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ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

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Abstract:

This study examines the literature on organizational justice in terms of its three main aspects. First, it surveys the dimensions of the construct and chronological development of each dimension. Second, it reviews the antecedents and consequences of each dimension. Finally, it identifies some of the current problems in the field and suggests some issues on which future research should focus.†

Özet:

Örgütsel Adalet: Literatür İncelemesi ve Gelecek Çalışmalar İçin Bazı Öneriler

Bu çalışmada, örgütsel adalet literatürü üç ana bağlamda değerlendirilmiştir. İlk olarak, örgütsel adalet kavramının boyutları ve her bir boyutun kronolojik gelişimi incelenmiştir. Daha sonra, her bir adalet boyutunu etkileyen faktörler ve her bir boyutun sonuçları değerlendirilmiş; son olarak, alandaki güncel problemler ve ilerideki araştırmaların odaklanması gereken konular saptanmıştır.

∗ Authors have contributed equally to this article.

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Keywords: Organizational justice, procedural justice, distributive justice, interactional justice, equity.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Örgütsel adalet, prosedür (süreç) adaleti, dağıtım adaleti, etkileşim adaleti, eşitlik.

INTRODUCTION

The term justice implies "righteousness" or "fairness" of an action or behavior (Colquitt, et al., 2001). In organizational settings, the term "organizational justice" was first coined by Greenberg (1987a) and refers to employees' perceptions of fairness of organizational practices and decisions and to the impact of these perceptions on employees' behaviors (Greenberg, 1990b). The assumption that drives research on organizational justice is the notion that fairness perceptions will favorably dispose employees toward their organizations. This notion has been empirically supported in a number of studies. In particular, fair treatment has been found to exert important effects on individual employee attitudes, such as satisfaction and commitment, individual behaviors, such as absenteeism and citizenship behavior (Colquitt et al., 2001), and individual work performance (Cohen-Caharash and Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). It should, therefore, come as no surprise that organizational justice has been viewed as a basic requirement for the effective functioning of organizations (Greenberg, 1990b) and that it is one of the most popularly researched areas in the field of organizational behavior (Colquitt, et. al., 2001; Greenberg, 2000).

The theme of justice has preoccupied writers and philosophers throughout the ages. However, the systematic study of the concept in social settings and organizations can be traced back to only 1960s. Research in this slightly over forty-year period has shown that justice in organizational settings can be depicted as a three dimensional phenomenon: Fairness of *outcomes* of resource allocations (distributive justice), fairness of the *processes* in the distribution of those outcomes (procedural justice), and fairness and quality of the *treatment* that employee receive from decision makers (interactional justice).

Early research on justice in organizations emerged in 1960s and focused on distributive justice. In the mid-1970s, research broadened and focused on procedural fairness. In the mid-1980s, justice research shifted its focus again and examined the interactional justice. Today, organizational justice (OJ, hereafter) is a well accepted and widely studied theory with its application to different domestic organizational settings, such as job security (Oldham, et al., 1986), layoffs (Brockner, et al., 1986), trust in the top management teams (Korsgaard et. al., 1995), and trust in the supervisor (Masterson et al., 2000). The theory has also been successfully used in international organizational settings, particularly in studying the formulation and implementation of corporate strategies in MNC subsidiaries (Kim and Mauborgne, 1991, 1993a, 1993b), and in examining decision control and commitment in international joint ventures (Johnson et. al., 2002).

Given the fact that the OJ theory has been subject to empirical research for over forty years and that, as the following review will reveal, it has been studied mainly at individual levels in Western contexts (specifically USA context), new studies seem not contributing to the field much. We believe that the field needs a new perspective in its orientation. The purpose of this study, therefore, is to lay out the current state of the OJ literature and identify possible research avenues that will fertilize the field.

This study consists of five parts: In the first part, we briefly inquiry why justice matters. In the second part, we chronologically examine the three dimensions of OJ as well as their consequences in organizations. In the third part, we look at the antecedents of each dimension[1]. In the fourth part, we identify the major problems in the field. Finally, based on our observations in the fourth part, we conclude the study by making some suggestions for future research.

I. WHY DOES JUSTICE MATTER?

There is little question that justice matters (Cropanzano et. al., 1998). As nicely put by Wilson (1993), even small children understand something of justice (That's not fair!). Justice tugs something of fundamental importance to human beings (Folger, 1998). People care about justice because they have a basic respect for human dignity and worth (Folger, 1998), which constitute a fundamental feature of human life (Van den Bos & Spruijt, 2002). Not surprisingly, then, the issue of justice has received considerable attention from philosophers, sociologists, political scientists, economists, psychologists, and others (Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001). In fact, the philosopher Rawls (1971: 3) viewed justice as "the first virtue of social institutions" (p. 3) (cited in Ambrose, 2002).

If these naïve observations are not enough to convince us that justice matters, the clear and consistent consequences of organizational justice research since the mid-1970s, the time when justice research gained acceleration, certainly should (Colquitt et al., 2001). The research in this period has demonstrated that fair practices and processes are associated with individuals' satisfaction with unfavorable outcomes (Thibaut and Walker, 1975), organizational commitment, job satisfaction, performance, citizenship behavior, and turnover (Colquitt et al., 2001).

But, "why does justice matter from a theoretical perspective?" Even though our discussion in part 2.2. will mention this issue in more detail, it is useful at this point to briefly answer this question and establish a background

for the coming parts. Literature suggests that justice matters to individuals, for at least, two reasons:

1) Justice is important because it ultimately allows individuals to maximize personal gain. Therefore, individuals bypass short-term gain to maximize long-term gain. This view is known as *"self-interest model"* or *"instrumental model"* in that justice is seen as an instrument that will guarantee that individuals will, over time, maximize their self interests (i.e., they will receive their fair share of favorable outcomes, Thibaut and Walker, 1975).

2) Justice is important because it carries symbolic value, signals respect for the dignity of the individual, and confirms his or her status in the group, thereby contributing to his or her sense of self-worth. This view offers a more psychological explanation and is known as *"group value model"* or *"relational model"* (Lind and Tyler, 1988; Tyler and Lind, 1992).

Having clarified why justice matters, we now turn our attention to its three different forms (dimensions) in organizations: Distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. The following part reviews these dimensions.

II. DIMENSIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES IN ORGANIZATIONS

II.1. Distributive Justice (DJ) and Its Consequences in Organizations

Distributive justice (DJ, hereafter) dimension draws on Adams' (1965) equity theory, which argues that one's reward (e.g., pay, fringe benefits, recognition and promotion) should be proportional to one's input (e.g., education, qualifications, previous work experience and, efforts). In other words,

$$\frac{\text{Outcome Person X}}{\text{Inputs Person X}} = \frac{\text{Outcome Person Y}}{\text{Inputs Person Y}}$$

This ratio is based on the person's perception of what he or she is giving and receiving versus the ratio of what the relevant other (e.g., his or her co-worker) is giving and receiving. If these two ratios are equal, equity will occur and individuals will be satisfied (Adams, 1965; Greenberg, 1987a). However, if the above ratios are not equal (i.e., if a person does not get the rewards he or she expects in comparison with the rewards some others get), distributive injustice or inequity will occur. In this case, individuals whose ratios are higher will be inequitably overpaid and feel guilty and individuals whose ratios are lower will

be inequitably underpaid and feel angry (Greenberg, 1987a). According to the equity theory, such inequities will motivate individuals to restore equity by either behavioral reactions (i.e., by altering job performance) or psychological reactions (i.e., by altering perceptions of work outcomes) (Walster et. al. 1978).

Adams' earlier study (1963) empirically supported these arguments. He found in an experimental study that even individuals who benefit from inequity willingly sacrifice those benefits in order to restore equity and that overpaid or underpaid employees attempt to restore equity by either increasing or decreasing the quantity or quality of their work (behavioral reactions) or by altering perceptions of work outcomes (psychological reactions) (Adams, 1963; Greenberg, 1987a). According to Adams (1965), to achieve distributive justice, allocation of outcomes should be based on the "equity" rule (i.e., on each individual's inputs).

Deutsch (1975, 1985) and Leventhal (1976) extended Adams' arguments and identified "equality" and "needs" as additional allocation rules that enhance individuals' fairness perceptions of the outcomes. Equality rule implies that individuals should receive the same amount regardless of their inputs. This rule signifies that the different members of a relation have equal value as individuals. As such, it emphasizes solidarity and social cohesiveness (Mannix et. al., 1995). Needs rule, on the other hand, implies that rewards should be allocated according to the needs of individuals, irrespective of their inputs.

In spite of these differences, all 3 allocation rules have as their goal the achievement of fair outcomes. Therefore, the objective of the allocator is to determine which rule should be used to ensure a fair allocation of outcomes (Deutsch, 1975, 1985). If productivity is the primary goal, outcomes should be allocated mainly on the basis of equity rule. If the primary goal is fostering or maintaining enjoyable social relations, then equality rule should dominate the allocation decisions. Finally, if the primary goal is nurturing personal development and personal welfare, need should be the dominant principle of outcome allocations (Deutsch, 1975, 1985).

In organizational settings, distributive justice has been applied to a variety of organizational practices, including:

- job challenge (Oldham et al., 1982),
- pay (Mowday, 1983),
- job security (Oldham, et al., 1986),
- supervision (Oldham et al., 1986),
- office space (Greenberg, 1988), and
- layoffs (Brockner, et al., 1986).

The overall finding of DJ studies is that DJ has individual-level consequences and, thus, is a good predictor of individuals' reactions to specific outcomes such as job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, and intention to remain with the organization (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky, et. al., 1987; McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993).

The concept of DJ was widely and fruitfully employed to study how employees react to the nature, level, and distribution of organizational rewards and outcomes. However, in the early 1980s, researchers recognized that this outcome-oriented approach alone did not explain everything (Greenberg, 1990b). In particular, it was noted that DJ ignores the procedures or means through which ends are established, and thus, does not adequately address process-oriented issues. For example, Heneman (1985) and Mahoney (1983) raised several questions on how compensation systems were administered and what practices were followed for conducting performance appraisals. Such questions prompted concerns about fairness that were more process-oriented and ignited the interest in procedural justice research (Greenberg, 1990b).

II.2. Procedural Justice (PJ) and Its Consequences in Organizations

The term procedural justice (PJ, hereafter) refers to the extent to which decision-making procedures are judged to be fair by those who are subjected to them (Tyler and Lind, 1992). Research suggests that people are affected not only by the fairness of decision-making outcomes (i.e., DJ) but also by the fairness of the decision-making process (i.e., PJ) (McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992) and that the impact of PJ is independent of the perceived fairness of the outcome itself (Tyler and Lind, 1992).

The study of procedural justice arises from the work of Thibaut and Walker (1975). Thibaut and Walker (1975) investigated fairness of procedures by which legal disputes are settled in two different legal systems. One system was adversary procedure system, used by many English-speaking countries, in which the parties in a legal dispute assume the responsibility for the development and presentation of arguments at the trial. The second system was inquisitorial procedure system, used by most of the European countries, in which the judge (e.g., decision-maker) and his or her agents are responsible for the development and presentation of arguments (see Lind and Tyler, 1988, for a review). Thibaut and Walker (1975) found that most legal disputants preferred the adversary procedure (participative model) and viewed it fairer than inquisitorial procedure (no participation).

To explain this finding, they reasoned that both adversary and inquisitorial systems have the same two stages: Process stage and decision

stage. They referred to the amount of influence disputants had in each stage as process control and decision control, respectively. According to Thibaut and Walker (1975), disputants would prefer decision control (i.e., full control over the actual decision made). However, since it was impossible for the disputants to have full control over the actual decision, they willingly gave up decision control and accepted even unfavorable outcomes when they were given process control (e.g., when the procedures used gave disputants some control over the presentation of their arguments).

In organizational settings, this process control effect is often referred to as “procedural justice” or “voice” effect (Folger, 1977; Lind and Tyler, 1988), or “perceived control” (Greenberg and Folger, 1983), and is one of the most replicated findings in the PJ literature (Colquitt, et. al., 2001). Folger (1977), for example, defined voice effect as allowing individuals affected by the decision to present information relevant to it. He found that individuals who had a voice tended to consider a system as fair and to be committed to it and suggested that voice is one of the primary means of maximizing fairness perceptions. Similarly, Gilliland (1993) defined voice as having adequate opportunity to demonstrate one's knowledge, skills, and abilities, and pointed to its critical role in enhancing the perceptions of fairness. In a more recent study, Korsgaard, et al. (1995, however, found that voice does not ensure perceptions of a fair process unless the decision-maker acknowledges and shows consideration of others' input.

Thibaut and Walker (1975) viewed this process control or voice as a critical instrument that ensures the procedural fairness (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998) and argued that people value process control because it offers some control over the process and ultimately provides them with indirect influence on the actual decision made, thereby reassuring them about the likely fairness of their long-term outcomes (Thibaut and Walker, 1975). As previously mentioned, this is known as instrumental model or self-interest model of PJ.

As a response to this view that voice enhances perceptions of fairness because it is an instrument that gives people some control over the ultimate decision, Lind and Tyler (1988: 93) have argued that “at least some of the effects of voice on procedural justice is attributable to non-instrumental features of voice” and proposed so called relational model or group value model. According to Lind and Tyler (1992), people care about voice, not for the possibility that the voice will influence the outcome, but for its value expressive function. The value expressive function of voice is that voice carries symbolic value and signals respect for the dignity of the individual. Having a voice in the decision-making process and being treated with dignity and respect during the course of expressing his or her voice provides a person with important

information and feedback about his or her perceived value and status within a group, thereby contributing to his or her sense of self-worth.

Leventhal (1980) and Leventhal and his colleagues (1980) extended Thibaut and Walker's (1975) and Folger's (1977) works on PJ and voice and argued that voice was not the only factor that increases the perceptions of a fair process. According to Leventhal (1980: 40-44), in order for an allocation process to be perceived as fair, it must meet the following six rules:

a- consistency rule (procedures should be consistent across persons and across time),
b- bias suppression rule (procedures should be neutral and impartial),
c- accuracy rule (Procedures and decisions should be based on as much accurate information as possible),
d- correctability rule (procedures should include mechanisms for correcting poor decisions),
e- representativeness rule (procedures should consider the views and opinions of all affected parties), and
f- ethicality rule (procedures should be based on prevailing standards of ethics).

Lind & Tyler (1988) noted that the representation rule is similar to process control and that the Leventhal criteria subsume the notion of process control advanced by Thibaut and Walker (1975).

Research has generally validated these rules and found that people better accept their allocations to the extent that the allocation decisions are made using these criteria (Greenberg, 1986; Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997). Despite the common acceptance of the above six rules, however, some other rules have also been argued to enhance the PJ perceptions of individuals. A notable example is Tyler's (1989) three criteria: i) Neutrality, ii) trust, and iii) status recognition. According to Tyler (1989), people should be more likely to report being treated fairly if they are treated in a neutral, trustworthy, and respectful manner. Neutrality refers to the extent to which a third party or an authority figure (i.e., decision maker) creates a "level playing field" by demonstrating evenhanded treatment, honesty, and a lack of bias (Tyler, 1994: 854). Trust, on the other hand, refers to appraisals regarding the good intentions or benevolence of the decision maker (Tyler, 1994: 854). Finally, standing or status recognition refers to a person's evaluation of the extent to which a group authority or third party treats them with dignity and respect and as a valued member of the group (Tyler and Bies, 1990: 853). As seen, Tyler's three criteria are in alignment with, and applicable to, the group-value or relational model mentioned earlier (Lind and Tyler, 1988, Tyler and Lind, 1992).

The pioneering work of Thibaut and Walker (1975) led others to investigate the application of procedural justice to organizational settings. Greenberg and Folger (1983) and Folger and Greenberg (1985) were the first to establish the importance of procedural justice in organizations. Since then, studies on PJ in organizations have proliferated and gained popularity. Today, the OJ literature does not suffer from lack of studies on PJ. In fact, among the three dimensions of OJ, PJ is the most widely studied dimension.

Studies have demonstrated the importance of procedural fairness in a wide range of settings, including:

- selection testing (Gilliland, 1994), performance appraisals (Folger and Greenberg, 1985; Greenberg, 1986), pay raise decisions (Folger and Konovsky, 1989), compensation plans (Miceli et al., 1991), budget decisions (Bies and Shapiro, 1988),
- job satisfaction, (Alexander and Ruderman, 1987), performance (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998),
- organizational citizenship behavior (i.e., helpful and supportive actions by employees that are not part of their formal job description), (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998; Greenberg, 1990a, 1993a; Moorman, et. al., 1991), enhanced commitment to the organization (Martin and Bennett, 1996),
- layoffs (Brockner and Greenberg, 1990; Brockner, et. al., 1992), turnover, (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998), intentions to remain with the organization (Olson-Buchanan, 1996),
- drug testing in the workplace (Konovsky and Cropanzano, 1991), theft (Greenberg, 1990a, 2002), aggression (Folger and Skarlicki, 1988; Greenberg and Alge, 1998), deviance (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997), revenge (Bies and Tripp, 1996), sabotage and retaliation (Ambrose, et al., 2002), and
- commitment, attachment, and trust in top management teams (Korsgaard et. al., 1995).

The overall finding of PJ studies is that PJ has organizational-level consequences, and thus, when compared to distributive justice, is a better predictor of reactions to the upper management and the whole organization such as organizational commitment and trust in the organization (McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993; Cropanzo et. al., 2002; Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky, et. al., 1987).

Until the mid-1980s, justice research has conceived organizational justice as a two-dimensional phenomenon. In the mid-1980s, Bies and Moag (1986)

and Bies (1987) argued that while people are clearly concerned about the fairness of outcomes and the fairness of formal procedures, they are also concerned about how they are treated during the implementation of procedures. These arguments laid out the fundamentals of a third form of organizational justice, namely interactional justice.

II.3. Interactional Justice (IJ) and Its Consequences in Organizations

Interactional justice (IJ, hereafter) was first outlined by Bies and Moag (1986) and refers to "the quality of interpersonal treatment people receive during the enactment of organizational procedures" (Bies and Moag, 1986: 44).

IJ is relatively a new concept and, as we will detail later, there is still argument among researchers on whether it is a separate construct or a component of PJ. According to Bies and Moag (1986), IJ should be treated as a separate dimension of OJ. They argue (1986: 45-46), "an allocation decision is a sequence of events in which a procedure generates a process of interaction and decision making through which an outcome is allocated to someone". They point out that these are two separate processes, one concerning decision procedures and one concerning the enactment of the procedures and each process is subject to fairness considerations (Bies and Moag, 1986). As seen, Bies and Moag (1986) focus on the fairness of the communication aspect of interpersonal treatment during the process of resource allocation.

Bies and Moag (1986) identified four criteria typifying IJ:

a- respect (being polite rather than rude),
b- propriety (refraining from asking improper questions or making prejudicial comments),
c- truthfulness (being honest in communications, rather than deceptive), and
d- justification (providing clear and adequate explanations for the decision).

Greenberg (1990a, 1993b) subsequently collapsed summarized these four criteria into two categories. He referred to respect and propriety criteria as interpersonal justice and truthfulness and justification criteria as informational justice. The former reflects the degree to which decision makers treat people with politeness, dignity, and respect. The latter, on the other hand, reflects the degree to which decision makers explain why procedures were used in a certain way and why outcomes were distributed in a certain fashion.

Recently, Bies (2001) identified several factors that indicate the absence of interactional justice. These factors include i) insulting judgments (i.e., wrongful accusations, use of pejorative labels), ii) deception (i.e., lies, broken promises), iii) invasion of privacy (i.e., disclosure of confidences, asking improper questions), iv) abusive words or actions (i.e., rudeness, public criticism, insults), and v) coercion.

As with distributive justice and procedural justice, there is substantial empirical support for the effect of fair interpersonal treatment on individuals' attitudes and behaviors (Brockner and Greenberg, 1990; Daly and Geyer, 1994). The overall finding of IJ studies is that IJ has supervisor-level consequences, and thus, when compared to DJ and PJ, is a better predictor of reactions to the immediate work environment and supervisors such as trust in the supervisor, commitment to the supervisor, and subordinates' evaluations of their supervisors (Masterson et al., 2000, Cropanzo et. al., 2002).

Our review so far revealed that early justice research conceived the concept as a one-dimensional phenomenon and based its efforts on the concept of DJ, which simply reflects one's perceptions of outcomes (Adams, 1965). This approach enjoyed its dominance in the field until it was replaced by the concept of IJ in the mid-1970s, which emphasized the structural aspects of procedures. The PJ research relied mainly on Thibaut and Walker's (1975) process control and Leventhal's (1980) six criteria for fair allocative procedures (Colquitt, 2001, Colquitt et al., 2001). This two-dimensional justice model, however, was, once again, replaced by the concept of IJ (Bies and Moag, 1986), which emphasized the social aspect of justice by addressing the quality of interpersonal treatment people receive when procedures are implemented (justifications, respect, sensitivity).

Figure 1. and Table 1. summarize these points. Figure 1. schematically shows the development of OJ field. Specifically, it indicates the three OJ constructs, their representative authors, and the rules and consequences of each construct. Table 1. gives a brief explanation of the rules of each construct shown in Figure 1.

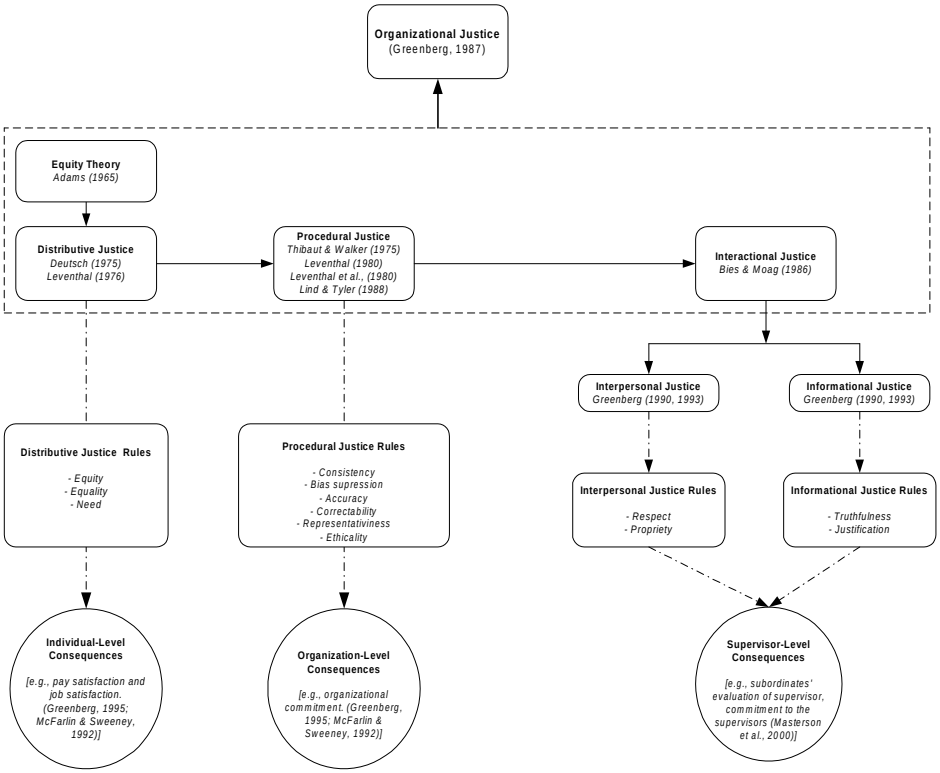

Figure 1.
Development of OJ Field: OJ Constructs, Their Rules, and Consequences in Organizations

Table 1. Rules of OJ Constructs

DJ Rules	Author	Meaning
Equity	Adams, 1965	- Outcomes must be distributed according to the "inputs" of individuals.
Equality	Deutsch, 1975	- Outcomes must be distributed "equally" among individuals.
Needs	Deutsch, 1975	- Outcomes must be distributed based on the "needs" of individuals.
PJ Rules	**Author**	**Meaning**
Decision control	Thiabut & Walker, 1975	- The ability to influence (or having full control over) the actual decisions made.
Process Control (Voice)	Thiabut & Walker, 1975 Folger, 1977	- The procedures used to make decisions should allow people to express their opinions to decision makers prior to the final decision.
Consistency rule	Levinthal, 1980	- Similar procedures should be applied to all employees (consistency across people) and procedures should be kept stable, at least over the short term (consistency across time).
Bias suppression rule	Levinthal, 1980	- Procedures should be free of bias (i.e., Decision makers should be unbiased).
Accuracy rule	Levinthal, 1980	- Procedures should be based on valid facts, information, and opinions.
Correctability rule	Levinthal, 1980	- Procedures should be modifiable (i.e., Opportunities must exist to appeal procedures and decisions).
Representativeness rule	Levinthal, 1980	- Procedures should represent the concerns of all important sub-groups and individuals.
Ethicality rule	Levinthal, 1980	- Procedures should be compatible with prevailing ethical standards.
IJ Rules	**Author**	**Meaning**
Respect	Bies & Moag, 1986	- Decision makers should treat individuals with dignity and consideration.
Propriety	Bies & Moag, 1986	- Decision makers should be free of bias.
Truthfulness	Bies & Moag, 1986	- Decision makers should be honest and avoid deception.
Justification	Bies & Moaq, 1986	- Procedures should be adequately and clearly explained to employees.

Having established the dimensions and consequences of OJ, we now turn our attention to the antecedents of OJ.

III. ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE CONSTRUCTS

A good deal of effort has been devoted to the study of the antecedents of OJ. These efforts have commonly borrowed conceptualizations from organizational theory and identified a multitude of antecedents for each justice dimension. Despite this, the field lacks a systematic classification within which these antecedents can be organized (see Murphy, 1997 for an exception).

In this part of our review, we attempt to develop such a classification identifying the antecedents of DJ, PJ, and IJ. Table 2. shows our classification. It categorizes antecedents of each justice construct based on their communalities, which we have classified into two broad groups (organizational context and individual differences), and identifies some of the representative studies of each group. Below is a brief explanation of each category.

Table 2. Antecedents of Organizational Justice Perceptions

		Organizational Context											Individual Differences						
		Organizational Structure				Task Environment	Interpersonal Environment						Demographic Differences				Psychological Differences		
							Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)				Team-Member Exchange (TMX)	Group Cohesiviness							
Author	Justice Constructs	Formalization	Centralization	Size	Vertical Complexity	Perceived Control	Relationship Quality (trust in, and support from, supervisor)	Communication Quality	Supervisor's Justification of Decisions/Processes	Supervisor's Procedural Fairness			Age	Gender	Status	Culture	Locus of Control	Equity Sensitivity	Affective Disposition
Aryee et. al., (2004)	Procedural	□	□																
Bagarozzi (1982)	Distributive											□							
Bies and Shapiro (1988)	Procedural					□	□		□										
Conlon (1993)	Distributive, Procedural										□								
Cropanzano and Folger (1989)	Distributive									□									
Earley and Lind (1987)	Procedural					□													
Folger et. al., (1983)	Distributive, Procedural								□										
Greenberg (1987b)	Distributive									□									
Kernan and Hanges (2002)	Procedural, Interactional					□		□											
King et. al. (1993)	Distributive																	□	
Lee and Farh (1999)	Distributive, Procedural													□					
Leung and Li (1990)	Procedural, Distributive					□													
Leung and Lind (1986)	Procedural													□	□	□			
Lind et. al. (1990)	Distributive, Procedural					□													
Lind et. al. (1997)	Procedural															□			
Masyln (1996)	Procedural, Interactional						□												
Meindl, et. al., (1990)	Distributive						□									□			
Murphy (1997)	Distributive, Procedural, Interactional						□										□		□
Musante et. al. (1983)	Distributive, Procedural					□													
Niehoff and Moorman (1993)	Distributive, Procedural, Interactional						□												
Primeaux et. al. (2003)	Distributive, Procedural, Interactional												□	□		□			
Schminke et. al. (2000)	Procedural, Interactional		□	□															
Schminke et. al. (2002)	Distributive, Procedural, Interactional	□	□	□	□														
Shapiro and Brett (1993)	Procedural, Interactional					□													
Skitka and Tetlock (1992)	Distributive																□		□
Sweeney et.al. (1991)	PJ																□		
Sweeney and McFarlin (1997)	Distributive, Procedural													□					
Tyler (1987)	Procedural																□		
Tyler (1989)	Procedural						□								□				
Tyler (1994)	Distributive, Procedural						□								□				
Tyler et. al. (1985)	Procedural					□													
Van Prooijen (2002)	Procedural														□				

As the table indicates, some of the antecedents of justice perceptions stem from organizational context and some others from individual differences or characteristics. With regard to the former issue, researchers have employed different aspects of organizational context to study its effect on justice perceptions. One group of researchers has used organizational structure as a proxy of organizational context. This line of research has recently emerged, and thus, is limited in number. Research in this category is based on the notion that organizations are purposively constructed social systems, which provide the environmental context in which fair and unfair interactions inspire (Schminke et. al., 2000). Theoretical arguments pointing out that organizational structure may influence interactions among group members (David et. al., 1989) and justice perceptions in organizations (Sheppard et. al. 1993; Ambrose and Schminke, 2001) also provide the bases for this line of research. David et. al. (1989), for example, provided evidence pointing out that matching technology and organizational structure at the group level have important implications for group interaction, communication, and performance. Given that employees' justice perceptions may affect, and may be affected, by those of others, and that communication plays an important role in this process (Greenberg, 1981; 1983), this evidence suggests that structure (and technology) may impact employees' perceptions of justice. In a similar vein, Sheppard et. al., (1993) suggested that structural differences between organizations may provide varying amounts of

participation, communication, and other variables, all of which may lead to systemic differences in fairness. Studies in this group have typically conceived organizational structure in terms of formalization (the extent to which explicit operating rules, procedures, instructions, and written communications are in effect to achieve uniformity and standardization in job behavior and operations), centralization (the extent to which employees are allowed to participate in decision making -*direct* participation- and to which decision making authority is concentrated in a single point -authority hierarchy-), size, and vertical complexity (the number of levels in an organizational hierarchy).

Another group of researchers has employed task environment to study the relationship between organizational context and justice perceptions of employees. Researchers in this group have typically used "perceived control" (Greenberg and Folger, 1983) or "voice" (Folger, 1977) as a proxy of organizational context. As indicated earlier, perceived control is one of the earliest and most widely replicated findings in justice research (Folger, 19977; Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Brockner & Greenberg, 1990; Korsgaard et. al., 1995). It is seen as an *indirect* form of participation which allows for the expression of an opinion about an organizational decision (Greenberg and Folger, 1983). This line of research draws upon earlier studies whose findings indicate that perceived control leads to higher levels of job satisfaction (i.e., Greenberger et. al., 1989). As Table 2. shows, several studies have found that the opportunity to express one's views and opinions concerning decisions enhances perceptions of justice (Leung and Lind, 1986; Leung & Li, 1990; Lind et. al., 1990).

Still another group of researchers has used interpersonal environment as an indicator of organizational environment and studied its role in the justice perceptions of employees. This line of research utilizes from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which suggests that the relationship between employees and an organization (i.e., manager, supervisor) can be viewed as an interaction process, and that aspects of this interaction process are fundamental to understanding employee attitudes and behavior (Napier & Ferris, 1993). Research in this group conceived employee-organization interaction as having three components: Leader-member exchange (LMX), Team-member exchange (TMX), and group cohesiveness. LMX is defined as exchange relationships between a subordinate and his or her leader and captures the quality of this relationship (Dienesh and Liden, 1986). TMX, on the other hand, denotes individuals' perceptions of the exchange relationship with his or her work group as a whole (Seers, 1989). Finally, group cohesiveness refers to the attractiveness of a group for its members and includes three elements: i) interpersonal attraction, ii) liking for, or commitment to, the group task, and iii) group status (Zacorro and McCoy, 1988).

With regard to the antecedents of justice stemming from individual differences, one group of researchers has typically used demographic variables of age, gender, status, and culture as a proxy of individual differences. Another group of researchers, on the other hand, has focused on psychological differences among individuals and reasoned that such differences shape the justice perceptions of employees. Among the psychological differences studied are i) locus of control - the extent to which individuals believe that their own actions determine the rewards, (Spector, 1982), ii) equity sensitivity - the extent to which individuals experience distress when under rewarded or over rewarded, (Adams, 1963, 1965), and iii) affective disposition - the extent to which individuals are negatively or positively predisposed to certain events, (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Judge, 1993; Masyln 1996).

Having identified the dimensions, and antecedents and consequences of each dimension, we now turn our attention to the final part of our review and identify some of the current debates in the field and possible future research avenues.

IV. MAIN PROBLEMS IN THE OJ LITERATURE

Two major issues can be identified in the field of OJ, each having some sub-issues: Issues related to dimensionality of the justice constructs and issues related to level of analysis.

IV.1. Dimensionality of Justice Constructs

Two sub-issues are at work here. The first issue is related to the dimensionality of DJ and PJ, and the second issue is related to that of PJ and IJ.

IV.1.1. Dimensionality of DJ and PJ

Two different arguments exist with regard to the dimensionality of DJ and PJ. One group of researchers suggests that DJ and PJ constructs are the same and that there is little or no value in differentiating them. Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001), for example, argued that PJ and DJ are more similar than most researchers believe because procedural evaluations are based largely on outcomes attained and because the same event can be seen as a process in one context and an outcome in another. This argument is supported by some earlier studies (e.g., Sweeney and McFarlin, 1997; Welbourne, 1998), which have revealed high correlations between the two justice dimensions, supporting that individuals may not always perceive a distinction between PJ and DJ (Folger, 1987).

A second group of researchers, on the other hand, argues that DJ is an independent construct and should be separated from PJ (Croponzano et. al., 2002). Researchers in this group base their arguments on some earlier studies pointing out that DJ and PJ predict different outcomes. In particular, DJ has been found to be more important in predicting individually derived outcomes, such as pay satisfaction (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky, et al., 1987; Miceli et. al., 1991; Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993), turnover intention (Alexander and Ruderman, 1987), and job satisfaction (McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992), whereas PJ has been shown to be more critical for understanding reactions to organizational or group-based systems, such as conflict-harmony within work groups (Alexander and Ruderman, 1987) and organizational commitment (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Konovsky, et al., 1987; McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993). Researchers in this group believe that, because DJ and PJ predict different criteria, they should be viewed as separate constructs (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955), even if they are empirically correlated (McCornack, 1956) (cited in Croponzano et. al., 2002).

IV.1.2. Dimensionality of PJ and IJ

Two sub-issues can be identified here. The first issue is related to the dimensionality of DJ and IJ, and the second issue is related to the dimensionality IJ, namely, whether IJ should be viewed as consisting of interactional and informational justice components.

With regard to the first issue, there are two different views about whether PJ is different from IJ. One view treats IJ as a third form of justice, independent of both PJ and DJ, and postulates that differentiating between IJ and PJ will lead to a better understanding of fairness in organizations (Bies and Moag, 1986; Bies and Shapiro, 1988; Barling & Phillips, 1993; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997; Masterson et al., 2000; Moorman, 1991; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Bies and Moag (1986), for example, suggested that IJ should be understood as separated from PJ since it represents the enactment of procedures rather than the development of procedures themselves. According to Bies and Moag (1986, 2001), PJ refers to the degree to which formal procedures are present and used in the organization, whereas IJ refers to the fairness of the manner in which the procedures are carried out. Moorman (1991) also made a distinction between PJ and IJ constructs and suggested that PJ might measure the fairness of the organization and that IJ might measure the fairness of the supervisor. More recently, a similar distinction was made by Masterson et. al., (2000) who examined the justice perceptions in terms of their sources. They argued that justice perceptions have two sources, namely, supervisor and organization and found that the former is associated with IJ and the latter is associated with PJ.

Second view treats IJ as a sub-group of PJ and argues that separating it from PJ has no, or little, value (e.g., Folger & Konovsky, 1989; ; Tyler and Bies, 1990; Tyler and Lind, 1992; Brockner et al., 1997; Mansour-Cole & Scott, 1998; Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997; Tyler and Blader, 2000). Procedural justice, in this view, refers to the formal aspects of the allocation process, whereas interactional justice refers to the social aspects of the process (Folger and Bies, 1989). Based on this conceptual similarity, procedural and interactional justice were seen as "formal" and "social" aspects of a single construct (Greenberg, 1990b), and thus, IJ can be subsumed under the conceptualization of PJ (Tyler and Bies, 1990).

With regard to the dimensionality of IJ, literature offers again two different views. One view conceives IJ as a one-dimensional phenomenon and argues that splitting IJ into interactional and informational justice components is of no value. This view can be seen as an extension of the arguments suggesting that PJ subsumes IJ (i.e. Tyler and Bies, 1990). The second view, on the other hand, suggests that IJ be depicted in terms of its two components (see Greenberg 1990b, 1993b for more information). Greenberg (1993b) suggested that interactional and informational justice components of IJ be separated because they are logically distinct and, as some studies showed (e.g. Greenberg, 1993c), they have independent effects. According to Greenberg (1993b, 1993c), interpersonal justice acts primarily to alter reactions to decision outcomes, because sensitivity can make people feel better about an unfavorable outcome. Informational justice, on the other hand, acts primarily to alter reactions to procedures, in that explanations provide the information needed to evaluate structural aspects of the process. Recent studies have also favored for this same conceptualization of splitting IJ into two components (i.e., Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al, 2001; Kernan & Hanges, 2002; Konovsky, 2000).

IV.1.3. Resolving Dimensionality Issues

Recent research clarified our confusions over the above-mentioned dimensionality issues. In a recent article, Bies (2001) strongly favored for separating procedural and interactional justice by citing some earlier research demonstrating that: i) people distinguish the fairness of formal procedures from the fairness of interactions, and ii) PJ and IJ affect different outcome variables. Among the cited research are the studies of Bies and Tripp (1996) and Barling and Philips (1993). Bies and Trip (1996), based on a sample of MBA students, examined certain events that provoke thoughts of revenge. The authors reported events that were clearly distributive, procedural, and interactional in nature. Barling and Phillips (1993) studied if DJ, PJ, and IJ exert different effects on withdrawal, trust in management, and affective commitment. They found that IJ impacts all three outcomes, whereas other justice constructs affect different

outcomes at varying degrees. On the basis of these and similar evidences, Bies (2001) concluded that it makes theoretical and empirical sense to treat interactional justice as a distinct form of justice. In the same vain, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), based on a meta-analysis, empirically supported the usefulness of separating IJ from both DJ and PJ. In another meta-analysis of justice studies in the last 25 years, Colquitt (2001) et. al. also demonstrated that treating DJ, IJ, and PJ separately is of significant value. The authors further found that splitting IJ into interpersonal and informational justice components has more explanatory power than both a two-factor model (DJ and PJ) and one-factor model (DJ) of justice. In a separate study, Colquitt (2001), based on seminal works in the respective justice domains, developed and validated measures of each justice construct (i.e., DJ, PJ, and IJ). The author also splitted IJ into two components. His results indicated that DJ, PJ, and IJ (interpersonal and informational justice) are empirically distinct entities that, although correlated, exhibited differential effects on several individual- and group-level outcome variables. Some other recent studies have also shown that the three justice constructs are distinctively different from each other and that is useful to view IJ as consisting of two components (i.e., Konovsky, 2000; Kernan & Hanges, 2002).

Our view is in alignment with these recent findings pointing out that the three justice constructs (DJ, PJ, and IJ) are distinctively different from each other and that IJ can be further splitted into two components (interpersonal and informational justice) . Given that four-decade of research on justice has commonly found that the perceived fairness of outcomes (DJ), the perceived fairness of procedures (IJ), and the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment (IJ) are each associated with important organizational behaviors and attitudes, we believe that people care about not only the fairness of their outcomes but also the fairness of the procedures to which they are subjected and the fairness of the interpersonal treatment that they receive.

IV.2. Level of Analysis

The second major problem in the area of OJ is that the field lacks enough studies to shed light on the application of justice theories to higher levels in organizations such as employee or top management teams. Traditionally, justice theories have been used at individual levels. Despite the fact that the concept of justice has been systematically investigated in organizational settings for over 40 years, its application to higher levels, such as teams and organizations, has a relatively new history. Only recently, such attempts have been made (Korsgaard et. al., 1995; Colquitt et. al., 2002; Colquitt, 2004). A notable example is the experimental study of Korsgaard et. al. (1995) in that it is one of the early studies to examine the OJ concept at higher levels in organizations. The authors

examined how decision-making procedures can facilitate the positive attitudes necessary for cooperative relations in top management teams. They hypothesized that consideration of members' influence on a decision affects members' perceptions of procedural fairness, commitment to the decision, attachment to the group, and trust in the leader. An experiment with teams of middle- and upper-level managers indicated that perceived fairness mediated the impact of procedures on commitment, attachment and trust.

Furthermore, there is a need for the examination of justice theories in international settings. Here, two sub-issues can be identified:

i) Migrating justice constructs to individual and organizational levels in international business settings, and
ii) Validating justice constructs across cultures.

With regard to the former issue, few studies have attempted to examine the justice constructs at individual (Leung, et. al., 1996; Leung and Kwong, 2003; Wong, et. al., 2002) and organizational levels (e.g., Johnson et. al., 2002; Kim and Mauborgne, 1991, 1993a, 1993b, 1995, 1996, 1998; Taggart, 1997) in international settings. The studies of Leung et al. and Kim and Mauborgne are especially noteworthy because they represent the first attempts to examine the concept of justice in international settings. Leung et al. (1996) showed the relevance of the justice constructs at individual levels in their study of a joint venture in China. Specifically, they found that procedural and distributive justice significantly influence job satisfaction. In a series of studies, Kim and Mauborgne applied the justice constructs to higher levels and examined the role of PJ in formulating and implementing corporate strategies in multinational corporations' subsidiaries (Kim and Mauborgne, 1991, 1993a, 1993b). Building on these works, Johnson et al., (2002) subsequently incorporated justice constructs into the study of international joint ventures and found that decision-making and commitment to the strategy are affected by justice constructs. These studies in international settings all revealed that OJ is a measurable concept which is at work at both individual and organizational levels. It must be noted, however, that studies in this nature are limited in number. Greater attention must be given to enhance our understanding of how OJ constructs work in international business settings.

With regard to validating justice constructs across different cultures, the picture does not change much. The literature does not offer many studies examining the justice constructs in cross-cultural settings. Such attempts have emerged recently, and thus, only a limited number of articles can be identified in the literature. Fok et al. (1996), for example, examined if perceptions of equity and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) differ among the four

national cultures studied (Chinese, British, French, and Mexican cultures). They found support for their proposition that individuals from different cultures have different equity sensitivity orientations and different approaches to organizational citizenship. In a similar vein, Farh et. al. (1997) investigated the validity of justice constructs and their relationships with the OCB in China. Specifically, they examined if variations exist between OJ and citizenship behavior within a culture. Their study demonstrated that the impact of organizational justice on citizenship behavior changes from individual to individual within the same culture. Specifically, they found that OJ is most strongly related to citizenship behavior for individuals who endorse less traditional values and that this relationship is stronger for men than for women.

More recently, three studies examined the applicability of some of the concepts and scales used in Western countries to Turkish contexts. Wasti (2001), for example, studied the applicability of Donovan et al.'s (1998) PFIT (Perceptions of Fair Interpersonal Treatment) scale in Turkey, which assess employees' perceptions of the interpersonal treatment in their work environment, and concluded that the scale produced theoretically sound findings, suggesting that it could be employed by future OJ studies in Turkey. İşbaşı (2001) investigated the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. She hypothesized that this relationship would be mediated by the level of trust of employees in their supervisors. The analyses did not present strong support for this contention. However, İşbaşı (2001) found that the results produced high reliability and validity for the scales used in the study. More recently, İşcan and Atilhan (2004) examined the effects of employees' perceptions of organizational commitment and justice on their organizational coherence. The results indicated that perceptions of (normative and affective) organizational commitment and (distributive and procedural) justice are important determinants of organizational coherence, which in turn is positively and negatively related to job satisfaction and intention to leave, respectively.

İşbaşı's (2001) non-significant finding warrants further examination. Several conceptual (i.e. Van Dyne et. al. 1994) and empirical (i.e., Konovsky and Pugh, 1994) studies conducted in Western contexts have argued and found that trust and justice perceptions play an important role in the formation of OCB (Caldwell et. al. 2001). Considering these findings, one possible explanation for the insignificance of the trust in İşbaşı's (2001) study may be that the nature of the relationship among trust, OCB, and justice varies across cultures.

Our contention is based on Morrison's finding (1994) that the concept of OCB differs according to organizational ranks. Morrison (1994) demonstrated that what appeared to be citizenship behavior for some organizational levels

(supervisors) was defined and perceived differently by some other levels (office holders). This finding suggests that perceptions of citizenship behavior are subjective. Given that cultural values are an important determinant of perceptions, culture may significantly affect how OCB is perceived and is related to other constructs (justice and trust).

A similar reasoning can also be made for the justice perceptions. It has been known that concept of justice is context sensitive (Caldwell et. al., 2001) and subjective (Primeaux et. al., 2003), and thus, varies according to people's cultural values. Consequently, what is perceived as fair or "just" in one culture may not be perceived so in another culture. Our this reasoning is based on some early cross-cultural studies conducted by Bond and his colleagues (Bond et. al., 1982, Leung and Bond (1984). The authors examined the distributive aspects of reward allocation in Chinese, Japanese, American, and Korean societies and found that people from collectivistic cultures used different norms of equity and equality than people in individualistic cultures. These findings suggest that norms of distributive justice may differ as a function of cultural background. Lind and Tyler (1988) raised similar concerns over the nature of procedural justice in different cultures[2]. Taken together, these arguments enforce our earlier suggestion that the OJ field needs more studies to determine if, and to which extent, OJ constructs are valid across different cultures.

V. IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This paper attempted to review the literature on organizational justice and identified the main problems in the field. It uncovered that three evolutionary stages exist in the OJ literature: i) the stage where the three constructs of OJ were identified as mature and independent of each other, ii) the stage where the constructs were applied to higher levels such as team and organization levels, and iii) the stage where the examination of the validity of the constructs was undertaken in cross-cultural settings.

The conclusions that can be obtained from the first two stages are that the concept of OJ and its constructs, DJ, PJ, and IJ, are theoretically well grounded and widely-studied (first stage) and that the issue needs to be studied at higher levels (second stage).

The conclusion of the third stage is the most notable one: The OJ constructs need to be validated in different cultures. We recognize that this is a challenging task. However, we believe that it is an important and necessary task due to the increasing interconnectedness of national economies through

economic integration mechanisms. Because of such changes in today's world, companies are more and more aiming at doing business in different regions and cultures.

As such, there is an increasing need for companies to understand how perceptions of fairness encourage or discourage their employees' organizational citizenship behaviors, which affects profitability and long-term success of organizations (Simons and Robinson, 2003). In fact, establishing organization-wide citizenship behavior among employees located in different regions and cultures is one of the main problems that multinationals face very often. Therefore, future research must help practitioners as well as academicians understand this phenomenon in international business contexts. We believe that studies examining OJ constructs in different cultures can yield more comprehensive and integrated models that will explain the impacts of fair practices on both employee level (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior) and organizational level (i.e., organizational performance).

NOTES

[1] We recognize that explaining the antecedents of OJ dimensions before their consequences is a more logical order. However, given the high volume of studies on both issues, we felt that it was first necessary to point out the importance of OJ to ensure the integrity of the paper. Therefore, we chose to review the antecedents of justice dimensions after their consequences.

[2] It is beyond the scope of this study to review the topic of culture-OJ interaction. Interested reader can refer to Morris and Leung (2000) for an excellent review on the topic, and Primeaux et. al. (2003) for a recent examination of culture-OJ interaction.

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