

The Impact of Organizational Justice on Employee Performance: A Survey in Turkey and Turkish Context

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to analyze the impacts of three aspects of organizational justice, namely, distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice, on the task performance of employees in the context of Turkey. The study was conducted based on data collected from 942 teachers working in public schools in three Turkish metropolitan cities. The hypotheses were tested using partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) techniques. The findings of the study indicated that among the three aspects of organizational justice, distributive justice has a positive and significant impact on task performance. However, it was determined that the other two aspects, procedural justice and interactional justice, have no significant impact on task performance.

Keywords: Organizational justice, Distributive justice, Procedural justice, Interactional justice, Employee performance

1. Introduction

In every job and employment relationship between employees and the organization, there are mutual alteration expectations regarding inputs and outcomes. The fairness of these alterations, the equity perception of employees about methods used within the organization, the behavior of the organization towards employees and the reaction of employees to their perceptions all underlie organizational justice (Chou et al., 2013). Organizational justice is becoming one of the most important motivation theories and is now one of the leading research subjects in the field of organizational behavior, working psychology and human resources (Cojuharenco and Patient, 2013). Employees pay attention to justice within their organization (Folger, 1998) and as a result, employees' perceptions of organizational justice can affect organizational commitment, job satisfaction, withdrawal behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, entrepreneurship and the organizational trust of employees. (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Ambrose et al., 2002; Zhang et al., 2014). Further, organizational justice is one of the most important internal leading factors affecting the performance, emotion and behavior of human resources (Alder and Tompkins, 1997; Wang et al., 2010; Crawshaw et al., 2013; Suliman and Kathairi, 2013; Strom et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014; Scott et al., 2015).

In the most general sense, organizational justice can be defined as the evaluation process of administrative decisions by employees in the frame of variables such as task distribution of employees, compliance with shifts, empowerment, wage levels, distribution of awards, experiencing fair economic and social working environments and employees' perceptions of internal decision making processes and how these decisions are shared with employees (Kaneshiro, 2008). Organizational justice is generally divided into three aspects: distributive, procedural and interactional justice (Moorman, 1991; Niehoff and Moorman, 1993; Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Wang et al., 2010). Some scholars approach organizational justice as comprising only distributive and procedural justice (e.g., Greenberg, 1990; Roch and Shanock, 2006), while others regard interactional justice as a sub-dimensional aspect of distributive justice (e.g., Suliman ve Kathairi, 2013). Yet other scholars see four factors, dividing interactional justice into the sub-dimensions of interpersonal and informational justice (e.g., Greenberg, 1993; Colquitt, 2001; Walumbwa et al., 2009; Crawshaw et al., 2013; Scott et al., 2015). More recently, some scholars have examined organizational justice as a whole (e.g., Ambrose and Schminke, 2009; Cojuharenco and Patient, 2013). Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), and as a result of their meta-analyses study, established that the distributive, procedural and interactional justice factors are three separate entities. Similarly, contrary to scholars who regard interactive justice as a sub-dimension of procedural justice, some have argued that dividing procedural and interactional justice is a better analytical approach (Bies and Moag, 1986; Suliman and Kathairi, 2013). In this regard, this study examines organizational justice as having a three part structure made up on distributive, procedural and interactive justice, as often discussed in the literature.

Employee performance is regarded as a multi-faceted concept in the literature (e.g., task performance, contextual performance, interpersonal facilitation, job dedication, etc.),

although no number of factors has yet been agreed upon (Somers and Birnbaum, 1998; Suliman, 2007). In relation to employee performance, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) have defined two key factors, namely task performance (in-role behavior) and contextual performance. Task performance is traditionally defined as the capability of an employee to fulfill his/her tasks and responsibilities as laid out in the role description (Griffin et al., 2007). Contextual performance is individual efforts that have no direct relationship to basic job functions and that stimulate tasks and processes, shaping the organizational, social and psychological environment. In other words, while task performance means successfully fulfilling the requirements of any job, contextual performance concerns the quality of social relationships with juniors, seniors and customers, a factor that is not always directly relevant to the job. Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) further divide contextual performance into two sub-dimensions, interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. Interpersonal facilitation consists of behaviors that are insightful, prone to collective work and at the same time supportive of colleagues' performance. Job dedication, on the other hand, consists of inward, disciplined behaviors, such as taking initiative, working more than necessary and following workplace rules. In this study, employee performance, in accordance with the mainstream literature, (e.g., Williams and Anderson, 1991; Wang et al., 2010; Nasurdin and Khuan, 2011; Taylor and Beh, 2013), is examined from a single dimension as task performance.

Although there are limited empirical and meta-analysis studies about the relationship between organizational justice and employee performance (e.g., Alder and Tompkins, 1997; Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Suliman, 2007; Wang et al., 2010; Suliman and Kathairi, 2013), findings about the nature, significance and power of these two variables are contradictory. For example, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), who conducted a meta-analysis on the impact of organizational justice on employee performance, established that the major determinant of employee performance is procedural justice, with distributive and interactive justice having almost no impact on employee performance. Suliman (2007), on the other hand, determined that distributive, procedural and interactional justice have a significant and positive impact both on self-rated performance and supervisor-rated performance. Wang et al. (2010) determined that interactional justice has a strong impact on employees' task performance, interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. In addition, while it was determined that distributive justice has a strong impact on task performance and a weak impact on job dedication, no significant impact on interpersonal facilitation was determined. Rather, it was found that procedural justice has a weak impact on job dedication, but no significant impact on task performance and interpersonal facilitation was determined. Wang et al. (2010), different from Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), found interactional justice to be the most important determinant of employee performance among the three aspects of organizational justice. Nasurdin and Khuan (2011) determined that the distributive and procedural aspects have a significant and positive impact on task performance. Although a significant and positive relationship was found to exist between procedural justice and contextual performance, a significant relationship between distributive justice and contextual performance was not determined. Suliman and Kathairi (2013) researched the impact of organizational justice on job performance both in general and with regard to distributive and relational justice. They found that both general justice (in one aspect) and distributive and

relational justice have a significant impact on job performance.

Another important point regarding the impact of organizational justice on employee performance expressed by several scholars is the cultural perspective (e.g., Reithel et al., 2007). It is a generally accepted fact that cultural diversity impacts the emotion, attitudes and behaviors of employees (Wang et al., 2010; Crawshaw et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2015). According to Crawshaw et al. (2013), justice is important for people all across the world, but people from different cultures may react differently to justice. Leung and Stephan (2001) indicated that in order to develop a universal and generalizable theory of organizational justice, scholars must study people from different cultures. In this context, the aim of this study is to analyze the impact of three widely accepted aspects of organizational justice, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice, on employees' task performance within the Turkish context. The research model that developed in accordance with the purpose of this study shown in figure 1.

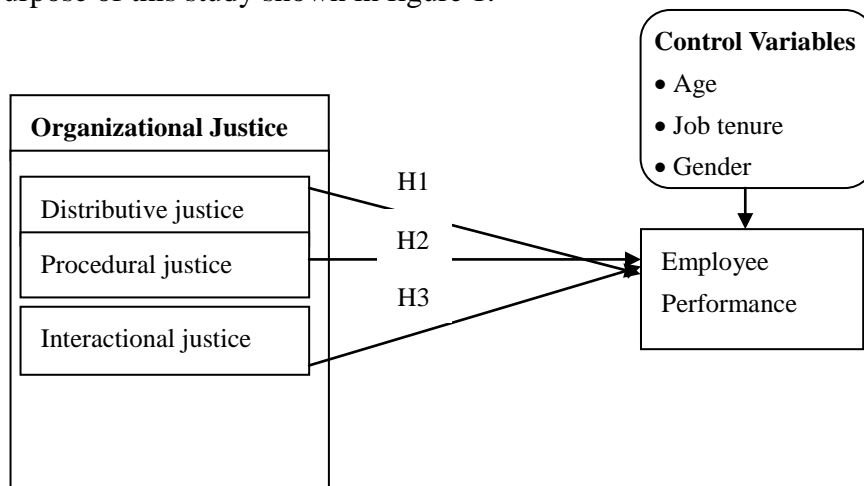


Figure 1: Proposed Model

2. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

2.1 Distributive Justice and Employee Performance

In distributive justice, which can be briefly defined as sharing organizational outcomes equally among employees, it is essential that employees feel that they are being given equal shares of distributed organizational resources (Greenberg, 1990; Andersson-Straberg et al., 2007). In other words, distributive justice, without regarding the decision process behind the distribution of organizational outcomes, focuses on the equity regarding the economic and social outcomes of the decision making process (Konovsky, 2000; Saunders et al., 2003). The fundamentals of distributive justice and the idea that indicates distributive justice may impact employee performance are based on Adams' (1963, 1965) equity theory. According to that theory, employees acquire a sense of distributive justice by comparing the organizational outcomes they gain from their job inputs with the outcomes gained by referent others (Greenberg, 1990; Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2007; Lambert et al., 2007). Employees' job inputs consist of such factors as education, knowledge, skills, effort, time, cognitive resources and performance. Organizational outcomes include wages,

promotions, social rights, awards, punishments, leave time, tasks, responsibilities, physical resources, and facilities for development.

Adams (1965) formulates distributive justice theory using the equation below (Cropanzano et al., 2007). According to Equation, an employee can decide whether he/she is treated fairly by considering the relationship between the outcomes he/she obtained (O_1) and the inputs he/she offered to the organization (I_1), and then comparing this rate to the outcome (O_2) and input (I_2) rate of the referent other who is being compared inside or outside the organization. At the end of comparison, a lack of equality among different employees' rates leads to employee unrest. In such a situation employees attempt to change conditions in order to equalize rates. For example, as a result of comparison, if an employee believes that he/she gains less from the economic outcomes of the organization, he/she will endeavor too ensure equality in the equation by reducing inputs (labor, effort, skills, performance, etc.), i.e., by introducing attitudes and behaviors that will decrease his/her productivity (Cropanzano et al., 2007). The perception of unfair distribution may cause employees to exhibit low job performance (Greenberg, 1990; Cropanzano et al., 2007), to withdraw (Schwarzwald et al., 1992), to reduce the amount of input for the task they fulfill, to decrease their collaboration with their colleagues and to experience stress (Greenberg, 1990).

$$\frac{O_1}{I_1} = \frac{O_2}{I_2}$$

Because distributive justice focuses on outcomes, it will trigger cognitive, affective and behavioral reactions and evaluations of employees towards results (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). Therefore, when any evaluation of distributive justice suggests it is unfair, it will affect the individual's emotions (inducing anger, unhappiness, rage or guilt), cognition (for example, distorting inputs and outcomes cognitively) and ultimately behavior (for example, decreased performance or withdrawal) (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). In this context the following hypothesis was developed.

H1: The relationship between distributive justice and task performance is positive and significant.

2.2 Procedural Justice and Employee Performance

Procedural justice is defined as the justice perception of employees related to the methods and processes used during the distribution of organizational outcomes among employees. In other words, employees' perception of procedural justice is related to the hierarchical level at which organizational outcomes are distributed in accordance with formal organizational procedures, and during the distribution, equitable communication to employees by managers or managers' representatives (Moorman, 1991; Lambert et al., 2007; Suliman and Kathairi, 2013). Colquitt (2001) conceptualized the perception of procedural justice as having two parts: formal procedures and fair outcomes. The justice of formal procedures concerns employees' perceptions of the fairness of procedures used in the distribution of outcomes. Fair outcomes refer to the level of employees' perceptions of the pre-defined procedures used

fair in the distribution of results. According to Thibaut and Walker (1975), procedural justice has two sub-dimensions. The first of these concerns the structural aspects of methods used in the process of making distributive decisions and practices. This aspect, which is termed legal transactions, includes giving employees the right to speak and utilize their own ideas and approaches during decision making processes. The second aspect of the issue relates to whether decision-makers fairly apply the policy and practices during the decision making process.

In the case of procedural justice, because it relates to the fairness of the decision-making process surrounding organizational outcomes, how the outcomes are defined is usually more important than the outcomes themselves (DeConinck and Stilwell, 2004). According to Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), when employees feel that there has been an unjust distribution of organizational outcomes, they first question the procedures which produce these outcomes, and after concluding that the procedures are not fair, they seek to change their performance in order to restore justice in the organization. In this context, procedural justice, similar to distributive justice, affects the emotions, attitudes and behaviors of employees in an organization (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Ambrose et al., 2002). On the one hand, procedural justice perception affects the attitude and behaviors of employees in the organization regarding decisions made by managers, but on the other hand, it carries a symbolic function, such as strengthening the relationship between employees and managers. Therefore, procedural justice, by increasing employees' trust in the manager, organization and organizational commitment, can produce positive organizational results (Greenberg, 1990; Suliman and Kathairi, 2013).

Some scholars (e.g., Masterson et al., 2000; Cropanzano et al., 2002; Rupp and Cropanzano, 2002) explain the impact of procedural justice on employee performance with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Social exchange theory sees the organization as an arena in which long term and reciprocal social interactions take place between employees and the organization (Wayne et al., 1997). Scholars who use social exchange theory explain employee performance through employees' relationships with both the organization and with the manager (Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997). According to these scholars, the factor in employee performance that will be affected by the relationship between employees and organization is procedural justice. Organ (1990) and Walumbwa et al. (2009) stated that perceptions of procedural justice can convert employees' relationships with organizations from relationships of economic exchange to those of social exchange. Economic exchange relationships are transactional by nature, based on short term interactions and are quid pro quo exchanges (Organ, 1990; Walumbwa et al., 2009). In contrast, social exchange relationships are mostly characterized by such conceptions as identifications shared among employees, loyalty, emotional ties, continuity and mutual support (Organ, 1990; Walumbwa et al., 2009). In that case, compared to economic exchange relationships, when social exchange relationships occur employees will display more effective job behaviors (Organ, 1990; Settoon et al., 1996; Walumbwa et al., 2009). In the light of this information the hypothesis below was developed.

H2: The relationship between procedural justice and task performance is positive and

significant.

2.3 Interactional Justice and Employee Performance

Employees seek justice when communicating with their managers. Interactional justice, based on peer to peer relationships, is the perception of justice among employees that is concerned with informing employees of the subjects of organizational decisions, as well as about attitudes and behaviors to which employees are exposed to during the application of organizational decisions (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Liao and Tai, 2006). In other words, it expresses the quality of attitude and behaviors to which employees are exposed during the practice of (distributive and procedural) operations by managers (Greenberg, 1993; Liao and Tai, 2006). It is stated that interactional justice is composed of two sub-dimensions, interpersonal justice and informational justice (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Interpersonal justice points at the importance of kindness, respect and esteem in interpersonal relations, particularly in the relationships between employees and managers. Informational justice, on the other hand, is about informing employees properly and correctly in matters of organizational decision making.

According to Cojuharenco and Patient (2013), employees focus on job results when they consider justice in the workplace, and they are likely to focus on the methods of communication and reciprocal relationships within the organization when they consider injustice. If the interactions of managers or manager representatives with employees occur in a just way, employees will respond with higher job performance (Settoon et al., 1996; Masterson et al., 2000; Cropanzano et al., 2007). Interactional justice can lead to strong interpersonal interactions and communication over time (Lerner, 2003; Cropanzano et al., 2007). According to social exchange theory, the positive or negative effect of employee-administration relationships on job performance stems from interactional justice (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997; Cropanzano et al., 2002). According to this theory, if employees are satisfied with their relationships with the administration, apart from their formalized roles, they will volunteer to acquire additional roles, which will increase their contextual performance.

Some scholars, who argue that it is expensive and time-consuming to motivate employees with financial incentives alone, highlight interactional justice as another way to increase employee productivity (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Rupp and Cropanzano, 2002; Cropanzano et al., 2007). According to Lind and Tyler (1988), employees have concerns about their relationships with management on the basis of interactional justice. Relational concerns stem from the fairness of the relationships that occur between employees and administrators during distribution of organizational outcomes. A fair relationship between managers and employees and themselves will give the employee the sense of being an esteemed and recognized part of the organization. These positive feelings can stimulate employees to reciprocate by engaging in extra role behaviors beyond their official job roles (Nasurdin and Khuan, 2011). In this context the following hypothesis was developed.

H3: The relationship between interactional justice and task performance is positive and significant.

3. Method

3.1 Sample and Data Collection

The study sample comprises teachers employed in public schools in three Turkish metropolitan cities. The sampled schools were selected from metropolitan cities with cultural, economic and social similarities. With a total population of 77 million, Turkey has 30 metropolitan cities, a designation that applies to cities of over 750,000 people. As per the 2014 census, on the ordered list of provinces by population, survey provinces are ranked 12th (population = 1,635,048), 19th (population = 1,085,542) and 29th (population = 763,320). Data from 2015 show that the surveyed provinces have 18,110, 13,317 and 11,308 teachers currently working there (figures are quoted from the website of The Ministry of National Education). A total of 789,244 teachers are employed by Turkish state schools (www.meb.gov.tr).

Study data were collected via a survey. Data collection was performed by the graduate students of business administration residing in the sample cities using convenience sampling. The graduate students were asked to collect usable data from at least 350 teachers working in state schools in each city. At the end of the data collection process, the students had collected data from 942 teachers (per city: 310, 312 and 320). Taking into consideration the total number of teachers 789,244, a sufficient sample for 95% confidence level and between $\alpha=0.05$ confidence interval is 384 (Saunders et al., 2009), meaning that the sample (942 teachers) is large enough to represent the general teacher population.

Common Method Variance. Common method variance (CMV) was assessed during the process of data collection. First, data were taken from more than one school in every city and from at least 10 teachers at each school. Second, Herman's one-factor test was used to check for CMV issue (Podsakoff and Organ 1986). Generally, in this single-factor test, all measurement items in a study are subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using unrotated principal component analysis. If (1) only one factor is obtained from factor analysis, or if (2) despite the fact that more than one factor has been obtained, one of the obtained factors explains the covariance between the variables, there is assumed to be a CMV problem (Podsakoff and Organ 1986). In the present study, when scale items of the three aspects of justice and task performance are together subjected to EFA using unrotated principal component analysis, it is observed that neither of these conditions were applicable. At the end of the test, 11 factors were obtained with eigen value values greater than one. Further, it was determined that 11 factors together explain 68.8% of variance and the first factor could only explain 24.7% of variance. These findings provide strong evidence common method bias is not a problem in this study.

Forty point eight percent of the sampled teachers are women (384 teachers) and 59.2% are men (558 teachers). The average age of the sampled teachers is 31.7 years with a standard deviation of 6.9 years. The youngest teacher is 23 years old and the oldest is 60. Ninety-three point nine percent of the teachers (885 teachers) have a bachelor's degree, 5.7% of teachers (54 teachers) have a master's degree and 3% of the teachers (3 teachers) have a doctoral degree. The average professional job tenure of teachers is 6.4 years and the standard

deviation is 6.4 years. Their professional job tenure varies between 1 year and 37 years.

3.2 Measures

In order to test the hypotheses of this study, three aspects of organizational justice and the construct of task performance was measured using multi-item scales adopted from previous studies. The perception of organizational justice has been measured by the 20-item organizational justice scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). The scale measures the organizational justice in three aspects as distributive, procedural and interactional justice. The distributive justice aspect was measured with five items relevant to employees' justice perceptions of outcomes such as job programs, wages, workload, awards and job responsibilities. The procedural justice aspect was measured with six items that evaluate employees' justice perceptions regarding organizational procedures and processes for decision making and registering objections. The interactional justice aspect was measured with 9 items that evaluate employees' judgments of the extent to which administrators take employees into consideration, show them respect and provide clear understandable explanations of their job responsibilities. The task performance scale is a six item in-role behavior scale that has been used in the studies of Williams and Anderson (1991) and Taylor and Beh (2013). For each statement on all scales, participants encoded their level of agreement on a eleven-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (never agree) to 10 (completely agree).

In order to make sure that measurement items are translated from English to Turkish correctly, firstly English to Turkish translation of measurement items were done by one translator, and then Turkish to English translation was done by another translator. Later on, working once again on the translated text, the two translators have reached a consensus. The content and meaning accommodation of measurement items of Turkish version which the translators agreed on was pre-tested via 10 teachers. Teachers stated that there wasn't any problem related to content and meaning coherence and they didn't come across any difficulties in the matter of understanding the items. After completing the process and putting the last touches on the questionnaire, it was distributed by graduate students using self-administered questionnaire method and was collected again.

Control variables. As in other empirical studies related to employee performance (e.g., Nasurdin and Khuan, 2011; Suliman and Kathari, 2013; Taylor and Beh, 2013), gender, age and job tenure variables are control variables in this study. Gender was coded as binary (Female = 1, Male = 2), while the age and job tenure variables were coded in years.

4. Analyses and Results

The partial least square (PLS) method was performed to develop a path model to estimate the measurement and structural parameters in the structural equation model (SEM) (Chin, 1998). In the organizational literature, Sosik et al. (2009) have suggested that the PLS data analytical technique is a powerful means for organizational research because PLS (1) can test multivariate structural models with a limited sample size, (2) can be applied to develop theory in early stages of research, and (3) can use the bootstrapping technique to identify the

95% confidence intervals of the path coefficients, providing more accurate findings. For these reasons, Sosik et al.'s (2009) suggestion is followed to use the PLS approach. The path model was developed and tested applying the statistical software application SmartPLS 3.2.0 for measurement validity and to test the structural equation model.

4.1 Measurement Validation

First, before examining the hypothesized structural model, the psychometric specifications of the measurement instruments need to be evaluated. For this, the procedure outlined by Hair et al. (2011) was performed to examine the measurement model for indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity, using reflective indicators for all constructs. Thus, indicator reliability was evaluated by the each of the indicator loadings. With respect to the organizational justice constructs and the task performance construct, the standardized item loadings on their respective constructs ranged from 0.62 to 0.90, which were found to exhibit standardized loadings that exceed 0.60 (Chin, 1998) and were highly significant ($P < 0.001$) (see Table 2). As suggested by Henseler et al. (2009), indicators of each construct were highly correlated, reflecting the same underlying construct. The scores of a construct were correlated with all other constructs' indicators in its own block (Chin, 1998). Internal consistency reliability was examined by means of composite scale reliability (CR). For all constructs, the PLS-based CR ranged from 0.87 to 0.94, which exceeded the suggested cutoff value of 0.70 or above (Chin, 1998) (see Table 1). Convergent validity was tested by inspecting the average variance extracted (AVE). For all constructs, the AVE ranged from 0.57 to 0.68, which was above the recommended 0.50 cutoff value and consistent with the recommendation of Fornell and Larcker (1981) (see Table 1). Finally, the discriminant validity of the measures was evaluated by examining both the Fornell and Larcker criteria and the theta matrix (Θ) (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Chin, 1998). For satisfactory discriminant validity, the square root of the AVE should be above the values of both horizontal and vertical correlations between constructs, and the loading value of an indicator on its own construct should be higher than all of its cross loadings (Chin, 1998). As recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981), the latent factor correlations between pairs of constructs were smaller than the square root of AVE for each construct. As shown in Table 1, the highest correlation was between interactional justice and procedural justice ($r = 0.75$), which is less than the square root of the AVE for interactional justice (0.80) and procedural justice (0.81). Additionally, the theta matrix (Θ) was checked and showed that the loading value of each indicator on its own construct was higher than all of its cross loads (Chin, 1998) (see Table 2). According to these findings, the result was that all constructs show satisfactory discriminant validity. These findings suggest that the constructs of organizational justice and firm performance construct are reliable, valid and unidimensional.

Table 1. Correlation Matrix and Descriptive Statistics

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(1) Task Performance	0.79						
(2) Distributive Justice	0.29**	0.75					
(3) Procedural Justice	0.14*	0.48**	0.81				
(4) Interactional Justice	0.15**	0.39**	0.75**	0.80			
(5) Age	0.13*	0.09	-0.01	-0.06	-		
(6) Job tenure	0.12*	0.07	-0.03	-0.03	0.82**	-	
(7) Gender	-0.06	-0.04	-0.08	-0.06	0.22**	0.23**	-
Mean	8.50	6.08	6.51	6.89	31.74	6.35	1.59
Standard Deviation	1.68	2.80	2.59	2.52	6.86	6.67	0.49
AVE	0.63	0.57	0.65	0.68	-	-	-
CR	0.91	0.87	0.92	0.94	-	-	-

Notes: ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; $N = 942$; the square root of AVE was shown as bold numbers on the diagonals.

Multicollinearity. There is a need to test for multicollinearity because it could cause parameter estimation problems (Hair et al., 2011). To detect multicollinearity, variance inflation factors (VIFs) and tolerances were assessed for each construct component. The VIFs of indicators ranged from 1.31 to 2.26, and the average was 2.02. Tolerances ranged from 0.40 to 0.76. All VIFs and tolerances were within acceptable threshold levels (VIF < 3.3, tolerance > 0.20) (Hair et al., 2011). These findings indicated that multicollinearity did not seem to be a problem.

Table 2: The Standardized Indicator loadings and cross loadings

Items	Distributive justice	Procedural justice	Interactional justice	Task performance
DJ1	0.74	0.28	0.21	0.33
DJ2	0.64	0.22	0.14	0.15
DJ3	0.84	0.37	0.32	0.26
DJ4	0.76	0.45	0.37	0.17
DJ5	0.79	0.57	0.47	0.25
PJ1	0.54	0.79	0.63	0.13
PJ2	0.41	0.81	0.62	0.07
PJ3	0.41	0.86	0.60	0.12
PJ4	0.39	0.90	0.64	0.17
PJ5	0.39	0.88	0.67	0.15
PJ6	0.23	0.62	0.46	0.07
IJ1	0.29	0.64	0.76	0.15
IJ2	0.33	0.58	0.76	0.10
IJ3	0.42	0.69	0.86	0.14
IJ4	0.26	0.57	0.80	0.12
IJ5	0.35	0.60	0.88	0.18
IJ6	0.34	0.60	0.87	0.10
IJ7	0.30	0.63	0.82	0.12
IJ8	0.33	0.64	0.83	0.10
IJ9	0.33	0.63	0.77	0.13
TP1	0.20	0.08	0.06	0.71
TP2	0.29	0.14	0.08	0.82
TP3	0.32	0.17	0.19	0.88
TP4	0.27	0.16	0.16	0.82
TP5	0.20	0.04	0.09	0.75
TP6	0.25	0.13	0.17	0.76

Note: Indicator loadings values are given in bold.

4.2 Hypothesis Testing

PLS path modeling and the bootstrapping resampling method were performed to assess the stability and statistical significance of the parameter estimates in the structural model (Chin, 1998). That process entailed generating 500 subsamples of cases randomly selected, with replacement, from the original data. Then, path coefficients were produced for each randomly selected subsample. T-statistics were calculated for all coefficients, based on their stability across the subsamples, indicating which links were statistically significant. Table 3 shows the hypotheses, hypothesized links, the standardized path coefficients (β), t-values, R2 value, Q2 value and the results of all hypotheses. As shown in Table 3, values of distributive justice ($\beta = 0.31$, $p < 0.001$) is positively associated with task performance, supporting *H1*. However, no statistically significant association was found between procedural justice, interactional justice and task performance, which indicated no support for *H2*, and *H3*. In addition, employee age,

job tenure and gender are not significant predictors of task performance.

Table 3. The Results

Hypothesis	Hypothesized links	β	t-values	Results
H1	Distributive Justice → Task performance	0.31	5.08**	Supported
H2	Procedural Justice → Task performance	-0.07	0.78	Not
H3	Interactional Justice → Task performance	0.10	1.03	Not
Control Variables	Age → Task performance	0.11	1.25	
	Job tenure → Task performance	0.02	0.24	
	Gender → Task performance	-0.08	1.41	
$R^2 = 0.13$				
$Q^2 = 0.08$				

Note: ** p < .001

5. Discussion

The study findings showed that among the aspects of organizational justice the only significant determinant of task performance is distributive justice. Although this finding does not coincide with the meta-analysis findings of Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), it coincides with many earlier empirical research studies. When employees' task performance is taken into consideration, the findings of Wang et al. (2010) and Nasurdin and Khuan (2011) also support finding of this study. Likewise, Suliman (2007) and Suliman and Kathari (2013) determined that distributive justice aspect has a positive impact on job performance.

Findings of this study showed that procedural justice has no significant impact on the task performance of employees. This finding exactly coincides with findings of Wang et al. (2010) but is not consistent with the finding that Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) obtained in their meta-analysis and with certain other empirical research findings (e.g., Nasurdin and Khuan, 2011; Suliman and Kathari, 2013). For example, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) determined that among the three aspects of organizational justice, procedural justice is the most important determinant of employee performance. Wang et al. (2010) also stated, however, that western societies are more focused on rules and procedures within organizations and are therefore more sensitive to the aspect of procedural justice. Eastern societies, on the other hand, mostly pay attention to the material results they gain through labor, knowledge, skills and education and may therefore be more sensitive to distributive justice.

The findings of this study also revealed that interactional justice has no significant impact on employee's task performance. This finding is supported by the findings of Cohen-Charash and Spector's (2001) meta-analysis; however, this finding does not coincide with findings obtained in the studies by Suliman (2007), Wang et al. (2010) and Suliman and Kathari (2013). For example, Wang et al. (2010) determined that among the three aspects of organizational justice, interactional justice is the most important determinant of employee

performance. It is possible that sample of this, teachers working in Turkish public schools, is the reason that this finding does not coincide with existing empirical research findings. Most public schools have anywhere from 20 to 80 teachers, and it is possible that in schools with less teachers, the interactions among employees and between employees and administrators are more positive and employees may be less sensitive to matters of interactional justice. Another probable comment relevant to this finding concerns decision making mechanism in the public schools. In the Turkish education system, decisions are made by the central administration. Thus, the determination of the procedures used to adjust and distribute organizational outcomes occurs in the frame of principles and procedures determined by the central administration. Because teachers work in schools, which are at the bottom of the hierarchy, they have almost no opportunity to provide input into these rules and procedures. For this reason, teachers may act less sensitive regarding interactional justice.

6. Implications

The study reached important conclusions from the viewpoint of understanding which organizational justice components affect employee performance. The findings of this study show that among the three aspects of organizational justice, the most important determinant of employee performance is distributive justice, while procedural and interactional justice has no significant impact on employee performance. In this context, the finding regarding the positive impact of distributive justice on employee performance presents significant implications for managers, policy makers and decision makers.

Above all, administrators and decision makers should know that in organizations, the distributive justice perception of employees can enhance or shrink employee performance. In this context, the fair distribution of organizational outcomes among employees is of great importance in terms of organizational success. Greenberg (1990) and Moorman (1991) stated that when employees feel that they are treated fairly, their justice sensation increases, they feel more confident and their performance improves. According to Leventhal (1980), in organizations there are six basic rules that affect employees' justice perception directly (p. 42-48). These rules are: (1) the internal consistency of decisions that will be made about the distribution of organizational outcomes (the consistency rule); (2) suppression of bias during the distribution of organizational outcomes (the bias-suppression rule); (3) the accuracy of information used to determine and distribute organizational outcomes among employees (the accuracy rule); (4) establishing mechanisms within organization that enable employees to object to distributive decisions provide for the alteration of decisions (the correctability rule); (5) the ability of employees to participate in decision making processes through selected representatives (the representativeness rule); and (6) the suitability of decisions that relate distributive and procedural operations to employees' ethical values (the ethicality rule). Similarly, Cropanzano et al. (2007) state that in organizations, distributive justice should be managed according to principles of equity, equality and need. Equity helps employees utilize organizational results in accordance with their contributions to organizational objectives. Equality helps employees (in the same position) who participate in the organization to utilize organizational outcomes equally. Need takes into account employees' personal requirements during the distribution of organizational outcomes.

7. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study is subject to several limitations that may provide other scholars with new research directions. In the first place, the study sample is restricted to teachers employed in public schools in three large Turkish cities, which limits the generalizability of the study results. Studies with larger sampling groups in different sectors are important to increase the generalizability of the findings of this study. Second, the cross-sectional nature of this study may make it difficult to make causal inferences. As McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) stated, longitudinal studies about organizational justice can provide healthier results with regards to cause and effect relationships. Third, this study examines the task performance aspect of employee performance. Researching the impacts of organizational justice on other aspects of employee performance such as contextual, interpersonal facilitation and job dedication is important to reach a full understanding of employee performance. Fourth, this study measured task performance using the self-rated performance method, which is a subjective measurement that is widely used in the literature (e.g., Furnham and Stringfield, 1998; Walumbwa et al., 2009). Future studies should examine supervisor-rated performance in addition to self-rated performance, as measuring performance based on both assessments will result in a more objective assessment. Finally, this study was conducted in the context of Turkey. Further, many scholars note that cultural differences may affect employees' justice perceptions (e.g., Leung and Stephan, 2001; Reithel et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2010; Crawshaw et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2015). In this context, studies of teachers from different cultures are important for improving the generalizability of results.

8. Conclusion

This study examined the impact of the three aspects of organizational justice, that is, distributive, procedural and interactional justice, on employee performance using data from 942 teachers working in public schools in three large Turkish cities. It was determined that only the distributive justice aspect of organizational justice is an important determinant of employee performance, while procedural and interactional just have no significant impact on employee performance.

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