of relationship with job performance.

Shrestha (2015a) concluded that there was a significant positive relationship between organizational justice and employee trust and a significant and positive relationship between organizational justice and employee commitment. In the same

way, the effects of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice on employee trust was found that they all have a positive and significant impact on employee trust and employee commitment.

The above discussions indicate that organizational justice perspectives are separately undertaken for the study in Nepal but relationship and effects of perceived organizational justice on employee work outcomes has not yet been considered. Hence, there is a need to conduct empirical research on relationship and effects of perceived organizational justice on employee work outcomes in Nepalese environmental context.

2.16 Key Aspects of Labour-Related Legislations of Nepal

Labour-related legislations ensure rights of employees. They focus on sound work environment. Some of the labour-related legislations of Nepal and their key aspects are mentioned in the following sections.

2.16.1 Labor Act, 1992

Labour Act, 1992 (as amended in 1998) is concerned with making provisions for the rights, interests, facilities and safety of workers and employees working in enterprises of various sectors. Main provisions of this act are as follows:

1. **Employment and Job Security**
   a. Classification of Job,
   b. Appointment of Worker and Employee,
   c. Prohibition of Engaging Non-Nepalese Citizens at Work,
   d. Engagement in Work,
   e. Computation of period of Works
   f. Appointment in Contract Service,
   g. Change of Ownership shall not Adversely Affect,
   h. Separate Registers of the Workers and Employee to be Kept,
   i. Security of Service,
   j. Keeping on Reserve,

    k.   Retrenchment and reinstatement,

    l.   Seasonal Enterprise

    m. Compulsory Retirement.

2.   Working Hours

    a.   Working Hours

    b.   Computation of Commencement of Working Hour

    c.   Intervals for Refreshment and Rest

    d.   Extra Wages for overtime to be provided

    e.   Attendance Register to be kept

3.   Remuneration

    a.   Minimum Remuneration Fixation Committee

    b.   Annual Increment in Remuneration

    c.   Payment of Remuneration, Allowances and Facilities

    d.   Period of Remuneration

    e.   Prohibition on Deduction of Remuneration

    f.   Petition to be filed in cases a Deduction in Remuneration Made or Delay Caused in Payment or other Facilities not provided or Delay Caused in providing such Facilities in an Undue Manner

    g.   Appeal

4.   Health and Safety

    a.   Provisions Relating to Health and Safety

    b.   Protection of Eyes

    c.   Protection from Chemical Substance

    d.   Provision for Safety against Fire

    e.   Hazardous Machines to be fenced

    f.   In relation to Lifting of Heavy Weight:

    g.   Minor not to be engaged in Works without Adequate Guidelines or of Vocational Training

    h.   Disputes Relating to Age

    i. Pressure Plants

    j. Orders to Provide for Safety

    k. Notice to be provided

    l. Powers to Determine the Standards

5. Welfare Provisions

    a. Welfare Fund

    b. Compensation

    c. Gratuity, Provident Fund and Medical Expenses

    d. Leave

    e. Provision of Quarters

    f. Provisions Relating to Children

    g. Relaxing Room

    h. Canteen

6. Conduct and Punishment

    a. Type of Punishment: The Proprietor may punish any worker or employee performing misconduct with any of the following punishments: To reprimand, to withheld annual grade increments, to suspend, or to dismiss from service

    b. Misconduct

    c. Punishment

    d. Procedures

    e. Department of Labour may dismiss from service

    f. Misconduct of Proprietor or Manager

    g. Punishment for Obstruction to Government Employee

    h. Other Penalties

    i. Quashing of Illegal Acts

    j. Instituting of case and Limitation

    k. Appeal

    l. Realizations of Fines

7.   Settlement of Labour Dispute

    a. Establishment of Labour Court

    b. Proceedings May Be Initiated in Contempt

    c. Procedures Relating to Personal Claims or Complaints

    d. Procedures Relating to Submission of Claims of Collective Dispute

    e. Prohibition to Claim

    f. Notice of Strike to be provided

    g. Lock Out

    h. Prohibition to Strike

    i. Legal Validity of Collective Agreement

    j. Implementation of Collective Agreement

    k. Order may be issued to End the Strike

    l. Termination of Lock-out Period

    m. Remuneration for the Period of Lock-out

    n. Special Provisions for Settlement of Dispute

Mechanism to ensure implementation of provisions

Following are some of the important mechanisms to ensure implementation of major provisions of Labour act, 1992:

- Safety standards

- Punishment measures

- Minimum Wage Fixation Committee

- Appointment of Factory Inspector

- Welfare Officer

- Appellate Court Labor Court Time-to-time

- Inspection and direction from the Labour

- Office and Government of Nepal

Status of Implementation of Labour Act, 1992

Status of implementation of labour act, 1992 has been pointed out as follows (Adhikari, 2005):

- Jobs were not properly classified and graded in more than 90 percent of the manufacturing firms as per the norms of the Act.

- Almost 61 percent factories were not providing appointment letters 77 percent of the organisations have not reappointed as permanent event after completing 240 days.

- 86 percent organisations had no system of advertisement for recruitment 36 percent enterprises have no fixed working hours.

- Only 42 percent of enterprises had implemented minimum wage system as fixed by the Minimum Remuneration Fixation Committee.

- Since many factories were established in existing building and facilities, layouts are not hygienic.

- Leaves were not provided as stated in the Act.

- Only 13 percent organisations had provisions for life insurance and 22 percent have provision for accidental insurance.

- Only 7 percent of the organisations were having Labour Relations Committee Although 41 percent enterprises employed guest workers only 3 percent of these employed on the basis of work permit.

2.16.2 Trade Union Act, 1992 (2049)

Trade Union Act, 1992 is the act made to provide for the management of trade union. Whereas it is expedient to make legal provision regarding registration, operation of Trade Union and other necessary provisions relating to it for the protection and promotion of

professional and occupational rights of the persons engaging in self-employment and the workers working in various industry, trade, profession or service in Enterprises or outside the Enterprises. The key features and provisions of this act are as follows:

1. Formation of enterprise-based unions

2. Duty relating to collective bargaining

3. Presentation of claim

Mechanism to ensure implementation of provisions

Following are some of the important mechanisms to ensure implementation of major provisions of Labour act, 1992:

- Appointment and functions of Registrar

- Special power of Government of Nepal

Status of Implementation of Trade Union Act, 1992

Status of implementation of trade act, 1992 has been pointed out as follows (Adhikari, 2005):

- 60 percent of enterprises created problems in the formation of unions and 35 percent of these were punishing or harassing union activists.

- 29 percent of organizations were still not unionized, 10 percent enterprises ''don't know'' whether they are unionized or not.

2.16.3 Bonus Act, 1974 (2030)

This act regulates the payment of bonus to employees and workers. It specifies:

a. **Bonus Distribution:** The bonus shall not exceed ten percent of the net profit.

b. **Balance Sheet**: The management of each enterprise shall prepare the balance-sheet and the statement of profit and loss of such enterprise pursuant to Company Act, 2063 (2006) and submit it to the Labour Office within six months of the completion of fiscal year.

c. Bonus Determination: The amount of bonus to an individual will depend on the amount of monthly salaries and wages paid, but shall not exceed six month's wages and salaries.

2.16.4 Foreign Employment Act, 2007 (2064)

This act regulates foreign employment. Its major provisions are as follows:

a. Licensing is required to operate foreign employment office.

b. Deposit is needed for opening foreign employment office.

c. Procedure is prescribed for selection of workers for foreign employment.

d. Contracting arrangements have been prescribed.

e. Mechanism for investigation and inspection of documents related to foreign employment has been provided.

The above mentioned information reveals the fact that employers and even government have failed to implement the labour legislations. A number of lapses have been noticed in the implementation of labour laws. Such poor implementation of the law indicates that employees are definitely susceptible towards the behavior of the company and will have negative impact on their performance too. This also clearly illustrates that how Nepalese organizations ensure justice activity in such a situation where they fail to implement given provisions of labour-related legislations and acts.

2.17 Concluding Remarks

This has also presented the theoretical foundations of research. It has also focused on literature related to organizational justice and employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance.

This chapter has also reviewed some available literatures in Nepalese Context as well as some key aspects of labour-related legislations of Nepal.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The preceding chapters presented the main research questions guiding the research as well as a theoretical exploration of the concept of organizational justice and employee work outcomes. The basic objective of this research is to examine whether organizational justice in terms of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice affects the employee work outcomes. This chapter presents the research methodology that is followed to achieve the research objectives.

This chapter begins with a theoretical framework. It also presents a research model and hypotheses. Another section of this chapter deals with research design.

This chapter also describes sources of data, population and sample, administration of the instruments, data collection instruments and measurements, design of questionnaire and variables. Likewise, other sections of this chapter deal with techniques of data analysis, ethical considerations, pilot study of the survey instrument, test of reliability, validity and test of assumptions of regression model.

Finally, this chapter deals with the profile of respondents, relationship between demographic characteristics and demographic backgrounds of participations involved in discussion.

3.2 Theoretical Framework

A growing body of empirical research has examined the relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes. Some of the important researches are: Niehoff and Moorman (1993), Akintayo and Ayodele (2012), Ponnu and Chuah (2010), Aryee, et al. (2002), Ramamoorthy and Flood (2004), Lambert et al. (2007), Bakhshi et al. (2009), Zaman et al. (2010), Ponnu and Chuah, (2010), Najafi et al. (2011) and Akanbi and Ofoegbu (2013). These all researches have studied organizational justice dimension and employee work outcomes dimensions separately. So, in order to examine

relationship and effect of organizational justice on employee work outcomes in Nepalese context, a theoretical framework has been drawn based on previous empirical researches and literature review which are presented in previous chapters.

Following figure 3.1 shows the theoretical framework of the study. This framework links work outcomes of employees in relationship to their justice perceptions.

Mainly, the theoretical framework establishes the relationship between organizational justice perceptions and employee work outcomes such as organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance. This framework also establishes the effects of organizational justice on employee work outcomes.

FIGURE 3.1: Theoretical Framework of the Study
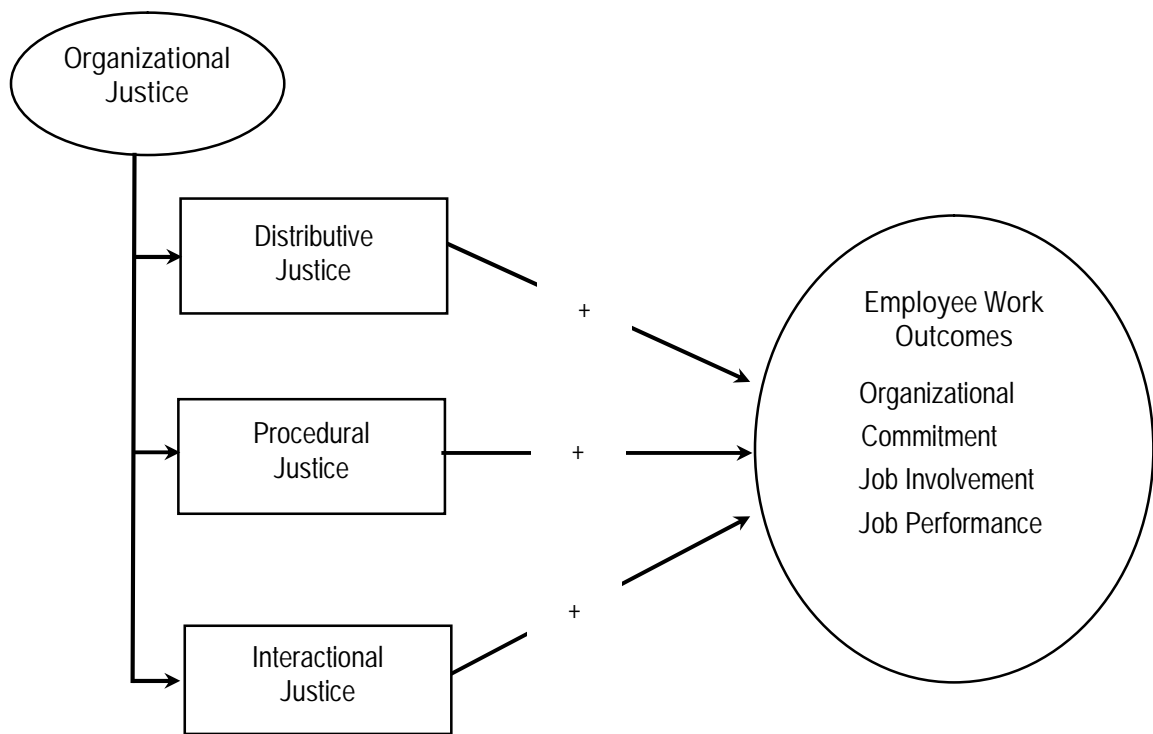
Research Model and Hypotheses

Based on the above theoretical framework following model has been developed for the study.

FIGURE 3.2: Relationship and Effects of Organizational Justice on Employee Work Outcomes
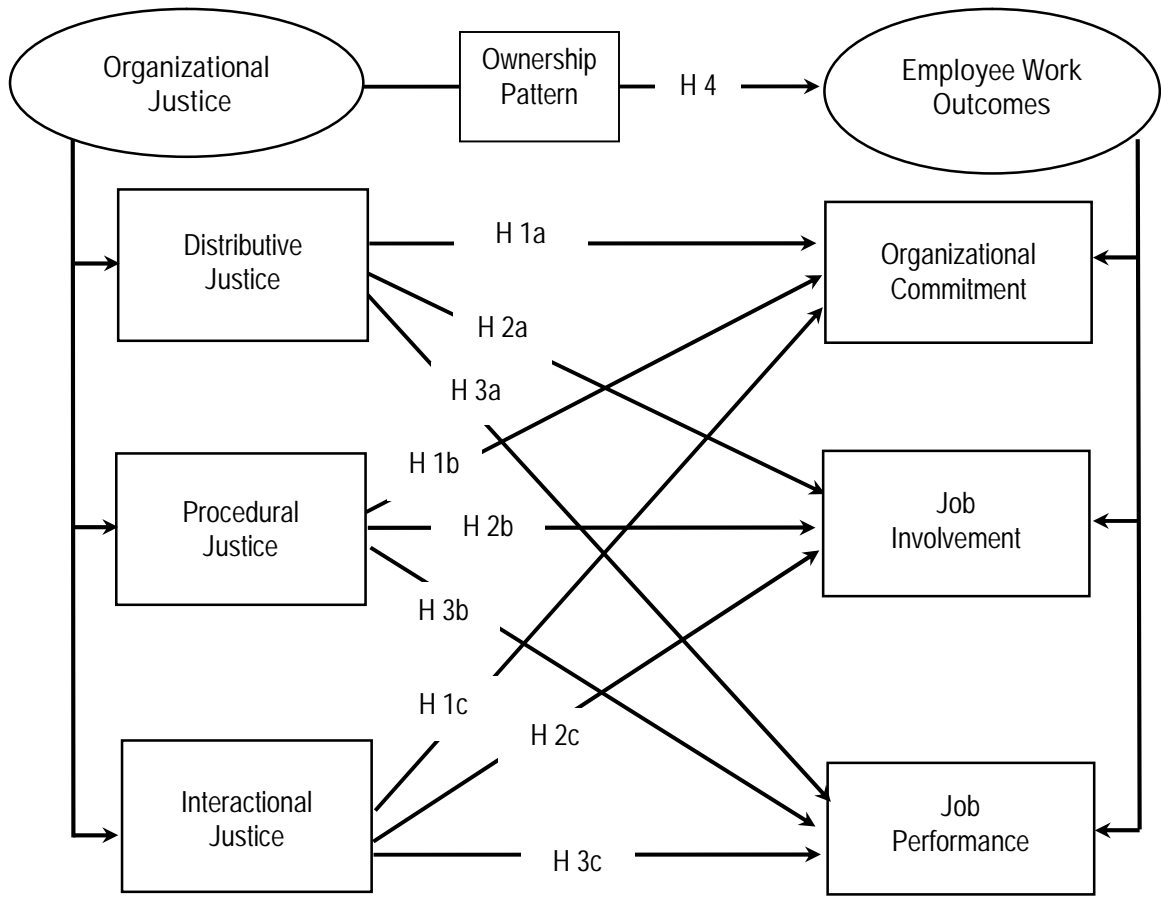
The research model depicted in figure 3.2 suggests organizational justice dimensions such as distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice as the independent variables and employee work outcomes dimensions such as organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance are the dependent variables. The model also suggests that there is significant different between work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) of employees from ownership pattern (i.e. public and private organizations) on the basis of organizational justice.

3.3 Research Design

The present research is based on the opinions collected from the employees working in service sector organizations (mainly from banking sector and insurance sector) of Nepal.

The major objective of the study is to examine the level of organizational justice as perceived by employees of service sector organizations of Nepal. So, a descriptive research design is used as explained in Krishnaswamy, Sivakumar and Mathirajan (2010).

This study covers 18 commercial banks and 6 insurance companies comprising of public (i.e. government and semi-government ownership) and private sector ownership patterns. The research has examined the comparative results of the employees' opinions of public and private organizations. The comparisons of the results of the opinions of respondents based on gender and banking and insurance sectors have also been presented. Hence, the present research also attempts to carry some characteristics of the comparative research design as explained in May (2001) and Heinn et al. (2006).

The instruments used in this study are basically based on the study of Niehoff and Moorman (1993) for organizational justice, Allen and Meyer (1990) for organizational commitment, Kanungo (1982a) for job involvement, and Williams and Anderson (1991) for task performance, Witt and Carlson (2006) and Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) for contextual performance. These are the prominent researchers in the samples of the western countries. This study follows tentatively the same instruments for the measurement of organizational justice and employee work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) in the Nepalese environmental context. It is expected that that there will be similarity in the findings on the positive effect of organizational justice on employee work outcomes as discovered by Western scholars.

In this study, employee work outcomes have been examined as possible contributions of organizational justice. Therefore, employee work outcomes i.e. organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance (both task performance and contextual performance) are dependent variables and organizational justice dimensions such as distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice are considered as

the predictor or contributors of the employee work outcomes. Thus, the organizational justice dimensions have been used as independent variables.

It is presumed that there will be difference between the work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) of employees from public and private organizations on the basis of organizational justice. Therefore, the ownership pattern of organizations both public and private organizations are also considered in this study.

In this study, it is hypothesized that the perceived organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) has positive and significant associations with employee work outcomes. So, it is also presumed that employee work outcomes can be measured from perceptual data collected with the help of questionnaire concerned with organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance (both task performance and contextual performance).

3.4 Sources of Data

This research is mainly based on primary data. The questionnaire survey has been conducted to record the opinions and perceptions of employees with respect to organizational justice, organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance in selected Nepalese banks and insurance companies. The survey has been basically designed to understand the opinions of respondents (i.e. employees) as how they perceive on these matters.

A scientifically prepared questionnaire is used to collect the primary data by considering various factors of demographic characteristics (nature of job, gender, marital status, education, age, job level, work experience and ownership patterns of organizations), organizational justice dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice) and employee work outcomes dimensions such as organizational commitment,

job involvement, and job performance. However, some of the reports and publications of the organizations are also used to strengthen the findings of the study. Likewise, different research articles and journals also are reviewed related with organizational justice and employee work outcomes. Provision of Labour Act, company charter, rules and regulations are also used as supplementary sources of data. Some supportive data are collected through previous records, data, HR manual, policies, library resources, newspapers, business magazines and internet.

During the process of data collection, *some discussions* took place with managers (directors, HR managers, branch managers and department heads) are also utilized as the sources of qualitative data. Such discussions are made to know about the real situations about employees, workplace justice and status of employee outcomes.

3.5 Population and Sample Size

Service sector is one of the important sectors of Nepalese economy. It consists of different types of service industries such as tourism, trade, transportation, financial & consultancy service, entertainment industries, and information & communication (Pant, 2014). These major service industries have a significant place in the national economy. Based on purposive sampling methods, out of service sector organizations mainly financial sector (banking and insurance companies) is taken into consideration for this study. The organizations represent both types of ownership pattern (public and private).

In this study, all the commercial banks registered in Nepal Rastra Bank and insurance companies registered in Insurance Board of Nepal have been considered as population. 30 commercial banks, 27 insurance companies and their employees have been considered as respondents for this study. The total population of respondents, however, is not known.

The total number of sample is 24 organizations incorporating 18 commercial banks and 6 insurance companies.

Regarding commercial banks, presently, 30 commercial banks are in operation in Nepal (MOF, 2015). Among them 3 banks (namely, Nepal Bank Ltd., Rastriya Banijya Bank Ltd. and Agriculture Development Bank Ltd.) are public banks that are selected for this study. Regarding private banks, 15 commercial banks, having at least 5 years of operation from their establishment date, are selected for this study. A detail of sampled organizations from banking sector are presented as below:

Table: 3.1: List of Selected Commercial Banks

Public Commercial Banks (3)	Establishment Date
1. Nepal Bank Ltd.	1937/11/15
2. Rastriya Banijya Bank Ltd.	1966/01/23
3. Agriculture Development Bank Ltd.	1968/01/02
Private Commercial Banks (15)	
1. Prime Bank Ltd.	2007/09/24
2. Global IME Bank Ltd.	2007/01/02
3. Siddhartha Bank Ltd.	2002/12/24
4. Civil Bank Ltd.	2010/11/26
5. Machhapuchhre Bank Ltd.	2000/10/03
6. Citizens Bank International Ltd.	2007/06/21
7. Mega Bank Nepal Ltd.	2010/07/23
8. Grand Bank Nepal Ltd.	2008/05/25
9. Sanima Bank Ltd.	2004/11/26
10. Janata Bank Nepal Ltd.	2010/04/05
11. Prabhu Bank Ltd.	2009/05/07
12. NIC Asia Nepal Bank Ltd.	1996/10/14
13. Nepal Investment Bank Ltd.	1986/02/27
14. Sunrise Bank Ltd.	2007/10/12
15. Century Commercial Bank Ltd.	2011/03/10

Presently, 27 insurance companies (both life and non-life) are in operation in Nepal (MOF, 2015). Regarding insurance sector, only life insurance companies, having at least 5 years of operation from their establishment date, are selected. A detail of sampled life insurance companies from insurance sector are presented as below:

Table: 3.2: List of Selected Insurance Companies

Public Insurance Company (1)	Establishment Date
1. Rastriya Beema Santhan Ltd.	2024/09/01
Private Insurance Companies (5)	
1. National Life and General Insurance Company Ltd.	2044/09/24
2. N.B. Insurance Company Ltd.	2057/10/19
3. Nepal Life Insurance Corporation (Nepal) Limited.	2058/01/12
4. Nepal Life Insurance Company Limited.	2058/01/21
5. Asian Life Insurance Company Limited	2064/10/15

Sample Size Determination of Participations (Employees)

The sample size n is equal to the Z value squared times the true proportion p times 1 minus the true proportion p, divided by the sampling error e squared (Levine, Krehbiet and Berension, 2004; Shrestha and Silwal, 2066).

$$n \quad = \quad \frac{Z^2 \, p \, (1\text{-}p)}{e^2}$$

Where,

n   =   Sample size

Z   =   Significant or critical value (table value of normal distribution at   level of significant

p   =   Population proportion of selecting male

1-p   =   Population proportion of selecting female

e   =   Accepting sampling error

Assuming 95 percent confidence level

Z = Table value of normal distribution at = 5 % level of significant = 1.96

p = Population proportion of selecting male = 50% or 0.50

1-p = Population proportion of selecting female = 1- 0.50 = 0.50

e = Accepting sampling error = 5% or 0.05

Minimum sample size required to this study is given by the following formula.

$$n = \frac{Z^2 \, p \, (1\text{-}p)}{e^2} = \frac{(1.96)^2 \times 0.50 \, (1 - 0.50)}{(0.05)^2}$$

$$= \frac{0.9604}{0.0025}$$

$$= 384.16$$

Since, the minimum sample size of employee is 384 as determined by above formula; at least 800 (i.e. more than double of 384) respondents (employees) are defined as sample that would enable to make a rational estimation and divided equally among both banking and insurance sectors respectively. These respondents are also defined as sample to make more representative and to use for cross-sectional analysis.

3.6 Administration of the Instruments

The instruments are administered by the researcher with the help of friend circle. The researcher explained the purpose of the study and all aspects of the questionnaire to the respondents. The selected respondents are employees working in selected organizations of head offices and branch offices of different parts of the country. They are made to understand that all information being provided would be treated with confidentiality and for the purpose of research only.

In total 840 copies of questionnaires (35 in each of the above mentioned 24 organizations) have been administered and 765 (91.10%) copies that are completely filled and returned are utilized for the purpose of the study. These responses have been collected from head office, corporate office, and branch offices of sampled organizations.

A response rate of about 91.10 percent is considered sufficiently large for statistical reliability. This relatively high response rate attributed to the self-administered approach undertaken in distributing questionnaires and approaching respondents at the various locations.

The sampled organizations, number of distributed and the returned questionnaires and the responses rates are shown in the following table:

Table 3.3: Organizations and Respondents Selected for the Study

	S.N.	Name of Organizations	Patterns of Organizations	Sym	Distributed	Received	% of responses
Banking sector	1.	Nepal Bank Ltd.	Public	A	35	33	94.29
	2.	Rastriya Banijya Bank Ltd.	Public	B	35	31	88.57
	3.	Agriculture Development Bank Ltd.	Public	C	35	35	100
	4.	Prime Bank Ltd.	Private	D	35	32	91.43
	5.	Global IME Bank Ltd.	Private	E	35	35	100
	6.	Siddhartha Bank Ltd.	Private	F	35	34	97.14
	7.	Civil Bank Ltd.	Private	G	35	33	94.29
	8.	Machhapuchhre Bank Ltd.	Private	H	35	35	100
	9.	Citizens Bank International Ltd.	Private	I	35	30	85.71
	10.	Mega Bank Nepal Ltd.	Private	J	35	35	100
	11.	Grand Bank Nepal Ltd.	Private	K	35	28	80
	12.	Sanima Bank Ltd.	Private	L	35	30	85.71
	13.	Janata Bank Nepal Ltd.	Private	M	35	34	97.14
	14.	Prabhu Bank	Private	N	35	35	100

	15.	NIC Asia Nepal Ltd	Private	O	35	32	91.43
	16.	Nepal Investment Bank Ltd.	Private	P	35	34	97.14
	17.	Sunrise Bank Ltd.	Private	Q	35	29	82.86
	18.	Century Commercial Bank Ltd.	Private	R	35	26	74.29
Insurance sector	19.	Rastriya Beema Santhan Ltd.	Public	S	35	35	100
	20.	National Life and General Insurance Company Ltd.	Private	T	35	28	80
	21.	N.B. Insurance Company Ltd.	Private	U	35	31	88.57
	22.	Nepal Life Insurance Corporation (Nepal) Limited.	Private	V	35	29	82.86
	23.	Nepal Life Insurance Company Ltd.	Private	W	35	27	77.14
	24.	Asian Life Insurance Company	Private	X	35	34	97.14
		Total			**840**	**765**	**91.10**

Responses have been received from 445 clerical level employees, 286 supervisory level employees and 34 managerial level employees.

3.7 Data Collection Instruments/Questionnaire and Measurements

The self-administered questionnaires have been distributed to employees working in different service sector organizations of Nepal. Four variables are used in the study to measure the constructs of interest. They include employees' perceptions of organizational justice, organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance. Measures designed to collect demographic information about the employees, including nature of job, gender, marital status, education, age, job level, and work experience in years, and ownership patterns of organizations are also used.

3.7.1 Measurement of Organizational Justice

Organizational justice is measured using the scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993), which is slightly modified to make it clear to Nepalese people. The scale intended to determine distributive, procedural, and interactional justice.

Measurement of Distributive Justice

Perceptions of distributive justice are measured with a 5-item scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). The variables under distributive justice are measured by *work schedule, pay, work load, job responsibilities and rewards*.

Measurement of Procedural Justice

Perceptions of procedural justice are measured with a 6-item scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). They are measured by employees' perceptions toward behaviours of managers that consist of *unbiased manner, dealing with employee concerns, collecting accurate and complete information, clarifying decisions & providing additional information, applying job decisions consistently, and allowing to challenge or appeal job decisions*.

Measurement of Interactional Justice

Perceptions of interactional justice are measured with 9-item scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). The perceptions of interactional justice are

measured by employees' attitudes toward the behavior of their managers such as *kindness and consideration, respect & dignity, sensitive, truthful manner, concern for right, discussion, offering adequate justification, explanations and clarification.*

3.7.2 Measurement of Organizational Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed the organizational commitment scale. The scale is divided into three subdivisions, affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Measurement of Affective Commitment

The perceptions of affective commitment are measured with a 7-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). The variables under affective commitment are measured by *dedicated & devoted, enjoy discussing with others, responsible, dutiful, emotionally attached, personal meaning to organization and strong sense of belonging.*

Measurement of Continuance Commitment

The perceptions of continuance commitment are measured with a 6-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). The variables under continuance commitment are measured by *afraid of quitting job, hard to leave organization, necessity to stay, few options, leaving the available alternatives, considerable personal sacrifice*.

Measurement of Normative Commitment

The perceptions of normative commitment are measured with a 4-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). The perceptions of normative commitment are measured by *loyalty, faithful, promise and career development.*

3.7.3 Measurement of Job Involvement

This measure is based on a 10-item scale developed by Kanungo (1982a). Sample items are: *involvement in present job, job is almost all part of the employee, very much*

involved personally in job, live, eat & breathe with job, centered-interest around job, strong ties with job, attachment, job-oriented goals, job as reason of existence and absorbed in job.

3.7.4 Measurement of Job Performance

Employees' perception of job performance is measured in terms of task performance and contextual performance.

Measurement of Task Performance

The job performance scale developed by Williams and Anderson (1991) is slightly modified and used to assess task performance. The five items used to assess task performance include the degree to which the employee is involved in activities such as *fulfilling responsibilities, completing assigned duties, meeting formal performance requirements of the job, respecting aspects of the job that are obliged to perform and getting success to perform essential duties.*

Measurement of Contextual Performance

Perceptions of contextual performance are measured with an 8-item scale developed by Witt and Carlson (2006) and Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996). The 8 items used to measure contextual performance consist of *positive attitude of employees when dealing with difficult customers and coworkers, sense of control and dignity with demanding people*, *accepting instruction from supervisors without resentment, making people feel good*, *encouraging others, praise co-workers, taking initiative, and tackling difficult assignment.*

English version questionnaires are translated into Nepalese version questionnaire set for greater participation and responses from Nepalese employees. The questionnaires both in English and Nepali version are attached in *appendix A*.

All the items are measured on a six-point Likert-type scale from "disagree totally (1)" to "agree totally (6)".

1   =   Disagree Totally

2   =   Disagree Moderately

3   =   Disagree Slightly

4   =   Agree Slightly

5   =   Agree Moderately

6   =   Agree Totally

However, for the analysis purpose, the value of 3.5 is considered as a cut-off point to indicate the difference between agrees and disagree opinions for each statement. As descriptive statistics, mean and standard deviation (S.D.) are used to analyze the opinions of respondents. Mean value gives the result of average condition of respondents they feel and standard deviation shows the deviation from the average mean of the respondents.

3.8 Design of Questionnaire and Variables

For this study, organizational justice dimensions (such as distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice) are used as independent variables and organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance (both task performance and contextual performance) are used as dependent variables.

The most tools used for data collection are a set of questionnaire. There are six parts of questionnaires that are used for the study. Part one consists of *demographic and career variables*. Part two deals with *organizational justice*. Part three deals with *organizational commitment*. In the same way, part four deals with *job involvement* and part five deals with *job performance*. Similarly, part six consists of the questions used to discuss with managers (directors, HR managers, branch managers and department heads)

about organizational context and on their views regarding workplace justice and employee work outcomes. Table 3.4 shows the description of questionnaire section.

Table 3.4: The Description of Questionnaire's Section

Questionnaire Sections	Descriptions
Part one	This section consists of demographic and career variables such as nature of job, gender, marital status, education, age, job level, work experience in years, and ownership patterns of organizations.
Part two	This section deals with organizational justice that consists of three dimensions such as distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice. This section comprises of 20 items to measure perceived organizational justice that consists of 5 items to measure distributive justice, 6 items to measure procedural justice, and 9 items to measure interactional justice.
Part three	This section deals with organizational commitment that consists of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. This section consists of 17 items to measure organizational commitment that consists of 7 items to measure affective commitment, 6 items to measure continuance commitment and 4 items to measure normative commitment.
Part four	This section deals with job involvement based on a 10-item scale developed by Kanungo (1982a).
Part five	This section deals with job performance that consists of task performance and contextual performance. This section comprises of 13 items to measure job performance that consists of 5 items to measure task performance and 8 items to measure contextual performance.

Part six	This section consists of the questions used to discuss with managers (directors, HR managers, branch managers and department heads) about organizational context and on their views regarding workplace justice and employee work outcomes.

3.8.1 Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is "the individuals' perception on whether the gains they earned are distributed fairly. Employees make judgments on justice distribution by comparing their outcome to their previous outcomes or to the outcomes of others. In this study, perceptions of distributive justice are measured in terms of work schedule, pay, work load, job responsibilities and rewards. The following table presents the items and statements that are used to measure perceptions of distributive justice:

Table 3.5: Items for Distributive Justice

Items	Distributive Justice Scale
Work schedule	1. My work schedule is fair.
Pay	2. I think that my level of pay is fair.
Work load	3. I consider my work load to be quite fair.
Job responsibilities	4. I feel that my job responsibilities are quite fair.
Rewards	5. Overall the rewards I receive here are quite fair.

3.8.2 Procedural Justice

Procedural justice concerns the fairness of the processes by which a decision is reached. It refers to the fairness issues concerning the methods, mechanisms, and processes employed to determine outcomes.

The following table presents the items and statements that are used to measure perceptions of procedural justice:

Table 3.6: Items for Procedural Justice

Items	Procedural Justice Scale
Unbiased manner (Lack of bias)	1. Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner.
Dealing with employee concerns (Voice)	2. My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before Job decisions are made.
Collecting accurate and complete information (Accuracy)	3. To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information.
Clarifying decisions and providing additional information	4. My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.
Applying job decisions consistently (Consistency)	5. All jobs decisions are applied consistently to all affected employees.
Allowing to challenge or appeal job decisions (Correctability)	6. Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their managers.

3.8.3 Interactional Justice

Interactional justice is related to the quality of relationships between individuals within organizations. It refers to perceptions concerning the way managers or authorities treat their subordinates, and how these subordinates respond to these perceptions. The following table presents the items and statements that are used to measure perceptions of interactional justice:

Table 3.7: Items for Interactional Justice

Items	Interactional Justice Scale
Kindness & consideration	1. Manager treats me with kindness and consideration.
Respect and dignity	2. Manager treats me with respect and dignity.
Sensitive	3. Manager is sensitive to my personal needs.
Truthful manner	4. Manager deals with me in a truthful manner.
Concern for right	5. Manager shows concern for my right as employee.
Discussion with the implications of decisions	6. Concerning decisions made about my job, the manager discusses with me the implications of the decisions.
Offering adequate justification	7. The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.
Explanations	8. Manager offers explanations that make sense to me.
Clarification	9. The manager explains very clearly any decisions made about my job.

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3.8.4 Affective Commitment

Affective commitment refers to an employee's desire to remain attached to an organization and work to help accomplish its goal. It is an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. It refers to a positive affection toward the organization, reflected in a desire to see the organization succeed in its goals and a feeling of pride at being part of the organization. The following table presents the items and statements that are used to measure perceptions of affective commitment:

Table 3.8: Items for Affective Commitment

Items	Affective Commitment Scale
Dedicated and devoted	1. I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
Enjoy discussing with others	2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
Responsible	3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
Dutiful	4. I do feel like 'part of family' at this organization.
Emotionally attached	5. I do feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.
Personal meaning to organization	6. I have a great deal of personal meaning to this organization.
Strong sense of belonging	7. I do feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.

3.8.5 Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment is the commitment which is based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organization. The following table presents the items and statements that are used to measure perceptions of continuance commitment:

Table 3.9: Items for Continuance Commitment

Items	Continuance Commitment Scale
Afraid of quitting job	1. I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.
Hard to leave organization	2. It would very be hard for me to leave this organization right now, even if I wanted to.
Necessity to stay	3. Right now, staying with this organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
Few options	4. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

Leaving the available alternatives	5. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the leaving the available alternatives.
Considerable personal sacrifice	6. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

3.8.6 Normative Commitment

Normative commitment refers to the employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. The following table presents the items and statements that are used to measure perceptions of normative commitment:

Table 3.10: Items for Normative Commitment

Items	Normative Commitment Scale
Loyalty	1. I do believe that person must always be loyal to his/her organization.
Faithful	2. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave this organization.
Promise	3. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.
Career development	4. Things are better on the days when people stay with one organization for most of their career development.

3.8.7 Job Involvement

Job involvement refers to the extent in which employees engage in working in an organization. Job involvement is the psychological identification with one's job. The following table presents the items and statements that are used to measure perceptions of job involvement:

Table 3.11: Items for Job Involvement

Items	Job Involvement Scale
Involvement in present job	1. The most important things that happen to me involve my present job.
Job is almost all part of the employee	2. My job is almost all part of who I am.
Very much involved personally in job	3. I am very much involved personally in my job.
Live, eat and breathe with job	4. I live, eat, and breathe my job.
Centered-interest round job	5. Most of my interests are centered around my job.
Strong ties with job	6. I have very strong ties with my present job that would be very difficult to break.
Attachment	7. Mostly I feel attached to my job.
Job-oriented goals	8. Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.
Job as reason of existence	9. I consider my job to be very central to my existence.
Absorbed in job	10. I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.

3.8.8 Task Performance

Task performance refers to the behaviors that are directly involved in producing goods or service, or activities that provide indirect support for the organization's core technical processes. These behaviors directly relate to the formal organization reward system. The following table presents the items and statements that are used to measure perceptions of task performance:

Table 3.12: Items for Task Performance

Items	Task Performance Scale
Fulfilling responsibilities	1. I fulfill responsibilities specified in job description.
Completing assigned duties	2. I adequately complete assigned duties.
Meeting formal performance requirements of the job	3. I meet formal performance requirements of the job.
Respecting aspects of the job	4. I respect aspects of the job that are obliged to perform.
Success to perform essential duties	5. I am successful to perform essential duties.

3.8.9 Contextual Performance

Contextual performance refers to the individual efforts that are not directly related to their main task functions. However, these behaviors are important because they shape the organizational, social, and psychological contexts serving as the critical catalyst for task activities and processes. The following table presents the items and statements that are used to measure perceptions of contextual performance:

Table 3.13: Items for Contextual Performance

Items	Contextual Performance Scale
Positive attitude when dealing with difficult customers and coworkers	1. I maintain a positive attitude when dealing with difficult customers and coworkers.
Sense of control and dignity	2. I maintain a sense of control and dignity with demanding people.
Accepting instruction from supervisors without resentment	3. I accept instruction from supervisors without resentment.
Making people feel good	4. I hope things to make people feel good about themselves or the work group.
Encouraging others	5. I encourage others to overcome their differences and loneliness.
Praise co-workers	6. I praise co-workers when they are successful.
Taking initiative	7. I take an initiative to solve a work problem.
Tackling difficult assignment	8. I tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically.

3.9 Techniques of Analysis

To achieve the pre-determined objectives, this research has used the descriptive statistical tools such as frequencies, mean, standard deviation to assess the status of organizational justice and status of employee work outcomes in Nepalese service sector organizations.

Correlation coefficient and regression are used as statistical tools. Correlation analysis is used to show the relationship among the variables under this study. Regression analysis has been done to test the causal effect involving dependent and independent variables. Mainly, regression models are used to examine the effect of organizational justice on employee work outcomes individually and in overall. To prove the assumptions of

regression model, Kolmogorov Smirnov test is used for normality test and multicollinearity is tested using collinearity statistics (VIF). Factor analysis including Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO and Bartlett's Test) is used to reduce the set of variables. Some of the inferential statistics such as Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and paired 't' test are used to analyze the data.

3.10 Ethical Considerations in the Study

The researcher observed and abided by the three major areas of ethical concern, ethics of data collection and analysis, treatment of human subjects, and the ethics of responsibility to society (Reese and Fremour, 1984, cited in Raymond and Mjoli, 2013). To successfully conduct the study, several ethical issues are addressed during the process of collecting data.

Firstly, permission to carry out the study in the designated organizations was sought from respective senior managers. The researcher also obtained informed consent from the participants through the covering letter; all responses were treated as confidential; and the respondents as anonymous.

Secondly, the researcher informed the respondents orally of their right to acceptance or withdrawal from participation in the research at any point in time during the research.

Finally, the researcher, to the best of his ability, ensured that no harm happen any of the respondents, their employer, their families or anyone else that may have had anything to do with the study.

3.11 Pilot Study of the Survey Instrument

A pilot study was conducted to determine the clarity and readability of the questionnaire, and to test the internal reliability of the measures. Questionnaires were distributed to 70 employees of two organizations (Nepal Bank Ltd. and National Life and General Insurance Company Ltd.) in Kathmandu. 50 questionnaires were returned, with a

response rate of 71.43%. The demographic statistics of the employees are presented in Table 3.14.

Table 3.14: Demographic Characteristics of Pilot Study (N = 50)

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Pattern of Organization		
Public	25	50
Private	25	50
Total	**50**	**100**
Nature of Job		
Permanent	41	82
Contract	9	18
Total	**50**	**100**
Marital Status		
Married	34	68
Unmarried	16	32
Total	**50**	**100**
Education		
High School/SLC	4	8
Certificate (+ 2)	9	18
Bachelor	10	20
Masters	27	54
Total	**50**	**100**
Age		
Under 20	3	6
21 - 34	37	74
35 - 44	1	2
45 - 54	7	14
55 and above	2	4
Total	**50**	**100**

Job Level (Designation)		
Clerical Level	37	74
Officer Level	11	22
Executive Level	2	4
Total	**50**	**100**
Work experience (in years)		
0 - 4 years	34	68
5 - 9 years	6	12
10 - 19 years	1	2
20 - 29 years	7	14
30 years and above	2	4
Total	**50**	**100**

Tests of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) were conducted to assess the reliability of each of the scales used. All of the measures included in the questionnaire showed adequate levels of internal consistency reliability. The internal reliability for the measures ranged from 0.79 for the measure of normative commitment to 0.93 for the measure of distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, affective commitment, continuance commitment, job involvement, task performance and contextual performance. Table 3.15 reports the descriptive statistics for the measures used, including mean, standard deviation, and internal consistency reliability for each measure.

Table 3.15: Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates for Pilot Study (N=50)

Variables	Mean	S.D.	Alpha
Distributive Justice	4.50	0.10	0.93
Procedural Justice	4.40	0.18	0.91
Interactional Justice	4.52	0.10	0.87
Affective Commitment	4.91	0.40	0.87
Continuance Commitment	4.64	0.15	0.88
Normative Commitment	4.57	0.35	0.79
Job Involvement	4.88	0.13	0.88
Task Performance	5.25	0.13	0.85
Contextual Performance	5.10	0.23	0.89

The initial draft of the questionnaire was reviewed at the study site to ensure the face validity and readability of the scale items. The questionnaires were also prepared in Nepali. Therefore, the *Nepali version* gave respondents a clearer understanding of the questions.

3.12 Test of Reliability

Reliability implies demonstrating that the operations of a study, such as the data collection procedures can be repeated with the same results (Miles and Huberman, 1994). It indicates the degree to which measurement scores are free of random errors and ensures consistent measurement across time and items in the instruments. The style of measures in a study determines which types of reliability analysis could be performed in order to examine the psychometric properties of the instruments. Stability and internal consistency are the two methods for assessing the reliability (Zikmund, 1997; Sekaran, 2006).

3.12.1 Stability Test

Stability test refers to the consistency of measurement results across time. It can further be classified as *test-retest and parallel form reliability*. Test-retest is an estimation method for reliability that involves the use of same scale or measure to the same respondents at the two separate times to test stability (Zikmund, 1997). Parallel form reliability is an estimation approach based on the relation of two similar types of the forms of the items. Both forms have similar items and the same format for the response, the only changes is made in the wordings and the sequence of the questions (Sekaran, 2006).

On the one hand, there are several problems associated with the stability test like test retest method is very sensitive to the time interval and long the time interval between the measurements, the lower the reliability (Zikmund, 1997). Thus this method is not applicable to this study because researcher have limited time frame for the data collection procedure. On the other hand, problem with parallel form reliability test is that it is very

had to develop various constructs with producing the same meaning in the field of organizational behaviour. It is even more time consuming and costly too. So, it is impracticable to use in this research.

3.12.2 Internal Consistency Test

Internal consistency estimates the reliability by measuring homogeneity of items in the measure (Zikmund, 1997; Sekaran, 2006). This consistency is also known as internal construct reliability or internal reliability. In this the Cronbach's Alpha is used to assess the reliability (internal consistency) of all constructs: distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance (both task performance and contextual performance). According to Nunnally (1978) the minimum acceptable level of Cronbach's alpha is 0.70 and above.

The extraction factor values (Chronbach alpha) to make sure that the degree of stability of an instrument of the study- are between (0.82 – 0.95). These values are acceptable for the purposes of this study as higher than the minimum and stability of (0.70).

The following table 3.16 shows the summary of variables, the number of items used for measuring each variable and reliability coefficient for each variable. In measuring organizational justice, three dimensions are used such as distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Numbers of item measured for each variable are 5, 6 and 9 items, while the cronbach alphas are 0.92, 0.91 and 0.94 respectively. For organizational commitment, three dimensions are used, which are affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Numbers of item measured for each variable are 7, 6 and 4 items, while the cronbach alphas are 0.88, 0.92 and 0.82 respectively. In the same way, the cronbach alpha of job involvement is 0.94. For job performance, mainly two dimensions are used, which are task performance and contextual performance. Numbers of item measured for each variable are 5 and 8 items, while the cronbach alphas are 0.93 and 0.95 respectively.

Table 3.16: Reliability Coefficients for the Variables of the Study (N=765)

Variables	Number of Items	Number of items Discarded	Cronbach Alpha
Independent Variable:			
Organizational Justice	**20**	0	**0.93**
Distributive Justice	5	0	0.92
Procedural Justice	6	0	0.91
Interactional Justice	9	0	0.94
Dependent Variable:			
Employee Work Outcomes			
Organizational Commitment	**17**	0	**0.90**
Affective Commitment	7	0	0.88
Continuance Commitment	6	0	0.92
Normative Commitment	4	0	0.82
Job Involvement	**10**	0	**0.94**
Job Performance	**13**	0	**0.95**
Task Performance	5	0	0.93
Contextual Performance	8	0	0.95

The cronbach coefficient for organizational justice, organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance are 0.93, 0.90, 0.94 and 0.95 respectively. The cronbach coefficients for the entire variables show value above than 0.70. Sekaran (2006) highlights that the higher the coefficients, the better the measuring instrument. Therefore, it can be concluded that the collected data are 'goof fit' for the study. In summary, the instruments used to measure each variable in this study are reliable enough and provide useful results.

3.13 Validity

Validity is the degree to which a measure does what it is intended to do (Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999). Thus, in order to be valid, the instrument should be suited to the

purpose for which it is used. Validation of an instrument demands empirical investigations, with the nature of evidence required based on the type of validity (Nunnally, 1978). Literatures suggest various validation procedures such as content validity, predictive validity, concurrent validity and construct validity (Copper and Schindler, 2006). Out of those procedures, content validity and construct validity have been selected in this research.

3.13.1 Content Validity

Content validity is established by the degree to which a measure reflects the content of the domain under study (Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999). The measure will be content valid if the items on the instrument are representative of what is being measured (Copper and Schindler, 2006).

This study investigates employee responses to the various dimensions of organizational justice and employee work outcomes. In this case, the content validity of the statements in the questionnaire is established in a logical manner with the help of a subject specialist.

Firstly, it is ensured that the dimensions of organizational justice and employee work outcomes, as identified in the literature review, are broadly covered.

Secondly, the statements are reviewed to ensure that they are pitched at a comprehensive level of language and used terms appropriate to the selected organizations.

3.13.2 Construct Validity

Construct validity is established during the analysis of the data (Zikmund, 1997). It implies the empirical evidence generated by a measure is consistent with the theoretical logic about the concepts. For this purpose, *factor analysis* can be used to assets the degree to which items is measuring the same concepts or variables (Copper and Schindler, 2006). Thus, this section presents the factor analysis results for the key study variables. Factor analysis is found to be the most popular method for determining construct validity.

For the purpose of this study, principal components analysis (PCA) has been used. It is used to find the combination of variables such that the maximum variance is extracted from the variables. Then PCA with varimax rotation is used to determine the interrelationships among the items used to measure organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional justice), organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance (task and contextual performance).

Statistic information is observed to verify the appropriateness of factor analysis. One of them is Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. According to Hair et al. (1998), the minimum acceptable value of KMO is 0.50 or above. Besides that, the Bartlett's test of sphericity should produce a significant chi-square value. Next, in deciding on the number of factors to extract several criteria are used. One of them is the latent root criteria. Using this criterion only factors having latent roots or eigen values greater than 1 are considered significant. Besides that, the theory pertaining to the certain variable is also considered in determining the number of factors to be extracted. With regard to the factor loading, according to Hair et al. (1998) loading of ± 0.50 and above is preferable.

3.13.2.1 Factor Analysis for Independent Variables

Organizational Justice

Factor analysis results for the independent variable, *organizational justice* is shown in the table 3.17.

Table 3.17: Rotated Component Matrix

S. N.	Organizational Justice	Factors			Communalities
		Interactional Justice	Procedural Justice	Distributive Justice	
1	My work schedule is fair.			0.75	0.85
2	I think that my level of pay is fair.			0.86	0.81
3	I consider my work load is quite fair.			0.87	0.79
4	I feel that my job responsibilities are quite fair.			0.71	0.81
5	Overall the rewards I receive here are quite fair.			0.83	0.74

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6	Job decisions are made by the manager in an unbiased manner.		0.73		0.65
7	My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.		0.86		0.78
8	To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information.		0.91		0.84
9	My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.		0.77		0.71
10	All jobs decisions are applied consistently to all concerned employees.		0.77		0.73
11	Employees are allowed to appeal about job decisions made by their managers.		0.92		0.86
12	Manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	0.52			0.59
13	The manager treats me with respect and dignity.	0.78			0.74
14	The manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	0.66			0.52
15	The manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	0.86			0.78
16	The manager shows concern for my right as employee.	0.85			0.80
17	Concerning decisions made about my job, the manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	0.64			0.63
18	The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	0.87			0.83
19	The manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	0.85			0.80
20	The manager explains any decision made about my job very clearly.	0.87			0.82
	Extracted variance	6.32	4.93	3.81	15.07
	% of total variance extracted	31.60	24.67	19.10	75.37

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
KMO (0.79) and Bartlett's Test (chi-square was 19302.91) (p=0.000)

The findings of this analysis indicates that KMO measure of sampling adequate has a value of 0.79, and the Bartlett sphericity test is significant (chi-square = 19302.91, p<0.000). From the analysis, three components are extracted with Eigen value above 1. The first component is labeled as '***interactional justice***'. It is operationalzed as a part of interpersonal communication. In this component, there are nine items starting from 12 to 20 which have been used to measure this construct. The variance explained in these items is 31.60 percent.

Second component is '***procedural justice***'. It is measured using six items whereby from the item 6 to 11, this construct is operationalized as the fairness of the organizational procedures that are used to make decisions. The variance explained by this scale is 24.67 percent.

The third is labeled as '***distributive justice***' and is measured by five items whereby from the item 1 to 5. This scale measures the employees' perception on fairness outcome that organization should provide to them. The variance explained by this scale is 19.10 percent.

3.13.2.2 Factor Analysis for Dependent Variables

Organizational Commitment

Table 3.18 shows the factor loadings for the ***organizational commitment*** scales. The findings of this analysis indicates that KMO measure of sampling adequate has a value of 0.78, and the Bartlett sphericity test is significant (chi-square = 14281.94, p<0.000).

Table 3.18: Rotated Component Matrix

S. N.	Organizational Commitment	Factors			Communalities
		Continuance Commitment	Affective Commitment	Normative Commitment	
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.		0.85		0.72

2	I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it.		0.85		0.84
3	I really feel as if problems of this organization are my own.		0.68		0.79
4	I do feel like 'a part of the family' in my organization.		0.93		0.88
5	I do feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.		0.91		0.92
6	I have a great deal of personal meaning to this organization.		0.88		0.89
7	I do feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization.		0.87		0.81
8	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	0.72			0.59
9	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	0.80			0.70
10	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	0.92			0.84
11	I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization.	0.79			0.68
12	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the leaving the available alternatives.	0.87			0.78
13	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	0.84			0.73
14	I do believe that person must always be loyal to his/her organization.			0.58	0.38

15	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave this organization.			0.69	0.62
16	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.			0.82	0.67
17	Things are better on the days when people stay with one organization for most of their career development.			0.69	0.73
	Extracted variance	6.30	4.25	2.04	12.59
	% of total variance extracted	37.03	25.20	12.20	74.43

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

KMO (0.78) and Bartlett's Test (chi-square was 14281.94) (p=0.000)

Three factors are emerged. Factor one include 6 items and accounts for 37.03 percent of total variance. This is labeled '*continuance commitment*'. The 7 items are loaded on to second factor i.e. *affective commitment*, which explains 25.20 percent of variance and 4 items loaded on to third factor i.e. *normative commitment*, which explains 12.20 of total variance.

Job Involvement

Table 3.19 presents the factor analysis results for the dependent variable, *job involvement*. The findings of this analysis indicates that KMO measure of sampling adequate has a value of 0.85, and the Bartlett sphericity test is significant (chi-square = 7967.57, p<0.000). The 10 items loaded on to this factor, which explains 66.50 percent of variance.

Table 3.19: Component Matrix

S.N.	Variable	Job Involvement	Communalities
1	The most important thing that happens to me is to involve in present job.	0.55	0.30
2	My job is almost all part of who I am.	0.684	0.47
3	I am very much involved personally in my job.	0.889	0.79
4	I live, eat, and breathe with my job.	0.751	0.56
5	Most of my interests are centered around my job.	0.839	0.70

6	I have very strong ties with my present job that would be very difficult to break.	0.908	0.82
7	Mostly I feel attached to my job.	0.89	0.79
8	Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.	0.906	0.82
9	I consider my job is to be very central to my existence.	0.812	0.66
10	I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.	0.85	0.72
	Extracted variance	6.65	
	% of total variance extracted	66.50	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
KMO (0.85) and Bartlett's Test (chi-square was 7967.57) (p=0.000)

Job Performance

In this section, a principle component analysis with varimax rotation has been conducted on all 13 items in order to measure the *job performance*. The following table 3.20 shows the results of factor analysis of job performance. A principal component analysis is performed using varimax rotation with Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO). The findings of this analysis indicate that KMO measure of sampling adequate has a value of 0.89, and the Bartlett sphericity test is significant (chi-square = 13171.5, p<0.000).

Table 3.20: Rotated Component Matrix

| S.N. | Job Performance | Factors | | Communalities |
		Task Performance	Contextual Performance	
1	I fulfill responsibilities specified in job description.	0.79		0.72
2	I adequately complete assigned duties.	0.91		0.84
3	I meet formal performance requirements of the job.	0.68		0.79
4	I respect aspects of the job that are obliged to perform.	0.80		0.88
5	I am successful to perform essential duties.	0.81		0.92
6	I maintain a positive attitude when dealing with difficult customers and coworkers.		0.76	0.89
7	I maintain a sense of control and dignity with demanding people.		0.81	0.81
8	I accept instruction from supervisors without resentment.		0.70	0.59

9	I hope things to make people feel good about themselves or the work group.		0.85	0.61
10	I encourage others to overcome their differences and loneliness.		0.84	0.55
11	I praise co-workers when they are successful.		0.85	0.48
12	I take an initiative to solve a work problem.		0.63	0.41
13	I tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically.		0.83	0.34
	Extracted variance	6.51	3.96	10.47
	% of total variance extracted	50.04	30.45	80.49

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
KMO (0.89) and Bartlett's Test (chi-square was 13171.5) (p=0.000)

Based on factor analysis, two factors are emerged. Factor one includes 5 items and accounts for 50.04 percent of total variance. This is labeled '**task performance**'. The 8 items are loaded on to second factor i.e. **contextual performance**, which explains 30.45 percent of variance.

3.14 Test of Assumptions of Regression Model

To test the hypotheses in perceptual data, regression model can be used if the data is normally distributed and no multicollinearity (Sheehan, Cooper, Holland and Cieri, 2007). Burns and Burns (2008) have suggested that test of normality and multicollinearity is essential to use regression model for data analysis. Therefore, this section presents the results of test of normality and test of multicollinearlity.

3.14.1 Test of Normality

One of the key assumptions of regression model is normality of data. Normality of data is essential to have a correct prediction of dependent variable by the independent variables (Burns and Burns, 2008). Sheehan, et. al. (2007) claimed that test of normality of data is essential for testing hypothesis using regression model and normality can be tested through scatter graphs and Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. So, in this study, normality of

data is tested using Kolmogorov-Simirnov. The results of the test are given in the following table:

Table 3.21: Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test (K-S test)

	N	Normal Parameters (a,b)		Most Extreme Differences			Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	S.D	Absolute	Positive	Negative		
Distributive Justice	765	22.5150	2.96601	0.207	0.207	-0.198	5.725	0.000
Procedural Justice	765	26.0536	3.79804	0.242	0.170	-0.242	6.695	0.000
Interactional Justice	765	39.2000	5.46507	0.153	0.153	-0.135	4.220	0.000
Affective Commitment	765	34.4170	4.35349	0.177	0.094	-0.177	4.892	0.000
Continuance Commitment	765	26.8797	4.19001	0.115	0.098	-0.115	3.183	0.000
Normative Commitment	765	18.1948	2.58215	0.184	0.184	-0.137	5.092	0.000
Job Involvement	765	47.7582	6.34875	0.132	0.116	-0.132	3.645	0.000
Task Performance	765	25.8484	2.72674	0.243	0.243	-0.224	6.723	0.000
Contextual Performance	765	40.9490	4.71311	0.188	0.188	-0.140	5.190	0.000
a. Test distribution is Normal.								
b. Calculated from data.								

Above table shows that Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test (K-S test) test confirms that the data is normally distributed at 1% level of significance. Therefore, it is claimed that the data is normally distributed and parametric test can be used in such normally distributed data.

3.14.2 Test for Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is an intriguing and common property of data, having the consequences for estimation and inference in the respect of unreliable estimation results, high standard errors, and coefficients with wrong signs. The problem of multicollinearity or high degree

of correlation among factors in the model of study cannot be solved easily. The effect of multicollinearity results in the reduction of the efficiency of the coefficient estimates (Lauridsen and Mur, 2006). In addition, multicollinearity can refer to the inclusion of additional variables, which raise the collinearity of independent variables (or predictors) to an unfavorable level. This unfavorable condition is of concern in two cases.

First, it is the case when the additional variables closely correlate with one or more linear combination of the variables existing in the equation or model.

Second, it is when the additional variables contribute relatively little to the prediction in spite of what is provided by the variables already in the model of study. The normal cutoff for multicollinearity is at VIF <10 or tolerance value > 0.10 (Katsikea et al., 2005; Hair et al., 2010).

From the table below, the results show that the data in this study has shown no multicollinearity, as no data has a tolerance value lower than 0.1 or a VIF higher than 10. The tolerance value has a range of 0.62 (lowest) to 0.83 (highest). The range of the VIF is from 1.20 to 1.62

Table 3.22: Collinearity Statistics

Variables	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Distributive Justice	0.72	1.38
Procedural Justice	0.83	1.20
Interactional Justice	0.62	1.62

Note: Dependent variables are Employee Work Outcomes

On the other hand, another way to assess the possibility of multicollinearity among study variables is to perform correlations. In this section, correlations among study variables are derived to know about the condition of multicollinearity.

Correlations among independent variables are observed as well. Correlation exceeding 0.80 can be indicative of problems (Hair et al., 1998). Table 3.23 shows that the correlations of variables are less than 0.80. Therefore, there are no multicollinearity problems.

Table 3.23: Correlations among Study Variables

Variables	DJ	PJ	IJ	AC	CC	NC	JI	TP	CC
Distributive Justice	1								
Procedural Justice	0.29*	1							
Interactional Justice	0.25**	0.39**	1						
Affective Commitment	0.48**	0.41**	0.56**	1					
Continuance Commitment	0.68**	0.19**	0.24**	0.30**	1				
Normative Commitment	0.56**	0.42**	0.55**	0.29**	0.72**	1			
Job Involvement	0.49**	0.48**	0.69**	0.59**	0.19**	0.05	1		
Task Performance	0.42**	0.40**	0.54**	0.49**	-0.13**	-0.10**	0.68**	1	
Contextual Performance	0.48**	0.42**	0.64**	0.60**	-0.43	-0.05	0.71**	0.69**	1

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From all of the measurements discussed above, all measures show adequate evidence for reliability and validity, and the constructs, including observed variables, have appropriate characteristics and could be used for further analysis.

3.15 Profile of the Respondents

A total of 840 copies of questionnaires have been distributed. In total, 765 questionnaires are returned, comprising a response rate of 91.10%. This section presents the profile of the respondents with regard to demographic characteristics such as nature of job, gender, marital status, education, age, job level, and work experience in years, and ownership pattern of organizations. The details of these demographic characteristics are discussed in this section:

3.15.1 Nature of Job

All the respondents are the employees who are either having the permanent or contract employment status in their organizations.

Table 3.24: Nature of Job

Nature of Job	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Permanent	668	87.3	87.3
Contract	97	12.7	100
Total	**765**	**100**	

Table 3.24 presents the profile of the respondents with regard to nature of job. Most of the respondents are permanent or full-timers (87.30%) and 12.70% respondents have contract employment status.

3.15.2 Gender

Gender of the respondents is taken one of the demographic characteristics. It constitutes the male and female of the respondents. Table 3.25 shows the details of gender of the respondents represented from the selected organizations.

Table 3.25: Gender of Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	388	50.7	50.7
Female	377	49.3	100.0
Total	**765**	**100**	

The table 3.25 shows about equal size of male and female as the workforce in selected organizations of Nepal. The percentage of males is 50.7% and the percentage of females is 49.3%.

3.15.3 Marital Status

Marital status of the respondents is also taken as a demographic characteristic. It constitutes the married and unmarried. The following table shows the details of marital status of the respondents represented from the selected organizations.

Table 3.26: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Married	598	78.2	78.2
Unmarried	167	21.8	100.0
Total	**765**	**100**	

The above table shows that 78.2 % of the respondents are married and only 21.8% are unmarried or single status.

3.15.4 Education

Education level of respondents is also one of the important demographic variables. The following table shows the details of education level of the respondents represented from the selected organizations.

Table 3.27: Education

Education	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
High School/SLC	30	3.9	3.9
Certificate (+ 2)	44	5.8	9.7
Bachelor	146	19.1	28.8
Masters	538	70.3	99.1
M.Phil	5	0.7	99.7
Ph. D	2	0.3	100.0
Total	**765**	**100**	

It is found that 3.9 percent of respondents have obtained high school/SLC level education, 5.8 percent of respondents have obtained Certificate (+2) level education, 19.1 percent have bachelor level, 70.3 percent have a Master's Degree, 0.7 percent have M.Phil degree and 0.3 percent have Ph.D. degree.

3.15.5 Age

Age distribution of respondents is also one of the demographic characteristics. One of the important experiences about human behaviour in the human life cycle is that when age of the respondents increases their perception and idea become more perfect and practicable. Therefore, age distribution of respondents is designed as the important demographic characteristic.

Age distribution of respondents varied across the five categories as illustrated in the table 3.28.

Table 3.28: Age Distribution of Respondents

Age Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Under 20	37	4.8	4.8
21 - 34	541	70.7	75.6
35 - 44	73	9.5	85.1
45 - 54	78	10.2	95.3
55 and above	36	4.7	100
Total	**765**	**100**	

Above table reveals different facts in relation to age distribution of the respondents. There are 37 (4.8 percent) respondents whose ages are below 20 years. Moreover, the largest group of respondents is between the ages of 21 and 34 years (70.7 percent). Similarly, 73 (9.5 percent) respondents belong to the age group of 35 to 44 years, 78 (10.2 percent) of respondents belong to the age group of 45 to 54 years. A considerably lowest percentage is older than 55 years (4.7 percent).

3.15.6 Job Level/Designation

Respondents are grouped into three major job levels, namely managerial level, supervisor/officer level and clerical level. These levels incorporated the occupational levels such as:

Managerial Level

This level of management consists of senior management such as general managers and area managers.

Supervisor/Officer Level

This level of management consists of professionally qualified, specialists, middle management, HR managers, department heads, and branch managers.

Clerical Level

This level of management consists of junior management and semi-skilled and unskilled employees who do not have direct reports.

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The details of job level or designation of the respondents are presented in the table 3.29:

Table 3.29: Job Level (Designation)

Job Level (Designation)	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Managerial Level	34	4.44	100.00
Supervisor/Officer Level	286	37.39	95.56
Clerical Level	445	58.17	58.17
Total	**765**	**100**	

The sample comprised mostly employees at clerical level (58.17 percent) level. The supervisor (officer) level made up 37.39 percent of the sample and the executive level 4.44 percent as shown in the above table 3.29.

3.15.7 Work Experience (in years)

Work experience is also one of the most important demographic characteristics in this study because when employees become experienced their working ability, efficiency and skills become more productive. In this study, work experience of the respondents is categorized in five groups, i.e. 0-4 years, 5-9 years, 10-19 years, 20-29 years and 30 years and above. The details of work experience of respondents are presented in the following table 3.30:

Table 3.30: Work experience (in years)

Work experience (in years)	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0 - 4 years	378	49.41	49.41
5 - 9 years	213	27.84	77.25
10 - 19 years	69	9.02	86.27
20 - 29 years	75	9.80	96.08
30 years and above	30	3.92	100.00
Total	**765**	**100**	

With regard to work experience or length of employment, majority of the respondents (49.41 percent) have 0 - 4 years experience. The second largest groups of respondents have 5-9 years of experience, they are 213 respondents and they cover 27.84 percent of the total. Moreover, 69 respondents have 10-19 years work experience and they occupy 9.02 percent. Likewise 75 respondents have 20-29 years work experience and they occupy 9.8 percent of total respondents. Only 3.92 percent of total respondents have 30 years and more experience in their job.

3.16 Relationship among Demographic Characteristics used in the Study

This section focuses on relationship among different demographic characteristics used in the study. Therefore cross tabulations among these demographic characteristics are compiled.

3.16.1 Cross Tabulation between Gender and Job Level

The cross tabulation between gender and job level is presented in table 3.31.

Table 3.31: Cross tabulation between Gender and Job Level (Designation)

			Job Level (Designation)			Total
			Clerical Level	Supervisor (Officer) Level	Managerial Level	
Gender	Male	Count	152	219	17	**388**
		% of Total	20%	30%	2%	**51%**
	Female	Count	293	67	17	**377**
		% of Total	40%	10%	2%	**49%**
Total		**Count**	**445**	**286**	**34**	**765**

At the clerical level the males constitute 20 percent and females 40 of the total respondents. Males constitute 30 percent and females 10 percent at the supervisor (officer) level management. Equal size of male and female constitute at managerial level.

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3.16.2 Cross Tabulation between Gender and Age

The cross tabulation between gender and age distribution is presented in table 3.32.

Table 3.32: Cross tabulation between Gender and Age

			Age					Total
			Under 20	21 - 34	35 - 44	45 - 54	55 and above	
Gender	**Male**	Count	0	266	42	59	21	**388**
		% of Total	0	3%	5%	8%	3%	**51%**
	Female	Count	37	275	31	19	15	**377**
		% of Total	5%	4%	4%	2%	2%	**49%**
Total		**Count**	**37**	**541**	**73**	**78**	**36**	**765**

Out of total respondents, 37 (5 percent) are female with age of below 20 years. 3 percent of male and 4 percent of female respondents belong to the age group of 21-34 years, 5 percent of male and 4 percent of female respondents belong to the age group of 35 to 44 years, 8 percent of male and 2 percent of female respondents belong to the age group of 45 to 54 years and 3 percent of male and 2 percent of female respondents belong to the age group of 55 years and older.

3.16.3 Cross Tabulation between Gender and Nature of Job

The cross tabulation between gender and nature job is presented in table 3.33.

Table 3.33: Cross tabulation between Gender and Nature of Job

			Gender		Total
			Male	Female	
Nature of Job	**Permanent**	Count	358	309	**667**
		% of Total	47%	40%	**87%**
	Contract	Count	30	68	**98**
		% of Total	4%	9%	**13%**
Total		**Count**	**388**	**377**	**765**

With regard to gender and nature of job, majority of the permanent respondents are male (47 percent). In terms of contract, majority of the respondents are female (9 percent).

3.16.4 Cross Tabulation between Job Level and Age

The cross tabulation between age and job level is presented in table 3.34.

Table 3.34: Cross tabulation between Job Level (Designation) and Age

			Age					Total
			Under 20	21 - 34	35 - 44	45 - 54	55 and above	
Job Level (Designation)	**Clerical Level**	Count	37	372	15	19	2	445
		% of Total	4.80%	48.60%	2%	2.50%	0.30%	58.20%
	Supervisor Level	Count	0	165	58	58	5	286
		% of Total	0	21.60%	7.60%	7.60%	0.70%	37.40%
	Managerial Level	Count	0	4	0	1	29	34
		% of Total	0	0.50%	0	0.10%	3.80%	4.40%
Total		**Count**	**37**	**541**	**73**	**78**	**36**	**765**

Employees on clerical level are mostly aged between 21 to 34 years (48.60 percent). Employees at supervisor level are spread between ages of 21 to 34 years (21.60 percent), 35 to 44 years (7.60 percent), 45 to 54 years (7.60 percent), and older than 5 years (0.70 percent). Managerial level employees are mostly aged 55 years and above (3.80 percent).

3.17 Demographic Backgrounds of Participants involved in Discussions

During the research data collection process, 24 managers (HR managers, branch managers and department heads) representing their organizations have been involved in discussions about situations of workplace organizational justice and employee work outcomes.

Each participant is first requested to provide information about their demographic background. Table 3.35 presents a summary of this information.

Table 3.35: Demographics of Participants in Semi-structured Discussions

S.N.	Position Title	Years in the Current Position	Organization
1.	HR manager	15 years	Organization A
2.	HR manager	11 years	Organization B
3.	Department head	14 years	Organization C
4.	Branch manager	5 years	Organization D
5.	HR Manager	6 years	Organization E
6.	HR manager	9 years	Organization F
7.	HR manager	7 years	Organization G
8.	Branch manager	8 year	Organization H
9.	Branch manager	7 years	Organization I
10.	HR manager	5 years	Organization J
11.	HR manager	9 years	Organization K
12.	Manager	4 years	Organization L
13.	HR manager	6 years	Organization M
14.	Manager	3 years	Organization N
15.	Department head	9 years	Organization O
16.	Branch manager	8 years	Organization P
17.	Manager	6 years	Organization Q
18.	Branch manager	6 years	Organization R
19.	Manager	12 years	Organization S
20.	Manager	9 years	Organization T
21.	HR Manager	7 years	Organization U
22.	Department head	11 years	Organization V
23.	Manager	8 years	Organization W
24.	Manager	5 years	Organization X

These managers provided their important opinions regarding human resources (employees), organizational justice and employee work outcomes (in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) in their respective organizations.

3.18 Concluding Remarks

This chapter has provided an introduction to the research methodology phase of this research study. The theoretical framework, research design, sources of data, population and sample, administration of the instruments, data collection instruments and measurements, design of questionnaire and variables, techniques of data analysis, ethical considerations, pilot study of the survey instrument, test of reliability, validity and test of assumption of regression model are described in this chapter. The profile of respondents and relationship among demographic characteristics are also presented. Some demographic backgrounds of participants involved in discussions are also presented at the end of this chapter.

In the coming chapters, the results of the empirical study have been reported. These results have been interpreted and discussed in the light of the literature review presented in the previous phase of this study.

Chapter 4

Perceived Organizational Justice in Nepal

4.1 Background

This chapter deals with Nepalese socio-cultural and organizational context to present the real life situation in Nepalese setting. It mainly deals with perceived organizational justice in Nepal. The perceived organizational justice is based on the collected data according to the objectives of the study. This chapter also deals with perceived organizational justice in terms of ownership pattern, gender basis and sector-wise. It also deals with some opinions of Nepalese managers and employees about the perceived organizational justice and employee behaviour in Nepalese work setting.

4.2 Nepalese Socio-cultural Context

Nepal is a landlocked country with a total population of 26.4 million. The number of households is 4.3 million. Male is 48.6% and female is 51.4% – almost half-and-half. Of the total population, about 43% is in hills and 6.73% is in mountains and 50.27% in Terai. In terms of ecological distribution of population, Central region has more than 35% population. The growth rate of population is 1.35% (CBS, 2012).

People of Nepal speak different languages in different regions and communities. Nepali is the language of the nation under the Constitution of the Country. Nepal has 123 languages. Some of the major languages are Nepali, Newari, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu, Tamang, Rai, Gurung, Sherpa, Dotel, Urdu, Marwadi, Rajbansi, Dhimal, Limbu, etc. (CBS, 2012).

Nepal has a multi-cultural population–that is, a population made up of many different ethnic and racial groups. Religion occupies an integral position in Nepalese life and society. People belonging to different religions live in Nepal. The main religions are: Hinduism, Buddhism, Muslim, Kirant, Christianity, Jainism, etc. These religions command the faith of a substantially large Nepalese population. Majority portion of population (around 81.3%) follow Hindu religion. Likewise, out of total population of the country, there are 9% Buddhist, 4.4% Muslims, 3% Kirant, 1.4% Christian in terms of

religion (CBS, 2012). However, cross-cultural influences are increasing in Nepalese society. Traditional cultural values and norms are changing (Adhikari and Shrestha, 2015).

There are some studies in Nepal that highlight the common attitudes and belief of Nepalese people. Nepalese managers are more concerned with being good with the boss. The overwhelming belief among Nepalese decision-makers is that the more power you hold, the more you are recognized in society (Adhikari, 2000). Agrawal (2014) provided some examples of widely held attitudes and believes among Nepalese people. He argued that time is not important for Nepalese people, pace of change is slow, there is lack of achievement orientation, and they believe in working for government rather than private sector. Such factors affect employee work outcomes in Nepalese organizations.

4.3 Nepalese Organizational Context

This section reviews some of the major organizational context based on Nepalese empirical researches. In general, similarities have been observed among Nepalese public and private organizations with regard to organizational climate and context.

Agrawal (1977) characterized the Nepalese management environment as the art and science of avoiding decisions, blocking the job through delaying, do nothing and mismanaging. Similarly, Rana (1971, cited in Gautam, 2003) stated the limitation factor as management, not the capital in Nepal. Upadhyay (1981) found a low level of employees' morale and Koirala (1989) found the poor state of employees' participation in Nepalese organizations. Pant (1984) observed tradition bound, unilateral and authoritative system of management in Nepalese organizations.

Pradhan (1988) reported that management professionalism has not yet been seen in neither of the sectors because of lack of awareness and sense of commitment in the public sector and lack of initiative in the private sector. Similarly, Paudel (1992) reported that management is almost feudalistic and decision-making even on minor

issues is centralized in Nepalese public sector. Few such climate factors as security, participation, warmth, and support explained job satisfaction in Nepalese context (Pradhan, 1999). Adhikari (2000) characterized Nepalese human resources management handicapped by the prevailing management norms and culture.

Adhikari and Gautam (2006) studied about how far HR strategy is integrated and HR practices are implemented to increase organizational performance in Nepalese organizations. The study concluded that there was a low level of integration of HR strategy and business strategy in Nepalese organizations. Moreover, in the present situation of poor implementation of HRM practices, it was difficult to establish a linkage with the organizational outcomes.

Likewise, Katuwal (2007) stated that Nepalese organizations face problems of low productivity, poor motivation, morale and satisfaction, adverse labor-management relations and so on. In the same way Adhikari and Gautam (2010) reported that employers have been indulging workers that instead of being involved and committed employees are engaged in petty politics at work places.

These findings reveal some clues on the average situation of Nepalese organizations. The main reason for the poor Nepalese organizational atmosphere might be vulnerable socio-economic and political-legal situation of the country. However, in some of the organizations such as banks and financial institutions as well as insurance companies, many changes happen in their organizational setting and environment. Employees are familiar with the modern management practices. People working in these organizations are highly qualified and capable. Top managers are developing their knowledge in forming strategic planning, setting objectives, importance of information and communication. Young managers are joining organizations educated in Nepal, India and overseas countries, they are familiar with a number of management practices and how to use them (Adhikari, 2012; Shrestha, 2014). They are also conscious about their rights and duties. Practice of effective human resource management is common now-a-days in Nepalese organizations.

4.4 Perceived Organizational Justice in Nepalese Organizations

Organizational justice is an important determinant of a variety of important employee work outcomes (Heffernan, 2012). It is the employees' perception of the fairness with which they have been treated by an organization (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2006; Moorman, 1991). Organizational justice is the degree to which fair procedures and processes exist and are adhered to in an organization, and the extent to which individuals perceive their managers as being fair and sincere and having logic or rational for what they do (Choi, 2008). Research has shown that ***perceived organizational justice*** can be classified into at least three broad families: fairness of outcomes (***distributive justice***), fairness of processes by which outcomes assigned (***procedural justice***) and interpersonal treatment (***interactional justice***) (Leventhal, 1980; Bies & Moag, 1986; Folger and Cropanzano, 1998; Cropanzano et al., 2001; Masterson et al., 2000).

Regarding perceived organizational justice, the survey has been conducted among 765 subjects of selected Nepalese organizations. Thus, self-reported attitude of the subjects generated in six point Likert type scale (1= Disagree totally, to 6 = Agree totally) are the source of data. Some investigations are made to find out the mean differences on three organizational justice components in Nepalese sample.

4.4.1 Distributive Justice

This section deals with the quantitative measurement of distributive justice in Nepal. Distributive justice is "the individuals' perception on whether the gains they earned are distributed fairly. Employees make judgments on justice distribution by comparing their outcome to their previous outcomes or to the outcomes of others (Chang, 2002; Tyler, 1994). Adams (1965) conceptualized fairness by stating that employees determine whether they have been treated fairly at work by comparing their own payoff ratio of outcomes (such as pay or status) to inputs (such as effort or time) to the ratio of their co-workers. This is called distributive justice, and it presents employees' perceptions about

the fairness of managerial decisions relative to the distribution of outcomes such as pay, promotions, etc (Folger & Konovsky, 1989).

In this study, perceptions of distributive justice are measured with a 5-items scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). Respondents have indicated the extent of their agreement or disagreement with each item on a scale from a six-point Likert-type scale from "disagree totally (1)" to "agree totally (6)". The variables under distributive justice are measured by *work schedule, pay, work load, job responsibilities and rewards*. Following table 4.1 shows the general descriptive of perceived distributive justice in Nepalese context.

Table 4.1: Employees' Perceptions towards Distributive Justice (N = 765)

S.N.	Distributive Justice Scale	Mean	S.D.
1.	My work schedule is fair.	4.62	0.74
2.	I think that my level of pay is fair.	4.50	0.67
3.	I consider my work load to be quite fair.	4.42	0.64
4.	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.	4.62	0.72
5.	Overall the rewards I receive here quite fair.	4.35	0.64
	Average	**4.50**	**0.12**

Above table shows the employees' perceptions towards distributive justice. The average response of employees is 4.50 with standard deviation of 0.12. It indicates that the average mean score is nearly to 5, which means that the respondents show moderate degree of agreement toward distributive justice. From this fact, it can be concluded that Nepalese service sector has moderately used the concept of distributive justice.

4.4.2 Procedural Justice

The justice literature became more complex with the introduction of procedural justice (Esterhuizen, 2008). Original work on procedural justice was conducted in the context of legal procedural. Researchers noticed that parties in dispute resolution procedures not only responded to the outcomes they received but also to the process that was followed in determining these outcomes (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). This resulted in the development of the construct of procedural justice. This is defined as the fairness of the process that is used to arrive at decisions (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). Central to the

development of procedural justice is the work done by Thibaut and Walker (1975). They determined that control or influence over the process, also called 'voice', plays an important role in creating high levels of procedural justice. Further work by Leventhal (1980) suggested that procedures in dispute resolution had to meet six criteria in order to be fair, namely: accuracy, consistency, ethical, correctable, bias suppression and representation.

Perceptions of procedural fairness seem to be universal, in that procedures such as granting of voice are recognized as fair in many cultures (Greenberg, 2001). Other structural aspects of the procedures such as openness and clarity are also considered by several cultures to contribute to fairness.

However, in this study, perceptions of procedural justice are measured with a 6-item scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). Employees have responded to each item using a 6-points Likert scale. The procedural justice are measured by employees' perceptions toward behaviours of managers that consist of ***unbiased manner, dealing with employee concerns, collecting accurate and complete information, clarifying decisions and providing additional information, applying job decisions consistently and allowing to challenge or appeal job decisions***. Table 4.2 shows the general descriptive of perceived procedural justice in Nepalese context.

Table 4.2: Employees' Perceptions towards Procedural Justice (N = 765)

S.N.	Procedural Justice Scale	Mean	S.D.
1	Job decisions are made by the manager in an unbiased manner.	4.78	0.83
2	My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	4.36	0.92
3	To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information.	4.29	0.78
4	My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	4.19	0.56
5	All jobs decisions are applied consistently to all concerned employees.	4.19	0.58
6	Employees are allowed to appeal about job decisions made by their managers.	4.25	0.81
	Average	**4.34**	**0.22**

Above table shows the employees' perceptions towards procedural justice. The average response of employees is 4.34 with standard deviation of 0.22. It is below 4.50, which shows light degree of agreement with the statements. It means that Nepalese service sector has slightly used the concept of procedural justice.

4.4.3 Interactional Justice

The focus of research on justice gradually moved away from legal procedures towards organizational procedures. One of the reasons for this was that in organizations a variety of situations lend themselves to the use of procedures. Variation in these procedures and outcomes occur with organizational decisions, for example, regarding selection and salaries (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). The application of justice theory to organizations has made evident certain issues in terms of procedures and outcomes. For example, in the same company the same supposedly fair procedure could create very different employee reactions, depending on the way in which different managers implement and enforce the procedure. Bies and Moag (1986) initially referred to this aspect of justice as *interactional justice*.

Recently, interactional justice has come to the forefront and refers to the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment by the employee's manager. Interactional justice perceptions are concerned with ensuring the employees are treated with dignity, sensitivity, and respect and whether manager's decisions are accurately communicated and explained to the employees (Ojo, 2009 cited in Akintayo and Ayodele, 2012).

In this study, perceptions of interactional justice are measured with 9-item scale. The interactional justice are measured by employees' attitudes toward the behavior of their managers such as *kindness and consideration, respect & dignity, sensitive, truthful manner, concern for right, discussion, offering adequate justification, explanations and clarification.* All items have used a six-point format. Table 4.3 shows the general descriptive of perceived interactional justice in Nepalese context.

Table 4.3: Employees' Perceptions towards Interactional Justice (N=765)

S.N.	Interactional Justice Scale	Mean	S.D.
1	Manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	4.43	0.74
2	The manager treats me with respect and dignity.	4.71	0.85
3	The manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	4.24	0.67
4	The manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	4.29	0.77
5	The manager shows concern for my right as employee.	4.28	0.76
6	Concerning decisions made about my job, the manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	4.21	0.60
7	The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	4.3	0.73
8	The manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	4.47	0.76
9	The manager explains any decision made about my job very clearly.	4.28	0.75
	Average	**4.35**	**0.16**

Above table shows the employees' perceptions towards interactional justice. The average response of employees is 4.35 with standard deviation of 0.16. It means that Nepalese employees perceive poor level of interactional justice. It shows that Nepalese service sector has practiced a certain level of interactional justice but not at the maximum level.

4.4.4 Nature of Three-component Organizational Justice in Nepal

Based on above calculation Table 4.4 shows the general descriptive of three-component organizational justice in Nepalese organizations.

Table 4.4: General Descriptive of Three-Component Organizational Justice in Overall Sample (N = 765)

Justice Components	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Distributive Justice	1	6	4.50	0.12
Procedural Justice	1	6	4.34	0.22
Interactional Justice	1	6	4.35	0.16

The results show that the mean on distributive justice is 4.50 with S.D. = 0.12, the mean for procedural justice is 4.34 with S.D. = 0.22, and the mean for interactional justice is 4.35 with S.D. = 0.16 respectively. Present data structure shows high level of distributive justice, moderate level of interactional justice and low level of procedural justice among Nepalese subjects. The highest mean and lowest standard deviation have proved that distributive justice is high among Nepalese employees. However, the lowest mean of procedural justice shows low level of procedural justice among the Nepalese employees. Interactional justice in between two other justice components shows the average level of interactional justice among Nepalese subjects.

4.4.5 Paired Samples Test of Three-Component Justice in Overall Sample

An issue appears whether above stated OJ components are significantly different. To resolve this issue, paired 't' test has been conducted among three components of organizational justice. If the results show high mean differences and significant 't' statistics, pair of justice components can be referred statistically different. Table 4.5 shows the results of paired 't' test with mean differences, t value, degree of freedom, and two-tail significance.

Table 4.5: Paired Samples Test of Three-Component Justice in Overall Sample

Pairs		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	S.D	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	DJ-PJ	-3.54	4.61	0.17	-3.87	-3.21	-21.22	764	0.00**
Pair 2	DJ-IJ	-16.68	4.70	0.17	-17.02	-16.35	-98.26	764	0.00**
Pair 3	PJ-IJ	-13.15	5.31	0.19	-13.52	-12.77	-68.48	764	0.00**

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01

All the pairs are significantly different that can be observed on the above presented test statistics. Paired mean difference between distributive and procedural justice is relatively

high whereas difference between distributive and interactional justice is relatively low. Respective to the mean differences and standard deviation, 't' statistics also show some variation. Nevertheless, the 't' statistics for all the pairs are significant at p <0.01 level of significance.

Based on the above statistics, three components of organizational justice significantly differ in each other in overall Nepalese respondents. The nature of justice follows the highest distributive justice, moderate interactional justice, and the lowest procedural justice in Nepal. Thus, final remarks can be made that three organizational justice components significantly differ in the present data structure.

4.5 Demographic Characteristics and Organizational Justice

The opinion can be different based on several demographic characteristics such as pattern of organization, nature of job, gender, marital status, education, age, job level (designation) and work experience. The effect of such demographic characteristics on organizational justice has been tested through ANOVA.

Following table 4.6 shows the relationship among pattern of organization, nature of job, gender, marital status, education, age, job level (designation) and work experience with organizational justice.

Table 4.6: ANOVA Test of Perception on Organizational Justice Expressed by Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Variables	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pattern of Organization	Between Groups	63.63	38	1.67	25.920	0.00**
	Within Groups	46.90	726	0.06		
	Total	110.53	764			
Nature of Job	Between Groups	27.75	38	0.73	9.188	0.00**
	Within Groups	57.70	726	0.08		
	Total	85.45	764			

Gender	Between Groups	66.83	38	1.76	10.265	0.00**
	Within Groups	124.38	726	0.17		
	Total	191.21	764			
Marital Status	Between Groups	15.22	38	0.40	2.521	0.00**
	Within Groups	115.33	726	0.16		
	Total	130.54	764			
Education	Between Groups	85.32	38	2.25	4.180	0.00**
	Within Groups	389.97	726	0.54		
	Total	475.29	764			
Age	Between Groups	163.78	38	4.31	6.736	0.00**
	Within Groups	464.57	726	0.64		
	Total	628.35	764			
Job Level (Designation)	Between Groups	54.81	38	1.44	5.149	0.00**
	Within Groups	203.37	726	0.28		
	Total	258.19	764			
Work experience (in years)	Between Groups	295.98	38	7.79	7.911	0.00**
	Within Groups	714.79	726	0.98		
	Total	1010.78	764			

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01

The above table shows that the variance of the view of the employees based on their demographic characteristics. Results show that the p-value of perceived organizational justice based on all the demographic characteristics is 0.00. It means that there is significant difference in the perception of employees based on these characteristics.

The results of the ANOVA table has depicted that the perceived organizational justice has significant associations with all demographic characteristics that have been analyzed.

This means there is different demographic effects on employees' perceived organizational justice.

4.6 Perceived Organizational Justice based on Ownership Pattern

There are two types of ownership pattern such as *public and private*. The organizations under the control of the government and semi-government ownership are known as *public organizations* while the organizations that owned or controlled by the private sector are considered as *private organizations*.

In Nepalese banking sector there are three banking organizations (namely Nepal Bank Ltd., Rastriya Banijya Bank Ltd. and Agriculture Development Bank Ltd.) and one insurance company (i.e. Rastriya Beema Santhan Ltd.). They are giant organizations in terms of capital, network and human resources. They are public sector organizations and rest other sampled organizations are private organizations.

4.6.1 Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is one of the important dimensions of organizational justice. Based on collected data, the comparative opinions of respondents of public and private sector organizations regarding distributive justice are presented in following table 4.7:

Table 4.7: Comparative Views on Distributive Justice of Public and Private Organizations

Items on Distributive Justice	Public Organizations (N = 134)		Private Organizations (N = 631)	
	Mean	**S.D**	**Mean**	**S.D**
My work schedule is fair.	4.67	0.70	4.65	0.74
I think that my level of pay is fair.	4.58	0.67	4.51	0.68
I consider my work load is quite fair.	4.84	0.72	4.43	0.63
I feel that my job responsibilities are quite fair.	4.67	0.63	4.68	0.72
Overall the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	4.88	0.55	4.41	0.65
Average	**4.73**	**0.16**	**4.53**	**0.13**

In table 4.7 the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for distributive justice of employees of public organizations is 4.73 with S.D. of 0.16. On the other hand, the mean score for distributive justice of employees working in private organizations is 4.53 with S.D. of 0.13.

4.6.2 Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is also one of the important dimensions of organizational justice. Based on collected data, the comparative opinions of respondents of public and private sector organizations regarding procedural justice are presented in following table 4.8:

Table 4.8: Comparative Views on Procedural Justice of Public and Private Organizations

Items on Procedural Justice	Public Organizations (N = 134)		Private Organizations (N = 631)	
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
Job decisions are made by the manager in an unbiased manner.	4.43	0.68	4.85	0.84
My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	4.34	0.63	4.37	0.97
To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information.	4.37	0.72	4.27	0.79
My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	4.24	0.51	4.18	0.57
All jobs decisions are applied consistently to all concerned employees.	4.24	0.52	4.18	0.59
Employees are allowed to appeal about job decisions made by their managers.	4.26	0.67	4.25	0.84
Average	**4.31**	**0.08**	**4.35**	**0.26**

In table 4.8 the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for procedural justice of employees of public organizations is 4.31 with S.D. of 0.08. On the other hand, the mean score for procedure justice of employees working in private organizations is 4.35 with S.D. of 0.26.

4.6.3 Interactional Justice

Interactional justice is also an important component of organizational justice. Based on collected data, the comparative opinions of respondents of public and private sector organizations regarding interactional justice are presented in following table 4.9:

Table 4.9: Comparative Views on Interactional Justice of Public and Private Organizations

Items on Interactional Justice	Public Organizations (N = 134)		Private Organizations (N = 631)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	4.54	0.65	4.40	0.76
The manager treats me with respect and dignity.	4.66	0.65	4.72	0.89
The manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	4.22	0.79	4.24	0.65
The manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	4.39	0.88	4.27	0.75
The manager shows concern for my right as employee.	4.43	0.76	4.25	0.76
Concerning decisions made about my job, the manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	4.36	0.74	4.17	0.56
The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	4.42	0.69	4.27	0.74
The manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	4.39	0.75	4.49	0.76
The manager explains any decision made about my job very clearly.	4.34	0.78	4.27	0.75
Average	**4.42**	**0.13**	**4.34**	**0.17**

In table 4.9 the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for interactional justice of employees of public organizations is 4.42 with S.D. of 0.13. On

the other hand, the mean score for interactional justice of employees working in private organizations is 4.34 with S.D. of 0.17.

4.6.4 Differences of Three-component OJ in Nepalese Public and Private Sector

The differences in level of organizational justice between public sector and private sector sample organizations are another issue for investigation. In total number of participants, respondents from public sector have accounted 134 and respondents from private sector organizations have accounted 631. Based on above calculation, the following table 4.10 shows the descriptive statistics including mean and standard deviation of these two divided samples.

Table 4.10: General Descriptive of OJ in Nepalese Public and Private Sector Organizations

Justice Components	Public Organizations (N = 134)		Private Organizations (N = 631)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Distributive Justice	4.73	0.16	4.53	0.13
Procedural Justice	4.31	0.08	4.35	0.26
Interactional Justice	4.42	0.13	4.34	0.17

Nepalese public sector shows higher distributive and interactional justice than private sector. Procedural justice is observed more or less in the similar level in both of these sectors.

Analyses of variance are to be conducted to find out the statistical differences of justice components observed in these two samples. Table 4.11 presents the results of one-way analysis of variance of justice components between public and private samples.

Table 4.11: Analyses of Variances of Three-component OC Between Nepalese Public and Private Sector Organizations

OJ Components	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Distributive Justice	Between Groups	83.406	1	83.406	9.588	0.002**
	Within Groups	6637.671	763	8.699		
	Total	6721.077	764			
Procedural Justice	Between Groups	5.291	1	5.291	0.366	0.545
	Within Groups	11015.512	763	14.437		
	Total	11020.803	764			
Interactional Justice	Between Groups	47.163	1	47.163	1.580	0.001**
	Within Groups	22771.237	763	29.844		
	Total	22818.400	764			

Significant at *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$

Above table shows significant differences between Nepalese public and private sectors in terms of distributive and interactional justice. Procedural justice doesn't differ significantly between these two groups. High 'F' ratio, which is the product of mean square between groups divided by mean square within the group, can be observed high in distributive and interactional justice but not in the procedural justice.

It is clearly apparent that distributive and interactional justice differ significantly at the $p<0.01$ level of significance. Thus, it can be concluded that subjects hold different level of distributive and interactional justice in Nepalese public and private sectors. Public sector employees hold relatively higher level of distributive and interactional justice than the private sector employees.

4.7 Perceived Organizational Justice based on Gender

This section presents the opinion expressed by the gender about the organizational justice in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional justice.

4.7.1 Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is an important component of organizational justice. Based on collected data, the comparative opinions expressed by the gender about the distributive justice are presented below:

Table 4.12: Genderwise Perception on Distributive Justice

Items on Distributive Justice	Male (N = 388)		Female (N = 377)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
My work schedule is fair.	4.67	0.80	4.57	0.66
I think that my level of pay is fair.	4.48	0.69	4.53	0.66
I consider my work load is quite fair.	4.36	0.63	4.49	0.65
I feel that my job responsibilities are quite fair.	4.68	0.77	4.57	0.65
Overall the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	4.26	0.62	4.45	0.65
Average	**4.49**	**0.19**	**4.52**	**0.06**

In table 4.12 the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for distributive justice of male employees is 4.49 with S.D. of 0.19. On the other hand, the mean score for distributive justice of female employees is 4.52 with S.D. of 0.06.

4.7.2 Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is also an important component of organizational justice. Based on collected data, the comparative opinion expressed by the gender about the procedural justice is presented below:

Table 4.13: Genderwise Perception on Procedural Justice

Items on Procedural Justice	Male (N = 388)		Female (N = 377)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Job decisions are made by the manager in an unbiased manner.	4.86	0.82	4.69	0.83
My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	4.19	0.79	4.54	1.02
To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information.	4.19	0.70	4.39	0.85
My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	4.12	0.52	4.26	0.58
All jobs decisions are applied consistently to all concerned employees.	4.11	0.55	4.26	0.60
Employees are allowed to appeal about job decisions made by their managers.	4.17	0.72	4.34	0.89
Average	**4.27**	**0.29**	**4.42**	**0.17**

In table 4.13 the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for procedural justice of male employees is 4.27 with S.D. of 0.29. On the other hand, the mean score for procedural justice of female employees is 4.42 with S.D. of 0.17.

4.7.3 Interactional Justice

Interactional justice is also one of the important components of organizational justice. Based on collected data, the comparative opinions expressed by the gender about the interactional justice are presented below:

Table 4.14: Genderwise Perception on Interactional Justice

Items on Interactional Justice	Male (N = 388)		Female (N = 377)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	4.37	0.83	4.48	0.63
The manager treats me with respect and dignity.	4.85	0.93	4.57	0.73
The manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	4.34	0.73	4.13	0.59
The manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	4.51	0.91	4.07	0.53
The manager shows concern for my right as employee.	4.39	0.86	4.17	0.63
Concerning decisions made about my job, the manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	4.23	0.63	4.18	0.57
The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	4.40	0.81	4.19	0.63
The manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	4.57	0.84	4.36	0.66
The manager explains any decision made about my job very clearly.	4.37	0.84	4.20	0.64
Average	**4.45**	**0.18**	**4.26**	**0.17**

In table 4.14 the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for interactional justice of male employees is 4.45 with S.D. of 0.18. On the other hand, the mean score for interactional justice of female employees is 4.26 with S.D. of 0.17.

4.7.4 Gender-wise Perceptions on Three-Component Organizational Justice

The differences in level of organizational justice between male and female sample are also one of the issues for investigation. In total number of participants, there are 388 male

and 377 female respondents. Based on above results, table 4.15 shows the gender-wise perceptions on three-component organizational justice in Nepalese organizations.

Table 4.15: Gender-wise perceptions on Three-Component Organizational Justice

Justice Components	Male (N = 388)		Female (N = 377)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Distributive Justice	4.49	0.19	4.52	0.06
Procedural Justice	4.27	0.29	4.42	0.17
Interactional Justice	4.45	0.18	4.26	0.17

According to the respondents' opinion shown in the above table, the perceptions of both male and female respondents are seemed more or less same agreement towards distributive justice. However, perception of female is higher towards procedural justice whereas perception of male is high towards interactional justice. Analyses of variance are to be conducted to find out the statistical differences of justice components observed in these two samples. Table 4.16 presents the results of one-way analysis of variance of justice components between male and female samples.

Table 4.16: Analyses of Variances of Three-component OJ between Male and Female

OJ Components	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Distributive Justice	Between Groups	5.299	1	5.299	0.602	0.438
	Within Groups	6715.778	763	8.802		
	Total	6721.077	764			
Procedural Justice	Between Groups	135.217	1	135.217	9.478	0.002**
	Within Groups	10885.585	763	14.267		
	Total	11020.803	764			
Interactional Justice	Between Groups	540.232	1	540.232	18.502	0.000**
	Within Groups	22278.168	763	29.198		
	Total	22818.400	764			

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01

Above table shows significant differences between male and female in terms of procedural and interactional justice. Distributive justice doesn't differ significantly between these two groups. High 'F' ratio, which is the product of mean square between groups divided by mean square within the group, can be observed high in procedural and interactional justice but not in the distributive justice.

It is clearly apparent that procedural and interactional justice differ significantly at the p<0.01 level of significance. Thus, it can be concluded that subjects hold different level of procedural and interactional justice as perceived by male and female.

4.8 Differences of Three-component OJ in Nepalese Banking and Insurance Sector

This section presents the opinions expressed by the employees of banking and insurance sector about the organizational justice in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional justice.

4.8.1 Distributive Justice

Based on collected data, the comparative opinion expressed by the respondents of banking and insurance sector about the distributive justice is presented below:

Table 4.17: Sector-wise Opinion about the Distributive Justice

Items on Distributive Justice	Banking Sector (N = 581)		Insurance Sector (N = 184)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
My work schedule is fair.	4.57	0.76	4.77	0.67
I think that my level of pay is fair.	4.45	0.70	4.67	0.54
I consider my work load is quite fair.	4.38	0.65	4.55	0.61
I feel that my job responsibilities are quite fair.	4.58	0.71	4.77	0.72
Overall the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	4.34	0.64	4.40	0.65
Average	**4.46**	**0.35**	**4.63**	**0.16**

The results show that employees of insurance sector (mean = 4.63, S.D. = 0.16) tend to report more level of distributive justice that the employees of banking sector (mean = 4.46, S.D. = 0.35).

4.8.2 Procedural Justice

Based on collected data, the comparative opinions expressed by the respondents of banking and insurance sector about the procedural justice are presented below:

Table 4.18: Sector-wise Opinion about the Procedural Justice

Items on Procedural Justice	Banking Sector (N = 581)		Insurance Sector (N = 184)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Job decisions are made by the manager in an unbiased manner.	4.72	0.86	4.96	0.69
My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	4.32	0.95	4.48	0.83
To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information.	4.25	0.79	4.42	0.74
My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	4.16	0.57	4.27	0.50
All jobs decisions are applied consistently to all concerned employees.	4.14	0.58	4.33	0.54
Employees are allowed to appeal about job decisions made by their managers.	4.21	0.81	4.40	0.80
Average	**4.30**	**0.22**	**4.48**	**0.25**

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The results show that insurance sector employees (mean = 4.48, S.D. = 0.25) tend to report more level of procedural justice that the banking sector employees (mean = 4.60, S.D. = 0.22).

4.8.3 Interactional Justice

Based on collected data, the comparative opinions expressed by the respondents of banking and insurance sector about the interactional justice are presented below:

Table 4.19: Sector-wise Opinion about the Interactional Justice

Items on Interactional Justice	Banking Sector (N = 581)		Insurance Sector (N = 184)	
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
Manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	4.39	0.75	4.54	0.69
The manager treats me with respect and dignity.	4.65	0.87	4.89	0.73
The manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	4.19	0.72	4.38	0.49
The manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	4.27	0.80	4.37	0.70
The manager shows concern for my right as employee.	4.25	0.78	4.38	0.70
Concerning decisions made about my job, the manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	4.18	0.63	4.28	0.52
The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	4.26	0.75	4.40	0.68
The manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	4.45	0.78	4.54	0.68
The manager explains any decision made about my job very clearly.	4.26	0.77	4.36	0.71
Average	**4.32**	**0.15**	**4.46**	**0.18**

The results show that employees of insurance sector (mean = 4.46, S.D. = 0.18) tend to report more level of interactional justice that the employees of banking sector (mean = 4.32, S.D. = 0.15).

4.8.4 Sector-wise Perceptions on Three-Component Organizational Justice

The differences in level of organizational justice between banking sector and insurance sector sample are also one of the issues for investigation. In total number of participants, there are 581 participants from banking sector and 184 participants from insurance sector. Based on above results, table 4.20 shows the sector-wise perceptions on three-component organizational justice in Nepalese organizations.

Table 4.20: Sector-wise perceptions on Three-Component Organizational Justice

Justice Components	Banking Sector (N = 531)		Insurance Sector (N = 184)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Distributive Justice	4.46	0.35	4.63	0.16
Procedural Justice	4.30	0.22	4.48	0.25
Interactional Justice	4.32	0.15	4.46	0.18

The results show that insurance sector employees hold relatively higher level of distributive, procedural and interactional justice than the banking sector employees. Analyses of variance are to be conducted to find out the statistical differences of justice components observed in these two samples.

Table 4.21 presents the results of one-way analysis of variance of justice components between banking and insurance sector samples.

Table 4.21: Analyses of Variances of Three-component OJ between Banking and Insurance Sector

OJ Components	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Distributive Justice	Between Groups	96.679	1	96.679	11.136	0.001**
	Within Groups	6624.398	763	8.682		
	Total	6721.077	764			
Procedural Justice	Between Groups	161.307	1	161.307	11.334	0.001**
	Within Groups	10859.496	763	14.233		
	Total	11020.803	764			
Interactional Justice	Between Groups	207.294	1	207.294	6.995	0.008**
	Within Groups	22611.106	763	29.634		
	Total	22818.400	764			

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01

Above table 4.21 shows significant differences between banking and insurance sector in terms of all three justice components. It is clearly apparent that all three justice components differ significantly at the p<0.01 level of significance. Thus, it can be concluded that subjects hold different level of distributive, procedural and interactional justice as perceived by respondents of banking and insurance sector.

4.9 Opinions of Managers about Employees and Perceived Organizational Justice

This section presents some of the important opinions of managers (HR managers, branch managers and department heads) regarding human resources (employees) and organizational justice in their respective organizations. Some HR managers have explained that:

"Our people are at the heart of our business" (HR managers, Organizations B, E, G and M).

This is echoed by some branch managers who have commented:

"Our organization deals with people, sells their expertise and its assets are people and their knowledge." (Branch managers, Organization H, I, N and P).

Some HR managers in Organizations J, K and Q regards employees as the most important assets of their organizations:

"In fact, people are the success factor of our organization. Good service and a good concept is convenient, but the people cause success." (HR managers, Organization J, K and Q).

Some HR managers in Organization A, U, P, and E regards organizational justice will be promoted through industrial democracy, increased worker participation and effective rules and regulations:

"Industrial democracy, increased worker participation in corporate decision-making, and effective rules and regulation promote organizational justice in the organization." (HR managers, Organization A, U, P and E).

The discussion with managers and employees also highlight that employees are concerned with the fairness of the outcomes that they receive in their organizations. Managers of three organizations (D, E and X) have acknowledged that they are paid a rate higher than their industry average. The following quotes below are indicative of their opinions:

" we're being paid more actually more than, for the service we do, we are being paid probably over the rate." (Manager, Organization X)

> *"The salary are pretty good....I've actually seen what other places are paying for my job and it's nowhere near as high so that's pretty good."* (Manager, Organization E).

> *"I'm happy with my remuneration."* (Branch manager, Organization D)

The fairness of outcomes is acknowledged, however, with some managers questioning the fairness of how pay decisions are actually made. In discussions, managers of organizations S, U and W have stated that:

> *"Equity rules regarding distributive justice could be applied a bit more rigorously, the contribution or the effort that people make in terms of what they actually get.* (Managers, Organization S, U and W).

The equity rule of making allocation decisions proposed by Adams (1965) is deemed the most appropriate by most of the managers of selected organizations. Most of the managers are in agreement that allocation of rewards (e.g. pay, work load, work schedule and promotion) should be in proportion to people's inputs or contributions.

Regarding three components of organizational justice, one of the managers of organization L has stated that:

> *"Even though Nepalese employees also pay attention to procedural justice, the more focus is given to distributive and interactional justice."* (Manager, Organization L).

From above opinions it appears that Nepalese managers and employees are conscious about organizational justice in their organizations. To sum up, today's Nepalese organizations and their managers are realizing the important of people. They are also focusing on justice in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional justice. In fact, distributive and interactional justice play important role to determine employee behaviour in Nepal.

4.10 Concluding Remarks

This chapter has presented Nepalese socio-cultural and organizational context. It has also presented the results of the descriptive analyses of the collected data regarding organizational justice and its three components namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice. In the next section, this chapter has presented the perceived organizational justice in terms of ownership pattern, gender-wise and sector-wise. It has also presented some important opinions of managers and employees about the perceived organizational justice and employee behaviour in their organizations.

Chapter 5

Employee Work Outcomes in Nepal

5.1 Background

One of the objectives of this study is to examine the employee work outcomes in service sector organizations of Nepal. So, this chapter presents the results of the employee level data addressing this objective.

This chapter begins by outlining the descriptive statistics related with employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance. In the same way, this chapter also deals with some opinions of managers and employees about the employee work outcomes and behaviour in Nepalese work environment.

5.2 Employee Work Outcomes

Work outcomes of employees are recognized as the important aspects which are affected by their perception on organizational justice. These outcomes are represented by organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance (Samad, 2005, 2012; Greenberg, 1990; Keashley, Wilson and Clement, 1994; Cobb and Frey, 1996; Fryxell and Gordon, 1989).

It is supposed that when employees feel that they are treated fairly by the organization in every aspect, they are inclined to show more positive attitude, behaviors and work outcomes. Employee work outcomes (represented by organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) are very importance issues in Nepalese organizational research perspective. So, this chapter deals with *organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance* as the key variables of *employee work outcomes*.

5.3 Organizational Commitment in Nepalese Organizations

The key to an organizational success depends on the commitment of employees toward their organization. Commitment toward organization is more than just a formal membership; it encompasses the attitude to the organization and willingness to pursue all things for the sake of the organization. Organizational commitment is a situation where

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an employee is in line with a particular organization as well as the goals and wishes to maintain membership in that organization (Robbins and Judge, 2007).

Organizational commitment is an attitude with various definitions and measuring range. Limitation toward the definition of organizational commitment are: (1) a strong desire to become a member of a particular organization, (2) the desire to suit with organization and (3) certain beliefs and acceptance to values and goals of organization. Allen and Meyer (1990) argued that employees who have a commitment will work with full dedication, making the employee has power and desire to give more responsibility to support welfare and success of organization. Organizational commitment emerged as a result of psychological bond between employees and the organization. Robbins and Judge (2007) stated that organizational commitment consists of three dimensions: (1) *Affective commitment* is emotional feelings toward organization and beliefs on the values contained in the organization, (2) *Continuance commitment* is the value of economic received, will staying in organization when compared with leaving the organization, (3) *Normative commitment* is a commitment to stay in an organization for reasons of moral or ethical (Chen and Francesco, 2003; Cardona and Lagomarsino, 2003; Gautam et al., 2004 and Kim, 2006).

In this regard, this study also measures organizational commitment in terms of affective, continuance and normative commitment among 765 subjects of selected Nepalese service sector organizations. Thus, self-reported attitude of the subjects generated in six point Likert type scale (1=Disagree totally, to 6=Agree totally) are the source of data. Some investigations are made to find out the mean differences on three organizational commitment components in Nepalese sample organizations.

5.3.1 Affective Commitment

This section deals with the quantitative measurement of affective commitment based on employees' perceptions. Affective commitment is an employee's emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in an organization (Allen and Meyer 1990). It is one

of the dimensions of the Three-Component Model (TCM) of organizational commitment. This commitment refers to the degree to which a person identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in an organization (McMahon, 2007). Employees with strong affective commitment remain with the organization because they want to do so (Allen and Meyer 1996). Employees may feel emotional attachment to an organization because it is a good fit for their personality and values, or because they feel competent in their work role.

In this study, perceptions of affective commitment are measured with a 7-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). Respondents have indicated the extent of their agreement or disagreement with each item on a six-point Likert-type scale from "disagree totally (1)" to "agree totally (6)". The variables under affective commitment are measured by *dedicated & devoted, enjoy discussing with others, responsible, dutiful, emotionally attached, personal meaning to organization and strong sense of belonging.* Following table 5.1 shows the general descriptive of employees' perceptions on affective commitment in Nepalese context.

Table 5.1: Employees' Perceptions towards Affective Commitment (N = 765)

S.N.	Affective Commitment Scale	Mean	S.D.
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	4.10	0.80
2	I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it.	4.84	0.80
3	I really feel as if problems of this organization are my own.	5.23	0.77
4	I do feel like 'a part of the family' in my organization.	5.17	0.85
5	I do feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	5.15	0.88
6	I have a great deal of personal meaning to this organization.	5.19	0.83
7	I do feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization.	4.75	0.82
	Average	**4.92**	**0.41**

The mean value for affective commitment is 4.92 with standard deviation of 0.41. It means employees of Nepalese service sector are affectively committed towards their organizations.

5.3.2 Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment is the commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organization. This commitment is sometimes termed calculative commitment (Hackett et al., 2001; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Employees with strong continuance commitment remain in their organization because they feel they need to (Meyer et al., 1993).

As to the development of continuance commitment, the longer an employee works for an organization, the more likely that he or she will be entitled to benefits or privileges based on his or her seniority, or will develop social relationships with other organizational members. The benefits and/or social connections function as "side bets" that commit one to a course of action and will be at stake when the employee is thinking of leaving the organization. *Side-bet* refers to the accumulation of investments valued by individuals that would be lost if they were to leave the organization (Becker, 1960).

In the same way, Becker described continuance commitment as the tendency to engage in consistent lines of activity, namely, maintaining membership in the organization. These lines of activity involve staying with the organization, and the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization, including the loss of benefits, the disruption of personal relations produced by moving to another location, and the effort of seeking a new job. Continuance commitment is also determined by employees' perception and expectation of the likelihood for them to successfully land on another job and do well. If the `odds are high', the continuance commitment will be low, and vice versa (Mariam, 2011).

In this study, perceptions of continuance commitment are measured with a 6-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). The variables under continuance commitment are

measured by *afraid of quitting job, hard to leave organization, necessity to stay, few options, leaving the available alternatives, considerable personal sacrifice*. Following table 5.2 shows the general descriptive of employees' perceptions on continuance commitment in Nepalese context.

Table 5.2: Employees' Perceptions towards Continuance Commitment (N = 765)

S.N.	Continuance Commitment Scale	Mean	S.D.
1	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	4.43	0.996
2	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	4.42	0.736
3	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	4.62	0.787
4	I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization.	4.38	0.696
5	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the leaving the available alternatives.	4.50	0.835
6	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	4.54	0.864
	Average	**4.48**	**0.28**

The results indicate that the employees of Nepalese service sector have perception of continuance commitment toward their organizations.

5.3.3 Normative Commitment

Normative commitment is an individual's *obligation* to be part of the organization. This commitment refers to an employee's feeling of obligation to remain with an organization. This commitment stems from an individual's moral obligation to stay with the organization regardless of the benefit he or she might receive by leaving. Normative commitment is heavily grounded upon values and personal norms; therefore, attempting to measure it presents unique challenges. Researchers have discovered that measuring normative commitment usually focuses on the extent to which a person believes he or she

should be loyal and make sacrifices on behalf of the organization (Weiner, 1982; Wiener and Vardi, 1980).

The development of normative commitment is related to personal characteristics, especially the sense of morality, and the nature of transactions of the employees with their organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997). When an employee values loyalty or has a strong sense of moral obligation, he or she will tend to have strong normative commitment to the organization. While the sense of moral obligation is developed throughout the socialization processes, the treatment that employees receive from the organization also strongly influences their normative commitment. According to the theory of psychological contract (Schein, 1980), employees have expectations for reasonable treatment from the organization, even if that is not specified in the written contracts between the employees and the organization. Therefore, when employees perceive the treatment from the organization is consistent with their psychological contracts, normative commitment will be engendered. The employees, with normative commitment, believe they have obligations and responsibilities in the organization and therefore they feel they have to remain in the organization (Wasti, 2002).

In this study, perceptions of normative commitment are measured with a 4-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). The variables under normative commitment are measured by *loyalty, faithful, promise and career development.*

Table 5.3: Employees' Perceptions towards Normative Commitment (N = 765)

S.N.	Normative Commitment Scale	Mean	S.D.
1	I do believe that person must always be loyal to his/her organization.	4.88	0.921
2	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave this organization.	4.32	0.623
3	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	4.53	0.811
4	Things are better on the days when people stay with one organization for most of their career development.	4.46	0.827
	Average	**4.55**	**0.24**

The mean value for normative commitment is 4.55 with standard deviation of 0.24. This mean the employees of Nepalese service sector are normatively committed towards their organizations.

5.3.4 Nature of Three-component Organizational Commitment in Nepal

Based on above calculation the following table shows the general descriptive of three-component organizational commitment in Nepalese organizations.

Table 5.4: General Descriptive of Three-Component Organizational Commitment in Overall Sample (N = 765)

Commitment Components	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	S.D.
Affective Commitment	1	6	4.92	0.41
Continuance Commitment	1	6	4.48	0.28
Normative Commitment	1	6	4.55	0.24

Present data structure shows high level of affective commitment (Mean = 4.92, S.D. = 0.41), moderate level of normative commitment (Mean = 4.55, S.D. = 0.24) and low level of continuance commitment (Mean = 4.48, S.D. = 0.28) among Nepalese subjects. The highest mean and lowest standard deviation have proved that affective commitment is high among Nepalese employees. However, the lowest mean of continuance commitment shows low level of continuance commitment among the Nepalese employees. Normative commitment in between two other commitment components shows the average level of normative commitment among Nepalese employees. However, the overall commitment of employees of Nepalese service sector is at moderate level.

5.3.5 Paired Samples Test of Three-Component OC in Overall Sample

An issue appears whether above stated OC components are significantly different. To resolve this issue, paired 't' test has been conducted among three component of

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organizational commitment. If the results show high mean differences and significant 't' statistics, pair of commitment components can be referred statistically different. Table 5.5 shows the results of paired 't' test with mean differences, t value, degree of freedom, and two-tail significance.

All the pairs are significantly different that can be observed on the presented test statistics. Paired mean differences between affective and normative commitment is relatively high whereas differences between affective and continuance commitment is relatively low. Respective to the mean differences and standard deviation, 't' statistics also show some variation. Nevertheless, the 't' statistics for all the pairs are significant at p <0.01 level of significance.

Table 5.5: Paired Samples Test of Three-Component OC in Overall Sample

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	S.D	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	AC– CC	7.54	5.06	0.18	7.18	7.90	41.23	764	0.00**
Pair 2	AC- NC	16.22	4.35	0.16	15.91	16.53	103.24	764	0.00**
Pair 3	CC-NC	8.68	2.93	0.11	8.48	8.89	81.92	764	0.00**

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

Based on the above statistics, three components of organizational commitment significantly differ in each other in overall Nepalese respondents. The nature of commitment follows the highest affective commitment, moderate normative commitment, and the lowest continuance commitment in Nepal. This finding is supported by previous study (Gautam, 2003).

Thus, final remarks can be made that three organizational commitment components significantly differ in the present data structure.

5.4 Demographic Characteristics and Organizational Commitment

In this section, the effects of various demographic characteristics on organizational commitment are tested through ANOVA. Following table shows the relationship among patterns of organization, nature of job, gender, marital status, education, age, job level (designation) and work experience with organizational commitment.

Table 5.6: ANOVA Test of Perception on Organizational Commitment Expressed by Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pattern of Organization	Between Groups	63.63	38	1.67	25.9	0.00**
	Within Groups	46.90	726	0.07		
	Total	110.53	764			
Nature of Job	Between Groups	27.75	38	0.73	9.2	0.00**
	Within Groups	57.70	726	0.08		
	Total	85.45	764			
Gender	Between Groups	66.83	38	1.76	10.3	0.00**
	Within Groups	124.38	726	0.17		
	Total	191.21	764			
Marital Status	Between Groups	15.22	38	0.40	2.5	0.00**
	Within Groups	115.33	726	0.16		
	Total	130.54	764			
Education	Between Groups	85.32	38	2.25	4.2	0.00**
	Within Groups	389.97	726	0.54		
	Total	475.29	764			
Age	Between Groups	163.78	38	4.31	6.7	0.00**
	Within Groups	464.57	726	0.64		
	Total	628.35	764			
Job Level (Designation)	Between Groups	54.81	38	1.44	5.1	0.00**
	Within Groups	203.38	726	0.28		
	Total	258.19	764			
Work experience (in years)	Between Groups	295.98	38	7.79	7.9	0.00**
	Within Groups	714.79	726	0.99		
	Total	1010.78	764			

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

The above table shows that the variance of the view of the employees based on their demographic characteristics. Results show that the p-value of perceived organizational

commitment based on all the demographic characteristics is 0.00. It means that there is significant difference in the perception of employees based on these characteristics. The results of the ANOVA table has depicted that the perceived organizational commitment has significant associations with all demographic characteristics that have been analyzed. This means there is different demographic effects on employees' perceived organizational commitment.

5.5 Organizational Commitment based on Ownership Pattern

This section deals with the organizational commitment based on ownership pattern (in terms of public and private sector organizations).

5.5.1 Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is employees' emotional attachment towards an organization. Employees who have high affective commitment are those who will go beyond the call of duty for the good of the organization. Based on collected data, the comparative opinions of respondents of public and private sector organizations regarding affective commitment are presented in the following table 5.7:

Table 5.7: Comparative Views on Affective Commitment of Public and Private Organizations

Items on Affective Commitment	Public Organizations (N = 134)		Private Organizations (N = 631)	
	Mean	**S.D**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	4.81	0.70	3.95	0.742
I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it.	5.01	0.75	4.8	0.807
I really feel as if problems of this organization are my own.	5.31	0.53	5.21	0.816
I do feel like 'a part of the family' in my organization.	5.38	0.52	5.13	0.894
I do feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	5.34	0.65	5.11	0.92
I have a great deal of personal meaning to this organization.	5.29	0.66	5.16	0.864
I do feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization.	5.21	0.75	4.65	0.795
Average	**5.19**	**0.21**	**4.86**	**0.45**

In table 5.7, the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for affective commitment of employees of public organizations is 5.19 with S.D. of 0.21. On the other hand, the mean score for affective commitment of employees working in private organizations is 4.86 with S.D. of 0.45.

5.5.2 Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment is also one of the important components of organizational commitment. This commitment refers to the commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization (due to the high cost of leaving). Based on collected data, the comparative opinions of respondents of public and private sector organizations regarding continuance commitment are presented in following table 5.8:

Table 5.8: Comparative Views on Continuance Commitment of Public and Private Organizations

Items on Continuance Commitment	Public Organizations (N = 134)		Private Organizations (N = 631)	
	Mean	**S.D**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	4.26	0.87	4.46	1.02
It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	4.52	1.00	4.40	0.67
Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	4.69	0.69	4.60	0.81
I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization.	4.38	0.72	4.38	0.69
One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the leaving the available alternatives.	4.57	0.86	4.48	0.83
One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	4.66	0.89	4.51	0.86
Average	**4.51**	**0.16**	**4.47**	**0.08**

In table 5.8, the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for continuance commitment of employees of public organizations is 4.51 with S.D. of 0.16. On the other hand, the mean score for continuance commitment of employees working in private organizations is 4.47 with S.D. of 0.08.

5.5.3 Normative Commitment

Normative commitment refers to an employees' feeling of obligation to remain with the organization (based on the employee having internalized the values and goals of the organization). Based on collected data, the comparative opinions of respondents of public and private sector organizations regarding normative commitment are presented in the following table:

Table 5.9: Comparative Views on Normative Commitment of Public and Private Organizations

Items on Normative Commitment	Public Organizations (N = 134)		Private Organizations (N = 631)	
	Mean	**S.D**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
I do believe that person must always be loyal to his/her organization.	5.46	0.50	4.76	0.94
If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave this organization.	4.51	0.57	4.28	0.63
I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	4.13	0.92	4.61	0.76
Things are better on the days when people stay with one organization for most of their career development.	4.19	0.95	4.52	0.79
Average	**4.58**	**0.61**	**4.53**	**0.20**

In table 5.9, the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for normative commitment of employees of public organizations is 4.58 with S.D. of 0.61.

On the other hand, the mean score for normative commitment of employees working in private organizations is 4.53 with S.D. of 0.20.

5.5.4 Differences of Three-component OC in Nepalese Public and Private Sector

The differences in level of commitment between public sector and private sector sample are another issue for investigation. In total number of participants, respondents from public sector have accounted 134 and respondents from private sector organizations have accounted 631. Based on above calculation, the following table shows the descriptive statistics including mean and standard deviation of these two divided samples.

Table 5.10: General Descriptive of OC in Nepalese Public and Private Sector Organizations

Commitment Components	Public Organizations (N = 134)		Private Organizations (N = 631)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Affective Commitment	5.19	0.21	4.86	0.45
Continuance Commitment	4.51	0.16	4.47	0.08
Normative Commitment	4.58	0.61	4.53	0.20

The results indicate that the public sector employees have more affective commitment than that of private sector employees. Similarly, the results also indicate that the public sector employees have more continuance commitment than that of private sector employees. Likewise, the public sector employees have more normative commitment than that of private sector employees. In general the public sector employees are more committed to their organizations than private sector employees.

Table 5.11 presents the results of one-way analysis of variance of organizational commitment components between public and private samples.

Table 5.11: Analyses of Variances of Three-component OC between Nepalese Public and Private Sector Organizations

OC Components	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Affective Commitment	Between Groups	607.49	1	607.49	33.41	0.00**
	Within Groups	13872.49	763	18.182		
	Total	14479.98	764			
Continuance Commitment	Between Groups	6.65	1	6.652	0.38	0.54
	Within Groups	13406.28	763	17.57		
	Total	13412.94	764			
Normative Commitment	Between Groups	2.01	1	507.09	30.41	0.00**
	Within Groups	5091.97	763	16.674		
	Total	5093.98	764			

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

The table 5.11 shows significant differences between Nepalese private and public sectors in terms of affective and normative commitment. Continuance commitment doesn't differ significantly between these two groups. High 'F' ratio, which is the product of mean square between groups divided by mean square within the group, can be observed high in affective commitment and normative but not in the continuance commitment.

It is clearly apparent that affective and normative commitments differ significantly at the p<0.01 level of significance. Thus, it can be concluded that employees hold different level of affective and normative commitment in Nepalese public and private sectors. These results show that public sector employees hold relatively higher level of organizational commitment than the private sector employees.

5.6 Gender-wise Perceptions on Three-Component Organizational Commitment

This section presents the opinion expressed by the gender (male and female) about three-component organizational commitment (in terms of affective, continuance and normative commitment).

5.6.1 Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is an important component of organizational commitment. Based on collected data, the comparative opinion expressed by male and female employees about the affective commitment is presented below:

Table 5.12: Gender's Opinion about the Affective Commitment

Items on Affective Commitment	Male (N = 388)		Female (N = 377)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	4.42	0.76	3.77	0.71
I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it.	5.03	0.73	4.64	0.82
I really feel as if problems of this organization are my own.	5.31	0.74	5.15	0.81
I do feel like 'a part of the family' in my organization.	5.09	0.82	5.26	0.86
I do feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	5.17	0.77	5.13	0.99
I have a great deal of personal meaning to this organization.	5.21	0.71	5.16	0.94
I do feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization.	4.85	0.88	4.63	0.73
Average	**5.01**	**0.30**	**4.82**	**0.53**

The results indicate that male participants (mean = 5.01, S.D. = 0.30) tend to report slightly higher level of affective commitment than their female counterparts (mean = 4.82, S.D. = 0.53).

5.6.2 Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment is also an important component of organizational commitment. Based on collected data, the comparative opinion expressed by male and female employees about the continuance commitment is presented below:

Table 5.13: Gender's Opinion about the Continuance Commitment

Items on Continuance Commitment	Male (N = 388)		Female (N = 377)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	4.65	0.94	4.2	1.00
It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	4.4	0.74	4.44	0.73
Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	4.64	0.81	4.59	0.76
I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization.	4.33	0.69	4.44	0.70
One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the leaving the available alternatives.	4.51	0.93	4.49	0.72
One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	4.57	0.95	4.50	0.77
Average	**4.52**	**0.13**	**4.44**	**0.13**

The results indicate that male participants (mean = 4.52, S.D. = 0.13) tend to report higher level of continuance commitment than their female counterparts (mean = 4.44, S.D. = 0.13).

5.6.3 Normative Commitment

Normative commitment is also one of the important components of organizational commitment. Based on collected data, the comparative opinion expressed by male and female employees about the normative commitment is presented below:

Table 5.14: Gender's Opinion about the Normative Commitment

Items on Normative Commitment	Male (N = 388)		Female (N = 377)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
I do believe that person must always be loyal to his/her organization.	5.14	0.74	4.62	1.01
If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave this organization.	4.33	0.62	4.31	0.63
I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	4.48	0.88	4.58	0.73
Things are better on the days when people stay with one organization for most of their career development.	4.35	0.76	4.58	0.88
Average	**4.58**	**0.38**	**4.52**	**0.14**

The results indicates that male participants (mean = 4.58, SD = 0.38) tend to report slightly higher level of normative commitment than their female counterparts (mean = 4.52, S.D. = 0.14).

5.6.4 Gender-wise Perceptions on Three-Component Organizational Commitment

The differences in level of organizational commitment between male and female sample are also one of the issues for investigation. In total number of participants, there are 388 male and 377 female respondents. Based on above results, table 5.15 shows the gender-wise perceptions on three-component organizational commitment in Nepalese organizations.

Table 5.15: Gender-wise perceptions on Three-Component Organizational Commitment

Commitment Components	Male (N = 388)		Female (N = 377)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Affective Commitment	5.01	0.30	4.82	0.53
Continuance Commitment	4.52	0.13	4.44	0.13
Normative Commitment	4.58	0.38	4.52	0.14

Based on the results, male participants hold slightly higher level of affective, continuance and normative commitment than female participants. Analyses of variance are to be conducted to find out the statistical differences of commitment components observed in these two samples. Table 5.16 presents the results of one-way analysis of variance of commitment components between male and female participants.

Table 5.16: Analyses of Variances of Three-component OC between Male and Female

Commitment Components	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Affective Commitment	Between Groups	345.98	1	345.98	18.68	0.00**
	Within Groups	14134.00	763	18.52		
	Total	**14479.98**	**764**			
Continuance Commitment	Between Groups	39.28	1	39.28	2.24	0.14
	Within Groups	13373.66	763	17.53		
	Total	**13412.94**	**764**			
Normative Commitment	Between Groups	8.98	1	8.98	1.35	0.25
	Within Groups	5085.00	763	6.66		
	Total	**5093.98**	**764**			

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

Above table shows significant differences between male and female in terms of affective commitment. Continuance and normative commitment do not differ significantly between these two groups. It is clearly apparent that affective commitment differ significantly at the p<0.01 level of significance. Thus, it can be concluded that subjects hold different level affective commitment as perceived by male and female.

5.7 Differences of Three-component OC in Nepalese Banking and Insurance Sector

This section presents the opinion expressed by the employees of banking and insurance sector about the organizational commitment in terms of affective, continuance and normative commitment.

5.7.1 Affective Commitment

Based on collected data, the comparative opinions expressed by the respondents of banking and insurance sector about the affective commitment are presented below:

Table 5.17: Sector-wise Opinion about the Affective Commitment

Items on Affective Commitment	Banking Sector (N = 581)		Insurance Sector (N = 184)	
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	4.07	0.80	4.20	0.81
I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it.	4.81	0.80	4.92	0.79
I really feel as if problems of this organization are my own.	5.17	0.79	5.43	0.67
I do feel like 'a part of the family' in my organization.	5.12	0.86	5.34	0.79
I do feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	5.09	0.90	5.35	0.81
I have a great deal of personal meaning to this organization.	5.15	0.84	5.31	0.81
I do feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization.	4.7	0.83	4.88	0.77
Average	**4.87**	**0.40**	**5.06**	**0.44**

The results show that employees of insurance sector (mean = 5.06, S.D. = 0.44) tend to report more level of affective commitment than the employees of banking sector (mean = 4.87, S.D. = 0.40).

5.7.2 Continuance Commitment

Based on collected data, the comparative opinion expressed by the respondents of banking and insurance sector about the continuance commitment is presented below:

Table 5.18: Sector-wise Opinion about the Continuance Commitment

Items on Continuance Commitment	Banking Sector (N = 581)		Insurance Sector (N = 184)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	4.40	1.04	4.53	0.85
It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	4.38	0.77	4.53	0.60
Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	4.58	0.82	4.74	0.67
I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization.	4.36	0.74	4.46	0.52
One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the leaving the available alternatives.	4.45	0.87	4.66	0.71
One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	4.54	0.91	4.53	0.71
Average	**4.50**	**0.10**	**4.57**	**0.11**

The results show that insurance sector employees (mean = 4.57, S.D. = 0.11) tend to report more level of continuance commitment than the banking sector employees (mean = 4.50, S.D. = 0.10).

5.7.3 Normative Commitment

Based on collected data, the comparative opinions expressed by the respondents of banking and insurance sector about the normative commitment are presented below:

Table 5.19: Sector-wise Opinion about the Normative Commitment

Items on Normative Commitment	Banking Sector (N = 581)		Insurance Sector (N = 184)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
I do believe that person must always be loyal to his/her organization.	4.88	0.90	4.91	0.99
If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave this organization.	4.26	0.63	4.50	0.55
I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	4.47	0.83	4.71	0.71
Things are better on the days when people stay with one organization for most of their career development.	4.40	0.85	4.64	0.73
Average	**4.50**	**0.83**	**4.69**	**0.17**

The results show that employees of insurance sector (mean = 4.69, S.D. = 0.17) tend to report more level of normative commitment than the employees of banking sector (mean = 4.50, S.D. = 0.83).

5.7.4 Sector-wise Perceptions on Three-Component Organizational Commitment

The differences in level of organizational commitment between banking sector and insurance sector sample are also one of the issues for investigation. In total number of participants, there are 581 participants from banking sector and 184 participants from insurance sector. Based on above results, table 5.20 shows the sector-wise perceptions on three-component organizational commitment in Nepal.

Table 5.20: Sector-wise perceptions on Three-Component Organizational Commitment

Commitment Components	Banking Sector (N = 581)		Insurance Sector (N = 184)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Affective Commitment	4.87	0.40	5.06	0.44
Continuance Commitment	4.50	0.10	4.57	0.11
Normative Commitment	4.50	0.83	4.69	0.17

Table 5.20 shows the sector-wise perception on three-component organizational commitment. This results show that insurance sector employees hold relatively higher level of affective, continuance and normative commitment than the banking sector employees.

In this section, analyses of variance are to be conducted to find out the statistical differences of commitment components observed in these two samples. Table 5.21 presents the results of one-way analysis of variance of commitment components between banking and insurance sector samples.

Table 5.21: Analyses of Variances of Three-component OC between Banking and Insurance Sector

Commitment Components	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Affective Commitment	Between Groups	245.64	1	245.64	13.17	0.00**
	Within Groups	14234.34	763	18.66		
	Total	14479.98	764			
Continuance Commitment	Between Groups	77.59	1	77.59	4.44	0.04*
	Within Groups	13335.35	763	17.48		
	Total	13412.94	764			
Normative Commitment	Between Groups	76.16	1	76.16	11.58	0.00**
	Within Groups	5017.82	763	6.58		
	Total	5093.98	764			

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

Above table 5.21 shows significant differences between banking and insurance sector in terms of all three commitment components. It is clearly apparent that affective commitment and normative commitment differ significantly at the $p<0.01$ level of significance whereas continuance commitment differs significantly at the $p<0.05$ level of significance. Thus, it can be concluded that subjects hold different level of affective, continuance and normative commitment as perceived by respondents of banking and insurance sector.

5.8 Job Involvement in Nepalese Organizations

Job involvement refers to an individual's psychological identification or commitment to his / her job (Kanungo, 1982a). It is a principal factor in the lives of most people; employees in the workplace are mentally and emotionally influenced by their degree of involvement in work. Job involvement indicates the degree to which the workplace contributes to one's self image (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965) and satisfies important needs (Dubin, 1956). It is a belief descriptive of an employee's relationship with the present job (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Mainly, job involvement describes how interested, enmeshed, and engrossed the worker is in the goals, culture, and tasks of a given organization (Joiner and Bakalis, 2006).

Job involvement is the degree of importance an individual assigns the job in his or her life (i.e., central life interest). An individual with a high degree of job involvement would place the job at the center of his/her life's interests. The well-known phrase 'I live, eat, and breathe my job' would describe someone whose job involvement is very high. . . . Persons with low job involvement would place something other than their jobs (e.g., family, hobbies) at the center of their lives (DeCarufel and Schaan, 1990).

Job involvement is one of the key aspects of employee work outcomes. So, in this study, perceptions of job involvement are measured with a 10-item scale developed by Kanungo (1982a). Respondents have indicated the extent of their agreement or disagreement with each item on a scale from a six-point Likert-type scale from "disagree totally (1)" to "agree totally (6)". The variables under job involvement are measured by: ***involvement in present job, job is almost all part of the employee, very much involved personally in job, live, eat & breathe with job, centered-interest around job, strong ties with job, attachment, job-oriented goals, job as reason of existence and absorbed in job.***

Following table 5.22 shows the general descriptive of perceived job involvement in Nepalese context.

Table 5.22: Employees' Perceptions towards Job Involvement (N = 765)

S.N.	Job Involvement Scale	Mean	S.D.
1	The most important thing that happens to me is to involve in present job.	5.02	0.85
2	My job is almost all part of who I am.	4.85	0.86
3	I am very much involved personally in my job.	4.89	0.81
4	I live, eat, and breathe with my job.	4.86	0.80
5	Most of my interests are centered around my job.	4.61	0.59
6	I have very strong ties with my present job that would be very difficult to break.	4.69	0.74
7	Mostly I feel attached to my job.	4.75	0.72
8	Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.	4.68	0.76
9	I consider my job is to be very central to my existence.	4.77	0.87
10	I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.	4.65	0.89
	Average	**4.78**	**0.13**

The mean value for job involvement is 4.78 with standard deviation of 0.13. This mean value is very close to the range of 4.5 to 5. It means the employees have perceived moderate level of job involvement toward their organizations in a scale of 1 to 6.

5.9 Demographic Characteristics and Job Involvement

Employee opinions regarding job involvement can be different based on several demographic characteristics such as pattern of organization, nature of job, gender, marital status, education, age, job level (designation) and work experience. The effects of such demographic characteristics on job involvement are tested through ANOVA.

Following table 5.23 shows the relationship among pattern of organization, nature of job, gender, marital status, education, age, job level (designation) and work experience with job involvement.

Table 5.23: ANOVA Test of Perception on JI Expressed by Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pattern of Organization	Between Groups	64.20	26	2.47	39.34	0.00**
	Within Groups	46.33	738	0.06		
	Total	110.53	764			
Nature of Job	Between Groups	31.21	26	1.20	16.34	0.00**
	Within Groups	54.23	738	0.07		
	Total	85.45	764			
Gender	Between Groups	62.48	26	2.40	13.78	0.00**
	Within Groups	128.74	738	0.17		
	Total	191.21	764			
Marital Status	Between Groups	10.33	26	0.40	2.44	0.00**
	Within Groups	120.21	738	0.16		
	Total	130.54	764			
Education	Between Groups	85.52	26	3.29	6.23	0.00**
	Within Groups	389.77	738	0.53		
	Total	475.29	764			
Age	Between Groups	108.68	26	4.18	5.94	0.00**
	Within Groups	519.67	738	0.70		
	Total	628.35	764			
Job Level (Designation)	Between Groups	43.37	26	1.67	5.73	0.00**
	Within Groups	214.82	738	0.29		
	Total	258.19	764			
Work experience (in years)	Between Groups	212.25	26	8.16	7.55	0.00**
	Within Groups	798.53	738	1.08		
	Total	1010.78	764			

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

The above table shows that the variance of the view of the employees based on their demographic characteristics. Results show that the p-value of perceived job involvement based on all the demographic characteristics is 0.00. It means that there is significant

difference in the perception of employees based on these characteristics. The results of the ANOVA table have depicted that the perceived job involvement have significant associations with all demographic characteristics that have been analyzed. This means there is different demographic effects on employees' perceived job involvement.

5.10 Job Involvement based on Ownership Pattern

The difference in level of job involvement between public sector and private sector sample organizations is another issue for investigation. So, this section deals with the perception of job involvement based on ownership pattern (in terms of public and private sector organizations).

Table 5.24: General Descriptive of Job Involvement in Nepalese Public and Private Sector

Items on Job Involvement	Public Organization (N = 134)		Private Organizations (N = 631)	
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
The most important thing that happens to me is to involve in present job.	4.88	0.86	5.04	0.85
My job is almost all part of who I am.	4.90	0.88	4.84	0.86
I am very much involved personally in my job.	5.19	0.58	4.83	0.84
I live, eat, and breathe with my job.	5.31	0.49	4.76	0.82
Most of my interests are centered around my job.	4.91	0.70	4.55	0.54
I have very strong ties with my present job that would be very difficult to break.	4.89	0.85	4.65	0.71
Mostly I feel attached to my job.	5.22	0.68	4.65	0.69
Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.	4.96	0.76	4.62	0.74
I consider my job is to be very central to my existence.	4.89	0.87	4.74	0.87
I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.	4.87	0.82	4.60	0.90
Average	**5.00**	**0.17**	**4.73**	**0.15**

In table 5.24, the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for job involvement of employees of public organizations is 5.00 with S.D. of 0.17. On the other hand, the mean score for job involvement of employees working in private organizations is 4.73 with S.D. of 0.15. This indicates that Nepalese public sector shows higher job involvement than that of private sector.

5.11 Gender-wise Perceptions on Job Involvement

This section presents the opinions expressed by male and female employees about the job involvement. The results of gender-wise perceptions on job involvement are presented in the table 5.25:

Table 5.25: Gender-wise Perceptions on Job Involvement

Items on Job Involvement	Male (N = 388)		Female (N = 377)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
The most important thing that happens to me is to involve in present job.	5.04	0.91	4.99	0.80
My job is almost all part of who I am.	5.10	0.86	4.59	0.77
I am very much involved personally in my job.	5.19	0.74	4.59	0.76
I live, eat, and breathe with my job.	5.10	0.69	4.61	0.83
Most of my interests are centered around my job.	4.80	0.55	4.42	0.57
I have very strong ties with my present job that would be very difficult to break.	4.94	0.74	4.44	0.65
Mostly I feel attached to my job.	5.01	0.70	4.49	0.64
Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.	4.92	0.74	4.43	0.69
I consider my job is to be very central to my existence.	5.10	0.83	4.42	0.78
I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.	5.01	0.89	4.27	0.73
Average	**5.02**	**0.11**	**4.53**	**0.19**

The mean value for job involvement of male employees is 5.02 with standard deviation of 0.11. Likewise, the mean value for job involvement of female employees is 4.53 with standard deviation of 0.19. The results indicate that male participants tend to report higher level of job involvement than their female counterparts.

5.12 Differences of Job Involvement Level in Nepalese Banking and Insurance Sector

This section presents the opinion expressed by the employees of banking and insurance sector about the job involvement:

Table 5.26: Sector-wise Perceptions on Job Involvement

Items on Job Involvement	Banking Sector (N = 581)		Insurance Sector (N = 184)	
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
The most important thing that happens to me is to involve in present job.	4.92	0.89	5.32	0.64
My job is almost all part of who I am.	4.80	0.89	5.01	0.75
I am very much involved personally in my job.	4.82	0.83	5.11	0.71
I live, eat, and breathe with my job.	4.81	0.80	5.02	0.79
Most of my interests are centered around my job.	4.59	0.59	4.68	0.59
I have very strong ties with my present job that would be very difficult to break.	4.64	0.74	4.85	0.72
Mostly I feel attached to my job.	4.73	0.70	4.83	0.76
Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.	4.66	0.76	4.76	0.75
I consider my job is to be very central to my existence.	4.72	0.89	4.90	0.81
I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.	4.60	0.91	4.79	0.84
Average	**4.73**	**0.11**	**4.93**	**0.19**

The mean value for job involvement of banking sector employees is 4.73 with standard deviation of 0.11. Likewise, the mean value for job involvement of insurance sector employees is 4.93 with standard deviation of 0.19. This results show that insurance sector employees hold relatively higher level of job involvement than the banking sector employees.

5.13 Employees' Perception regarding Job Performance in Nepalese Organizations

Job performance is also one of the key aspects of employee work outcomes (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). In this study, employees' perception of job performance is measured in terms of task performance and contextual performance.

5.13.1 Task Performance

Task performance is also known as in- role job performance that refers to activities that are related to employees' formal role requirements (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). This performance is the "activities that are formally recognized as part of the jobs and activities that contribute to the organization's technical core either directly by implementing a part of its technological process, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993).

In this study, the job performance scale developed by Williams and Anderson (1991) is slightly modified and used to assess task performance. Respondents have indicated the extent of their agreement or disagreement with each item on a scale from a six-point Likert-type scale from "disagree totally (1)" to "agree totally (6)". The five items are used to assess task performance include the degree to which the employee is involved in activities such as *fulfilling responsibilities, completing assigned duties, meeting formal performance requirements of the job, respecting aspects of the job that are obliged to perform and getting success to perform essential duties.*

The following table 5.27 shows the general descriptive of task performance in Nepalese context.

Table 5.27: Employee Perceptions about the Task Performance (N = 765)

S.N.	Task Performance Scale	Mean	S.D.
1	I fulfill responsibilities specified in job description.	5.2	0.53
2	I adequately complete assigned duties.	5.3	0.72
3	I meet formal performance requirements of the job.	4.99	0.72
4	I respect aspects of the job that are obliged to perform.	5.17	0.54
5	I am successful to perform essential duties.	5.19	0.56
	Average	**5.17**	**0.11**

Table 5.27 displays the means and standard deviations of the employees' attitudes toward of task performance. Average response of employees is 5.17 with standard deviation of 0.11.

5.13.2 Contextual Performance

Contextual performance is one of the key aspects of employee job performance. It refers to performance that is not formally required as part of the job but that helps shape the social and psychological context of the organization (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Contextual performance, describes a set of interpersonal and volitional behaviors that support the social and motivational context in which organizational work is accomplished (Aryee et al., 2004). When employees voluntarily help coworkers who are getting behind, act in ways that maintain good working relationships, or put in extra effort to complete assignment on time, they are engaging in contextual performance (Van Scotter, 2000). Contextual performance is also known as extra-role performance (Van Dyne et al., 1995) that contributes to organizational effectiveness.

In this study, perceptions of contextual performance are measured with an 8-item scale developed by Witt and Carlson (2006) and Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996). The variables of contextual performance are *positive attitude of employees when dealing with difficult customers and coworkers, sense of control and dignity with demanding people*, *accepting instruction from supervisors without resentment, making people feel good*,

encouraging others, praise co-workers, taking initiative, and tackling difficult assignment.

The following table 5.28 shows the general descriptive of contextual performance in Nepalese context.

Table 5.28: Employee Perceptions about the Contextual Performance (N = 765)

S.N.	Contextual Performance Scale	Mean	S.D.
1	I maintain a positive attitude when dealing with difficult customers and coworkers.	5.17	0.70
2	I maintain a sense of control and dignity with demanding people.	5.17	0.56
3	I accept instruction from supervisors without resentment.	4.8	0.85
4	I hope things to make people feel good about themselves or the work group.	5.21	0.57
5	I encourage others to overcome their differences and loneliness.	5.05	0.72
6	I praise co-workers when they are successful.	5.11	0.68
7	I take an initiative to solve a work problem.	5.27	0.65
8	I tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically.	5.17	0.72
	Average	**5.12**	**0.46**

Table 5.28 displays the means and standard deviations of the employees' attitudes toward of contextual performance. Average response of employees is 5.12 with standard deviation of 0.46.

5.13.3 General Descriptive of Job Performance in Nepal

Based on above calculations, following table shows the general descriptive of two-component job performance in Nepalese organizations.

Table 5.29: General Descriptive of Two-Component Job Performance

Job Performance Components	Mean	S.D.
Task Performance	5.17	0.11
Contextual Performance	5.12	0.46

The results indicate that the perception of employees of Nepalese organizations regarding the task performance is found strong. In the same way, the results indicate that the perception of respondents of Nepalese organizations regarding the contextual performance is also found strong.

5.13.4 Paired Samples Test of Two-Component Job Performance in Overall Sample

An issue appears whether above stated JP components are significantly different. To resolve this issue, paired 't' test has been conducted between two component of job performance. If the results show high mean differences and significant 't' statistics, pair of justice components can be referred statistically different. Table 5.30 shows the results of paired 't' test with mean differences, t value, degree of freedom, and two-tail significance.

Table 5.30: Paired Samples Test of Two-Component Job Performance in Overall Sample

	Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	S.D.	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	
				Lower	Upper			
TP - CP	-15.10065	2.58653	0.09352	-15.28423	-14.91707	-161.477	764	0.00**

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

The pair (TP & CP) is significantly different that can be observed on the above presented test statistics. A paired mean difference between task performance and contextual performance is -15.10065. Respective to the mean difference and standard deviation, 't' statistics also show some variations. Nevertheless, the 't' statistics for the pair are significant at p <0.01 level of significance.

Based on the above statistics, two components of job performance significantly differ in each other in overall Nepalese respondents.

The following table 5.31 shows the relationship among pattern of organization, nature of job, gender, marital status, education, age, job level (designation) and work experience with job performance.

Table 5.31: ANOVA Test of Perception on Job Performance Expressed by Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pattern of Organization	Between Groups	66.74	24	2.781	46.994	0.00**
	Within Groups	43.789	740	0.059		
	Total	110.528	764			
Nature of Job	Between Groups	32.109	24	1.338	18.562	0.00**
	Within Groups	53.337	740	0.072		
	Total	85.446	764			
Gender	Between Groups	66.012	24	2.75	16.257	0.00**
	Within Groups	125.199	740	0.169		
	Total	191.21	764			
Marital Status	Between Groups	11.05	24	0.46	2.851	0.00**
	Within Groups	119.494	740	0.161		
	Total	130.544	764			
Education	Between Groups	195.346	24	8.139	21.515	0.00**
	Within Groups	279.948	740	0.378		
	Total	475.294	764			
Age	Between Groups	143.984	24	5.999	9.166	0.00**
	Within Groups	484.369	740	0.655		
	Total	628.353	764			
Job Level (Designation)	Between Groups	38.244	24	1.594	5.361	0.00**
	Within Groups	219.944	740	0.297		
	Total	258.188	764			
Work experience (in years)	Between Groups	172.384	24	7.183	6.34	0.00**
	Within Groups	838.392	740	1.133		
	Total	1010.776	764			

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

The results show that the p-value of job performance based on all the demographic characteristics is 0.00. It means that there is significant difference in the perceptions of employees based on these characteristics. The results of the ANOVA table depicts that the job performance has significant associations with all demographic characteristics that have been analyzed. This means there is different demographic effects on employees' job performance.

5.14 Job Performance based on Ownership Pattern

This section deals with the perception about job performance based on ownership pattern (in terms of public and private sector organizations).

5.14.1 Task Performance based on Ownership Pattern

Based on collected data, the comparative opinions of respondents of public and private sector organizations regarding task performance are presented in the following table:

Table 5.32: Comparative Views on Task Performance of Public and Private Organizations

Items on Task Performance	Public Organizations (N = 134)		Private Organizations (N = 631)	
	Mean	**S.D**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
I fulfill responsibilities specified in job description.	5.39	0.59	5.16	0.51
I adequately complete assigned duties.	5.43	0.53	5.27	0.75
I meet formal performance requirements of the job.	5.29	0.53	4.93	0.74
I respect aspects of the job that are obliged to perform.	5.3	0.48	5.15	0.55
I am successful to perform essential duties.	5.4	0.55	5.14	0.55
Average	**5.36**	**0.06**	**5.13**	**0.13**

In table 5.32, the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for task performance of employees of public organizations is 5.36 with S.D. of 0.06. On the other hand, the mean score for task performance of employees working in private organizations is 5.13 with S.D. of 0.13.

5.14.2 Contextual Performance based on Ownership Pattern

Based on collected data, the comparative opinions of respondents of public and private sector organizations regarding contextual performance are presented in the following table:

Table 5.33: Comparative Views on Contextual Performance of Public and Private Organizations

Items on Contextual Performance	Public Organizations (N = 134)		Private Organizations (N = 631)	
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D.
I maintain a positive attitude when dealing with difficult customers and coworkers.	5.3	0.55	5.15	0.72
I maintain a sense of control and dignity with demanding people.	5.33	0.56	5.14	0.56
I accept instruction from supervisors without resentment.	4.89	0.73	4.78	0.87
I hope things to make people feel good about themselves or the work group.	5.48	0.61	5.16	0.54
I encourage others to overcome their differences and loneliness.	5.29	0.53	5.00	0.74
I praise co-workers when they are successful.	5.43	0.55	5.04	0.68
I take an initiative to solve a work problem.	5.38	0.61	5.24	0.65
I tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically.	5.32	0.53	5.14	0.75
Average	**5.30**	**0.18**	**5.08**	**0.14**

In table 5.33, the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for contextual performance of employees of public organizations is 5.30 with S.D. of 0.18. On the other hand, the mean score for contextual performance of employees working in private organizations is 5.08 with S.D. of 0.14.

5.14.3 Differences of Two-component JP in Nepalese Public and Private Sector

Based on above calculation, the following table shows the descriptive statistics including mean and standard deviation of these two divided samples.

Table 5.34: General Descriptive of JP in Nepalese Public and Private Sector Organizations

Performance Components	Public Organizations (N = 134)		Private Organizations (N = 631)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Task Performance	5.36	0.06	5.13	0.13
Contextual Performance	5.30	0.18	5.08	0.14

Nepalese public sector shows higher task and contextual performance than private sector. Analyses of variance are to be conducted to find out the statistical differences of performance components observed in these two samples.

Table 5.35 presents the results of one-way analysis of variance of performance components between public and private samples.

Table 5.35: Analyses of Variances of Two-component JP Between Nepalese Public and Private Sector Organizations

Job Performance Components	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Task Performance	Between Groups	148.97	1	148.97	20.55	0.00**
	Within Groups	5531.44	763	7.25		
	Total	5680.41	764			
Contextual Performance	Between Groups	346.97	1	346.97	15.93	0.00**
	Within Groups	16624.04	763	21.79		
	Total	16971.01	764			

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

Table 5.35 shows significant differences between Nepalese private and public sectors in terms of task and contextual performance. Both task and contextual performance differ significantly between these two groups. It is clearly apparent that both task and contextual performance differ significantly at the p<0.01 level of significance. Thus, it can be concluded that employees hold different level of task and contextual performance in Nepalese public and private sectors. Public sector employees hold relatively higher level of task and contextual performance than the private sector employees.

5.15 Genderwise Job Performance

This section presents the opinions expressed by male and female employees about two-component job performance (in terms of task performance and contextual performance).

5.15.1 Gender-wise Perceptions on Task Performance

Task performance is an important aspect of employee job performance. Based on collected data, the comparative opinions expressed by male and female about the task performance are presented below:

Table 5.36: Gender's Opinion about the Task Performance

Items on Task Performance	Male (N = 388)		Female (N = 377)	
	Mean	**S.D**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
I fulfill responsibilities specified in job description.	5.37	0.58	5.03	0.41
I adequately complete assigned duties.	5.32	0.77	5.27	0.65
I meet formal performance requirements of the job.	5.15	0.78	4.82	0.61
I respect aspects of the job that are obliged to perform.	5.33	0.57	5.01	0.46
I am successful to perform essential duties.	5.37	0.60	5.00	0.43
Average	**5.31**	**0.09**	**5.03**	**0.16**

The results indicate that male participants (mean = 5.31, S.D. = 0.09) tend to report higher levels of task performance than their female counterparts (mean = 5.03, S.D. = 0.16).

5.15.2 Gender-wise Perceptions on Contextual Performance

Contextual performance is also an important aspect of employee job performance. Based on collected data, the comparative opinion expressed by male and female employees about the contextual performance is presented below:

Table 5.37: Gender's Opinion about the Contextual Performance

Items on Contextual Performance	Male (N = 388)		Female (N = 377)	
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D.
I maintain a positive attitude when dealing with difficult customers and coworkers.	5.23	0.78	5.11	0.59
I maintain a sense of control and dignity with demanding people.	5.33	0.64	5.00	0.42
I accept instruction from supervisors without resentment.	4.96	0.92	4.63	0.72
I hope things to make people feel good about themselves or the work group.	5.39	0.64	5.03	0.42
I encourage others to overcome their differences and loneliness.	5.27	0.74	4.82	0.61
I praise co-workers when they are successful.	5.33	0.72	4.89	0.55
I take an initiative to solve a work problem.	5.39	0.66	5.14	0.61
I tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically.	5.23	0.79	5.11	0.63
Average	**5.27**	**0.14**	**4.97**	**0.18**

The results indicate that male participants (mean = 5.27, S.D. = 0.14) tend to report higher levels of contextual performance than their female counterparts (mean = 4.97, S.D. = 0.18).

5.15.3 Gender-wise Perceptions on Two-Component Job Performance

The differences in level of job performance between male and female sample are also one of the issues for investigation. Based on above results, table 5.38 shows the gender-wise perceptions on two-component job performance in Nepalese organizations.

Table 5.38: Gender-wise perceptions on Two-Component Job Performance

Commitment Components	Male (N = 388)		Female (N = 377)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Task Performance	5.31	0.09	5.03	0.16
Contextual Performance	5.27	0.14	4.97	0.18

Based on the results, male participants show slightly higher level of both task and contextual performance than female participants.

In this section analyses of variance are to be conducted to find out the statistical differences of performance components observed in these two samples. Table 5.39 presents the results of one-way analysis of variance of performance components between male and female participants.

Table 5.39: Analyses of Variances of Two-component JP between Male and Female

Job Performance Components	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Task Performance	Between Groups	383.61	1	383.61	55.26	0.00**
	Within Groups	5296.80	763	6.94		
	Total	5680.41	764			
Contextual Performance	Between Groups	1120.05	1	1120.05	53.92	0.00**
	Within Groups	15850.96	763	20.78		
	Total	16971.01	764			

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

The results show significant differences between male and female in terms of task and contextual performance. It is clearly apparent that task and contextual performance differ significantly at the $p<0.01$ level of significance. Thus, it can be concluded that subjects hold different level job performance as perceived by male and female.

5.16 Differences of Job Performance in Nepalese Banking and Insurance Sector

This section presents the opinion expressed by the employees of banking and insurance sector about the job performance in terms of task performance and contextual performance.

5.16.1 Sector-wise Task Performance

Based on collected data, the comparative opinions expressed by the respondents of banking and insurance sector about task performance are presented below:

Table 5.40: Sector-wise Task Performance

Items on Task Performance	Banking Sector (N = 581)		Insurance Sector (N = 184)	
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
I fulfill responsibilities specified in job description.	5.17	0.55	5.31	0.46
I adequately complete assigned duties.	5.26	0.73	5.42	0.66
I meet formal performance requirements of the job.	4.96	0.73	5.09	0.70
I respect aspects of the job that are obliged to perform.	5.14	0.56	5.29	0.45
I am successful to perform essential duties.	5.16	0.58	5.27	0.47
Average	**5.14**	**0.11**	**5.28**	**0.12**

In table 5.40, the mean and standard deviation are presented. The mean score for task performance of employees of banking sector is 5.14 with S.D. of 0.11. On the other hand, the mean score for task performance of employees working in insurance sector is 5.28 with S.D. of 0.12.

5.16.2 Sector-wise Contextual Performance

Based on collected data, the comparative opinions expressed by the respondents of banking and insurance sector about contextual performance are presented below:

Table 5.41: Sector-wise Contextual Performance

Items on Contextual Performance	Banking Sector (N = 581)		Insurance Sector (N = 184)	
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
I maintain a positive attitude when dealing with difficult customers and coworkers.	5.14	0.70	5.29	0.66
I maintain a sense of control and dignity with demanding people.	5.13	0.58	5.28	0.48
I accept instruction from supervisors without resentment.	4.77	0.85	4.88	0.82
I hope things to make people feel good about themselves or the work group.	5.18	0.58	5.31	0.50
I encourage others to overcome their differences and loneliness.	5.00	0.74	5.21	0.62
I praise co-workers when they are successful.	5.07	0.69	5.23	0.63
I take an initiative to solve a work problem.	5.21	0.68	5.45	0.50
I tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically.	5.11	0.73	5.35	0.65
Average	**5.08**	**0.14**	**5.25**	**0.17**

Table 5.41 presents the mean and standard deviation. The mean score for contextual performance of employees of banking sector is 5.08 with S.D. of 0.14. On the other hand, the mean score for contextual performance of employees working in insurance sector is 5.25 with S.D. of 0.17.

5.16.3 Sector-wise Perceptions on Two-Component Job Performance

Based on above results, table 5.42 shows the sector-wise perceptions on two-component job performance in Nepal.

Table 5.42: Sector-wise perceptions on Two-Component Job Performance

Commitment Components	Banking Sector (N = 581)		Insurance Sector (N = 184)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Task Performance	5.14	0.11	5.28	0.12
Contextual Performance	5.08	0.14	5.25	0.17

Table 5.42 shows the sector-wise perception on two-component job performance. This results show that insurance sector employees hold relatively higher level of task and contextual performance than the banking sector employees. Analyses of variance are to be conducted to find out the statistical differences of performance components observed in these two samples. Table 5.43 presents the results of one-way analysis of variance of job performance components between banking and insurance sector samples.

Table 5.43: Analyses of Variances of Two-component JP between Banking and Insurance Sector

Job Performance Components	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Task Performance	Between Groups	67.19	1	67.19	9.13	0.00**
	Within Groups	5613.22	763	7.36		
	Total	5680.41	764			
Contextual Performance	Between Groups	273.17	1	273.17	12.48	0.00**
	Within Groups	16697.84	763	21.88		
	Total	16971.01	764			

Significant at *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

Above table 5.43 shows significant differences between banking and insurance sector in terms of job performance components. It is clearly apparent that both task and contextual performance differ significantly at the p<0.01 level of significance. Thus, it can be concluded that subjects hold different level of task performance and contextual performance as perceived by respondents of banking and insurance sector.

5.17 Opinions of Managers about Employee Work Outcomes

This section presents some of the important opinions of managers (HR managers, branch managers and department heads) regarding employee work outcomes (in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) in their respective organizations.

Organizational commitment is one of the key aspects of employee work outcomes. It refers to the overall normative pressures that are put on the employees to fulfill their organizational tasks, the psychological interest towards the organization and the psychological state that forces the individual to remain in the organization. Regarding organizational commitment in terms of affective, continuance and normative commitment, in Nepalese organizations, some HR managers have explained that:

> *"Older employees, those in lower-level positions, and those who perceive their jobs to be more interesting and challenging have higher levels of continuance commitment (CC). Those with higher numbers of dependent family members, those with a perception of a more interesting job, and those who perceive more support from their managers show more normative commitment (NC). Regarding job search and turnover intentions, only affective commitment (AC) is important."* (HR managers, Organization A, E, F, G, S and T).

In the same way, some managers stated that

> *"Our employees are attached with the organization. They are grateful toward organization and friend circle. They follow norms and values of the organization."* (HR managers, Organization A, B, S, J and P).

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Demographic factors such as education, age group, marital status, nature of job (in terms of permanent and contract), etc., play major role in determining employee work outcomes. Regarding labour market situation some managers have stated that:

> *"There is no lack of university degree-holders in Nepalese labour market. Employees with a Masters/M.Phil. are found in non-officer level.* (Manager, Organization P, Department head, Organization C).

In the same way, some managers have stated that:

> *"We prefer young employee specially age group of 23-30 years. There may be various reasons behind it. One of the major reasons is that employees of this age group are very energetic and enthusiasm, which is common nature of the human beings."* (Manager, Organization N, O and V).

Demographic factors also play major role while determining employee commitment. In case of demographic factors and commitment, some managers have stated that:

> *"Permanent employees have higher level of commitment for the growth and development of the organization. Generally married people involve in job and unmarried people involve in academic and learning activities."* (Manager, Organization B, Department head, Organization C).

Job involvement is one of key components of employee work outcomes. It points to the individual's psychological identification or commitment to her/ his job (Kanungo, 1982a). People with high job involvement consider job as a core aspect of their personal identities (Mantler and Murphy, 2005). Regarding job involvement situation in Nepalese organizations, one of the managers has stated that:

> *"Working more hours per week is a result of higher job involvement particularly for officer level and manager level employees."* (Manager, Organization Q).

In the same way, he has further added that:

> *"The number of hours worked per week reflects job involvement only as employees become more senior. Early-career employees are spending time in*

activities that they do not necessarily enjoy, but that are necessary to become established in the organization." (Manager, Organization Q).

Job involvement is equally important for both employee and organization. Regarding this, one of the managers has stated that:

"Job involvement is a positive state for individuals. Employees who are highly involved in their job care deeply about their work and find it difficult to separate their work and personal lives. If the long work hours are spent on new, creative tasks, the outcome can be beneficial, both personally and professionally." (Manager, Organization U).

Job performance is also one of key components of employee work outcomes. Regarding job performance level in Nepalese organizations, one of the managers of organization A has stated that:

"Our employees' task performance is directly related to the formal organization reward system. On the other hand, contextual performance is concerned with individual efforts that are not directly related to their main task functions. However, these behaviors are important because they shape the organizational, social, and psychological contexts serving as the critical catalyst for task activities and processes." (HR manager, Organization A).

In line with this statement some managers have pointed this out, saying:

"Even though our employees are getting average level of pay and other benefits, their job performance is sound. It could be due to attachment to the organization. Whatever be the job situation, our employees show the positive attitude to job performance." (Department head, Organization C, HR managers, Organizations B, managers, Organization O and P).

Regarding ***task performance*** some managers of organization M and organization F have stated that:

"When employees define their employment relationships as that of economic benefits, they are likely to fulfill their formal employment contract by engaging in in-role behaviors i.e. task performance" (HR manager, Organization M and F).

Regarding ***contextual performance*** same managers have provided the following opinions about their employees:

"When employees define their employment relationships as that of social benefits, they are likely to reciprocate by engaging in discretionary, extra-role behaviors i.e contextual performance." (HR manager, Organization M and F).

In line with this statement some managers have pointed this out, saying:

"It is important to have compensation. We don't want our salary to be increased. We need only benefits and fair treatment. This will not change until the board of directors change their mentality. If the directors change their mentality, we will be involved more in job related matters as well as extra-activities which enhance company image." (Manager, Organization T and X).

Based on above opinions it appears that Nepalese managers are conscious about employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement, and job performance in their organizations. To sum up, some of the demographic factors such as age, education, marital status, etc. are important for determining employee work outcomes. In the same way, it can be concluded that Nepalese managers are hopeful about positive organizational commitment, job involvement and increased level of job performance.

5.18 Concluding Remarks

This chapter has presented perception of employee work outcomes in Nepalese organizations. It has also presented the perception of organizational commitment in Nepalese organizations, demographic characteristics and organizational commitment, organizational commitment based on ownership pattern, gender-wise perceptions on

three-component organizational commitment and differences of three-component organizational commitment in Nepalese banking and insurance sector.

This chapter has also presented the perception of job involvement in Nepalese organizations, demographic characteristics and job involvement, job involvement based on ownership pattern, gender-wise perceptions on job involvement and differences of job involvement level in Nepalese banking and insurance sector. In next section, this chapter has presented employees' perception regarding job performance in Nepalese organizations, job performance based on ownership pattern, gender, and differences of job performance in Nepalese banking and insurance sector. It has also presented some important opinions of managers (such as HR managers, branch managers and department heads) about employee work outcomes.

Chapter 6

Relationship between Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes in Nepal

6.1 Background

One of the basic objectives of this study is to examine the relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes. So, to satisfy this objective, this chapter analyzes and evaluates relationship between independent variables (organizational justice in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and dependent variables (employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) with the help of correlation analysis.

Correlation analysis is to show the strength of the association between the variables involved. Inter-correlations coefficients *(r)* are calculated by the means of Pearson's Product Moment. According to Cohen and Cohen (1983), *r* raging from 0.10 to 0.29 may be regarded as indicating a low degree of correlation (r) 0.30 to 0.49 may be regarded as indicating a moderate degree of correlation and *r* raging from 0.50 to 1.00 may be regarded as a high degree of correlation. Pearson Correlation is used to investigate the inter-relations amongst the variables.

6.2 Relationship between Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes

This section is concerned with finding the relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes (EWOs). In order to achieve this, the Pearson (r) correlation coefficient has been computed. The correlation analysis tests the direction and strength of relationships that exist between organizational justice and employee work outcomes. Table 6.1 below presents the correlation analysis results.

Table 6.1: Correlation Result of Organizational Justice and EWO as a Whole

	OJ	EWOs	p-value	Remarks
Organizational Justice	1			
Employee Work Outcomes	0.61	1	0.00**	Significant

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Results in table 6.1 reveal a significant positive relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes (r = 0.61, p<0.01). More specifically, organizational

justice has significant and positive association with employee work outcomes. These results indicate that when the employees perceive the organizational activities and practices of their organizations to be fair, the level of employee outcomes will be improved.

6.3 Relationship between Organizational Justice and Various dimensions of EWOs

The relationship between organizational justice and various employee work outcome in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) is one of the areas of this study. Therefore, the study on correlations among organizational justice and various dimensions of employee work outcomes are presented below:

Table 6.2: Summary of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Showing the Relationship between Organizational Justice and Various Dimensions of Employee Work Outcomes (OC, JI and JP)

Variables	OJ	p-value	Remarks
Organizational Justice	1		
Employee Work Outcomes:			
Organizational Commitment (OC)	0.54	0.000**	Significant
Job Involvement (JI)	0.61	0.001**	Significant
Job Performance (JP)	0.63	0.000**	Significant

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In this section, the relationship between organizational justice and various dimensions of employee work outcomes is investigated. Table 6.2 shows the relationship (based on correlation results) between organizational justice and employee work outcomes. The employee work outcomes include organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance. These correlations are computed and analyzed by using Pearson Product Moment Method. All the relationship has been checked at 1 percent level of significance with two tailed test.

As correlations coefficients *(r)* are raging from 0.54 to 0.63, all the relationships established between organizational justice and employee work outcomes are highly correlated. More specifically, the results indicate that organizational justice has a significant positive relationship with organizational commitment (r = 0.54; p<0.01). Also, the results reveal that a significant relationship exists between organizational justice and job involvement (r = 0.61; p<0.01). Besides, the results show that a significant relationship exists between organizational justice and job performance, (r = 0.63; p<0.01).

From the above facts, there is significant positive relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes. It indicates the more favourable organizational justice factors, the more likely positive employee work outcomes. It means, organizational justice contributes for employee work outcomes. Among them, organizational justice contributes more on employee job performance because the strength of correlation is the highest between organizational justice and job performance. It is followed by the relationship between organizational justice and job involvement and relationship between organizational justice and organizational commitment.

Thus, as expected, organizational justice and all of the employee work outcomes components are highly correlated. So, it can be concluded that the role of organizational justice is the most important for increasing employee work outcomes in Nepalese organizations.

6.3.1 Relationship between Organizational Justice Dimensions and Organizational Commitment

This section is concerned with the correlation analysis to find out the relationship among organizational justice dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice) and organizational commitment. Table 6.3 shows the summary of the results.

Table 6.3: Summary of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Showing the Relationship between Organizational Justice Dimensions (DJ, PJ and IJ) and Organizational Commitment

Variables	DJ	PJ	IJ	Remarks
Distributive Justice	1			
Procedural Justice	0.29*	1		Significant
Interactional Justice	0.25**	0.39**	1	Significant
Organizational Commitment	0.69**	0.08*	0.36**	Significant

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 6.3 presents correlations among the variables studied in this research. All correlations are significant at p<0.01. Regarding associations between three justice dimensions and organizational commitment, the distributive justice has significant positive correlation with organizational commitment (r = 0.69, p<.01). In the same way, interactional justice has also significant positive correlation with organizational commitment (r = 0.36, p<.01). But, there is too low degree of significant association between procedural justice and organizational commitment (r = 0.08, p<.05).

6.3.2 Relationship between Organizational Justice Dimensions and Job Involvement

This section is concerned with the correlation analysis to find out the relationship among organizational justice dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice) and job involvement. Table 6.4 shows the summary of the results.

Table 6.4: Summary of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Showing the Relationship between Organizational Justice Dimensions (DJ, PJ and IJ) and Job Involvement

Variables	DJ	PJ	IJ	Remarks
Distributive Justice	1			
Procedural Justice	0.29*	1		Significant
Interactional Justice	0.25**	0.39**	1	Significant
Job Involvement	0.49**	0.48**	0.69**	Significant

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation analysis in table 6.4 above indicates a significant and positive relationship between distributive justice and job involvement (r = 0.49, p<0.01). This indicates that when employees perceive the work schedule, pay, work load, job responsibilities and rewards to be fair they reciprocate by involving more in their job. On the other hand, procedural justice has significant and positive associations with job involvement (r = 0.48, p<0.01). Similarly, interactional justice has also significant and positive associations with job involvement (r = 0.69, p<0.01). The results indicate that interactional justice has significant and high degree of correlation with job involvement. It indicates the more favourable interactional justice, the more likely positive employee involvement in their organizational works.

6.3.3 Relationship between Organizational Justice Dimensions and Job Performance

This section is concerned with the correlation analysis to find out the relationship among organizational justice dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice) and job performance. Table 6.5 shows the summary of the results.

Table 6.5: Summary of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Showing the Relationship among Organizational Justice Dimensions (DJ, PJ and IJ) and Job Performance

Variables	DJ	PJ	IJ	Remarks
Distributive Justice	1			
Procedural Justice	0.29*	1		Significant
Interactional Justice	0.25**	0.39**	1	Significant
Job Performance	0.30**	0.26**	0.46**	Significant

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 6.5 presents correlations among the variables studied in this research. All correlations are significant at p<0.01. Regarding associations among three justice dimensions and job performance, the distributive justice has lower degree of significant positive correlation with job performance (r = 0.30, p<.01). In the same way, procedural justice has also lower degree of significant positive correlation with job performance

(r = 0.26, p<.01). However, there is moderate degree of significant association between interactional justice and job performance (r = 0.46, p<.01).

6.4 Relationship among OJ Dimensions and Employee Work Outcomes Dimensions

This section is concerned with finding the relationship among organizational justice dimensions and employee work outcomes (EWOs). In order to achieve this, the Pearson (r) correlation coefficient has been computed. The correlation analysis tests the direction and strength of relationships that exist among organizational justice dimensions and employee work outcomes dimensions.

Table 6.6 shows the relationship among organizational justice dimensions in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional justice and employee work outcome factors such as organizational commitment in terms of AC, CC and NC; job involvement and job performance in terms of TP and CP. These relationships are computed and analyzed by using Pearson Product Moment Method. All the relationships are based on 1 percent level of significance with two tailed test.

Table 6.6: Summary of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Showing the Relationship among Organizational Justice Dimensions (DJ, PJ and IJ) and Employee Work Outcomes (OC, JI and JP)

Variables	DJ	PJ	IJ	Remarks
Distributive Justice	1			
Procedural Justice	0.29*	1		Significant
Interactional Justice	0.25**	0.39**	1	Significant
Affective Commitment	0.48**	0.41**	0.56**	Significant
Continuance Commitment	0.68**	0.19**	0.24**	Significant
Normative Commitment	0.56**	0.42**	0.55**	Significant
Job Involvement	0.49**	0.48**	0.69**	Significant
Task Performance	0.42**	0.40**	0.54**	Significant
Contextual Performance	0.48**	0.42**	0.64**	Significant

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

As per table 6.6 all independent variables are positively and significantly correlated with all dependent variables. It is clear from results that the multiple correlations are ranged from 0.19 to 0.68, indicating that the various dimensions of organizational justice and various dimensions of employee work outcomes are correlated to each other.

More specifically, ***distributive justice*** has significant and positive associations with affective commitment (r = 0.48, p<0.01); with continuance commitment (r = 0.68, p<0.01) and with normative commitment (r = 0.56, p<0.01). This implies that if employees believe the work schedule, pay, work load, job responsibilities and rewards are reasonably fair they will have a strong willingness to stay, attach and identify with the goals of their organizations. There is comparatively high correlation between distributive justice and continuance commitment which is denoted by r = 0.68. It implies that distributive justice has greater significant relationship with continuance commitment.

In the same way, distributive justice has significant and positive associations with job involvement (r = 0.49, p<0.01); with task performance (r = 0.42, p<0.01) and with contextual performance (r = 0.48, p<0.01). Distributive justice has more significant and positive relationship with job involvement than with task and contextual performance. It indicates the more favourable distributive justice, the more likely positive employee involvement in their organizational works. This indicates that when employees perceive the work schedule, pay, work load, job responsibilities and rewards to be fair they reciprocate by involving more in their job.

Likewise, the correlation results show that the ***procedural justice*** has some level of significant and positive relationships with all dimensions of employee work outcomes. However, procedural justice has significant and moderate degree of correlation with affective commitment (r = 0.41, p<0.01) and normative commitment (r = 0.42, p<0.01). But, the results indicate that there is lower degree of relationship between procedural justice and continuance commitment (r = 0.19, p<0.01).

On the other hand, procedural justice has significant and positive associations with job involvement (r = 0.48, p<0.01); with task performance (r = 0.40, p<0.01) and with contextual performance (r = 0.42, p<0.01). The results indicate that procedural justice has more significant and positive relationship with job involvement than with task and contextual performance. It indicates the more favourable procedural justice, the more likely positive employee involvement in their organizational works. This indicates that when employees perceive behaviours of managers consisting of *unbiased manner, dealing with employee concerns, collecting accurate and complete information, clarifying decisions and providing additional information, applying job decisions consistently and allowing to challenge or appeal job decisions* to fair they reciprocate by involving more in their job.

Interactional justice is also one of the key dimensions of organizational justice. As per table 6.6 the correlation results shows that the ***interactional justice*** has some level of significant and positive relationships with all dimensions of employee work outcomes. This justice dimension has significant and positive relationship with affective commitment (r = 0.56, p<0.01) and normative commitment (r = 0.55, p<0.01). But, the results indicate that there is low degree of relationship between interactional justice and continuance commitment (r = 0.24, p<0.01).

Similarly, interactional justice has significant and positive associations with job involvement (r = 0.69, p<0.01). The results indicate that interactional justice has significant and high degree of correlation with job involvement. It means the more favourable interactional justice, the more likely positive employee involvement in their organizational works.

Regarding employee performance, interactional justice has significant and positive associations with contextual performance (r = 0.64, p<0.01) and task performance (r = 0.54, p<0.01). It means that there is high degree of relationship between interactional justice and contextual performance than that with task performance.

6.5 Comparative Relationship between OJ Dimensions and Employee Work Outcomes Dimensions in Public and Private Organizations

This section presents the results of a correlation analysis which are computed to find out relationships among the organizational justice dimensions and employee work outcomes dimensions in public and private organizations. Table 6.7 shows the summary of the results.

Table 6.7: Summary of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Showing the Relationship among OJ Dimensions and Employee Work Outcomes Dimensions in Public and Private Organization

Ownership Patterns	Variables	DJ	PJ	IJ	Remarks
Public Organizations	Distributive Justice	1			
	Procedural Justice	0.32**	1		Significant
	Interactional Justice	0.35**	0.30**	1	Significant
	Affective Commitment	0.64**	0.50*	0.37*	Significant
	Continuance Commitment	0.54**	0.33*	0.23*	Significant
	Normative Commitment	0.60**	0.35**	0.49*	Significant
	Job Involvement	0.45**	0.41**	0.52**	Significant
	Task Performance	0.46**	0.32**	0.36**	Significant
	Contextual Performance	0.43**	0.39**	0.52*	Significant
Private Organizations	Distributive Justice	1			
	Procedural Justice	0.22**	1		Significant
	Interactional Justice	0.37**	0.40**	1	Significant
	Affective Commitment	0.52*	0.32**	0.66**	Significant
	Continuance Commitment	0.36*	0.10*	0.16**	Significant
	Normative Commitment	0.37**	0.28**	0.40**	Significant
	Job Involvement	0.33**	0.30**	0.68**	Significant
	Task Performance	0.35**	0.42**	0.42**	Significant
	Contextual Performance	0.34**	0.31**	0.46**	Significant

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

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Above table shows that there is significant correlation among various organizational justice dimensions and employee work outcomes dimensions in both public and private organizations. In this study, 765 respondents are participated, among them 134 respondents are represented from the public organizations and 631 participants are represented from the private organizations.

In **public organizations**, positive correlations are found between *distributive justice* and affective commitment (r = 0.64, < 0.01), continuance commitment (r = 0.54, p < 0.01), normative commitment (r = 0.60, p <0.01). It indicates that the distributive justice is highly correlated with affective commitment. It is followed by normative commitment and continuance commitment. In the same way, distributive justice and job involvement is moderately correlated. Its value of r is 0.45. In case of job performance, distributive justice is significantly correlated with task performance (r = 0.46, < 0.01) and contextual performance (r = 0.43, p < 0.01).

Likewise, positive correlations are found between *procedural justice* and affective commitment (r = 0.50, < 0.01), continuance commitment (r = 0.33, p < 0.01), normative commitment (r = 0.35, p <0.01). It indicates that the procedural justice is highly correlated with affective commitment. It is followed by normative commitment and continuance commitment. In the same way, procedural justice and job involvement is moderately correlated (r = 0.41, p <0.01).

In case of job performance, procedural justice is significantly correlated with task performance (r = 0.32, < 0.01) and contextual performance (r = 0.39, p < 0.01). On the other hand, there are positive correlations between *interactional justice* and affective commitment (r = 0.37, < 0.01), and normative commitment (r = 0.49, p <0.01). But there is no strong correlation between interactional justice and continuance commitment (r = 0.23, p <0.01). Likewise, interactional justice and job involvement is highly correlated (r = 0.52, p <0.01). In case of job performance, interactional justice is significantly correlated with task performance (r = 0.36, < 0.01) and highly correlated with contextual performance r = 0.52, p < 0.01).

Similarly, in **private organizations**, positive correlations are found between *distributive justice* and affective commitment (r = 0.52, < 0.01), continuance commitment (r = 0.36, p < 0.01), normative commitment (r = 0.37, p <0.01). It indicates that the distributive justice is highly correlated with affective commitment. It is followed by normative commitment and continuance commitment. In the same way, distributive justice and job involvement is moderately correlated. Its value of r is 0.33. In case of job performance, distributive justice is significantly correlated with task performance (r = 0.35, < 0.01) and contextual performance (r = 0.34, p < 0.01).

Regarding *procedural justice*, positive correlation is found between procedural justice and affective commitment (r = 0.32, < 0.01). But, there is no strong correlation between procedural justice and continuance commitment (r = 0.10, p <0.05) and normative commitment (r = 0.28, p <0.01). Likewise, procedural justice and job involvement is moderately correlated (r = 0.30, p <0.01). In case of job performance, procedural justice is significantly correlated with task performance (r = 0.42, < 0.01) and contextual performance (r = 0.31, p < 0.01).

There are positive correlations between *interactional justice* and affective commitment (r = 0.66, < 0.01), and normative commitment (r = 0.40, p <0.01). But there is no strong correlation between interactional justice and continuance commitment (r = 0.16, p <0.01). Likewise, interactional justice and job involvement is highly correlated (r = 0.68, p <0.01). In case of job performance, interactional justice is significantly correlated with task performance (r = 0.42, < 0.01) and moderately correlated with contextual performance (r = 0.46, p < 0.01).

Finally, it can be concluded that, there is high correlation between distributive justice and organizational commitment dimensions in the public organizations than the private organizations. Likewise, there is high correlation between distributive justice and job involvement and distributive justice and job performance dimensions in the public organizations than the private organizations. However, high positive correlations are

found between interactional justice and affective commitment, job involvement and task performance in private organizations than the public organizations.

6.6 Sector-wise Relationship between OJ Dimensions and Employee Work Outcomes Dimensions

This section presents the results of a correlation analysis computed to find relationships among the organizational justice dimensions and employee work outcomes dimensions in banking and insurance sectors of Nepal. Table 6.8 shows the summary of the results.

Table 6.8: Summary of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Showing the Relationship among OJ Dimensions and Employee Work Outcomes Dimensions in Banking and Insurance Sector

Sectors	Variables	DJ	PJ	IJ	Remarks
Banking Sector	Distributive Justice	1			
	Procedural Justice	0.18**	1		Significant
	Interactional Justice	0.54**	0.43**	1	Significant
	Affective Commitment	0.65**	0.08**	0.58**	Significant
	Continuance Commitment	0.43**	0.05**	0.18**	Significant
	Normative Commitment	0.58**	0.08**	0.35**	Significant
	Job Involvement	0.36**	0.32**	0.62**	Significant
	Task Performance	0.30**	0.28**	0.48**	Significant
	Contextual Performance	0.32**	0.26**	0.52**	Significant
Insurance Sector	Distributive Justice	1			
	Procedural Justice	0.46**	1		Significant
	Interactional Justice	0.35**	0.15**	1	Significant
	Affective Commitment	0.68**	0.47**	0.63**	Significant
	Continuance Commitment	0.44**	0.41**	0.20**	Significant
	Normative Commitment	0.64**	0.52**	0.45**	Significant
	Job Involvement	0.47**	0.34**	0.66**	Significant
	Task Performance	0.35**	0.29**	0.51**	Significant
	Contextual Performance	0.34**	0.27**	0.56**	Significant

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 6.8 presents the correlation analysis results showing the relationship among organizational justice dimensions and employee work outcomes dimensions in banking and insurance sector.

There are significant correlations among various organizational justice dimensions and employee work outcomes dimension in both banking and insurance sector organizations. In this study, 765 respondents are participated, among them 581 respondents are represented from the banking sector and 184 participants are represented from the insurance sector.

In **banking sector**, distributive justice has been found positively and significantly correlated with employee work outcomes dimensions: affective commitment (r = 0.65, < 0.01), continuance commitment (r = 0.43, p < 0.01), normative commitment (r = 0.58, p <0.01), job involvement (r = 0.36, < 0.01), task performance (r = 0.30, < 0.01) and contextual performance (r = 0.32, p < 0.01). There is no correlation between *procedural justice* and affective commitment (r = 0.08, < 0.01), continuance commitment (r = 0.05, p < 0.01), and normative commitment (r = 0.08, p <0.01). Procedural justice and job involvement is moderately correlated (r = 0.32, p <0.01).

In case of job performance, there is low degree of correlations between procedural justice and task performance (r = 0.28, < 0.01) and contextual performance (r = 0.26, p < 0.01). On the other hand, there are positive correlations between *interactional justice* and affective commitment (r = 0.58, < 0.01), normative commitment (r = 0.35, p <0.01), job involvement (r = 0.62, p <0.01), task performance (r = 0.48, < 0.01) and contextual performance (r = 0.52, p < 0.01). But there is lower level of relationship between interactional justice and continuance commitment (r = 0.18, < 0.01).

In **insurance sector**, positive correlations are found between *distributive justice* and affective commitment (r = 0.68, < 0.01), continuance commitment (r = 0.44, p < 0.01), normative commitment (r = 0.64, p <0.01). It indicates that the distributive justice is highly correlated with affective commitment. It is followed by normative commitment

and continuance commitment. In the same way, distributive justice and job involvement is moderately correlated (r = 0.47, p <0.01).

In case of job performance, distributive justice is significantly correlated with task performance (r = 0.35, < 0.01) and contextual performance (r = 0.34, p<0.01). Regarding *procedural justice*, positive correlation is found between procedural justice and affective commitment (r = 0.47, < 0.01), continuance commitment (r = 0.41, p <0.01) and normative commitment (r = 0.52, p<0.05). Likewise, procedural justice and job involvement is moderately correlated (r = 0.34, p <0.01). In case of job performance, there are low level of correlation between procedural justice with task performance (r = 0.29, < 0.01) and contextual performance (r = 0.27, p < 0.01). There are positive correlations between *interactional justice* and affective commitment (r = 0.63, < 0.01), and normative commitment (r = 0.45, p <0.01). But there is no strong correlation between interactional justice and continuance commitment (r = 0.20, p <0.01). Likewise, interactional justice and job involvement is highly correlated (r = 0.66, p <0.01). In case of job performance, interactional justice is significantly correlated with task performance (r = 0.51, < 0.01) and highly correlated with contextual performance r = 0.56, p < 0.01).

Finally, it can be concluded that, there is higher degree of correlations among justice dimensions and employee work outcomes dimensions in insurance sector than banking sector.

6.7 Concluding Remarks

This chapter has presented relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes in Nepal. It has also presented relationship between OJ and various dimensions of employee work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance).

In next section, this chapter has presented relationship between OJ dimensions and employee work outcomes dimensions. It also presented comparative relationship between

OJ dimensions and employee work outcomes dimensions in public and private organizations. Finally, it has also presented sector-wise relationship between OJ dimensions and employee work outcomes dimensions. It has shown the relationship between OJ dimensions and employee work outcomes dimensions in banking sector and insurance sector of Nepal.

Chapter 7

Effects of Organizational Justice on Employee Work Outcomes in Nepal

7.1 Background

As expected the correlations among various dimensions of organizational justice and employee work outcomes are found positive and significant. One of the major objectives of this study is to examine the effects of each dimension of organizational justice i.e. distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice on employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance.

The results test of normality, multicollinearity and correlation analysis discussed in previous chapter fulfils the required conditions for regression analysis. Thus, the regression analysis can be carried out. So, this chapter presents the results of multiple regression analysis to determine the contributions or effects of the independent variable which is organizational justice towards employee work outcomes such as *organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance (in terms of task performance and contextual performance)* among employees in service sector of Nepal. Especially following research hypotheses are tested in this part of the study:

H 1: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on organizational commitment.

H 1a: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived distributive justice on organizational commitment.

H 1b: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived procedural justice on organizational commitment.

H 1c: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived interactional justice on organizational commitment.

H 2: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on employee job involvement.

H 2a: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived distributive justice on employee job involvement.

H 2b: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived procedural justice on employee job involvement.

H 2c: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived interactional justice on employee job involvement.

H 3: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on job performance.

H 3a: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived distributive justice on job performance.

H 3b: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived procedural justice on job performance.

H 3c: There is a positive and significant effect of perceived interactional justice on job performance.

7.2 Effects of Perceived Organizational Justice on Organizational Commitment

In this section, multiple regression analysis is applied to ascertain how much of organizational commitment is effected by different dimensions of organizational justice in Nepalese organizations.

Table 7.1: Regression Result of Organizational Justice and Organizational Commitment

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	38.33	2.10	18.25	0.00**
	Distributive Justice	2.10	0.08	26.25	0.00**
	Procedural Justice	0.39	0.06	6.5	0.00**
	Interactional Justice	0.10	0.05	2	0.04*
R = 0.748, R² = 0.559, Adjusted R² = 0.557, F-Value = 321.502					
Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01					

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

The table 7.1 expresses the value of R, R^2 and adjusted R^2 along with standard error of estimate (Se). Collectively, justice dimensions have explained 55.9% variance ($R^2 = 0.559$, $F = 321.502$, $p<0.01$) in organizational commitment. So the model is significant and there is a goodness of fit.

Table 7.1 provides results regarding main effects of justice dimensions on organizational commitment. The analyses reveal that distributive justice is significantly and positively related to organizational commitment (= 2.10, p<0.01). The results show that procedural justice has significant positive relationship with organizational commitment (= 0.39, p< 0.01). Interactional justice has significant positive relationship with organizational commitment (= 0.10, p<0.01). Thus, the results indicate that there is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on organizational commitment. Thus, these findings provide support for H1, H1a, H1b and H1c. Out of three justice dimensions; the results indicate that distributive justice has shown its strong influence on developing organizational commitment.

7.2.1 Regression Result for Affective Commitment

In this section, the data is tested using the linear regression analysis to look at the effects of organizational justice dimensions to the affective commitment of the respondents. The results are shown in the following table:

Table 7.2: Regression Result of Organizational Justice and Affective Commitment

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients			
		B	Std. Error	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	10.76	0.99	10.83	0.00**
	Distributive Justice	0.82	0.04	20.72	0.00**
	Procedural Justice	0.22	0.03	7.69	0.00**
	Interactional Justice	0.28	0.02	12.10	0.00**
R = 0.776, R^2 = 0.602, Adjusted R^2 = 0.600, F-Value = 383.114					
Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01					

a. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

The regression model is observed to be significant (F= 383.114, Sig. <0.01) and could thus be used for analysis. Based on the beta coefficient from the above table, the

regression weight for 'distributive justice' is 0.82, 'procedural justice' is 0.22 and 'interactional justice' is 0.28. The results are proved that DJ, PJ and IJ affect AC positively and significantly.

7.2.2 Regression Result for Continuance Commitment

In this section, the effects of justice dimensions and perceptions of continuance commitment are investigated using multiple linear regression analysis. The results are shown in following table:

Table 7.3: Regression Result of Organizational Justice and Continuance Commitment

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	16.76	1.35	12.44	0.00**
	Distributive Justice	0.67	0.05	12.48	0.00**
	Procedural Justice	0.13	0.04	3.20	0.00**
	Interactional Justice	0.04	0.03	1.37	0.17
R = 0.457, R^2 = 0.209, Adjusted R^2 = 0.205, F-Value = 66.841 Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01					

a. Dependent Variable: Continence Commitment

The results from multiple regression analysis in Table 7.3 indicate that there are significant and positive effects of distributive and procedural justice on continuance commitment. But the results indicate that there is no significant effect of interactional justice on continuance commitment.

7.2.3 Regression Result for Normative Commitment

In this section, the effects of justice dimensions and perceptions of normative commitment are investigated using multiple linear regression analysis.

Table 7.4: Regression Result of Organizational Justice and Normative Commitment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error		
1 (Constant)	10.81	0.73	14.77	0.00**
Distributive Justice	0.62	0.03	21.14	0.00**
Procedural Justice	0.05	0.02	2.17	0.03*
Interactional Justice	0.13	0.02	7.88	0.00**
R = 0.621, R² = 0.385, Adjusted R² = 0.383, F-Value = 159.071 Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01				

a. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

The analyses reveal that distributive justice is significantly and positively related to normative commitment (= 0.62, p<0.01). The results also show that procedural justice has significant positive relationship with normative commitment (= 0.05, p<0.05). Interactional justice has also significant positive relationship with normative commitment (= 0.13, p<0.01). The results indicate that distributive justice has shown its strong influence in developing normative commitment.

7.3 Effects of Perceived Organizational Justice on Job Involvement

In this section, multiple regression is applied to ascertain how much of job involvement is effected by different dimensions of organizational justice in Nepalese organizations. The results of linear regression analysis for the influence of organizational justice dimensions towards job involvement are shown in Table 7.5:

Table 7.5: Regression Result of Organizational Justice and Job Involvement

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error		
1 (Constant)	18.29	1.63	11.19	0.00**
Distributive Justice	0.19	0.07	2.98	0.00**
Procedural Justice	0.08	0.05	1.6	0.03*
Interactional Justice	0.87	0.04	22.72	0.00**
R = 0.702 R² = 0.493, Adjusted R² = 0.491, F-Value = 246.824 Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01				

a. Dependent Variable: Job Involvement

The analyses reveal that distributive justice is significantly positively related to job involvement (= 0.19, p<0.01). Similarly, procedural justice is significantly positively related to job involvement (= 0.08, p<0.05) and interactional justice is also significantly positively related to job involvement (= 0.87, p<0.01). Thus, the results indicate that there is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on employee job involvement. Thus, these findings provide support for H2, H2a, H2b and H2c. Out of three justice dimensions; the results indicate that interactional justice has shown its strong influence in developing employee job involvement.

7.4 Effects of Perceived Organizational Justice on Job Performance

In this section, linear regression analysis is used to establish which study variable (organizational justice dimensions: DJ, PJ and IJ) has the most influence on the dependent variable (JP). The results are presented in Table 7.6:

Table 7.6: Regression Result of Organizational Justice and Job Performance

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error		
1 (Constant)	40.53	2.33	17.39	0.00**
Distributive Justice	0.11	0.09	1.22	0.02*
Procedural Justice	0.08	0.07	1.22	0.03*
Interactional Justice	0.55	0.05	10.13	0.00**

R = 0.458, R^2 = 0.21, Adjusted R^2 = 0.207, F-Value = 67.45
Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01
a. Dependent Variable: Job Performance

The analyses reveal that distributive justice is significantly and positively related to job performance (= 0.11, p<0.05). Similarly, procedural justice is significantly and positively related to job performance (= 0.08, p<0.05) and interactional justice is also significantly and positively related to job performance (= 0.55, p<0.01). Thus, the results indicate that there is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on job performance. Thus, these findings provide support for H3, H3a, H3b and H3c.

Out of three justice dimensions; the results indicate that interactional justice has shown its strong effect in developing employee job performance. Thus, interactional justice has the highest effect on employee job performance followed by distributive justice and whereas procedural justice has very least effect on employee job performance.

7.4.1 Effects of Perceived Organizational Justice on Task Performance

In this section, the regression analysis is used to find the effects of distributive procedural and interactional justice on task performance. The regression results are presented in the following table.

Table 7.7: Regression Result of Organizational Justice and Task Performance

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	16.78	0.88	19.01	0.00**
	Distributive Justice	0.05	0.09	0.60	0.03*
	Procedural Justice	0.03	0.03	0.98	0.02*
	Interactional Justice	0.22	0.02	10.43	0.00**

R = 0.445,
R² = 0.198,
Adjusted R² = 0.195,
F-Value = 62.613
Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01

a. Dependent Variable: Task Performance

Table 7.7 provides the regression analyses. The analyses reveal that distributive justice to be significantly and positively related to task performance (= 0.05, p<0.01), procedural justice to be significantly and positively related to task performance (= 0.03, p<0.01) and interactional justice to be significantly and positively related to task performance (= 0.22, p<0.01) explaining 19.8% variance in task performance (R²= 0.198, F = 62.613, p<0.01).

7.4.2 Effects of Perceived Organizational Justice on Contextual Performance

In this section, the regression analysis is used to find the effects of distributive, procedural and interactional justice on contextual performance. The regression results are presented in the following table.

Table 7.8: Regression Result of Organizational Justice and Contextual Performance

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error		
1	(Constant)	23.74	1.52	15.60	0.00**
	Distributive Justice	0.11	0.06	1.87	0.04*
	Procedural Justice	0.06	0.04	1.30	0.03*
	Interactional Justice	0.34	0.04	9.47	0.00**
R = 0.449, R² = 0.202, Adjusted R² = 0.199, F-Value = 64.191 Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01					

a. Dependent Variable: Contextual Performance

Table 7.8 provides the regression analyses. The analyses reveal that distributive justice to be significantly and positively related to contextual performance (= 0.11, p<0.05), procedural justice to be significantly and positively related to contextual performance (= 0.06, p<0.05) and interactional justice to be significantly and positively related to contextual performance (= 0.34, p<0.01) explaining 20.2% variance in contextual performance (R²= 0.202, F = 64.191, p<0.01).

7.5 Structural Model of the Study Variables

Based on regression analysis results, this section presents various structural models including the study variables.

7.5.1 Structural Model of Dimensions of Organizational Justice (OJ) and Dimensions of Organizational Commitment (OC)

This section of the study presents the structural model of dimensions of organizational justice and dimensions of organizational commitment.

FIGURE 7.1: Structural Model of OJ Dimension and OC Dimensions
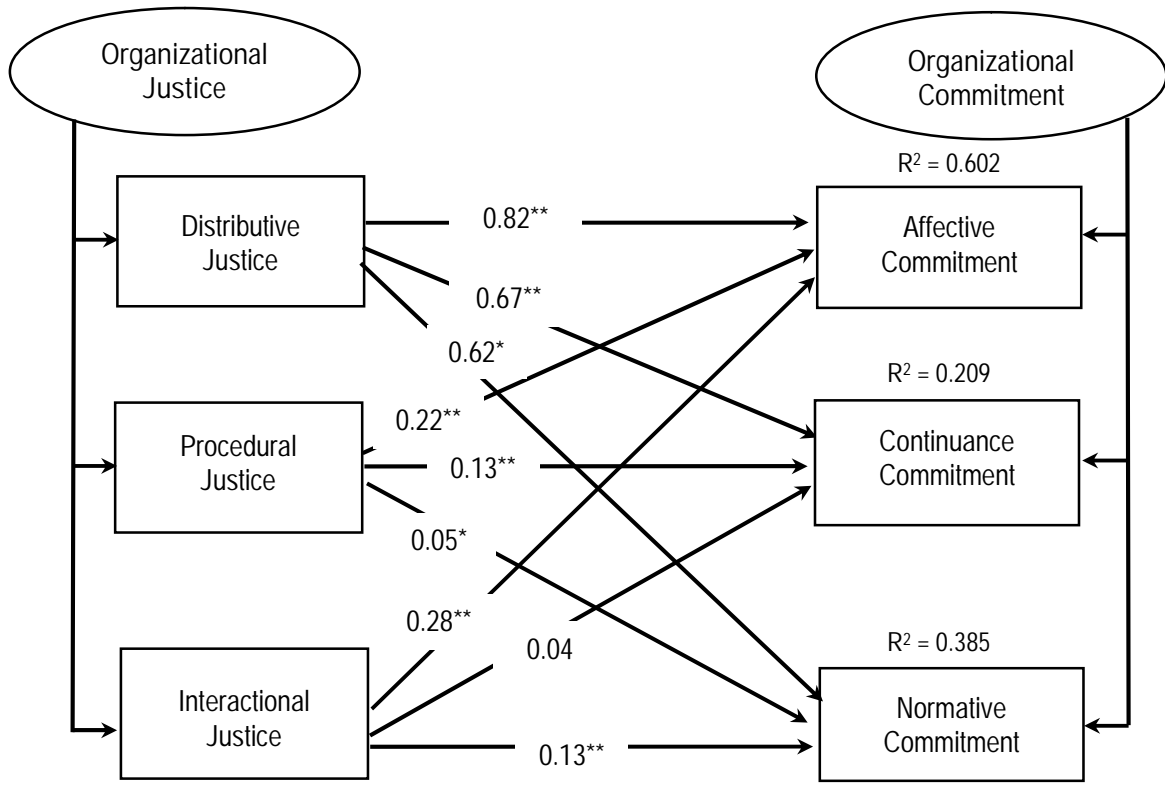
Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01

The model demonstrates that there is significant relationship between employees' perceptions of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice on their affective commitment.

In the same way all three justice components have significant effects on continuance commitment and normative commitment.

However, the results indicate that distributive justice has shown its strong influence in developing all three types of commitments.

7.5.2 Structural Model of Dimensions of Organizational Justice and Job Involvement

This section presents the structural model of dimensions of organizational justice and job involvement. It also presents the effects of organizational justice dimensions on job involvement.

FIGURE 7.2: Structural Model of OJ Dimensions and Job Involvement
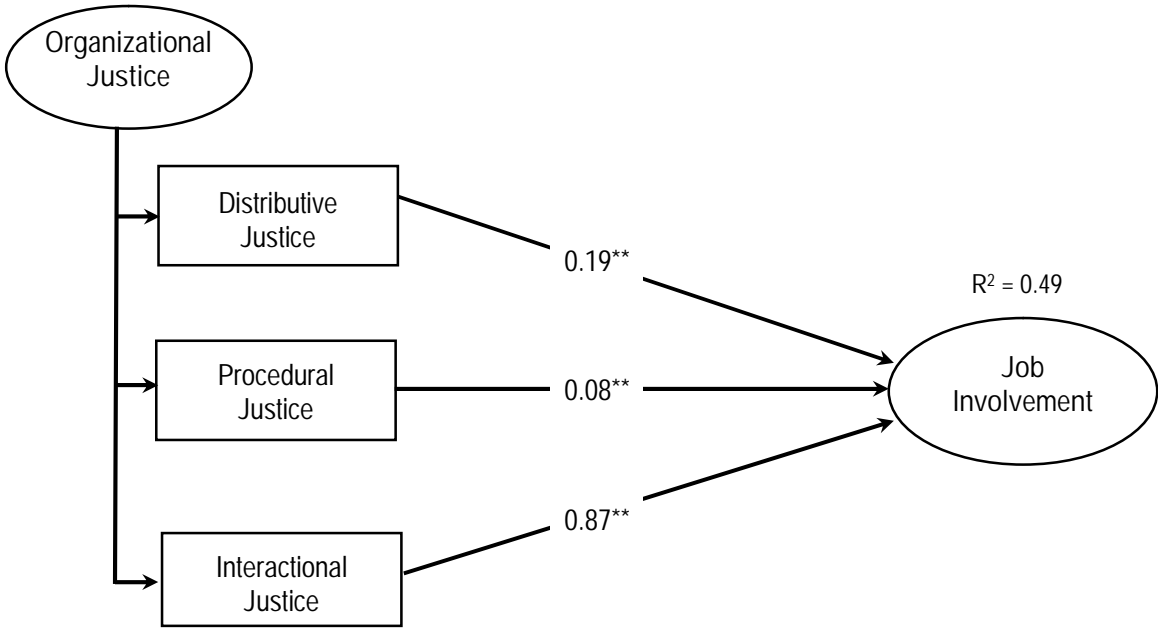
Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01

The structure model demonstrates that there is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on employee job involvement. As the matter of fact, out of three justice dimensions, interactional justice has shown its strong influence in developing employee job involvement whereas procedural justice has least influence on employee job involvement.

7.5.3 Structural Model of Dimensions of Organizational Justice (OJ) and Dimensions of Job Performance (JP)

This section presents the structural model of dimensions of organizational justice and dimensions of job performance. It also presents the effects of organizational justice

dimensions on job performance dimensions such as task performance and contextual performance.

FIGURE 7.3: Structural Model of OJ Dimensions and JP Dimensions
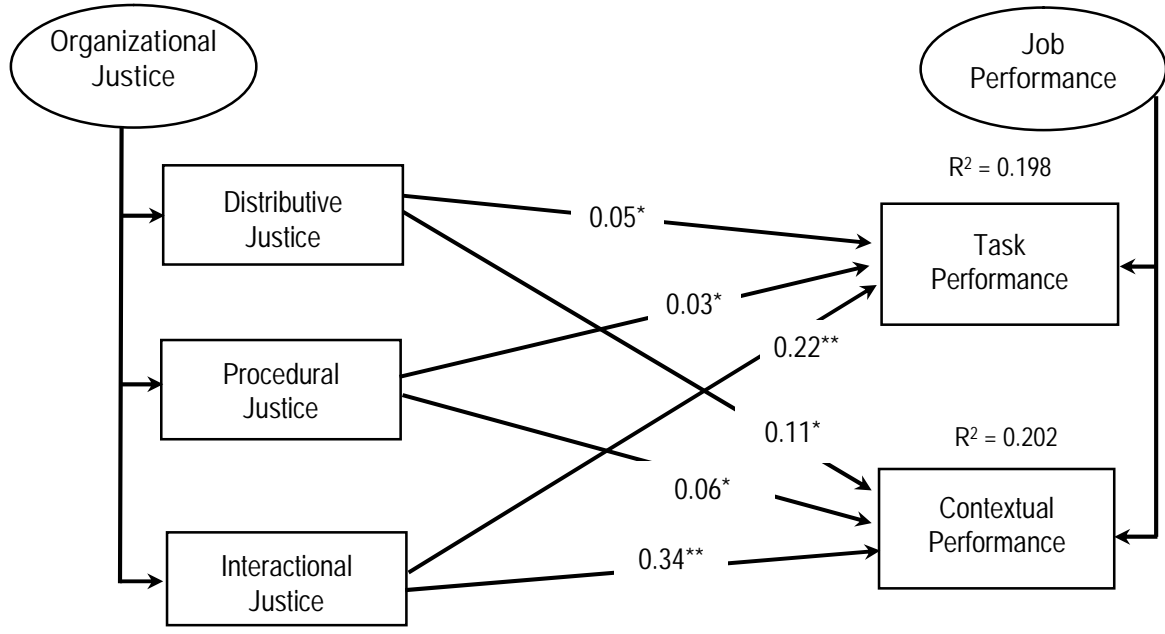
Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01

Regarding the **task performance**, the structural model demonstrates that there is significant effect of employees' perceptions of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice on their task performance. However, the results show that, out of three justice dimensions, interactional justice has shown its strong influence in developing employee task performance. Meanwhile, regarding the **contextual performance**, there is significant effect of all three organizational justice dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice and interaction justice) on employee contextual performance. However, the results show that, out of three justice dimensions, interactional justice has also shown its strong influence in developing employee contextual performance.

Thus, it can be concluded that the interactional justice plays major role in enhancing employee job performance in Nepalese organizations. It means Nepalese managers can enhance employee performance giving more focus on interactional and interpersonal relationship with employees.

7.5.4 Structural Model of Dimensions of Organizational Justice (OJ) and Employee Work Outcomes (EWOs)

Finally, this section of the study presents the structural model of all dimensions of organizational justice and employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance. The following model (framework) can be drawn as the conclusions of the study that can be a basis for theorizing:

FIGURE 7.4: Structural Model of OJ Dimensions and Employee Work Outcomes Dimensions
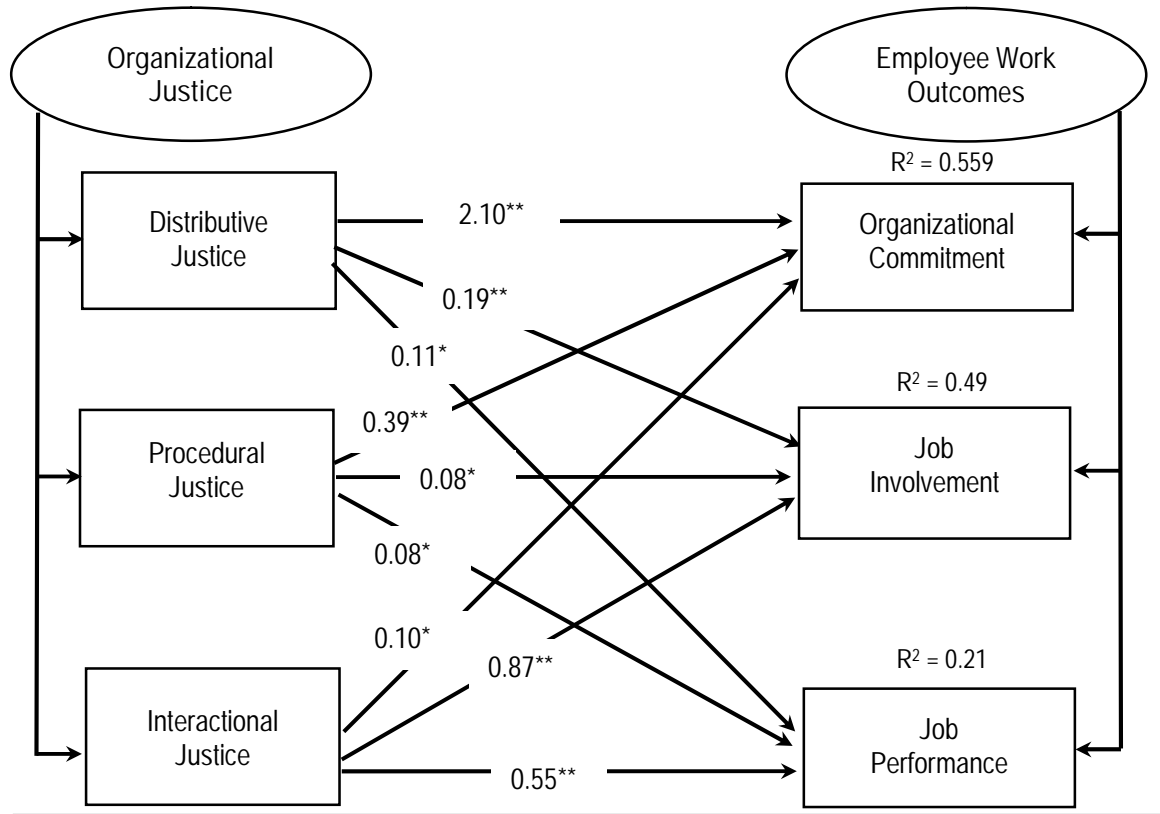
Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01

The structural model demonstrates that there is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice dimensions on organizational commitment. In the same way, there is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice dimensions on job involvement. Similarly, there is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice dimensions on job performance. Thus, these findings provide support for all the hypotheses, H1, H1a, H1b & H1c; H2, H2a, H2b & H2c and H3, H3a, H3b & H3c.

7.6 Test of Hypothesis (H4)

This section of the study is concerned with testing hypothesis H4. The stated hypothesis (H4) is:

There is a significant different between work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) of employees from public and private organizations on the basis of organizational justice.

To test this hypothesis, this section presents the results of analyses of variances of employee work outcomes components between public and private organizations. Table 7.9 shows the summary of the results.

**Table 7.9: Analyses of Variances of Employee Work Outcomes Components
between Public and Private Organizations**

Employee Work Outcomes Components	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Organizational Commitment	Between Groups	820.47	1	820.47	10.87	0.00**
	Within Groups	57604.73	763	75.50		
	Total	58425.20	764			
Job Involvement	Between Groups	821.92	1	821.92	20.92	0.00**
	Within Groups	29972.34	763	39.28		
	Total	30794.26	764			
Job Performance	Between Groups	950.65	1	950.65	18.48	0.00**
	Within Groups	39240.95	763	51.43		
	Total	40191.60	764			

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 7.9 shows significant differences between respondents from public organizations and private organizations in terms of employee work outcomes i.e. organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance. It is clearly apparent that all outcomes differ significantly at the $p<0.01$ level of significance. Thus, it can be

concluded that employees hold different level of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance as perceived by respondents of public sector organizations and private sector organizations. Hence, these findings provided support for H 4.

7.7 Results for Hypotheses

The following table 7.10 gives the results and summary of hypotheses that are tested in this study.

Table 7.10: Summary of Hypotheses Tested in this Study

	Hypotheses	**Results**
H 1	There is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on organizational commitment.	**Supported**
H 1a	There is a positive and significant effect of perceived distributive justice on organizational commitment.	**Supported**
H 1b	There is a positive and significant effect of perceived procedural justice on organizational commitment.	**Supported**
H 1c	There is a positive and significant effect of perceived interactional justice on organizational commitment.	**Supported**
H 2	There is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on employee job involvement.	**Supported**
H 2a	There is a positive and significant effect of perceived distributive justice on employee job involvement.	**Supported**
H 2b	There is a positive and significant effect of perceived procedural justice on employee job involvement.	**Supported**
H 2c	There is a positive and significant effect of perceived interactional justice on employee job involvement.	**Supported**
H 3	There is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on job performance.	**Supported**

H 3a	There is a positive and significant effect of perceived distributive justice on job performance.	**Supported**
H 3b	There is a positive and significant effect of perceived procedural justice on job performance.	**Supported**
H 3c	There is a positive and significant effect of perceived interactional justice on job performance.	**Supported**
H 4	There is a significant different between work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) of employees from public and private organizations on the basis of organizational justice.	**Supported**

7.8 Concluding Remarks

This chapter is concerned with examining effects of organizational justice on employee work outcomes in Nepal. So, it has presented effects of perceived organizational justice on organizational commitment based on regression result for affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. It has also presented the effects of perceived organizational justice on job involvement.

Similarly, this chapter has presented the effects of perceived organizational justice on job performance in terms of task performance and contextual performance with the help of regression analysis. On the next section of this chapter, different structural models of the study variables have been presented. Hypothesis H4 is also tasted in next section of this chapter. Finally, the results and summary of hypotheses tested are presented at the end of this chapter.

Chapter 8

Findings and Conclusions

8.1 Background

This study is set out to provide a better understanding of the relationship and effects of organizational justice on work outcomes from employee perspective. This final chapter provides summary and an overview of major conclusions, discussions and conclusions of the empirical findings of this research. Some recommendations for further research are also presented. Finally, this chapter provides some research implications and ways to improve organizational justice in organizations.

8.2 Summary

Employees are the most important resources of every organization. This is because the long-term viability and effectiveness of any organization critically depend on the employees' skills, expertise, competencies and proactive behaviours which include perception of justice. In today's competitive business world, employees and organization need to go together so that goals of both are achieved. However, the employees want to be valued for their works, contributions, efforts, skills and abilities. So, organization and its managers need to treat their employees with respect and dignity. They need to follow the principles of organizational justice.

Organizational justice is a term used to describe the role of fairness as it directly relates to the workplace. Specifically, organizational justice is concerned with the ways in which employees are treated. If the employees have been treated fairly that would influence their work outcomes. Employee's perceptions relate to three dimensions of organizational justice: *distributive justice, procedural justice*, and *interactional justice*.

Distributive justice is one of the key dimensions of organizational justice. This justice dimension is concerned with the perceived fairness of the outcomes that an individual receives from organization. Outcomes may be distributed on the basis of equality, need or contribution and individuals determine the fairness of distribution through comparison with others. Distributive justice assumes the fair distribution of organizational resources. It determines employees' perceptions about work schedule, pay, work load, job responsibilities, rewards and similar results.

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Second dimension is p*rocedural justice*. This dimension of justice is concerned with employee perceptions about the fairness of the rules and procedures that regulate a process. It is the perception of justice in the decision-making process. This kind of justice is based on the perception that the reasons for the decisions taken by the management are justified. The concept of procedural justice hinges on an individual's assessment about rightness or wrongness of procedures and methods in decision making relevant to him or others. This justice is related to equity in procedures applied in organizations and organizational procedures in decision-making. These procedures generally include promotions; performance assessment, rewards and sharing other organizational opportunities and the criteria used for making decisions regarding organizational practices. In general, if organizational processes and procedures are perceived to be fair, employees will be more satisfied, more willing to accept the resolution of that procedure, and more likely to form positive attitudes about the organization and work outcomes.

The third dimension of organizational justice is ***interactional justice***. This dimension of justice is concerned with the fairness of the interpersonal treatment of the employees by the authority figure or managers. It plays an important role in the workplace due to the impact of fair or unfair treatment. It is the technique in which the organization's management treats its employees with justice and it is related to the human element of the organizational practices.

The present research is based on the opinions collected from the employees working in service sector organization (mainly from banking sector and insurance sector). The service sector is one of the important areas of Nepalese economy. This sector is perhaps the most regulated sector of the economy. As Nepal is marching towards a service-oriented economy, service sector employees need to play a major role in success of their respective organizations. Therefore, employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance (both task and conceptual performance) are the crucial issues in today's service sector organizations of Nepal. Therefore, this study focuses on organizational justice and work outcomes perspectives of employees of Nepalese service sector organizations.

In order to achieve the research objectives, a set of research questions are developed for collecting opinions and the research hypotheses are made to explore the opinions of employees of the service sector organizations. The self-administered questionnaires have been distributed to employees working in different service sector organizations. There are six parts of questionnaires. Part one, two, three, four and five consist of demographic variables, organizational justice, organizational commitment, job involvement, job performance respectively. Final part of the questionnaire consists of the questions used to discuss with managers (HR managers, branch managers and department heads) about organizational context and on their views regarding workplace justice and employee work outcomes. English version questionnaires are translated into Nepalese version questionnaire set for greater participation and responses from Nepalese employees. All the items are measured on a six-point Likert-type scale from "disagree totally (1)" to "agree totally (6)".

For the study purpose, descriptive research design is used. Descriptive statistical tools such as frequencies, mean, standard deviation to assess the perception of organizational justice and employee work outcomes. Similarly, correlation coefficient and regression are used as statistical tools. To prove the assumptions of regression model, Kolmogorov Smirnov test is used for normality test and multicollinearity is tested using collinearity statistics (VIF). Factor analysis and some of the inferential statistics such as Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and paired 't' test are used to analyze the data.

Purposive sampling techniques are followed to gather the perceptions of the respondents. This study covers 18 commercial banks and 6 insurance companies comprising of public (government and semi-government ownership) and private ownership patterns. A total of 840 copies of questionnaires are distributed. In total, 765 questionnaires have been returned, comprising a response rate of 91.10 percent.

To investigate the research questions, an empirical study is conducted and based on the research model; the research hypotheses of this study are tested. In the same way, opinions of managers about perception of organizational justice as well as employee work outcomes are also collected.

8.3 Major Findings and Discussions

Based on the analysis of empirical results, the major findings and discussions are presented in the following sections:

8.3.1 Perceived Organizational Justice

In this section, major findings of the empirical results on perceived organizational justice are presented.

Mainly, three dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice) are analyzed under perceived organizational justice. Based on descriptive statistics, the average response of employees' perceptions towards distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice are 4.50 (with S.D. = 0.12), 4.34 (with S.D. = 0.22) and 4.35 (with S.D. = 0.16). These results indicate that the Nepalese service sector employees perceive moderate level of organizational justice. Therefore, it can be concluded that this sector has moderately used the concept of organizational justice.

Comparatively, the employees perceive high level of distributive justice and low level of procedural justice. But they perceive interactional justice in between distributive justice and procedural justice. Among three dimensions of organizational justice, Nepalese employees have given more emphasis on distributive justice. It means Nepalese employees focus more on distributive justice in terms of fairness of different work outcomes including work schedule, pay level, workload, rewards, and job responsibilities. This result seems to be consistent with the findings of Niehoff and Moorman (1993), Wang et al. (2010) and Shrestha, (2013c).

The findings reveal that Nepalese employees also focus on procedural justice in terms of fairness in mechanism that insures the gathering of unbiased, accurate, and complete employee voice, as well as an appeals process. Likewise, the employees also focus on interactional justice in terms of the degree to which the employees feel they are considered and respected by the managers, and adequate

and clear explanations concerning job decisions. These results seem to be consistent with the findings of Niehoff and Moorman (1993), Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), Cropanzano et al. (2001), Masterson et al. (2000), Wang et al. (2010) and Shrestha, (2013c).

In case of ownership pattern, Nepalese public sector employees have viewed higher distributive (mean: 4.73>4.53) and interactional justice (mean: 4.42> 4.34) than private sector. This could be due to compensation policy of the Government. In public organizations, the goal of reward and compensation management is mainly legal compliance. Salary, wage and bonus are paid to the workers and employees according to law. They strictly follow the rules and regulations developed by the government. But there is no uniformity in compensation management practice and pay structure in private sector organizations. Pay level in these organizations is not satisfactory. They just try to pay as minimum as possible though many of them deserve to pay higher than that (Agrawal, 2014, Adhikari, 2009a, 2006). That is why the results show the significant differences between Nepalese public and private sectors in terms of distributive and interactional justice. Public sector employees perceive relatively higher level of distributive and interactional justice than the private sector employees. But procedural justice (mean: 4.31~ 4.35) is observed more or less in the similar level in both of these sectors.

In case of male and female, the perceptions of both male and female respondents are seemed more or less same agreement towards distributive justice (mean: 4.49~ 4.52). However, perception of female is higher towards procedural justice whereas perception of male is high towards interactional justice (mean: 4.42>4.27).

In case of banking and insurance sector, insurance sector employees hold relatively higher level of distributive (mean: 4.63>4.46), procedural (mean: 4.48>4.30) and interactional justice (mean: 4.46>4.32) than the banking sector employees.

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Thus, it can be concluded that the perception of employees of Nepalese service sector organizations in terms of organizational justice and its dimensions is at moderate level (means: 4.34 to 4.50). Most of the organizations do not conduct a genuinely fair with employees and they believe that the distribution of rewards and compensation is not so much fair as desired. But organizational interactions are fair to moderate according to them and they are not so much happy with the fair procedures in their respective organizations.

But in today's context, Nepalese managers and employees are becoming conscious about concept and principles of organizational justice in their organizations. The discussions with managers and employees also highlight that employees are conscious with the fairness of the outcomes that they receive in their organization.

In fact, distributive and interactional justice play important role to determine employee behaviour in Nepalese organizations.

8.3.2 Employee Work Outcomes

In this section, major findings and discussions of the empirical results on perception of employee work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) in Nepal are given.

8.3.2.1 Organizational Commitment

In this study, organizational commitment is measured in terms of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Affective commitment is concerned with the affective attachment to the organization, continuance commitment refers to the perceived costs of associated with leaving the organization, and normative commitment is concerned with obligation to remain with the organization. Based on empirical results, following conclusions have been drawn regarding organizational commitment:

Three components of organizational commitment significantly differ in each other in overall Nepalese respondents. The nature of commitment follows the highest affective commitment (4.92), moderate normative commitment (4.55), and the lowest continuance commitment (4.48) in Nepal. This result seems to be consistent with the findings of Gautam (2003).

In case of ownership pattern, the public sector employees are found more committed to their organizations than private sector employees.

In case of gender, results show significant differences between male and female in terms of affective commitment. The results indicate that male employees reveal slightly higher level of affective commitment than female employees (mean: 5.01>4.82). Continuance and normative commitment do not differ significantly between these two groups.

In case of banking and insurance sector, it is found that insurance sector employees hold relatively higher level of affective (mean: 5.06>4.87), continuance (mean: 4.57>4.50) and normative commitment (mean: 4.69>4.50) than the banking sector employees.

Thus, nature of commitment shows high affective, moderate normative and low continuance commitment in Nepalese organizations. Affective commitment is most desirable form of commitment in Nepal. Affectively committed employees perceive their organization as their own family, they want to exert higher effort, and they perceive organizational issues as their own issues. Normative commitment is obligatory form of commitment, thus, normatively committed employees are grateful towards their organization and friendship circle. Thus, such employees participate in extra role-behaviour, which is favorable for organizational outcomes. Nepalese organizations need to develop that kind of work environment in which their employees become more affectively and normatively committed. The discussions with manager also highlight that Nepalese employees are affectively and normatively committed toward their organizations.

8.3.2.2 Job Involvement

Job involvement is one of the key aspects of employee work outcomes. It indicates the degree to which the workplace contributes to individual's self image and satisfies important needs. Based on the analysis of employee perceptions regarding job involvement the following findings are obtained:

> Most of the employees perceive moderate level of job involvement (4.78) toward their organizations in Nepal.

> In case of ownership pattern, Nepalese public sector shows higher job involvement (mean: 5.00>4.73) than that of private sector.

> In case of male and female, male employees have tended to report higher level of job involvement (mean: 5.02>4.53) than their female counterparts.

> In case of banking and insurance sector, insurance sector employees hold relatively higher level of job involvement (mean: 4.93>4.73) than the banking sector employees.

Job involvement is a belief descriptive of an employee's relationship with the present job (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). It describes how interested, enmeshed, and engrossed the employee is in the goals, culture, and tasks of a given organization. Highly job involved individuals make the job a central part of their personal character. Besides, people with high job involvement focus most of their attention on their job (Hackett et al., 2001).

Thus, job involvement is equally important for both employee and organization. It is a positive state for individuals. The discussions with managers also highlight that employees who are highly involved in their job care deeply about their work and find it difficult to separate their work and personal lives. If the long work hours are spent on new, creative tasks, the outcome can be beneficial, both personally and professionally. So, today's Nepalese organizations need to focus on this aspect of employee work outcomes in order to make their employees more involved in organizational jobs.

8.3.2.3 Job Performance

Job performance is also one of the key aspects of employee work outcomes. It consists of both task performance and contextual performance. Based on the analysis of employee perceptions regarding job performance the following findings are obtained:

> The perception of employees of Nepalese organizations regarding the task performance (5.17) is found strong. In the same way, their perception of regarding the contextual performance (5.12) is also found strong.

> In case of ownership pattern, Nepalese public sector shows higher task (mean: 5.36>5.13) and contextual performance (mean: 5.30>5.08) than private sector. It means public sector employees hold relatively higher level of task and contextual performance than the private sector employees.

> In case of male and female, male employees show slightly higher level of both task (mean: 5.31>5.03) and contextual performance (mean: 5.27>4.97) than female employees.

> In case of banking and insurance sector, insurance sector employees hold relatively higher level of task (mean: 5.28>5.14) and contextual performance (mean: 5.25>5.08) than the banking sector employees.

Thus, job performance is ultimately important work outcomes of every employee. Employees need to perform both task performance which refers to activities that are related to their formal role requirements (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997) as well as contextual performance which refers to the performance that is not formally required as part of the job but that helps shape the social and psychological context of the organization (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Task performance is the in- role job performance whereas contextual performance is the extra-role performance that contributes to organizational effectiveness. The discussions with managers also highlight that both task and contextual performances are important because they shape the organizational, social, and psychological contexts serving as the critical catalyst for task activities and processes.

So, Nepalese organizations need to promote both types of job performance by treating their employees fairly. Mainly task performance is ultimate responsibility of every employee whereas contextual performance makes employees more involved in job related matters as well as extra-activities which enhance company image.

8.3.3 Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes

The purpose of this study is to examine if a relationship exists between perceived organizational justice and employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance. Pearson correlation has been used to test the relationship between organizational justice and various dimensions of employee work outcomes. The following conclusions, however, are based upon the findings from the data of this study.

The results shows a significant positive relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes *(r=0.61, p<0.01)*. More specifically, organizational justice has significant and positive association with employee work outcomes. The empirical results indicate that when the employees perceive the organizational activities and practices of their organizations are fair, the level of employee outcomes will be improved. This finding is supported in previous research of Akintayo and Ayodele (2012).

Based on correlations results, it is also found that all the relationships established between organizational justice and employee work outcomes are highly correlated. More specifically, the results indicate that organizational justice has a significant positive relationship with organizational commitment *(r=0.54, p<0.01)*, job involvement *(r=0.61, p<0.01)* and job performance *(r=0.63, p<0.01)*. Among them, organizational justice contributes more on employee job performance because the strength of correlation is the highest between organizational justice and job performance. This finding is supported in previous research of Nasurdin

and Khuan (2007). It is followed by the relationship between organizational justice and job involvement and relationship between organizational justice and organizational commitment. This finding is supported in previous research of Akintayo and Ayodele (2012).

Thus, as expected, there is significant relationship between organizational justice and all of the employee work outcomes components. Hence, it can be concluded that the role of organizational justice is the most important for increasing employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance in Nepalese organizations.

8.3.3.1 Organizational Justice Dimensions and Organizational Commitment

Regarding associations among three justice dimensions and organizational commitment, it is found that there is a significant, strong and positive relationship between the organizational justice (distributive justice and interactional justice) and organizational commitment. This means that employees who have high perception of distributive justice and interactional justice towards their organization tend to have high organizational commitment or verse versa. This finding is supported in previous research of Ponnu and Chuah (2010). But, there is too low degree of significant association between procedural justice and organizational commitment. So, this result does not seem to be consistent with the findings of Ponnu and Chuah (2010).

Therefore, when employees' perceptions of distributive justice and interactional justice are high, their organizational commitment is also high. Employees will be more committed to their present employer if they perceived higher fairness in the organization.

Regarding various dimensions of organizational justice (DJ, PJ and IJ) and various dimensions of organizational commitment (AC, CC and NC), following findings are obtained:

Distributive justice has significant and positive association with affective commitment *(r=0.48, p<0.01)*, continuance commitment *(r=0.68, p<0.01)* and normative commitment *(r=0.56, p<0.01)*. This implies that if employees believe the work schedule, pay, work load, job responsibilities and rewards are reasonably fair they will have a strong willingness to stay, attach and identify with the goals of their organizations. Likewise, procedural justice has significant and moderate degree of correlation with affective commitment *(r=0.41, p<0.01)* and normative commitment *(r=0.42, p<0.01)*.

But, there is lower degree of relationship between procedural justice and continuance commitment *(r=0.19, p<0.01)*. On the other hand, the interactional justice also has significant and positive relationship with affective commitment *(r=0.56, p<0.01)* and normative commitment *(r=0.55, p<0.01)*. But, there is low degree of relationship between interactional justice and continuance commitment *(r=0.24, p<0.01)*.

Based on the analyses, it can be concluded that distributive, procedural and interactional justice could have their role in making employees committed in their organizations. Findings from this study are consistent with the prior research that organizational justice resulted into improved organizational commitment (Aryee, et al. 2002; Ramamoorthy and Flood, 2004; Lambert et al. 2007; Bakhshi et al. 2009; Zaman et al. 2010; Ponnu and Chuah, 2010; Najafi et al., 2011, and Akanbi and Ofoegbu, 2013). As Yilmaz and Tasdan (2009) said very truly that positive perception of organizational justice assists employees to feel as members of the organization which influences their organizational commitment. Justice processes play important roles in the organizations and affect the quality of behavior with people in the organizations, their attitudes and commitments to the organization (Dehkordi, Mohammadi and Yektayar, 2013). Hence, organizational justice issues in organizations should, therefore, be well managed since they are important determinants of job outcomes.

8.3.3.2 Organizational Justice Dimensions and Job Involvement

Regarding relationship between three justice dimensions and job involvement there is a significant and positive relationship between organizational justice dimensions and job involvement. More specifically, results show a significant and positive relationship between distributive justice and job involvement, and procedural justice and job involvement. This finding is consistent with the researches of Akintayo and Ayodele (2012) and Ahmadi (2011) stating distributive and procedural justices have significantly positive impacts on job involvement. This indicates that when employees perceive the work schedule, pay, work load, job responsibilities and rewards to be fair they reciprocate by involving more in their job.

Similarly, employees' perceptions toward behaviours of managers that consist of unbiased manner, dealing with employee concerns, collecting accurate and complete information, clarifying decisions and providing additional information, applying job decisions consistently, and allowing to challenge or appeal job decisions also help employee to be more involved in their jobs. The results of this study also show that there is positive and significant relationship between interactional justice and job involvement.

Thus, it can be concluded that distributive, procedural and interactional justice could have their role in making employee more involved in job. It implies that the more favourable organizational justice, the more likely positive employee involvement in their organizational jobs.

Hence, the findings of this study suggest that efforts to increase levels of job involvement for employees need to consider their perceptions of fairness in organizational practices.

8.3.3.3 Organizational Justice Dimensions and Job Performance

Regarding associations between three justice dimensions and job performance, distributive justice has lower degree of significant positive correlation with job performance. In the same way, procedural justice also has lower degree of significant positive correlation with job performance. However, there is moderate degree of

significant association between interactional justice and job performance. These finding are consistent with Moazzezi, Sattari, and Bablan (2014), Haghighi et al. (2009), and Vigoda-Gadot researches (2007) stating there is a positive relationship between organizational justice and job performance.

Regarding various dimensions of organizational justice (DJ, PJ and IJ) and two dimensions of job performance (TP and CP), following findings are obtained::

> Distributive justice has significant and positive associations with both task performance and contextual performance. On the other hand, procedural justice has also significant and positive associations with task performance and contextual performance.

> Regarding employee performance, interactional justice has also significant and positive associations with contextual performance and task performance. These results indicate that all dimensions of organizational justice and task performance and contextual performance are correlated to each other.

Thus, there is a meaningful and positive relationship between organizational justice and job performance and its components. This finding is consistent with researches of Barati et al. (2009), Haghighi et al. (2009), Vigoda-Gadot (2007), Nasurdin and Khuan (2007), Aryee, Chen and Budhwar (2004) and Moazzezi, Sattari, and Bablan (2014) that concluded there is a meaningful relationship between organizational justice and the job performance.

8.3.4 Effects of Organizational Justice on Employee Work Outcomes

In this section the major findings relating to the effects of three justice dimensions on employee work outcomes are discussed.

8.3.4.1 Perceived Organizational Justice and Organizational Commitment

The present study predicts positive and significant effects of organizational justice dimensions on organizational commitment. Thus, the result supports hypotheses H1, H1a, H1b and H1c.

Organizational commitment has significant and positive relationship with distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice. The results of this study are consistent with the results of meta-analyses by Colquitt et al. (2001) and Cohen-Charash et al. (2001), as well as with other studies (e.g., Aryee et al., 2002) and Ahmad (2010). These studies had also revealed positive relationships of organizational commitment with justice dimensions.

As far as the relative strength of relationships between organizational commitment and justice types is concerned, although past research had found both distributive and procedural justices to be important predictors of workplace attitudes (e.g., Martin and Bennett, 1996; McFarlin and Sweeny, 1992), generally procedural justice was found to explain the major share of the variance in organizational commitment (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Lambert et al., 2007; Konovsky, Folger and Cropanzano, 1987; Martin and Bennett, 1996; McFarlin and Sweeny 1992). Some studies found distributive justice to have no significant relationship with commitment when procedural justice was controlled (Martin and Bennett, 1996). These studies support 1) the group-value model's assertion that individuals often value fair procedures over fair outcomes and 2) two factor model's finding that procedural justice was a better predictor of organization referenced outcomes (including organizational commitment) than distributive justice (Ahamad, 2010). However, the present study's results show that distributive justice to be a stronger predictor of organizational commitment than procedural justice. Many other researchers' findings also supported this finding as they found a stronger relationship of organizational commitment with distributive justice than with procedural justice (e.g., Lowe and Vodanovich, 1995; Greenberg, 1994). This finding is also consistent with the study of Aryee et al. (2002).

According to the results of the study, AC is highly affected by DJ and IJ; CC is affected by DJ and PJ, and NC is affected by DJ and IJ positively. These results are similar to the ones in literature. Hassan (2002) stated that DJ and PJ affect the

employees' level of OC positively in a study that he carried out on middle and low-level managers. In their study Turgut, Tokmak, and Gucel (2012) determined DJ, PJ and IJ affect OC in a positive and significant way and found out that among these three components, IJ has a higher influence on OC than the other components. Bakhshi et al. (2009) claimed in their study that DJ and PJ affect OC positively.

Thus, the employees' being deeply committed to their organizations leads to certain behaviors such as considering the objectives and merits of the organization as their own, undertaking risks for their organization and the desire to remain in the organization. On the other hand, as a result of the decrease at the rate of the workers' resignations and the increase in their performances, the organizational effectiveness improves (Turgut, Tokmak, and Gucel, 2012). In order to make this effectiveness last for a long time and for the management to function properly, the factors which increase and decrease the organizational commitment should be perceived very well (Lambert et al., 2007). In various studies it is determined that organizational justice has a substantial influence on the employees' level of organizational commitment (Colquitt, 2001, Wasti, 2002, Yavuz, 2010, Malik and Naeem, 2011).

Justice provides an excellent business opportunity from reaping specific returns such as stronger employee commitment to gaining an overall tough-to-copy competitive edge that resides in a "culture of justice" (Cropanzano et.al. 2007). So, in order to increase employees' organizational commitment levels and their performances, the managers should be fair in their decisions, during the process of taking these decisions, in their behavior towards the employees, in their relationship with the employees and they should give importance to this attitude of fairness to be perceived by their employees, as well.

8.3.4.2 Perceived Organizational Justice and Job Involvement

The present study predicts positive and significant effects of organizational justice dimensions on job involvement. Thus, the results support all the hypotheses H2, H2a, H2b and H2c.

The regression analysis reveal that distributive justice is significantly and positively related to job involvement (= 0.19, p<0.01). Similarly, procedural justice is significantly and positively related to job involvement (= 0.08, p<0.05) and interactional justice is also significantly and positively related to job involvement (= 0.87, p<0.01). These results seem to be consistent with the findings of Jenaabadi (2014). Jenaabadi stated that the involvement of priorities of the predictor variables of job, the results show that distributive justice and procedural justice have the ability to predict job involvement.

Thus, the results indicate that there is a positive and significant effect of perceived organizational justice on employee job involvement. Out of three justice dimensions; the results indicate that interactional justice has shown its strong influence in developing employee job involvement.

Therefore, according to all results of this study it can be concluded that when employees perceive any kind of justice in the organization- in rewards and outcomes, in procedures and communication, and in interaction- they will be involved in job and organization; that ultimately, the employees identify with their job and organization. This result seems to be consistent with the findings of Akintayo and Ayodele (2012) and AL-Abrrow, Ardakani, Harooni and Pour (2013).

8.3.4.3 Perceived Organizational Justice and Job Performance

The present study predicts positive and significant effects of organizational justice dimensions on job performance. Thus, the results support all the hypotheses H3, H3a, H3b and H3c. Out of three justice dimensions; the results indicate that interactional justice has shown its strong influence in developing employee job performance. Thus, interactional justice is the highest predictor of variance in job performance followed by distributive justice and procedural justice is least predictor of job performance.

> Regarding the task performance, there is significant relationship between
> employees perceptions of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional

justice on their task performance. However, this result is not consistent with some studies. For example, Aryee et al. (2002) found no significant relationship between distributive justice and task performance. As far as relationship between procedural justice and job performance is concerned, past research had shown all types of results. Some researchers have found positive relationship (Konovsky and Cropanzano, 1991) and some found negative relationship (Kanfer, Sawyer, Earley and Lind, 1987). Some researchers found moderately strong relationship between procedural justice and job performance (Keller and Dansereau, 1995); yet others found no such relationship (Gilliland, 1994). Further, Earley and Lind (1987) found this relationship in a laboratory study but not in the field study. However, this study shows no relationship between procedural justice and performance supporting Earley and Lind (1987) and Gilliland (1994). Further, Colquitt et al. (2001) and Cohen-Charash et al. (2001) also reported a weak relationship between distributive justice and performance in their meta-analyses.

Among three types of organizational justice, interactional justice are the best predictors of employee job performance (both task performance and contextual performance). The effect of interactional justice on job performance is evidently much stronger than that of distributive justice and procedural justice. This result seems to be consistent with the findings of Wang et al. (2010).

Thus, the regression results show that organizational justice is positively correlated with job performance. As for the relationship between organizational justice and employees' job performance, significant relationship have existed between employees' perceived organizational justice and job performance in Nepalese organizations. Although the most of the employees' perception on distributive, procedural and interactional justice is found moderate, the results show that their job performance is sound. It could be due to attachment to their respective organizations. Whatever be the justice level, Nepalese service sector employees show the positive attitude to job performance. The findings reveal a positive association between organizational justice and the job performance

(both task and contextual performance). These results built on the work of previous researchers (eg. Williams, 1999; Greenberg 1990; Jin and Shu, 2004, Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Earley and Lind, 1987). They demonstrated that organizations and their managers could influence employees' behavior. Cultivating a sense of organizational justice might benefit an organization by decreasing absenteeism and employee turnover and increasing job performance. Those organizations that ignore organizational justice concerns run the risk of endangering negative organizational outcomes of decisions, non-compliance with rules and procedures, and in some instances, lower job performance. Consequently, cultivating employees' sense of organizational justice is key to high job performance.

8.4 Conclusions

This study explores employees' perceptions toward organizational justice in the form of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice and their work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance (both task performance and contextual performance). The relationship between perceived organizational justice and employee work outcomes has been established. Similarly, the effects of organizational justice on employee work outcomes have been examined. Based on the empirical results, major findings and discussions, following main conclusions can be drawn:

Distributive justice in terms of fairness of different work outcomes including work schedule, pay level, workload, rewards, and job responsibilities are major concerned of Nepalese employees. The employees also focus on procedural justice in terms of fairness in mechanism that insures the gathering of unbiased, accurate, and complete employee voice, as well as an appeals process. Likewise, they also focus on interactional justice in terms of the degree to which the employees feel they are considered and respected by the managers, and adequate and clear explanations concerning job decisions.

Public sector employees perceive relatively higher level of distributive and interactional justice than the private sector employees.

The employees' being deeply committed to their organizations leads to certain behaviors such as considering the objectives and merits of the organization as their own, undertaking risks for their organization and the desire to remain in the organization.

When employees perceive any kind of justice in the organization- in rewards and outcomes, in procedures and communication, and in interaction- they will be involved in job and organization; that ultimately, the employees identify with their job and organization.

Employees who are highly involved in their job care deeply about their work and find it difficult to separate their work and personal lives.

Both task and contextual performances are important because they shape the organizational, social, and psychological contexts serving as the critical catalyst for task activities and processes.

Efforts to increase levels of job involvement for employees need to consider their perceptions of fairness in organizational practices.

Cultivating employees' sense of organizational justice is key to high job performance.

To sum up, it can be concluded that the role of organizational justice is the most important for increasing employee work outcomes in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance in today's organizations.

8.5 Recommendation for Future Research

The key purpose of this study is to develop and test a model that examines the effects of organizational justice in linking employee work outcomes in service sector organizations

of Nepal. The results of this study have provided considerable insight into the employees' perceptions of fairness that promote their work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance). The findings in this study would help managers and business organizations to formulate strategies that involved work factors such as distributive, procedural and interactional justice to improve the management of human resource development. These strategies would help in influencing positive behaviors among employees, and hence achieve effectiveness and high productivity through high work outcomes of the employees. Therefore, this study provides guidelines to help managers better understand how to increase employee commitment, job involvement and job performance and make better decisions about outcomes, procedures and fair communication for their employees.

Based on the experience of the study, the following recommendations have been made to future researches:

Since, this research is based on employees' perception of limited service sectors (banking and insurance). It is therefore, the finding of this study may not represent all the business units. So, future researchers should attempt to achieve a larger sample to determine whether general results apply to a larger population sample size.

It is also recommended that the organizational justice practices should be linked with the financial performance of the organization in the future study. Future researchers are also recommended that their research should also examine the effects of interpersonal and informational justice climates towards organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, turnover intention, absenteeism, engagement, employee motivation and effectiveness, etc.

Future researchers are recommended to consider experimental or longitudinal approach and other consideration in terms of subject and setting of the study to generalize the results that allow for reaching conclusions that are more concrete.

Previous study shows that culture has an influence on the perception of employees on various justice factors (Thomas and Nagalingappa, 2012). It is generally accepted that cultural difference has an impact on the employees' attitudes and behaviours, that the Nepalese people might be more sensitive to justice dimensions. Thus, in future, researchers can compare whether culture has an impact on employees attitude and behavior based on their perception of different justice dimensions.

Future studies may try to examine related variables in different groups, industries, cultures, or countries.

8.6 Research Implications and Practical Suggestions to Improve Organizational Justice

The present study has shown the importance of distributive, procedural and interactional justice in organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance. Most of the Nepalese employees have given more importance to distributive and interactional justice compared to procedural justice. Therefore, organizations have to focus more on the distributive and interactional justice.

The present study has also attempted to show the relationship and effects of organizational justice dimensions on employee work outcomes (organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance). The strongest implication of this study is that *fairness is an important motivator of employee work outcomes at the workplace. In order to enhance employee work outcomes, managers as representatives of the employing organization should ensure that the outcomes employees received are fair*.

As suggested by Nasurdin and Khuan (2007), a key aspect to consider is to reward employees based on objective criteria and merit. Similarly, managers who wish to see an improvement in the work outcomes of their employees must treat them fairly and make use of fair procedures when making outcomes allocation decisions. Among others, managers need to apply rules fairly and consistently, treat employees with respect and dignity, make job decisions in an unbiased manner, collect accurate and complete

information before making job decisions, and show sensitivity towards employees' personal needs. Nepalese managers need to concern with and respectful of the employees' welfare that greatly affect their perceived accountability and obligation to the organization, thus resulting in the improved and increased level of employee work outcomes.

It is important for managers to include the management of fair outcomes, fair procedures and fair communication in their behavioral repertoire. In the employment of these functions, it is important to monitor how committed and involved employees perceive themselves to be to the organization, because as a function of their sense of organizational justice (three types of justice) may interact in different ways when predicting their willingness to work for the organization.

Employees who believe that they have been treated with a high level of organizational justice tend to be good organizational citizens, going "above and beyond" to assist others even when they do not have to. So, this keeping reality in mind, today's managers need to deal with employees in order to increase their work outcomes.

Today's organization needs to promote organizational justice concepts in order to increase employee work outcomes. Following are some of the ways to improve organizational justice in business organizations:

Compensating employees fairly and in accordance with prevailing market conditions improves the distributive justice of a workplace. In this vein, compensation could include non-pay-based benefits such as health insurance or flexible work schedules.

Compensating employees in proportion to their contributions to the organization also enhances distributive justice.

Giving employees a genuine voice in organizational decisions and being transparent about how organizational decisions are made both facilitate procedural justice.

Explaining decisions thoroughly with accurate and timely information and ensuring that managers treat everyone with dignity, respect and professionalism extend interactional justice. It is important for senior executives and other organizational leaders to make all forms of organizational justice a top priority and to personally model it in all of their communications and interactions. When the people at the top of the organizational pyramid involve employees in critical decisions, make themselves available for authentic two-way dialogue, explain why decisions are made and what alternatives are considered, and treat employee concerns with dignity and respect, the organization will be morally healthier (Harris, 2014).

Therefore, the management of the organization should know about the importance of organizational justice principles and practices for employee work outcomes. The management of the Nepalese organizations needs to apply rules fairly and consistently to all employees, rewarding them based on performance and merit without personal bias and providing proper information in order to create a positive perception of distributive, procedural and interactional justice.

All organizations must do their best to reinforce process of justice in distribution of consequences, processes and social procedures. The wages and salaries should be subjected to continuous review and promptly paid in order to foster organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance among the workforce with corresponding effects on organizational goals. Fairness invokes moral obligation that go beyond affective response. So, organizations should encourage their managers to support workplace fairness. By discussing the implications of decisions with employees and treating them fairly, one can increase the justice level of organization high that enriches the organizational commitment, job involvement and performance potential of the employees, department and finally the organization.

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Appendix A

Survey Instruments

Survey on
Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes

Dear Respondent,

I am Prakash Shrestha, a Ph.D. scholar in Management, Faculty of Management, Tribhuvan University. I am doing a research study entitled "Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes in Service Sector of Nepal". The purpose of this research is to measure employees' perception towards their work outcomes by evaluating through organizational justice perspective.

You are kindly requested to complete the attached questionnaire as honestly as possible. The information being solicited from you is purely for academic purposes. All information provided by you will be treated confidentially. Your honest completion of this questionnaire will assist in generating information that will help organizations to improve their justice to create effective work outcomes.

I would be grateful if you could spend a little of your time to answer this questionnaire.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Prakash Shrestha
Ph.D. Scholar
Faculty of Management
Tribhuvan University

Part One: Demographic and Career Variables

Q.1 Name and Address of Organization (Working): ………………………………………………..

Please tick ( ) where appropriate

Q.2 Pattern of Organization:	1. Public		2. Private	

Q.3 Nature of Job:	1. Permanent		2. Contract	

Q.4 Gender:	1. Male		2. Female	

Q.5 Marital Status:	1. Married		2. Unmarried	

Q.6 Education: 　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　Q.7 Age:

1. High School/SLC		Under 20	
2. Certificate (+ 2)		21 - 34	
3. Diploma		35 - 44	
4. Masters		45 - 54	
5. M.Phil		55 and above	
6. Ph. D.			

Q.8 Job Level (Designation):

Clerical level	
Supervisor/officer level	
Managerial level	

Q.9 Work experience (in years)

0 - 4 years	
5 - 9 years	
10 - 19 years	
20 - 29 years	
30 years and above	

Part Two: Organizational Justice

Distributive Justice

Sym	Statement Instructions: Please show how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling one response next to each statement.	Agree Totally	Agree Moderately	Agree Slightly	Disagree Slightly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Totally
DJ1	My work schedule is fair.	6	5	4	3	2	1
DJ2	I think that my level of pay is fair.	6	5	4	3	2	1
DJ3	I consider my work load is quite fair.	6	5	4	3	2	1
DJ4	I feel that my job responsibilities are quite fair.	6	5	4	3	2	1
DJ5	Overall the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	6	5	4	3	2	1

If you answer in the negative to any of the above, please explain why?

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Procedural Justice

Sym	Statement Instructions: Please show how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling one response next to each statement.	Agree Totally	Agree Moderately	Agree Slightly	Disagree Slightly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Totally
PJ1	Job decisions are made by the manager in an unbiased manner.	6	5	4	3	2	1
PJ2	My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	6	5	4	3	2	1
PJ3	To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information.	6	5	4	3	2	1
PJ4	My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	6	5	4	3	2	1
PJ5	All jobs decisions are applied consistently to all concerned employees.	6	5	4	3	2	1
PJ6	Employees are allowed to appeal about job decisions made by their managers.	6	5	4	3	2	1

If you answer in the negative to any of the above, please explain why?

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Interactional Justice

Sym	Statement Instructions: Please show how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling one response next to each statement.	Agree Totally	Agree Moderately	Agree Slightly	Disagree Slightly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Totally
IJ1	Manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	6	5	4	3	2	1
IJ2	The manager treats me with respect and dignity.	6	5	4	3	2	1
IJ3	The manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	6	5	4	3	2	1
IJ4	The manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	6	5	4	3	2	1
IJ5	The manager shows concern for my right as employee.	6	5	4	3	2	1
IJ6	Concerning decisions made about my job, the manager discusses the implications of the decisions with me.	6	5	4	3	2	1
IJ7	The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	6	5	4	3	2	1
IJ8	The manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	6	5	4	3	2	1
IJ9	The manager explains any decision made about my job very clearly.	6	5	4	3	2	1

If you answer in the negative to any of the above, please explain why?
....
....

Part Three: Organizational Commitment

Affective Commitment

Sym	Statement Instructions: Please show how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling one response next to each statement.	Agree Totally	Agree Moderately	Agree Slightly	Disagree Slightly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Totally
AC1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	6	5	4	3	2	1
AC2	I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it.	6	5	4	3	2	1
AC3	I really feel as if problems of this organization are my own.	6	5	4	3	2	1
AC4	I do feel like 'a part of the family' in my organization.	6	5	4	3	2	1
AC5	I do feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	6	5	4	3	2	1
AC6	I have a great deal of personal meaning to this organization.	6	5	4	3	2	1
AC7	I do feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization.	6	5	4	3	2	1

If you answer in the negative to any of the above, please explain why?
....
....

Continuance commitment

Sym	Statement Instructions: Please show how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling one response next to each statement.	Agree Totally	Agree Moderately	Agree Slightly	Disagree Slightly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Totally
CC1	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	6	5	4	3	2	1
CC2	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	6	5	4	3	2	1
CC3	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	6	5	4	3	2	1
CC4	I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization.	6	5	4	3	2	1
CC5	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the leaving the available alternatives.	6	5	4	3	2	1
CC6	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	6	5	4	3	2	1

If you answer in the negative to any of the above, please explain why?

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Normative Commitment

Sym	Statement Instructions: Please show how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling one response next to each statement.	Agree Totally	Agree Moderately	Agree Slightly	Disagree Slightly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Totally
NC1	I do believe that person must always be loyal to his/her organization.	6	5	4	3	2	1
NC2	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave this organization.	6	5	4	3	2	1
NC3	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	6	5	4	3	2	1
NC4	Things are better on the days when people stay with one organization for most of their career.	6	5	4	3	2	1

If you answer in the negative to any of the above, please explain why?

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Part Four: Job Involvement

Job Involvement

Sym	Statement Instructions: Please show how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling one response next to each statement.	Agree Totally	Agree Moderately	Agree Slightly	Disagree Slightly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Totally
JI1	The most important thing that happens to me is to involve in present job.	6	5	4	3	2	1
JI2	My job is almost all part of who I am.	6	5	4	3	2	1
JI3	I am very much involved personally in my job.	6	5	4	3	2	1
JI4	I live, eat, and breathe with my job.	6	5	4	3	2	1
JI5	Most of my interests are centered around my job.	6	5	4	3	2	1
JI6	I have very strong ties with my present job that would be very difficult to break.	6	5	4	3	2	1
JI7	Mostly I feel attached to my job.	6	5	4	3	2	1
JI8	Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.	6	5	4	3	2	1
JI9	I consider my job is to be very central to my existence.	6	5	4	3	2	1
JI10	I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.	6	5	4	3	2	1

If you answer in the negative to any of the above, please explain why?

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Part Five: Job Performance

Task Performance

Sym	Statement Instructions: Please show how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling one response next to each statement.	Agree Totally	Agree Moderately	Agree Slightly	Disagree Slightly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Totally
TP1	I fulfill responsibilities specified in job description.	6	5	4	3	2	1
TP2	I adequately complete assigned duties.	6	5	4	3	2	1
TP3	I meet formal performance requirements of the job.	6	5	4	3	2	1
TP4	I respect aspects of the job that are obliged to perform.	6	5	4	3	2	1
TP5	I am successful to perform essential duties.	6	5	4	3	2	1

If you answer in the negative to any of the above, please explain why?

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Contextual Performance

Sym	Statement Instructions: Please show how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling one response next to each statement.	Agree Totally	Agree Moderately	Agree Slightly	Disagree Slightly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Totally
CP1	I maintain a positive attitude when dealing with difficult customers and coworkers.	6	5	4	3	2	1
CP2	I maintain a sense of control and dignity with demanding people.	6	5	4	3	2	1
CP3	I accept instruction from supervisors without resentment.	6	5	4	3	2	1
CP4	I hope things to make people feel good about themselves or the work group.	6	5	4	3	2	1
CP5	I encourage others to overcome their differences and loneliness.	6	5	4	3	2	1
CP6	I praise co-workers when they are successful.	6	5	4	3	2	1
CP7	I take an initiative to solve a work problem.	6	5	4	3	2	1
CP8	I tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically.	6	5	4	3	2	1

If you answer in the negative to any of the above, please explain why?
....
....

Part Six: Discussion Questions for Managers

1.   What is your opinion regarding the term 'human resources (employees)'?

2.   What kind of a workplace environment does your organization provide?

3.   Please outline the management style of your organization?

4.   What are the factors that attracted you to join this organization?

5.   How would you describe your work condition at this organization?

6.   Identify specific aspects in this organization that you would change in order to improve the workplace environment?

7.   Please outline the compensation benefits your organization offered to employees?

8.   In your opinion what is the status of organizational justice in your organization?

9.   Among the three types of organizational justice dimensions (distributive, procedural and interactional justice), which one is important for you?

10. What do you thing about your current pay level? Are you currently happy with your salary/wages? Why or why not?

11. In your opinion what is the relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes?

12. What is the status of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance in your organization?

13. Which demographic characteristics are important in terms of employee work outcomes?

14. How can you link job status and employee commitment?

15. Why employee job involvement is important?

16. Why job performance is important for organization?

17. What is the attitude of employees regarding job performance?

18. In details, share some of the positive and negative experiences you have encountered with your organization?

19. Do you have the right to control and manage your staff?

20. Suggest some of the ways to improve organizational justice situation in your organization?

Thank you for your time, kind cooperation and professional response
to the questionnaire and discussion.

Questionnaires in Nepali Version

Survey on
Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes

यो प्रश्नावली त्रिभुवन विश्वविद्यालय, व्यवस्थापन संकाय, डीनको कार्यालयबाट सञ्चालित विद्यावारिधि (Ph.D.) कार्यक्रमअन्तर्गत **"नेपालको सेवा क्षेत्रमा संगठनात्मक न्याय तथा कर्मचारी कार्य उपजहरु (Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes in Service Sector of Nepal) "** शीर्षकमा शोध कार्यसँग सम्बन्धित छ । कृपया, बैंक तथा बीमा कम्पनीहरुका कर्मचारीहरुले ध्यानपूर्वक अध्ययन गर्नुभई तपसिलका प्रश्नहरुका उत्तर दिनुहोस् । यो केवल तपाईको मत हो जसको अध्ययन गर्न लागिएको छ । तपाईंका उत्तरहरु धेरै महत्वपूर्ण छन् ।

तपाईंले व्यक्त गर्नु भएको विचार केवल यस अध्ययनको लागि मात्र उपयोग हुनेछ । साथै गोप्य रहने विश्वास दिलाउन चाहन्छु । तपाईंको अमूल्य सहयोगको लागि हृदयदेखि आभार व्यक्त गर्न चाहन्छु ।

शोधकर्ता
प्रकाश श्रेष्ठ
व्यवस्थापन संकाय
त्रिभुवन विश्वविद्यालय

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समूह कः उत्तरकर्ताको विवरण

१. कार्यरत संस्थाको नाम र ठेगानाः ....

तलका खाली कोठामा ठीक चिन्ह (✓) लगाउनुहोस् ।

२. संस्थाको प्रकार
   (Pattern of Organization):   १. सार्वजनिक [ ]   २.निजी [ ]

३. कार्यको प्रकृति
   (Nature of Job):   १. स्थायी [ ]   २.अस्थायी ∕ करार [ ]

४. लिङ्ग (Gender):   १. पुरुष [ ]   २. महिला [ ]

५. वैवाहिक स्थिति (Marital Status): १. विवाहित [ ]   २. अविवाहित [ ]

६. अध्ययन गरिएको शिक्षा (Education):   ७. उमेर (Age):

   १. स्कुल (High School/SLC) [ ]   २० वर्षभन्दा कम (Under 20) [ ]

   २. प्रविणता प्रमाणपत्र तह [ ]   २१ देखि ३४ वर्ष (21 – 34) [ ]
      (Certificate or + 2)
   ३. स्नातक (Bachelor) [ ]   ३५ देखि ४४ वर्ष (35 – 44) [ ]

   ४. स्नातकोत्तर (Masters) [ ]   ४५ देखि ५४ वर्ष (45 – 54) [ ]

   ५. एम. फिल. (M.Phil.) [ ]   ५५ वर्षदेखि माथि (55 and above) [ ]

   ६. पिएच. डी. (Ph.D.) [ ]

८. कार्य तह ∕ पद (Job Level/Designation):

   सहायक स्तर (Clerical level) [ ]

   सुपरभाइजर ∕ अधिकृत स्तर (Supervisor/Officer Level) [ ]

   व्यवस्थापकीय स्तर (Managerial level) [ ]

९. कार्य तह -वर्षमा (Work experience in years):

   ० देखि ४ वर्ष (0 - 4 years) [ ]

   ५ देखि ९ वर्ष (5 - 9 years) [ ]

   १० देखि १९ वर्ष (10 - 19 years) [ ]

   २० देखि २९ वर्ष (20 - 29 years) [ ]

   ३० वर्ष र सोभन्दा माथि (30 years and above) [ ]

समूह ख: संगठनात्मक न्याय (Organizational Justice)

वितरणसम्बन्धी न्याय (Distributive Justice)

संकेत (Sym)	कथन (Statement) कृपया तलका कथनहरुसित आफ्नो विचार कुन अंकसँग नजिक छ, त्यही अंकमा चिन्ह वा गोलो लगाई आफ्नो मत व्यक्त गर्नुहोला ।	पूर्ण सहमत	सहमत	सामान्य सहमत	सामान्य असहमत	असहमत	पूर्ण असहमत
DJ1	मेरो कार्यतालिका (Work schedule) न्यायोचित छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
DJ2	मेरो तलबमान (Level of pay) न्यायोचित छ भन्ने मलाई लाग्दछ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
DJ3	मेरो कार्यभार (Work load) साँच्चै न्यायोचित छ भन्ने लाग्दछ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
DJ4	मेरा जिम्मेवारीहरु (Responsibilities) न्यायोचित छन् भन्ने मलाई लाग्दछ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
DJ5	मैले पाउने समग्र पुरस्कार (Rewards) निकै न्यायोचित छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१

यदि तपाई उपरोक्त कुनै पनि कथनप्रति असहमत हुनुहुन्छ भने कृपया त्यसको कारण उल्लेख गर्नुहोस् ।

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प्रक्रियागत न्याय (Procedural Justice)

संकेत (Sym)	कथन (Statement) कृपया तलका कथनहरुसित आफ्नो विचार कुन अंकसँग नजिक छ, त्यही अंकमा चिन्ह वा गोलो लगाई आफ्नो मत व्यक्त गर्नुहोला ।	पूर्ण सहमत	सहमत	सामान्य सहमत	सामान्य असहमत	असहमत	पूर्ण असहमत
PJ1	व्यवस्थापकले पक्षपातरहित (Unbiased) तवरले निर्णय गर्नुहुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
PJ2	व्यवस्थापकले कुनै निर्णयमा पुग्नुपूर्व सम्बन्धित सम्पूर्ण कर्मचारीहरुका कुरा सुन्नुहुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
PJ3	निर्णय गर्नका लागि व्यवस्थापकले सही तथा पूर्ण जानकारी संकलन गर्नुहुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
PJ4	व्यवस्थापकले कर्मचारीहरुले चाहेको बेलामा निर्णयको व्याख्या एवं अतिरिक्त जानकारी उपलब्ध गराउनु हुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
PJ5	सम्पूर्ण निर्णयहरु सबै सम्बन्धित कर्मचारीहरुका लागि समान (Consistently) रुपले लागू गरिन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
PJ6	व्यवस्थापकले गरेका निर्णयहरु उपर कर्मचारीहरुले पुरावेदन (अपिल) (Appeal) गर्न सक्दछन् ।	६	५	४	३	२	१

यदि तपाई उपरोक्त कुनै पनि कथनप्रति असहमत हुनुहुन्छ भने कृपया त्यसको कारण उल्लेख गर्नुहोस् ।

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अन्तरक्रियात्मक न्याय (Interactional Justice)

संकेत (Sym)	कथन (Statement) कृपया तलका कथनहरुसित आफ्नो विचार कुन अंकसँग नजिक छ, त्यही अंकमा चिन्ह वा गोलो लगाई आफ्नो मत व्यक्त गर्नुहोला ।	पूर्ण सहमत	सहमत	सामान्य सहमत	सामान्य असहमत	असहमत	पूर्ण असहमत
IJ1	व्यवस्थापकले मलाई सहानुभूति र तर्कसंगत (Kindness and consideration) व्यवहार गर्नुहुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
IJ2	व्यवस्थापकले मलाई आदर र महत्व सहित (With respect and dignity) व्यवहार गर्नुहुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
IJ3	मेरा व्यक्तिगत आवश्यकताप्रति व्यवस्थापक सम्वेदनशील (Sensitive) हुनुहुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
IJ4	व्यवस्थापकले सत्यतापूर्ण ढंगले (Truthful manner) व्यवहार गर्नुहुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
IJ5	व्यवस्थापकले मेरो अधिकारप्रति कर्मचारीको रुपमा आवश्यक चासो लिनुहुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
IJ6	मेरो कार्यसँग सम्बन्धित निर्णयहरुका बारेमा व्यवस्थापकलले मसँग निर्णयको आशय (भावार्थ) को बारेमा छलफल गर्नुहुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
IJ7	व्यवस्थापकले मेरा कार्यका बारेमा भएका निर्णयको पर्याप्त औचित्यता पुष्टि (Adequate justification) गर्नुहुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
IJ8	व्यवस्थापकलले मलाई प्रभाव पार्ने निर्णयका बारेमा व्याख्या (Explanation) गर्नुहुन्छ	६	५	४	३	२	१
IJ9	व्यवस्थापकले मेरा कार्यका सम्बन्धमा गर्ने कुनै पनि निर्णयको सुस्पष्ट रुपमा (Very clearly) व्याख्या गर्नुहुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१

यदि तपाई उपरोक्त कुनै पनि कथनप्रति असहमत हुनुहुन्छ भने कृपया त्यसको कारण उल्लेख गर्नुहोस् ।
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समूह गः संगठनात्मक प्रतिबद्धता (Organizational Commitment)

भावनात्मक प्रतिबद्धता (Affective Commitment)

संकेत (Sym)	कथन (Statement) कृपया तलका कथनहरुसित आफ्नो विचार कुन अंकसँग नजिक छ, त्यही अंकमा चिन्ह वा गोलो लगाई आफ्नो मत व्यक्त गर्नुहोला ।	पूर्ण सहमत	सहमत	सामान्य सहमत	सामान्य असहमत	असहमत	पूर्ण असहमत
AC1	मेरो बाँकी जीवनको लागि म यस संस्थासँग सम्बन्धित भएर रहन खुशी हुनेछु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
AC2	बाहिरी मानिसहरुसँग मेरो संस्थाको बारेमा कुरा गर्न खुशी हुनेछु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
AC3	यस संस्थाको समस्या मलाई जहिले पनि आफ्नै समस्या हो भन्ने महशुस हुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
AC4	म यो संस्थाको परिवारको एक हिस्सा हुँ भन्ने लाग्दछ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
AC5	म यो संस्थामा भावनात्मक रुपमा आबद्ध छु भन्ने महशुस हुन्छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
AC6	म यस संस्थाप्रति निकै आभारी छु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
AC7	यस संस्थामा मेरो पनि स्वामित्व छ भन्ने लाग्दछ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१

यदि तपाई उपरोक्त कुनै पनि कथनप्रति असहमत हुनुहुन्छ भने कृपया त्यसको कारण उल्लेख गर्नुहोस् ।
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अविच्छिन्न／निरन्तर प्रतिबद्धता (Continuance commitment)

संकेत (Sym)	कथन (Statement) कृपया तलका कथनहरुसित आफ्नो विचार कुन अंकसँग नजिक छ, त्यही अंकमा चिन्ह वा गोलो लगाई आफ्नो मत व्यक्त गर्नुहोला ।	पूर्ण सहमत	सहमत	सामान्य सहमत	सामान्य असहमत	असहमत	पूर्ण असहमत
CC1	यदि मैले अन्य विकल्प नभएको अवस्थामा यो कार्य छाडेमा के होला भन्ने कुराको डर लाग्दछ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
CC2	मैले अहिले चाहेर पनि यो संस्था छोड्न सक्दिन ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
CC3	यो संस्थामा रहिरहनु चाहना भन्दा पनि आवश्यकता हो ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
CC4	यो संस्था छोड्नका लागि मलाई अति नै कम विकल्पहरु छन् ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
CC5	यो संस्था छोड्नु भनेको भइरहेको विकल्प त्याग गर्नु हो ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
CC6	यस संस्थाको लागि निरन्तर काम गर्नुको एउटा कारण यस संगठन छोड्दा गर्नुपर्ने ठूलो व्यक्तिगत त्याग हो – यहाँ पाएको सुविधा अरु संस्थासँग मेल नहुन सक्दछ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१

यदि तपाई उपरोक्त कुनै पनि कथनप्रति असहमत हुनुहुन्छ भने कृपया त्यसको कारण उल्लेख गर्नुहोस् ।
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आदर्शक／नियामक／मानकीय प्रतिबद्धता (Normative commitment)

संकेत (Sym)	कथन (Statement) कृपया तलका कथनहरुसित आफ्नो विचार कुन अंकसँग नजिक छ, त्यही अंकमा चिन्ह वा गोलो लगाई आफ्नो मत व्यक्त गर्नुहोला ।	पूर्ण सहमत	सहमत	सामान्य सहमत	सामान्य असहमत	असहमत	पूर्ण असहमत
NC1	मानिस उसको संगठनप्रति जहिले पनि निष्ठावान (Loyal) हुनुपर्दछ भन्ने कुरामा म विश्वास गर्दछु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
NC2	अन्य कार्यका लागि प्रस्ताव (अवसर) प्राप्त भएतापनि यो संगठन छोड्नु पर्छ भन्ने मलाई लाग्दैन ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
NC3	एउटै संगठनप्रति निष्ठावान हुनुपर्दछ भन्ने कुरा मलाई सिकाइएको छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
NC4	एउटा संगठनमा कार्यरत रहँदाका दिनहरु मानिसका वृत्ति विकास (Career development) लागि राम्रा हुन्छन् ।	६	५	४	३	२	१

यदि तपाई उपरोक्त कुनै पनि कथनप्रति असहमत हुनुहुन्छ भने कृपया त्यसको कारण उल्लेख गर्नुहोस् ।
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समूह घः कार्य संलग्नता (Job Involvement)

कार्य संलग्नता (Job Involvement)

संकेत (Sym)	कथन (Statement) कृपया तलका कथनहरुसित आफ्नो विचार कुन अंकसँग नजिक छ, त्यही अंकमा चिन्ह वा गोलो लगाई आफ्नो मत व्यक्त गर्नुहोला ।	पूर्ण सहमत	सहमत	सामान्य सहमत	सामान्य असहमत	असहमत	पूर्ण असहमत
JI1	अहिलेको लागि वर्तमान कार्य नै मलाई सबैभन्दा महत्वपूर्ण कुरा हो भन्ने लाग्दछ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
JI2	मेरो लागि मेरो कार्य सबथोक हो ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
JI3	म मेरो कार्यमा व्यक्तिगत रुपमा अति नै संलग्न छु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
JI4	म मेरो कार्यमा सम्पूर्ण रुपमा लाग्दछु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
JI5	मेरा प्राय चाहनाहरु मेरा कार्यप्रति केन्द्रित छन् ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
JI6	म मेरा कार्यप्रति दत्तचित्त छु जसलाई तोड्न कठिन छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
JI7	म जहिले पनि मेरो कार्यमा संलग्न छु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
JI8	मेरो प्राय व्यक्तिगत लक्ष्यहरु कार्यमुखी छन् ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
JI9	मेरो कार्य मेरो अस्तित्वसँग सम्बन्धित छ ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
JI10	हरेक समय म मेरा कार्यमा सम्मिलित हुन चाहन्छु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१

यदि तपाईं उपरोक्त कुनै पनि कथनप्रति असहमत हुनुहुन्छ भने कृपया त्यसको कारण उल्लेख गर्नुहोस् ।

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समूह ङः कार्यसम्पादन (Job Performance)

कार्य ढाँचा/कर्म/कर्तव्यसँग सम्बन्धित कार्यसम्पादन (Task Performance)

संकेत (Sym)	कथन (Statement) कृपया तलका कथनहरुसित आफ्नो विचार कुन अंकसँग नजिक छ, त्यही अंकमा चिन्ह वा गोलो लगाई आफ्नो मत व्यक्त गर्नुहोला ।	पूर्ण सहमत	सहमत	सामान्य सहमत	सामान्य असहमत	असहमत	पूर्ण असहमत
TP1	म कार्य विवरणमा निर्दिष्ट उत्तरदायित्व (Responsibilities specified in job description) पूरा गर्दछु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
TP2	म दिइएका कार्यहरु (Assigned duties) निश्चित रुपमा सम्पन्न गर्दछु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
TP3	कार्यसम्बन्धी औपचारिक कार्यसम्पादन आवश्यकता (Formal performance requirements of the job) पूरा गर्दछु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
TP4	सम्पादन गर्नुपर्ने कार्यसम्बन्धी विभिन्न पक्षहरुलाई सम्मान (Respect aspects of the job) गर्दछु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१
TP5	आवश्यक कार्यसम्पादन गर्न म सफल (Successful to perform essential duties) छु ।	६	५	४	३	२	१

यदि तपाईं उपरोक्त कुनै पनि कथनप्रति असहमत हुनुहुन्छ भने कृपया त्यसको कारण उल्लेख गर्नुहोस् ।

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प्रासंगिक/सन्दर्भयुक्त कार्यसम्पादन (Contextual Performance)

संकेत (Sym)	कथन (Statement) कृपया तलका कथनहरुसित आफ्नो विचार कुन अंकसँग नजिक छ, त्यही अंकमा चिन्ह वा गोलो लगाई आफ्नो मत व्यक्त गर्नुहोला।	पूर्ण सहमत	सहमत	सामान्य सहमत	सामान्य असहमत	असहमत	पूर्ण असहमत
CP1	कठिन ग्राहकहरु तथा सहकर्मीहरु (Difficult customers and coworkers) सँगको सम्बन्धमा सकारात्मक दृष्टिकोण राख्दछु।	६	५	४	३	२	१
CP2	आवश्यक मानिसहरुसँग नियन्त्रित एवं सम्मानयुक्त व्यवहार गर्दछु।	६	५	४	३	२	१
CP3	विना कुनै विवाद (प्रतिवाद वा रोष) म सुपरिवेक्षकबाट दिइएका निर्देशनहरु (Instruction) स्वीकार गर्दछु।	६	५	४	३	२	१
CP4	म मानिसहरुका कार्यहरु असल होऊन भन्ने आशा (Hope) गर्दछु।	६	५	४	३	२	१
CP5	म मानिसहरुलाई उनीहरुका मत-भिन्नता र एक्लोपना (Differences and loneliness) हटाउन उत्साहित गर्दछु।	६	५	४	३	२	१
CP6	म सहकर्मीहरुलाई उनीहरुको सफलतामा प्रशंसा गर्दछु।	६	५	४	३	२	१
CP7	कार्यसँग सम्बन्धित समस्या समाधान गर्न (Take an initiative to solve a work problem) म अग्रसर रहन्छु।	६	५	४	३	२	१
CP8	कठिन कार्य/जिम्मेवारी पनि उत्साहपूर्ण तवरले म सामना (Tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically) गर्दछु।	६	५	४	३	२	१

यदि तपाई उपरोक्त कुनै पनि कथनप्रति असहमत हुनुहुन्छ भने कृपया त्यसको कारण उल्लेख गर्नुहोस्।

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समूह च: व्यवस्थापकहरुसँग छलफलका लागि प्रश्नहरु (Discussion Questions for Managers)

1. What is your opinion regarding the term 'human resources (employees)'?
2. What kind of a workplace environment does your organization provide?
3. Please outline the management style of your organization?
4. What are the factors that attracted you to join this organization?
5. How would you describe your work condition at this organization?
6. Identify specific aspects in this organization that you would change in order to improve the workplace environment?
7. Please outline the compensation benefits your organization offered to employees?
8. In your opinion what is the status of organizational justice in your organization?
9. Among the three types of organizational justice dimensions (distributive, procedural and interactional justice), which one is important for you?
10. What do you thing about your current pay level? Are you currently happy with your salary/wages? Why or why not?
11. In your opinion what is the relationship between organizational justice and employee work outcomes?
12. What is the status of organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance in your organization?
13. Which demographic characteristics are important in terms of employee work outcomes?
14. How can you link job status and employee commitment?
15. Why employee job involvement is important?
16. Why job performance is important for organization?
17. What is the attitude of employees regarding job performance?
18. In details, share some of the positive and negative experiences you have encountered with your organization?
19. Do you have the right to control and manage your staff?
20. Suggest some of the ways to improve organizational justice situation in your organization?

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प्रश्नावली तथा छलफलमा तपाईंको समय, सहयोग
र पेशागत प्रतिक्रियाका लागि धन्यवाद !!!

</div>

Appendix B

Pilot Testing

Pilot Testing

Introduction:

I am a PhD. scholar in Faculty of Management, Tribhvuan University. I am currently doing research entitled: Organizational Justice and Employee Work Outcomes in Service Sector of Nepal. I have already get approval from your manager to conduct this pilot test for the questionnaires.

Purpose of pilot test:

The aim of this pilot test is to test the reliability of the questionnaires. It is also to ensure that the words or scales used in the questionnaire are clear and easy to understand.

Research background:

I am examining what are the levels of organizational justice that contribute to overall employee work outcomes. This study also investigates the effects of organizational justice on employee work outcomes of service sector employees in Nepal.

Procedures for pilot test:

1. Please read every instruction before you start to answer the questions from the questionnaire. You will be asked about organizational justice, organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance and participant background.

2. After completion, you will have to complete the pilot test form. This form will ask you how understandable words or scales used in the questionnaire.

3. You may also make any suggestions to improve the clarity of the questionnaire.

I really appreciate your time and efforts in assisting me for this pilot test.

Thank you.

Regards,

Prakash Shrestha

Ph.D. Scholar

Faculty of Management

Tribhuvan University

Pilot Test Form

Please answer the following questions or make any comments upon the completion of your questionnaire.

1. Are the questions understandable? _____

If not, please indicate the question number and what is difficult to understand

_____
_____
_____

2. Are the scales (rankings) understandable? _____

If not, please suggest what need to be done to make scale easier to understand

_____
_____
_____

3. Overall, what suggestions do you have to improve the questionnaire?

_____
_____
_____

Thank you for your participation in this pilot test.

If you are interested to have further discussion about the questionnaire, you can email me at mrprakashshrestha@gmail.com or I can be reached at my cell phone number 9841-436953.

Prakash Shrestha
Ph.D. Scholar
Faculty of Management
Tribhuvan University

Appendix C

Outputs of Regression Analysis

Outputs of Regression Analysis

1. Regression Results for Organizational Commitment

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.
b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.748[a]	0.559	0.557	5.81891

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	32657.913	3	10885.971	321.502	0.000[a]
	Residual	25767.282	761	33.860		
	Total	58425.195	764			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice
b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	38.331	2.10		18.25	0.00		
	Distributive Justice	2.10	0.08	0.71	26.25	0.00	0.72	1.38
	Procedural Justice	0.39	0.06	-0.17	6.5	0.00	0.83	1.20
	Interactional Justice	0.10	0.05	0.06	2	0.04	0.62	1.62

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

1.1 Regression Result for Affective Commitment

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice[a]		Enter

a. All requested variables entered.
b. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.776[a]	.602	.600	2.75314

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8711.764	3	2903.921	383.114	.000[a]
	Residual	5768.215	761	7.580		
	Total	14479.979	764			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice
b. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	10.76	0.99		10.83	0.00
	Distributive Justice	0.82	0.04	0.56	20.72	0.00
	Procedural Justice	-0.22	0.03	-0.19	-7.69	0.00
	Interactional Justice	0.28	0.02	0.35	12.10	0.00

a. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

1.2 Regression Result for Continuance Commitment

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice[a]		Enter

a. All requested variables entered.
b. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.457[a]	.209	.205	3.73493

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2797.224	3	932.408	66.841	.000[a]
	Residual	10615.712	761	13.950		
	Total	13412.936	764			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice
b. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	16.76	1.35		12.44	0.00
	Distributive Justice	0.67	0.05	0.47	12.48	0.00
	Procedural Justice	0.13	0.04	0.11	3.20	0.00
	Interactional Justice	0.04	0.03	0.06	1.37	0.17

a. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

1.3 Regression Result for Normative Commitment

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.
b. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.621a	.385	.383	2.02829

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1963.241	3	654.414	159.071	.000a
	Residual	3130.738	761	4.114		
	Total	5093.979	764			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

b. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	10.81	0.73		14.77	0.00
	Distributive Justice	0.62	0.03	0.71	21.14	0.00
	Procedural Justice	0.05	0.02	0.07	2.17	0.03
	Interactional Justice	0.13	0.02	0.28	7.88	0.00

a. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

2. Regression Result for Job Involvement

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.
b. Dependent Variable: Job Involvement

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.702a	.493	.491	4.52873

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	15186.610	3	5062.203	246.824	.000a
	Residual	15607.651	761	20.509		
	Total	30794.261	764			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

b. Dependent Variable: Job Involvement

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	18.29	1.63		11.19	0.00		
	Distributive Justice	0.19	0.07	0.09	2.98	0.00	0.72	1.38
	Procedural Justice	0.08	0.05	0.04	1.6	0.03	0.83	1.20
	Interactional Justice	0.87	0.04	0.75	22.72	0.00	0.62	1.62

a. Dependent Variable: Job Involvement

3. Regression Result for Job Performance

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: Job Performance

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.458a	.210	.207	6.45916

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8442.127	3	2814.042	67.450	.000a
	Residual	31749.468	761	41.721		
	Total	40191.595	764			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

b. Dependent Variable: Job Performance

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	40.53	2.33		17.39	0.00		
	Distributive Justice	0.11	0.09	0.05	1.22	0.02	0.72	1.38
	Procedural Justice	0.08	0.07	0.04	1.22	0.03	0.83	1.20
	Interactional Justice	0.55	0.05	0.42	10.13	0.00	0.62	1.62

a. Dependent Variable: Job Performance

3.1 Regression Result for Task Performance

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.
b. Dependent Variable: Task Performance

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.445a	.198	.195	2.44677

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1124.531	3	374.844	62.613	.000a
	Residual	4555.879	761	5.987		
	Total	5680.410	764			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

b. Dependent Variable: Task Performance

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	16.78	0.88		19.01	0.00		
	Distributive Justice	0.05	0.09	0.05	0.60	0.03	0.72	1.38
	Procedural Justice	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.98	0.02	0.83	1.20
	Interactional Justice	0.22	0.02	0.43	10.43	0.00	0.62	1.62

a. Dependent Variable: Task Performance

3.2 Regression Result for Contextual Performance

Variables Entered/Removed[b]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice[a]	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.
b. Dependent Variable: Contextual Performance

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.449a	.202	.199	4.21868

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3427.267	3	1142.422	64.191	.000a
	Residual	13543.745	761	17.797		
	Total	16971.012	764			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice

b. Dependent Variable: Contextual Performance

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	23.74	1.52		15.60	0.00		
	Distributive Justice	0.11	0.06	0.07	1.87	0.04	0.72	1.38
	Procedural Justice	0.06	0.04	0.05	1.30	0.03	0.83	1.20
	Interactional Justice	0.34	0.04	0.39	9.47	0.00	0.62	1.62

a. Dependent Variable: Contextual Performance

Appendix D

Summary Results of Organizational Justice Studies on Employee Outcomes

Summary Results of Organizational Justice Studies on Employee Outcomes

Summary results of organizational justice studies on employee outcomes

Outcomes	Author (s)	Study	Key Findings
Theft	Greenberg (1990)	Employee theft rates were measured in manufacturing plants during a period in which pay was temporarily reduced by 15%. Control group included who experience not pay reduction	• Groups whose pay was reduced had significantly higher theft rates highlighting effects of distributive injustice. • Feelings of inequity and theft rates were reduced when the basis for the pay cuts was thoroughly and sensitively explained to employees (informational justice)
Turnover intentions	Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991)	Examined justice and turnover intentions in drug testing context	• Procedural and informational justice strongly related to turnover intentions • Distributive justice strongly related to turnover intentions
Turnover intentions Job satisfaction	Dailey and Kirk (1992)	Relationship between justice, job satisfaction and intent to turnover	• As perceptions of interpersonal justice and informational justice decreased, employees were more likely to consider leaving the organisation • Justice perceptions stronger predictor of turnover intentions than job satisfaction
Commitment Job satisfaction Evaluation of supervisor	McFarlin and Sweeney (1992)	Examined impact of distributive and procedural fairness in pay setting on employee outcomes. Survey of 675 banking employees	• Distributive justice was found to be a more important predictor pay satisfaction and job satisfaction • Procedural justice more predictive of organizational commitment and subordinate's evaluation of supervisor.
Turnover intentions; General satisfaction; Organisational commitment	Schaubroeck, May and Brown (1994)	Randomized field experiment looking at organisational justice and pay freezes involving 173 salaried employees in manufacturing setting	• Informational justice (explanations) weakens the impact of economic hardship on employee reactions (turnover intentions, general satisfaction, commitment)
Absenteeism	Gellatly (1995)	Examined effect of various individual and group level factors on absenteeism Study of 166 nursing and food service employees in a hospital	• Interactional justice has a negative association with absenteeism. Where people perceived supervisors as interactionally unfair, more likely to be absent from work.

Organisational retaliatory behaviours(ORB)	Skarlicki and Folger (1997)	Study of first line employees in a manufacturing plant	• Three way interaction between procedural, distributive and interactional justice predicted ORB where fair procedure mitigated the effects of distributive and interactional injustice
Deviant behaviours	Aquino, Lewis, Bradfield and Jackson (1999)	Stratified random sample of government employees and employees from private manufacturing firm. Distinguished deviance between organisational deviance (e.g. ignoring instructions, arriving late) and interpersonal deviance (acts directed at individual at work e.g. gossip, obscene comments)	• Distributive justice associated with interpersonal deviance • Interactional justice associated with both interpersonal and organisational deviance • No significant relationship found between procedural justice and organisational justice
Violence	Greenberg and Barling (1999)	Study of predictors of employee aggression against co-workers, subordinates and supervisors. Survey of 136 make full time employees at a Canadian university	• Procedural justice interacted with amount of alcohol consumed in predicting both aggression against a co-worker and aggression against a subordinate. • Both job security and procedural justice interacted with history of aggression in predicting aggression against a subordinate
Performance Commitment OCB	Masterson, Lewis, Goldman and Taylor (2000)	Influence of distributive, procedural and interactional justice on university clerical and staff employees as mediated by POS and LMX	• No significant relationship between procedural justice and performance • Positive correlation between interactional justice and performance • Structural elements of procedural justice found to predict commitment • LMX mediates relationship between interactional justice and supervisor OCB • POS mediates relationship between procedural justice and organization OCB
Employee performance	Robbins, Summers, Miller and Hendrix (2000)	Textile products company Two measures of employee performance: supervisor rating and employee self reports of group performance)	• Only interactional justice found to impact both supervisor ratings and employee perceptions of work group performance.

Stress and absenteeism	Elovainio, Kivimäki and Vahtera (2002)	Assess procedural and interactional justice of over 4000 hospital employees	• Interactional injustice predicated self reported health, psychiatric morbidity and absenteeism • Procedural justice predicted absenteeism
Absenteeism	Lam, Schaubroeck and Aryee (2002)	Examined distributive and procedural justice link to absenteeism using Hofstedes cultural dimensions as a moderator	• Power distance displayed a moderating effect on distributive and procedural justice and absenteeism. A person with a low power distance orientation was less likely to accept justice violations and were more likely to respond by being absent from work
Minor counterproductive behaviours	Lim (2002)	Online study in Singapore investigating the relationship between organisational justice and cyber loafing	• Negative perceptions of procedural, distributive and interactional justice associated with increased cyber loafing (non work related email and internet usage)
Sabotage behaviour	Ambrose, Seabright and Schminke (2002)	Organisational injustice and sabotage 132 first person accounts of sabotage activities reported in the book Sabotage in the American Workplace	• Perceived injustice most frequent case of sabotage behaviour • For distributive injustice, sabotage was used to restore equity • For interactional injustice, sabotage was used in retaliation • Additive effects of distributive, procedural and interactional injustice on the severity of sabotage.
Organizational commitment Intention to leave	Hassan (2002)	Organizational justice as a determinant of organizational commitment and intention to leave. Survey of 181 middle and lower level managers from the banking and finance, production and manufacturing, and service sectors.	• Among all the facets, equity promotion appeared to be the most significant predictor. • Both distributive and procedural justice factors made significant contributions to employees' organizational commitment and intent to leave.
Burnout	Moliner, Martínez-Tur, Peiró, Ramos and Cropanzano (2005)	Survey of 317 contract employees of 59 Spanish hotels.	• Procedural and interactional injustice associated with burnout (operationalised as emotional exhaustion and cynicism) • Procedural and interactional justice associated with engagement which predicted extra role service behaviours. • No relationship between burnout and extra role service behaviours

| Organisational citizenship behaviour	Piccolo, Bardes, Mayer and Judge (2008)	Assess interaction between perceptions of procedural and interactional justice with leader member exchange. Survey of 283 individuals from a broad cross section of job types	• Procedural and interactional justice positively related to felt obligation and OCB and negatively related to withdrawal intentions • Interactional justice encourages OCB and reduced withdrawal behaviours independent of perceived level of LMX • Procedural justice effects on felt obligation and OCB had no impact when LMX was low
Job Performance (Task and Contextual Performance)	Nasurdin and Khuan (2007)	Organizational justice as an antecedent of job performance. Survey data were drawn from a sample of 136 customer-contact employees within the telecommunications industry in Malaysia.	• Distributive justice alone has a significant and positive relationship with task performance. On the other hand, only procedural justice is found to be significantly and positively related to contextual performance.
Organizational commitment Turnover intention	Ponnu and Chuah (2010)	Organizational commitment, organizational justice and employee turnover in Malaysia. Survey of 172, collected from employees.	• Procedural and distributive justice perceptions were significant contributors in explaining organizational commitment and turnover intention.
Job involvement	Ahmadi (2011)	Job involvement in Iranian Custom Affairs Organization: the Role of Organizational Justice and Job Characteristics. Survey of 140 employees from Iranian custom affairs organization.	• Distributive and procedural justices, task variety task identity, autonomy, and feedback have significantly positive impacts on job involvement, but interactional justice and task significance do not.
Organizational commitment Job involvement Absenteeism behaviour	Akintayo and Ayodele (2012)	Organizational justice and behaviour of human resource in industrial organizations in South-West Nigeria	• Significant influence of organizational justice on job commitment, job involvement and absenteeism behaviour of human resource in industrial organizations in South-West Nigeria.
Organizational commitment Turnover intention	Ghimire (2012)	Impact of Distributive and Procedural Justice on Employee Commitment and Intention to Stay. Survey of 102 employees of service based organizations	• Distributive and procedural justice has significant relationship with employee's commitment and retention. • The higher the level of employee's perception towards fairness to the means used to determine outcomes (procedural justice) and fairness of the outcomes employees receive (distributive justice) tended to increase the level of employees' commitment while reduces turnover intention.

Job Performance (Task and Contextual Performance)	Shrestha (2013a)	Perceived organizational justice and job performance. Survey of 194 employees of Nepalese banking sector.	• Regarding the task performance, the result demonstrates that there was no significant relationship between employees' perceptions of distributive justice and procedural justice on their task performance. • However, the result shows that, there was significant relationship between interactional justice and task performance. Meanwhile, regarding the contextual performance, there was significant relationship among all three organizational justice dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice and interaction justice) and contextual performance.
Performance appraisal satisfaction Work Performance	Shrestha, (2013b)	The Effects of Perceived Organizational Justice in Performance Appraisal System on Performance Appraisal Satisfaction and Work Performance Survey of 165 employees of Commercial Banks of Nepal.	• Employees' perceptions on distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice have been found moderate, but the results show that their job performance is high. • The results of this study specify that there is positive relationship between the organizational justice and job performance. The results of this study also signify that all perceptions of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice are important for the commercial banks' employees but interactional has greatest degree of relationship with job performance.
Job Performance	Shrestha (2013c)	Relationship between perceived organizational justice & job performance: an empirical study of commercial banks' employees. Survey of 194 employees of Nepalese banking sector.	• Employees' perceptions on distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice were found moderate, but the results showed that their job performance was high. The results of this study specified that there was positive relationship between the organizational justice and job performance. • The results of this study also signified that all perceptions of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice were important for employees but interactional had greatest degree of relationship with job performance.

Job performance (Context and Obligation)	Moazzezi, Sattari, and Bablan (2014).	Relationship between organizational justice and job Performance of Payamenoor University employees in Ardabil Province. Survey of 147 persons.	• There is a positive relationship between organizational justice and its dimensions (distributive justice, procedural justice, informational justice) and job performance and its dimensions (context and obligation) • There is a weak relationship between the above cases and procedural justice, so to promote employees' job performance in the area of organizational justice and its dimensions.
Employee trust Employee commitment.	Shrestha, (2015)	Organizational Justice, Employee Trust and Commitment in Nepalese Financial Institutions Survey of 254 employees working in financial institutions of Nepal.	• Significant positive relationship between organizational justice and employee trust and a significant and positive relationship between organizational justice and employee commitment. • The effects of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice on employee trust was found that they all have a positive and significant impact on employee trust and employee commitment.

Basic Notion of Organizational Justice
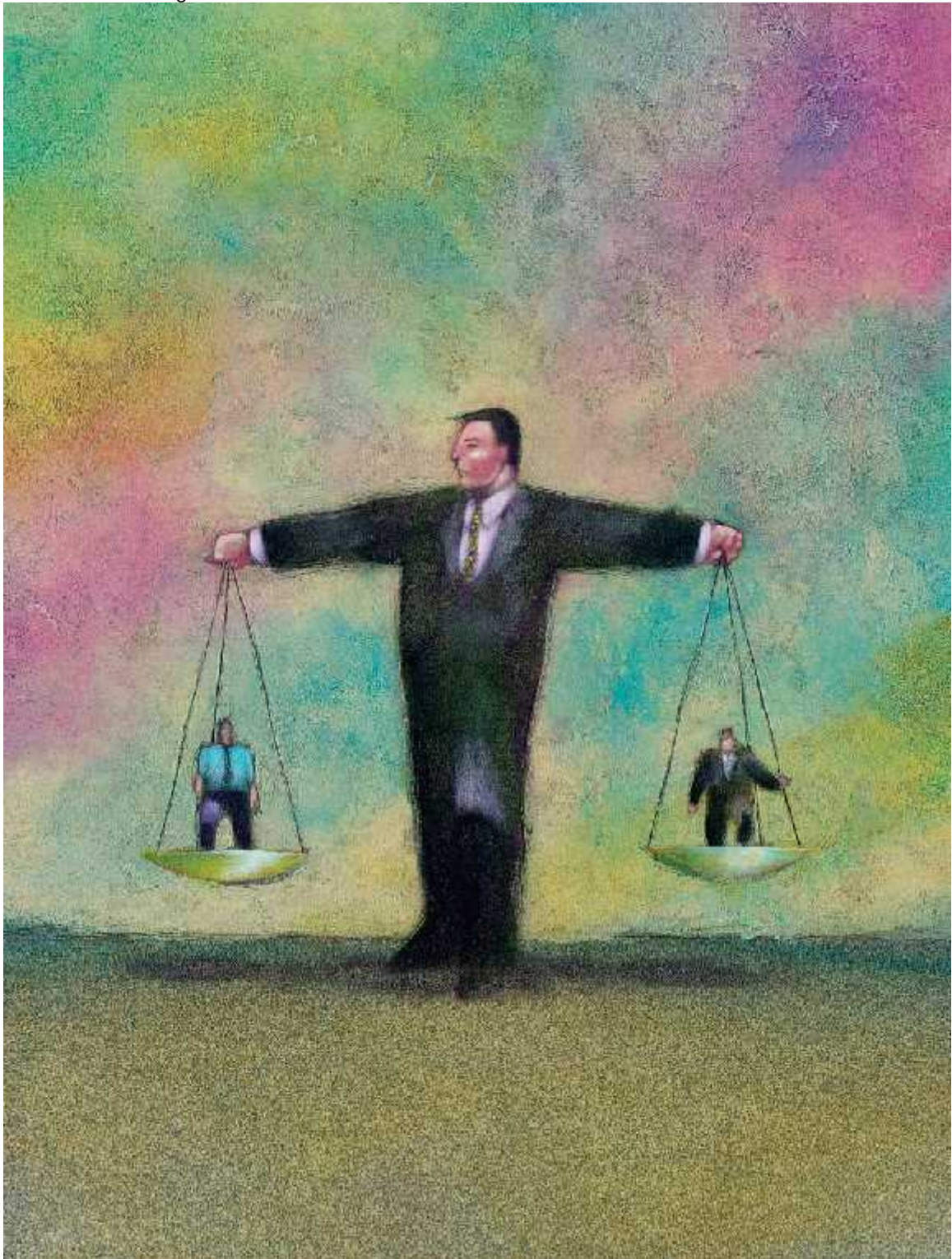
Source: Comparing Two Employees (Adapted from Harris, 2014).

Appendix E

Glossary of Terms

Glossary of Terms

Abstract. (1) Summary, usually of an article or book, also containing sufficient information for the original to be located. (2) Summary of the complete content of the research/project report.

Accuracy rule. It dictates that the information used during the process of allocating of rewards must be accurate.

Accuracy. Decisions are based on accurate information.

Affective commitment. It is an employee's emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in an organization.

Aggressive communication. A forceful style of communication with others that expresses dominance and even anger. The needs and wants of others are ignored.

Analysis of variance. Statistical test to determine the probability (likelihood) that the values of a quantifiable data variable for three or more independent samples or groups are different. The test assesses the likelihood of any difference between these groups occurring by chance alone.

ANOVA. Stands for Analysis of Variance, which tests for significant mean different in variables among multiple groups.

Appendix. A supplement to the project report. It should not normally include material that is essential for the understanding of the report itself, but additional relevant material in which the reader may be interested.

Authority. The formal right of a manager to make decisions, give orders, and expect the orders to be carried out.

Base compensation. The fixed amount of money the employee expects to receive in a paycheck weekly or monthly or as an hourly wage.

Behavioral perspective. The management view that knowledge of the psychological and social processes of human behavior can result in improvements in productivity and work satisfaction.

Behaviour variable. Variable that records what respondents actually do.

Benefits factors. They consist of salary and monetary compensation, leave benefits (including vacation, sick, personal, paid holidays), retirement plan, health and other benefits (health insurance, vision, dental, prescription), deferred compensation and employee assistance program.

Benefits of retention. The benefits of retention are lower costs for their agent, less price sensitivity, greater market share, improve productivity, increase employees performance and thus increase profits and meet their organizational goals and objectives.

Bias-suppression rule. It dictates that decision-makers' own self-interest should be suppressed during the process of allocating of rewards.

Bibliography. Alphabetical list of the bibliographic details for all relevant items consulted and used, including those items not referred to directly in the text. The university will specify the format of these.

Bonus act. This act regulates the payment of bonus to employees and workers.

Business ethics. Standards or guidelines for the conduct and decision making of employees and managers.

Clerical level. It consists of junior management and semi-skilled and unskilled employees who do not have direct reports.

Compensable factors. A set of evaluation criteria used in job evaluation.

Consistency rule. It dictates that procedures adopted in allocating rewards must be consistent over time and among all employees.

Consistency. All employees are treated the same.

Construct. Specific concept that can have operational definition and that can be tested in field setting.

Content validity. It is established by the degree to which a measure reflects the content of the domain under study. The measure will be content valid if the items on the instrument are representative of what is being measured.

Contextual performance. It describes a set of interpersonal and volitional behaviors that support the social and motivational context in which organizational work is accomplished.

Continuance commitment. It refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization (due to the high cost of leaving).

Contributions rule. It dictates that individuals who do better work should receive higher outcomes.

Correctability rule: It dictates that authorities in the organization should take action to reverse decisions that turn out to be unfair.

Correction. There is an appeals process or other mechanism for fixing mistakes.

Correlation coefficient. Number between -1 and +1 representing the strength of the relationship between two ranked or quantifiable variables. A value of +1 represents a perfect positive correlation. A value of -1 represents a perfect negative correlation. Correlation coefficients between -1 and +1 represent weaker positive and negative correlations, a value of 0 meaning the variables are perfectly independent.

Correlation. The extent to which two variables are related to each other.

Covering letter. Letter accompanying a questionnaire, which explains the purpose of the survey. Also known as introductory letter.

Cross-cultural applicability. The theory is to be tested whether it is generally applicable in all the other cultural settings. Thus, the theory designed in one culture must be cautiously interpreted in other cultural setting.

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Data. Facts, opinions and statistics that have been collected together and recorded for reference or for analysis.

Declarative knowledge. It refers to knowledge about facts, principles, objects, etc. It represents the knowledge of a given task's requirements. For instance, declarative knowledge includes knowledge of principles, facts, ideas, etc.

Demographic characteristics. They consist of nature of job, gender, marital status, education, age, job level, work experience, etc.

Dependent variable. Variable that changes in response to changes in other variables.

Descriptive analyses: Analysis based on the descriptive Statistics that provides summary information about the distribution, variability, and central tendency of a variable.

Descriptive data. Data whose values cannot be measured numerically but can be distinguished by classifying into sets (categories).

Descriptive statistics. Generic term for statistics that can be used to describe variables.

Distributive justice. The perceived fairness of the outcomes that an employee receives from organization.

Effectiveness. It is the ratio of outputs to inputs—those inputs being effort, monetary costs, resources, etc.

E-mail. Electronic mail via computers.

Emotional contagion. A tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person and, consequently, to converge emotionally.

Emotional exhaustion. Feelings of being emotionally overextended and drained by one's contact with other people.

Emotional labour. The degree of manipulation of one's inner feelings or outward behavior to display the appropriate emotion in response to display rules or occupational norms.

Emotive dissonance. The degree to which employees' expressed emotions align with their true feelings.

Employee work outcomes. They are employees' outcomes in terms of work-related attitudes and behaviors like turnover, absenteeism, performance, organizational commitment, engagement, involvement and job satisfaction. This study focuses on three important components of employee work outcomes mainly organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance.

Equality. Providing each employee roughly the same compensation.

Equity theory. This theory argues that people are satisfied when the ratios of their own inputs to outcomes (i.e., rewards) equal the ratios of inputs to outcomes in comparison to others. Perceived inequity through this comparison feels unpleasant, and motivates people to reduce those unpleasant feelings.

Equity. Rewarding employees based on their contributions.

Ethicality rule: It dictates that the process of reward allocation should be well-suited and coherent with the employees' basic moral and ethical values.

Ethics. Code of conducts or expected societal norms of behaviour.

Evaluation. The organization's reexamination of whether training is providing the expected benefits and meeting the identified needs.

Executive/supervisor level. It consists of professionally qualified, specialists, middle management, HR managers, department heads, and branch managers.

Foreign Employment Act. This act regulates foreign employment.

Fortress culture. An organizational culture with the primary goal of surviving and reversing business problems, including economic decline and hostile competitors.

Generalization. The making of more widely applicable propositions based upon the process of deduction from specific cases.

HR tactics. The implementation of human resource programs to achieve the firm's vision.

Human relations approach. A management approach that views the relationships between employees and supervisors as the most salient aspect of management.

Human resources emphasis: Management system which emphasis on employee welfare and rewarding personnel policies.

Hypothesis. An educated conjecture about the logically developed relationship between two or more variables, expressed in the form of testable statements.

Independent variable. Variable that causes changes to a dependent variable or variables.

Inferential statistics. Statistics that help to establish relationships among variables and draw conclusions there from.

Informational justice. It refers to the sensitivity, politeness and respect people receive from their superiors during procedures. This serves primarily to alter reactions to outcomes, because sensitivity can make people feel better even if the outcome is unfavourable.

In-role performance. It refers to those officially required outcomes and behaviors that directly serve the goals of the organization.

Interactional Justice. It is concerned with the interpersonal treatment individuals are given during the implementation of procedures. It refers to how one person treats another.

Interpersonal facilitation. It describes interpersonally oriented behaviors that contribute to the accomplishment of the organizational purpose. These include encouraging cooperation, consideration of others, and building and mending relationships.

Interpersonal justice. It can be defined as the level of respect and professionalism accorded to all employees. It refers to the explanation, justification or information provided by decision makers as to why outcomes are distributed in a certain way. Information should be comprehensive, reasonable, truthful, timely and candid. This information helps people to evaluate the structural aspects of the process.

Intrinsic reward design theory. The perspective that a potent motivator for work is the intangible reward people derive from performing well in a job they find interesting, challenging, and intriguing and that provides an opportunity for continued learning.

Job dedication. It describes self-disciplined motivated acts such as working hard, taking initiative, and following rules to support organizational objectives.

Job involvement. It refers to an individual's psychological identification or commitment to his / her job. It is a belief descriptive of an employee's relationship with the present job.

Job performance. It represents employees' adherence to and completion of formal job duties. It refers to the traditional performance of behaviors that is expected of him/her at a certain position. Job performance consists of two forms of job performance namely task performance and contextual performance.

Justice judgment model. Its central concept is that an individual applies distribution rules selectively by following different rules at different times. Thus, the individual's basic criteria for evaluating fairness may change in various situations.

Labour act. It is concerned with making provisions for the rights, interests, facilities and safety of workers and employees working in enterprises of various sectors.

Lack of bias. No person or group is singled out for discrimination or ill-treatment.

Likert-style rating scale. Scale that allows the respondent to indicate how strongly she or he agrees or disagrees with a statement.

Managerial Level. It consists of senior management such as general and area managers.

Managerial task. A managerial task would be setting an organizational goal or responding to external stimuli to assist a group in achieving its goals. In addition a manager might be responsible for monitoring group and individual progress towards goals and monitoring organizational resources.

Managers. They consist of directors, HR managers, branch managers and department heads (in this study).

Method. The techniques and procedures used to obtain and analyse research data, including for example questionnaires, observation, interviews, and statistical and nonstatistical techniques.

Methodology. The theory of how research should be undertaken, including the theoretical and philosophical assumptions upon which research is based and the implications of these for the method or methods adopted.

Methods of data analysis. Simple descriptive statistical tools such as frequencies, mean, standard deviation, correlation coefficient and regression (in this study).

Motivation. It refers to "a combined effect from three choice behaviors—choice to expend effort, choice of level of effort to expend, and choice to persist in the expenditure of that level of effort." It reflects the direction, intensity, and persistence of volitional behaviors.

Multicollinearity. It is an intriguing and common property of data, having the consequences for estimation and inference in the respect of unreliable estimation results, high standard errors, and coefficients with wrong signs.

Need. Providing a benefit based on one's personal requirements.

Need for achievement. The drive to accomplish things, in which the individual receives great satisfaction from personal attainment and goal completion.

Need for affiliation. The desire to be liked by others, to receive social approval, and to establish close interpersonal relationships.

Need for power. The desire to influence or control other people.

Needs assessment. A training tool that is used to determine whether training is needed.

Needs rule. It dictates that individuals with greater need should receive higher outcomes.

Negative reinforcement. The removal of unpleasant consequences associated with a desired behavior, resulting in an increase in the frequency of that behavior.

Non-task specific behaviors. They are those behaviors which an individual is required to undertake which do not pertain only to a particular job.

Normative commitment. It is an employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. It is also known as moral commitment.

Organization of work: Work culture where goal is clearly specified and employees have the information access.

Organizational climate. A set of shared perceptions of policies, practices, and procedures that an organization rewards and supports.

Organizational commitment. It is a physiological state that binds the individual to the organization.

Organizational culture: Organizational culture can be defined as the collective beliefs of employees, which distinguish the members of one organization from another. Culture consists of values and practices.

Organizational justice. It is employees' perceptions of the fairness of treatment received from organizations. It refers to people's perception of fairness in organization, consisting of perceptions of how decisions are made regarding the distribution of outcome and the perceived fairness of those outcomes themselves.

Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient. Statistical test that assesses the strength of the relationship between two quantifiable data variables. For data collected from a sample there is also a need to calculate the probability of the correlation coefficient having occurred by chance alone.

Performance. It is the behavior or people's actions that have an effect on the objectives of the organization. This behavior can be positive or negative and can be either provided as part of the work or outside the scope of the duties set forth.

Pilot test. Small-scale study to test a questionnaire, interview checklist or observation schedule, to minimise the likelihood of respondents having problems in answering the questions and of data recording problems as well as to allow some assessment of the questions' validity and the reliability of the data that will be collected.

Population. The entire group of people, events or things that the researcher desires to investigate.

Primary data. Data collected firsthand through questionnaire to find solutions to the research questions.

Private organizations. The organizations that owned or controlled by the private sector.

Procedural justice. The perceived fairness of the policies and procedures used to make decisions in organization.

Procedural knowledge and skill. Procedural knowledge and skill is knowing how to do it. For example, procedural knowledge and skill includes cognitive skill, perceptual skill, interpersonal skill, etc.

Public organizations. The organizations under the control of the government and semi-government ownership.

Purposive sampling. Non-probability sampling procedure in which the judgement of the researcher is used to select the cases that make up the sample. This can be done on the basis of extreme cases, heterogeneity (maximum variation), homogeneity (maximum similarity), critical cases, or typical cases.

Questionnaire. General term including all data collection techniques in which each person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order.

R^2. Indicates the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable which is accounted for by the model.

Regression analysis. The process of calculating a regression coefficient and regression equation using one independent variable and one dependent variable. For data collected from a sample, there is also a need to calculate the probability of the regression coefficient having occurred by chance alone.

Regression coefficient. Number between 0 and -1 that enables the strength of the relationship between a quantifiable dependent variable and a quantifiable independent variable to be assessed. The coefficient represents the proportion of the variation in the dependent variable that can be explained statistically by the independent variable. A value of 1 means that all the variation in the dependent variable can be explained statistically by the independent variable. A value of 0 means that none of the variation in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable.

Regression equation. Equation used to predict the values of a dependent variable given the values of one or more independent variables. The associated regression coefficient provides an indication of how good a predictor the regression equation is likely to be.

Reliability. It implies demonstrating that the operations of a study, such as the data collection procedures can be repeated with the same results. The Cronbach's Alpha was used to assess the reliability of all constructs in this study.

Representation of all concerned. Appropriate stakeholders have input into a decision.

Representativeness rule: It dictates that a true representation of the employees' needs and values should be considered during the allocation process.

Research objectives. Clear, specific statements that identify what the researcher wishes to accomplish as a result of doing the research.

Research question. One of a number of key questions that the research process will address. These are often the precursor of research objectives.

Respondents. They are employees participated in this study.

Sample. A subset of subgroup of the population.

Scale. Measure of a concept, such as organizational justice, organisational commitment, job involvement, job performance, etc. created by combining scores to a number of rating questions.

Scatter graph. Diagram for showing the relationship between two quantifiable or ranked data variables.

Scientific research. Research that involves the systematic observation of an experiment with phenomena.

Search engine. Automated software that searches an index of documents on the Internet using key words and Boolean logic.

Search string. Combination of key words used in searching online databases.

Secondary data. Data used for a research project that were originally collected for some other purpose. Also known as documentary secondary data, multiple source secondary data, survey-based secondary data.

Secondary literature. Subsequent publication of primary literature such as books and journals.

Self-administered questionnaire. Data collection technique in which each respondent reads and answers the same set of questions in a predetermined order without an interviewer being present.

Self-selection sampling. Non-probability sampling procedure in which the case, usually an individual, is allowed to identify their desire to be part of the sample.

Service sector. It consists of different types of service industries such as tourism, trade, transportation, financial & consultancy service, entertainment industries, and information & communication.

Side-bet. It refers to the accumulation of investments valued by individuals that would be lost if they were to leave the organization.

Simple random sampling. Probability sampling procedure that ensures that each case in the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample.

Social constructionism. Research philosophy that views the social world as being socially constructed.

Social exchange theories. They deal with how people form relationships and how power is dealt within those relationships.

Social norm. The type of behaviour that a person ought to adopt in a particular situation.

Social representation. It is an issue whether the construct has the similar semantic/psychological meaning among the different set of respondents.

Social support. Feedback that focuses on "action," "identity," and "guidance" as a supporter tries to help a stress receiver understand and/or identify ways to cope with a stressor.

Socially desirable response. Answer given by a respondent due to her or his desire, either conscious or unconscious, to gain prestige or appear in a different social role.

Subject or participant bias. Bias that may occur when research subjects are giving inaccurate responses in order to distort the results of the research.

Subject or participant error. Errors that may occur when research subjects are studied in situations that are inconsistent with their normal behaviour patterns, leading to atypical responses.

Survey. Research strategy that involves the structured collection of data from a sizeable population. Although the term 'survey' is often used to describe the collection of data using questionnaires, it includes other techniques such as structured observation and structured interviews.

Synthesis. Process of arranging and assembling various elements so as to make a new statement, or conclusion.

Systematic review. A process for reviewing the literature using a comprehenisve preplanned search strategy. There are clear assessment criteria for selection of articles to review, articles are assessed on the quality of research and findings, individual studies are synthesised using a clear framework and findings presented in a balanced, impartial and comprehensive manner.

Task performance. It refers to job-specific behaviors including core job responsibilities that are directly related to the organization's purpose.

Task specific behaviors. They include those behaviors that an individual undertakes as part of a job. They are the core substantive tasks that delineate one job from another.

Team climate vision. Vision comprises importance, clarity, attainability, and sharedness of goals.

Team climate. Team climate attempts to uncover individuals' sense-making of their work environment in cognitive schema approach whereas it refers the shared perception of the way things are around there in shared perception approach.

Test of normality. According to Chan (2003), if the numerical values of skewness and kurtosis are between -1 and +1, then the distribution meets the assumption of normality.

Theoretical framework. A logically developed, described and explained network of associations among variables of interest to the research study.

Thesis. The usual name for research projects undertaken for Master of Philosophy (MPhil) and Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degrees, written for an academic audience.

Trade union act. It is the act made to provide for the management of trade union.

Validity. It is the issue whether the respondents understood contents in the instruments in a similar way. The instrument should have unique identify and not the significant overlap with other closely related constructs. Thus, it is also the issue of the instrument whether it is truly operationalized the construct for data collection.

Variable. Individual element or attribute upon which data have been collected.

Variance. Statistic that measures the spread of data values; a measure of dispersion. The smaller the variance, the closer individual data values are to the mean. The value of the variance is the square root of the standard deviation.

Visible culture. The aspects of culture that an observer can hear, feel, or see.

Voluntary contracts. Because both parties enter the labor contract freely, one party can use the legal system to enforce the terms of the contract if the other party does not fulfill its responsibilities.

Work group. A group whose members are held accountable for individual work, but are not responsible for the output of the entire group.

World Wide Web (www). A means of communication, the web is a collection of standards and protocols used to access information available on the Internet.

Written and oral communication tasks. They refer to activities where the incumbent is evaluated, not on the content of a message necessarily, but on the adeptness with which they deliver the communication. Employees need to make formal and informal oral and written presentations to various audiences in many different jobs in the workplace.