



SELINUS UNIVERSITY
OF SCIENCES AND LITERATURE

**THE CONTEXTUAL ANTECEDENTS AND
ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR
MEDIATION ON ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE OF BANKS
IN UGANDA.**

BY

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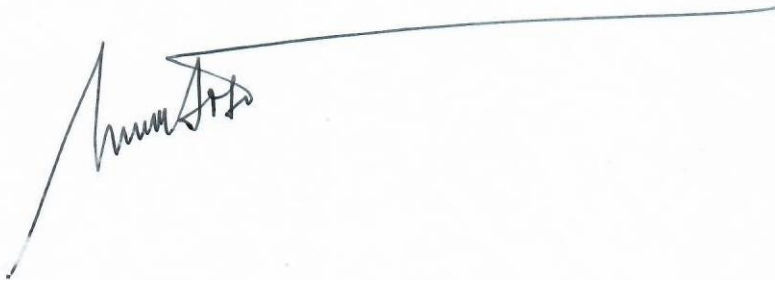
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CERTIFICATION

This is to Certify that this Thesis Titled **THE CONTEXTUAL ANTECEDENTS AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR MEDIATION ON ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE OF BANKS IN UGANDA** as presented by **Mulumba Joseph** with a Student Registration Number **UNISE1795IT** under the Faculty of Business and Media was approved by the Votes of the Jury and was accepted for the award of a Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Mulumba Joseph', is positioned on the left side of the page. A long, thin horizontal line extends from the right end of the signature across the width of the page.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I thank the almighty God for the gift of life, resources and wisdom which facilitated the completion of this academic acme in my life.

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I also take this opportunity to thank my parents Mr and Mrs Mulumba who made a wise decision of embracing formal education by educating me and my siblings that is, Hellen, Juliet, Stella and Dan so that we are able to transact internationally as well as being able to think outside the box even when the box seems to exist. If they had not done that, then I would not have reached Bologna in Italy which is very far from Uganda. They therefore gave an equitable remedy to us beyond the common law and statutory requirements of which we are grateful for their contribution in our lives. They had the option of living a flamboyant, rococo or arabesque life when we needed their support as children but they did the best by sacrificing the meagre earnings so that we could be able to live beyond the boundaries of the home village hence they remain equitable to us. In this context, Equity looks on that as done which ought to be done. We are inherently grateful for their sacrifice.

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Scientia Potentia Est

Sapere e Poter

ABSTRACT

The study was prompted by the existing inconsistencies and gaps both in literature and practice relating to the concept of organizational justice with contestations as to, whether it is perceived either at individual or organizational level as the rationale for the research. The aforementioned disconnects were contextualized into specific antecedents of organizational culture, organizational leadership, organizational structure and the mediation effect of organizational citizenship behaviors on organizational justice.

A Triangulation method coupled with the cross sectional research design was used and relationships between the variables of study were established using correlations and regression analysis. The findings revealed that all the variables exhibited a positive and significant relationship with the criterion variable. The multiple regression analysis further showed that the Adjusted R squared was 0.549 meaning that the independent variables could explain the relationship by 54% and 46% could be explained by other factors which were exogenous to the model. Factor analysis was also used to ascertain the inherent factors causing the changes in the relationship by distinguishing between the observable and unobservable factors in abiding with relevant factors explaining the variations in the given parameter.

The research showed that organizational justice is felt at individual level and thereafter aggregated at organizational level and besides the aggregation, organizational justice is real or rather observable by an individual's senses making it factual instead of being ideal as presented by the previous research. This thus was the apex of departure and contribution to the epistemology, ontology and axiology of organizational behavior as a discipline.

The inference from the study included the need for the operationalization of justice and fairness in organizational activities in abiding with achieving the mission, vision and objectives of the organization for business competitiveness and sustainability in the market.

KEY WORDS

Equity Theory: The fairness exhibited between parties transacting in a given relationship

Decision Making Theory: The basis of making choice amidst options most especially under uncertainty.

Social Exchange Theory: This explains the reciprocal relationship between counter parties in a resource exchange.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: These are discretionary and informal behaviors exhibited at the workplace which exceeds the formal job requirements and are less or not rewarded but are desirable in promoting effective organizational performance.

Organizational Culture: This refers to the norms, values, aspiration and beliefs peculiar to an organization which distinguishes it from another and acts as a point of reference in evaluating an organization as being just, fair and reasonable.

Organizational Leadership: The refers to the influence and direction exerted by an individual with vested authority to allocate resources for the actualization of the set goals and objectives of an organization.

Organizational Structure: This refers to the framework by which resources are allocated within the networks of command, communication and reporting as well as sanctioning and rewards.

ACRONYMS

BOU: Bank of Uganda

COSO: The Committee of Sponsoring Organizations of Treadway Commission.

DEAR: Delay, Expand, Avoid, Redeploy.

ERM: Enterprise Risk Management

HRM: Human Resource Management

SWOT: Strength, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats.

PESTEL: Political, Economic, Social, Technological, Ecological and Legal.

TARA: Transfer, Avoid, Reduce, Accept.

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THE DIMENSION OF THE RESEARCH

The dimension refers to context or setting of the academic discipline under which the research is conducted. Thus the setting is of Organizational Behavior.

Organizational Behavior studies the interaction of people within the organization which can be analyzed at individual level termed as micro level, work groups known as meso level as well as organizations interfacing with each other which is termed as the macro level.

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1: Introduction

There exists a general rule at the workplace to the effect that an employee is motivated to work beyond the defined job requirements whenever he or she is treated with respect, courtesy and fairness. This fair treatment evokes a sense of control over the job tasks, improves performance results and develops interpersonal relationships among workers themselves and the organisation in particular (Adams, 2019).

According to Buckle (2019), employees who are treated professionally by the employers based on rules, procedures and practices display positive perceptions of justice and fairness. They therefore excel by superseding performance targets, become supportive in encouraging colleagues to execute work schedules as well as being creative in problem solving leading to optimal decision making. This makes employees to develop attributes of organisational citizenship behaviours. These behaviours are discretionary, informal and are less recognised although they lead to desirable performance of the organisation in terms of economy, efficiency and effectiveness of the operations.

Chuck (2019) notes that an employee's perception of organisational justice is dependent on the contextual factors at the work place of which culture, leadership and structure are paramount. The corporate culture embodies the values, norms and aspirations which are used as a points of reference in evaluating the entity as being just, fair and reasonable whereas leaderships involves creativity in using resources for the actualisation of set goals and objectives, innovativeness in making choices amidst options as well as being decisive in showing the direction to teammates for the purpose of realising the vision and mission of the organisation.

Alvin (2019) adds that the structure entails the design by which tasks are assigned and performed in terms of functions, teams and networks within the organisation. Thus a functional

structure encourages specialisation and cooperation, team work results in cost optimization, effectiveness and the networks which are flexible, fast and simplifies work activities by reducing operational costs most especially when embedded in the information technology and digitalisation channels.

Similarly, the perception of justice is dependent on the disposition and traits of the employee. That is the inherent qualities of the mind and character including the traits of honesty, devotion, loyalty and ambitions determine the perceptive rate of either fairness or irrationality in decision making within the organisation (Alson,2019). This is premised on the fact that given the context, the resultant behaviours are contingent on employee traits and disposition of which less is documented in literature (Dutton & Dukerich, 2018), including the mediating effect of the individual behavioural attributes on the perception of organisational justice.

Conversely, the adverse perception of justice reciprocated into injustice breeds counterproductive behaviours which are detrimental to organisational performance and stifles the achievement of the set goals and objectives (Cian, 2020). However, fewer explicit explanations are evidenced in literature pertaining the use of leadership styles in stamping out misperceptions nor the refinement of structures to induce the appreciation of organisational justice among staff. Therefore, the mediating role of organisational citizenship behaviour in aligning perceptions with decision making is vital for investigation in this research.

In addition, literature by Swalhi (2017), Folger (2019) and Hackman (2019) investigated the individual facets of organisational justice. This underscored the importance of organisational justice in influencing employee behaviours in terms of cooperation, coordination, involvement and responsibility.

This research thus integrates the attributes of distributive, procedural and interactive justice in expounding and developing knowledge on the concept of organisational justice being predicted by organisational culture, organisational leadership and organisational structure being mediated by the organisational citizenship behaviours of employees.

In addition, Scarbrie (2019) shows that Organisational justice is predicted by contextual factors peculiar to the organisation but not systematic to the market or industry of the organisation as a whole. This is on the basis that each employee perceives justice differently making justice unsystematic. But literature by Karen (2019) avers that regulated organisations have standardised expectations which impacts on justice. On this note, the standards range from recruitment, selection, performance appraisals, rewards systems to functional structures. These influence and affect employee perceptions of justice and injustice whenever they are present or absent in the organisation.

Besides the literature, there are theories explaining the concept and predicates of organisational justice and they include, decision making, social exchange and equity theory. The decision making theory provides the basis of decision making amidst options or alternatives (Sternberg & Lubart (1995). The theory shows that a rational decision maker makes choices in the best interest of the organisation and the decision making process is either normative or descriptive (Hansson, 2005). The normative decision infers that a decision maker analyses the outcomes of the decision prior the choice whereas descriptive decision making provides the rules guiding decision making. The theory is relevant because organisations make decisions affecting employees and these are perceived as being faire or irrational. This theory is however, limited because it assumes that decision makers are rational in making optimal decisions.

The contextual factors can induce irrational decisions and some decisions are made amidst ambiguity where the rules are not explicit coupled with individual differences in terms of comprehension, exposure, experience, skills and knowledge of a decision maker coupled with the traits, personality and leadership styles exhibited in a given context.

The social exchange theory explains the reciprocal relationship between the employer and employees in the exchange of resources (Colquitt, 2019). The theory assumes that employers reward employees based on the output and individual differences. This reciprocity gives rise to the feelings of trust, commitments and obligations towards the organisation in terms of enhanced job performance, cooperation and teamwork (Blau, 2016). The social exchange theory explains the reward systems in organisations but is flawed in explaining the none monetary activities done by employees which are vital in promoting justice at the workplace and are less or rather non-recognised. These include aspects of punctuality, respect for rules and orientation of other staff members into the norms, courtesy calls and associating with others in times of emergencies of which these are not contracted in the employment contracts. The theory is therefore a disincentive to the virtues of organisational citizenship behaviours, but also fails to explain activities performed by an employee which are not defined in contracts nor performed due to explicit implication of norms and practices of employer and employees.

The equity theory (Adam, 1965) shows that fairness is attained when rules and procedures are enacted and used to justify decision making within the organisation. The rules are used in creating standards which are used in evaluating performance, reward systems and applied without due regard to preferential treatments. The standardised application and use of rules and procedures create positive perceptions of justice among employees resulting into organisational justice in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional justice.

Although, the existing literature and theories try to explain the concept of organisational justice, there exists persistent aspects of injustice witnessed in the regulated Banks in Uganda (Mugume, 2016). The injustice is reflected in staff promotions without interviews, selective rewards of management without justification, external recruitments without due regard to internal staff with requisite skills, experience and qualifications as well as fraud discovered during onsite inspections of Banks. This is notwithstanding the fact that these Banks have defined structures, leaders at both executive and functional levels, board of directors and trained employees classified per the three lines of defence business model of risk management in terms of business line, second line having risk and compliance and internal audit to provide independent assurance to the board of directors on the performance of internal controls.

Kasekende (2019) adds that operational irregularities in Banks demotivate staff to the extent that some Banks were liquidated by the Central Bank of Uganda between 1999 to 2016 due to weaknesses in corporate governance which orchestrated perceptions of organisational injustice among staff to the extent of withholding exceptional performance by exhibiting fraud, disobedience, conspiracy and insubordination to internal policies and procedures. This further culminated into the liquidation of Banks like, Teefe Trust Bank, International Credit Bank, Cooperative Bank, Greenland Bank and Global Trust Bank.

Furthermore, even with the existence of rules and procedures within Banks, there exists evidence of persistent injustice sustained by Bank staff (Bakar, 2019). These include cases of terminating staff without affording them a fair hearing despite the existence of the human resource policy and procedures as well as adjudicating disciplinary issues in Courts of Law rather than resolving them within Banks and this practice is perceived as an injustice contravening the fiduciary duty inherent in the employer employee relationship.

Thus, in the case of **Mariam Babu V Barclays Bank of Uganda, Labour Dispute Claim 134/2014**. The claimant was terminated without a fair hearing involving a disciplinary proceeding. The Court held that her failure to attend the disciplinary hearing in spite of being invited made her to waive off her Constitutional right to fair hearing making the dismissal lawful.

Furthermore, in the case of **Wesonga Benjamin V Centenary Rural Development Bank Limited. Labour Dispute Claim 136/2014**. The claimant claimed that he was unlawfully terminated from employment of the defendant on the basis of receiving a bribe from a Bank customer in abide of expediting the loan processing. The Court held that the termination was fair and lawful as the claimant was given an opportunity to cross examine the complainant and the defendant in the disciplinary committee, and each party had their respective representatives of their choice. The defendant's failure to critique the allegations at the time in the disciplinary committee and only resorting to resurface the compliant as an afterthought in Court created suspicion on his level of integrity. The claim was dismissed and the Court held that the dismissal was lawful and the suit was frivolous and vexatious.

The implication of these labour claims involving Bank employees suing their employers have adverse effects on the perceptions of the employees perceiving their employers as perpetrators of injustice. In other words, the employers are interested in pursuing Court based litigation rather than solving employees' grievances internally in Banks using the available disciplinary policies and processes, as defined in the organisational structures which orchestrates legal and peripheral costs associated with legal suits as well as tainting of the employee's name and image in the employment market. Similarly, the remaining employees develop discomfort by perceiving the employers as crotchety, dissipated, despotic, malign and scandalous of which such perceptions are counterproductive in the banking industry.

In a nutshell, the concept of organisational justice remains complex to explain using the existing literature and theories per the aforementioned gaps and inconsistencies. Therefore, a linkage of contextual factors and behavioural expressions disclosed by employees in form of organisational citizenship behaviours to explore organisational justice was used in this this research under the presumptions and assumptions of organisational behaviours which was tested empirically per the defined objectives and methodological examination.

1.2: The Market Context of Banks in Uganda

The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda 1995 as amended under Article 161 establishes the Central Bank of Uganda with the mandate of issuing currency of Uganda. Similarly, Article 162(1)(e) mandates Bank of Uganda to encourage and promote economic development and the efficient utilisation of the resources of Uganda through effective and efficient operation of a Banking and credit system.

The Bank of Uganda Act operationalises the activities of the Central Bank of Uganda by providing for the regulations of issuing of legal tender, maintaining of external resources and for promoting the stability of the currency and a sound financial structure conducive to a balanced and sustained rate of growth of the economy including other matters.

The Financial Institutions Act 2004 as amended in 2016 provides the Central Bank of Uganda with the mandate to supervise Banks, prescribing licencing requirements, capital adequacy, bank classification and other matters. The Act classifies Banks into two categories of Banks and Non-Banking Financial Institutions. The Banks include Commercial Banks, Post Office Savings Banks, Mercantile Banks and Mortgage Banks. The Non-Banking Financial Institutions include Credit Institutions, Acceptance Houses, Discount Houses and Finance Houses.

The National Payments Act 2020 regulates the payments systems in terms of safety and efficiency of systems, functions of the Central Bank of Uganda in regulating payments, prescribing the rules governing and overseeing payments and regulation of electronic money.

The Central Bank of Uganda makes regulations for Banks as rules prescribing their activities and these are translated into internal policies and procedures of Banks. These regulations guide Banks in managing operational risks envisaging people, processes, policies, system and

external events affecting banking business per the Bank of Uganda Risk Management Guidelines for Supervised Financial Institutions of 2010.

Accordingly, there were 26 Commercial Banks as at December 31st, 2020 and 4 Credit Institutions which are referred to as Non-Banking Institutions. These Banks are obliged to implement Organisational Justice in terms of setting targets for staff using defined methodologies, performing of performance appraisals and rewarding staff based on a transparent criterion. The staff whose performance exceed the given targets are recognised and rewarded accordingly and this influences the development of organisational citizenship behaviours among staff in form of cooperation, responsibility and accountability.

The contextual factors like organisational culture is reflected in the Vision, Mission, Objectives and Values of Banks as these guide behaviours and impact on the overall perceptions relating to performance.

Similarly, organisational leadership is driven by the Executive Management comprised of the Managing Director and Executive Director who are responsible for showing the direction to staff which is geared at achieving the vision of the shareholders. The Executive Management implement the defined targets which are approved by the Board of Directors and reviewed on an annual basis to ascertain their alignment with the shareholder aspirations as well as ensuring that the given Bank remains competitive in the market. In line with the organisational structure, Banks are structured mostly on a functional basis in form of departments, sections and branches and all Banks have the following departments on a minimum, that is operations, credit, finance, information technology, compliance, risk and internal audit. They also have operational branches, automated teller machines which are networked on the core banking system and teamwork is encouraged in functions for objective accomplishment.

Similarly, there are Banks which are affiliates of the groups and have reporting obligations as defined by the regulations. Therefore, the regulation imposes requirements on Banks towards employees but it's imperative to exceed these by improving on the operational environment to create a conducive and favourable atmosphere for staff in developing positive perceptions leading to organisational justice.

1.3. The Future of Banking Business in Uganda

The Banker customer relationship is transforming significantly from the traditional brick and mortar to agents performing the role of account opening, accepting deposits and withdrawals of customers. The traditional form of debtor credit relationship is thus evolving to agency principles of which, *qui facit per alium facit per se* applies. This means that he who acts through another is deemed in law to act for self. This can be illustrated in the case of **Foley V Hill (1848) 2 HLC 28, ALL ER 16**, where the Court held that the Bank does not hold sums deposited into a Bank account on trust for the customer, instead the relationship between the Bank and the customer is that of a creditor and debtor. The Bank can use money deposited on account to lend out to customers under the credit management principle to make a profit unlike a trustee who is forbidden from making a secret profit out of the trust property.

The changes in the relationship means that there is a paradigm shift in organisational justice from people to agents and technology leveraging on the core banking systems replacing a significant number of human resource personnel leading to involuntary technological unemployment.

The Banks thus need more investments in technology to support the changes in operations which increases the probability and likelihood of operational risk in terms of people, processes, procedures, systems and external events hence the justification for capital adequacy.

The competition with telecommunications industries is likely to increase as they also offer similar banking services like money transfers, insurance and account opening on mobile phones. This call for the empowerment of bank staff with competitive skills in terms of training, mentoring, coaching and counselling so that employees perceive organisational justice as the competition intensifies in the market.

There is also a likelihood of emerging risks like money laundering becoming complex and complicated in terms of placement, layering and integration when Banks merge with agents

and bring on board more products like baccassurance. This calls for more customer due diligence, know your customer, know your customer customer, know your employee and know your employees employer among others which are likely to increase operational costs in terms of hiring and retaining employees.

There is need for enhanced due diligence on customers and employees as well as other stakeholders like Board of Directors and shareholders in terms of Integrity and due care because of the likely increase in risk. This is likely to increase the cost of capital as the fiduciary duty of directors is likely to be more focused on the Banks than to shareholders who are the source of capital. In other words, governance, risk and control shall dominate the banking industry to the extent that any breach of norm shall attract sanctions from the regulator in form of penalties for noncompliance. The gap shall thus be remedied by reserves or capital from shareholders hence the escalating costs of capital.

The Fiduciary duty of directors is likely to increase by scrutinising Banks more than before due to the increased operational risks caused by technological drivers akin to the common law duty of directors to the company. This can be illustrated by the case of **Percival V Wright (1902) 2 ChD 421**, where the Court held that, the Directors of a Company owe their duty to the Company as a whole and not to trustees of individual shareholders or owe them a fiduciary duty merely by virtue of their offices.

In conclusion, the future of Banking in Uganda shall rely on increased use of technology and liquidity capital to support the Banks from operational risk with less employees, so earlier preparation is relevant for regulatory compliance with the likely increase in the minimum paid up capital, ongoing and liquidity capital.

1.3: Statement of the Problem

Bank employees have continued to perceive injustice at the workplace in the form of termination of contracts without fair hearings, given performance targets above the available resources, denied internal promotions in preference of external candidates as well as working extra hours at the same pay. These acts stifle the growth and development of organisational citizenship behaviours in the form of altruism, courtesy and conscientiousness amidst the existence of contextual factors of organisational culture, organisational leadership and organisational structure which are used in facilitating decision making in the best interest of the employees and employers. The prevalence of the aforementioned anomalies is attributed to the weaknesses in the implementation of the facets of organisational justice.

Besides the above, literature by Swalhi (2017), Folger (2019) and Hackman (2019) investigated the individual facets of organisational justice but underscored the relevance of the concept on employee perception of the workplace justice. This research therefore integrates the facets of distributive, procedural and interactional justice in exploring its influence on employee perceptions as predicted by the contextual factors and mediated by organisational citizenship behaviours.

Alternatively, the theories of decision making, social exchange and equity theories which can be used to explain the concept of organisational justice are featured with assumptions and limitations. This limits a conclusive inference on the facets of the concept of organisational justice unless an empirical investigation is done by testing the concept and its predictors in a practical setting. Therefore, this research was carried out using Bank employees as the units of inquiry, the respective Banks as the unit of analysis and the study was in conformity with the empirical responses and prior literature coupled with the theoretical orientation.

1.4: Purpose of the study

The study aimed at exploring the Contextual Antecedents as mediated by Organisational Citizenship Behaviours on Organisational Justice of Banks in Uganda.

1.5: Objectives of the Study

- i. To establish the relationship between Organisational Culture on Organisational Justice of Banks in Uganda.
- ii. To establish the relationship between Organisational Leadership on Organisational Justice of Banks in Uganda.
- iii. To establish the relationship between Organisational Structure on Organisational Justice of Banks in Uganda.
- iv. To establish the relationship between Organisational Citizenship Behaviours on Organisational Justice of Banks in Uganda.
- v. To establish the mediation effects of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours on Contextual Antecedents and Organisational Justice of Banks in Uganda.

1.6: Significance of the study

- i. The study contributes to operational risk management of Banks in terms of exploring measures of mitigating risks stemming from employee misperceptions of the organisational justice being unfavourable to their expectations.
- ii. The study analyses measures used in evoking organisational citizenship behaviours among employees which is fundamental in promoting value for money in terms of economic, efficiency and effective use of resources in the best interest of Bank Management, Board of Directors and Shareholders.
- iii. The study explores ways of using corporate culture in improving the performance expectations of employees in abide of realising the vision, mission and objectives defined by the Bank stake holders.
- iv. The study discusses the relevance of organisational leadership in steering and influencing employee performance beyond the defined expectations for business competitiveness and sustainability in the banking industry.
- v. The study explains the importance of organisational structure in the control environment, team building, cooperation, cohesion and managerial decision making which promotes responsibility and accountability of work tasks in Banks.
- vi. The study provides literature for human resource management which is relevant in structuring policies and procedures at Bank level and department level as well as an aid for business consultancy relating to work performance improvements in organisations.
- vii. The study provides literature review used in further research on the contextual factors of organisational culture, organisational leadership, organisational structure, organisational citizenship behaviours and organisational justice.
- viii. The study explains the mediation effect of organisational citizenship behaviours between contextual factors and organisational justice based on employee perceptions.

1.7: Knowledge Gap

A knowledge gap is a discrepancy between what is known and what is not known or ought to be known to alter the contemporary position about a phenomenon (an observable fact or event).

The knowledge gap can be closed or narrowed down by a review of literature, theory or methodology as a solution for the unexplained manifestations (David, 2019).

Research by Byrne & Cropanzano (2001) shows that organisational justice is an area of inquiry at the organisational level where employees perceive the entire actions of the organisations as being either fair or unfair to their expectations. This view is supported by Greenberg (1985) who notes that organisational justice at the workplace influences employees' perceptions which can be reflected in the execution of work schedules and the degree of completion.

However, there is a contemporary debate that the perceptions of organisational justice can stem from any action whether at the organisational level or from any single activity for instance from a supervisor to a teammate, relations with colleagues or even from a single activity like a performance appraisal, disciplinary hearing or usage of an obscene language to a workmate (Jones, 2019).

Similarly, there exists a contention as to whether organisational justice and fairness are the same. Barclay (2019) shows that these are concepts different and perceived differently by different employees in an organisational setting. That is organisational justice is domesticated into formal rules and procedures being applied equitably to different employees and whereas fairness involves both formal and informal practices being used and perceived by employees as being favourable in their opinions therefore, fairness exceeds the organisational boundaries to the entire community by being universal.

Goldman (2014) differs by holding that justice and fairness are synonymous as they both embed ethical conducts exhibited towards employees to induce their positive perceptions

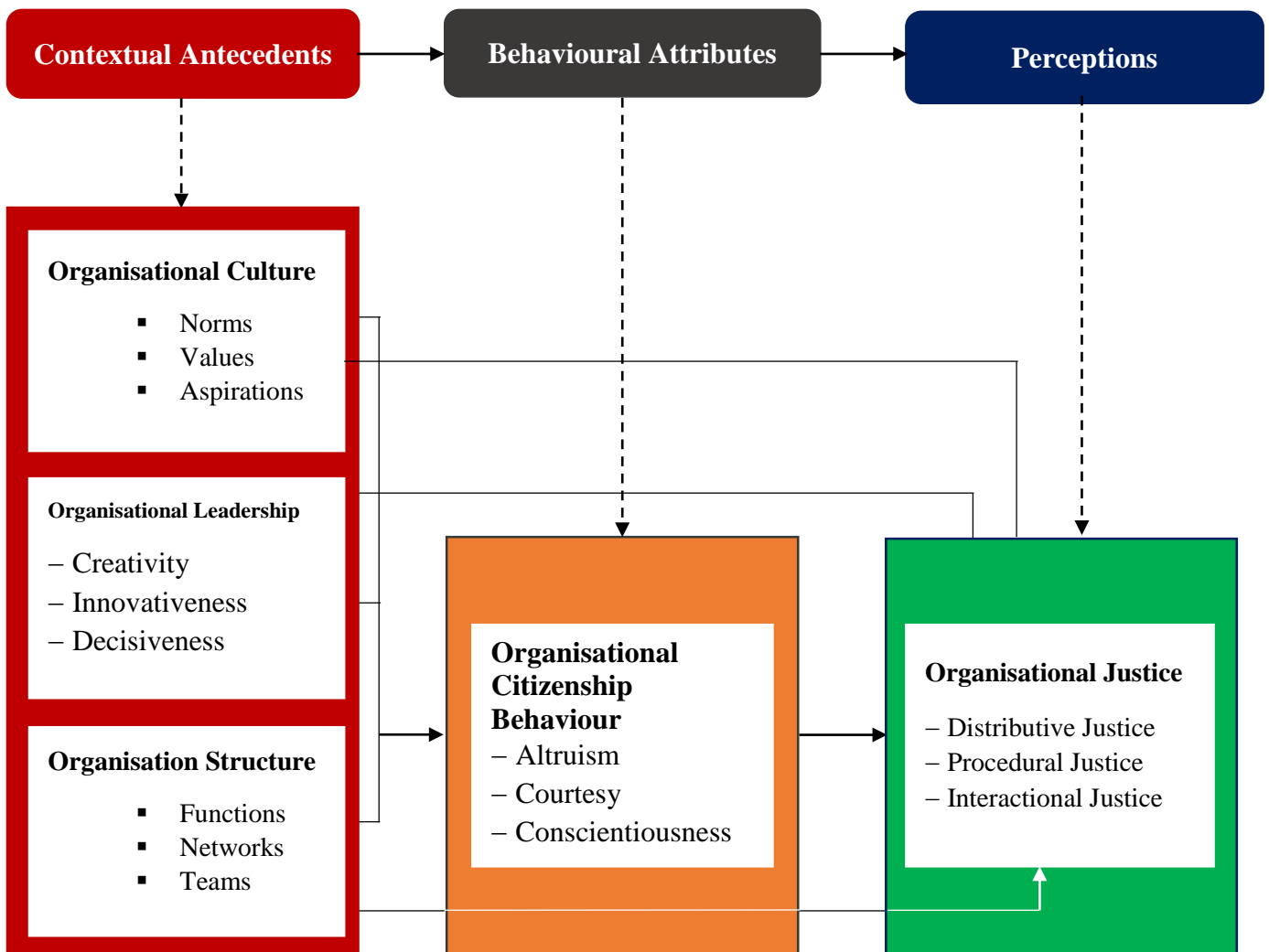
towards the appreciation of the organisational activities in order to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours.

According to Charles (2019), organisational justice is subjective and varies from employee to another based on the fact that individuals are different and have different perceptions at a defined point in time. This implies that what is perceived as justice can be injustice to another person. Therefore, aggregating the different perceptions into a given constant is likely to be ambiguous. Based on this view, the implementation of rules and procedures in an organisation can standardise perceptions of organisational justice as these can be perceived to be just and standardised whenever they are implemented to employees.

In addition, the equity theory by Adams (1965) shows that individuals perceive outcomes as fair when they match the extent of their contributions in relation to others or their own contributions. Therefore, a co-worker with the same education background receiving more pay than another is likely to perceive the reward as unfair because the equity rule is violated. The other rules of reward include the allocation per the need and allocation of the same outcome. But Deutsch (1975) shows that how the outcomes are arrived at is what is important irrespective of the rewards and punishment as employees can perceive injustice when outcomes are allocated based on unfair procedures. This is in contrast to the social exchange theory which emphasises reciprocal relationships between the employee and employer with the perceptions of reciprocity as being faire resulting into feelings of trust, commitment and obligations to the employer which gives rise to better performance and positive work attitudes (Colquitt, 2005).

To conclude, there is a paradigm shift from the organisational perception to individual perceptions of organisational justice based on specific actions made rather than generalisation of organisational activities. This is notwithstanding the mediation effect of organisational citizenship behaviours on employee perceptions in organisations.

1.8: The Conceptual Framework.



Source: Self Developed from Literature.

The conceptual framework is developed from the decision making theory, social exchange theory and equity theory as well as the concepts of organisational culture, organisational leadership, organisational culture, organisational citizenship behaviours and organisational justice.

A conceptual framework is defined an abstract representation of ideas, theories and concepts which are aimed at explaining the occurrence of a phenomenon. The framework can be represented graphically or as a picture showing the interlinkages of concepts and variables depicting the intended relationship.

A conceptual framework comes from a theoretical framework hence the rationale of distinguishing a variable from a concept.

The concepts are mental images, perceptions or constructs which cannot be measured. They include organisational culture, organisational leadership, organisational culture, organisational citizenship behaviours and organisational justice.

The identification of concepts in a research is followed by operationalisation which shows the extent by which numerical values are attached on concepts based on their indicators so that they are transferred into variables (Baglione, 2012).

A variable is therefore a concept which is operationalised and is capable of being measured by taking on values from different points when observed. In other words, variables are quantitative whereas concepts are qualitative.

There exist different variables of the study in academic research to which, there are independent variables, these are variables which explain the cause of the phenomenon or situation under investigation. The other extreme is the dependent variable which is predicated by the independent variable. The dependent variable explains the outcome of the changes brought about by the changes in the independent variable. The dependent variable is at times known as a criterion variable because all other variables aim at predicting its outcome. Thus in a given study only one dependent variable exists but several independent variables can be used to explain the dependent variable.

The second set of variable are intervening also known as confounding or mediating variables and extraneous or moderating variables. The intervening variables link the independent and dependant variables. The relevance of the intervening variable is that at times the relationship between an independent and dependent variable may not be established without the

intervention of another variable. The intervening variable reduces the extreme causes and effects on the relationships which these variables would assume in a relationship.

The intervening variable may reduce or increase the magnitude of the relationship which impacts on the outcome.

The extraneous variable or moderating variable explains other factors operating in the circumstances or real life situation which are likely to affect the changes attributable to the independent variables. This is on the presumption that other factors can be observable and measured in the study which contribute to the strength or weakness of the independent variables in their prediction of the dependent variable.

The conceptual framework shows four independent variables of organisational culture, organisational leadership and organisational structure predicting organisational justice as an outcome. However, in this relationship, organisational citizenship behaviour is the mediating variable which regulates the magnitude of influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

1.9: The Operationalisation of the Study Concepts

The concepts are ideas, perceptions or images which are qualitative in nature and are transformed into variables in a process called operationalisation. The operationalization involves attaching attributes, features or characteristics on the concepts to facilitate measurement.

No	Concept	Attributes	Theory	Gaps	Authors
1	Organisational Culture	Norms	Social Exchange	Specificity	Hofstede (1986)
		Values	Theory	Genericity	Hofstede (2001)
		Aspirations			
2	Organisational Leadership	Creativity	Decision Making	Rationalisation	Colquitt (2019).
		Innovativeness	Theory	Ambiguity	Lubart (1995).
		Decisiveness			
3	Organisational Structure	Functional Networks	Decision Making	Analog and Digital	Sternberg (1995) Hansson (2005).
		Teams	Theory		
4	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	Altruism	Equity Theory	Discretionary and Obligatory	Blau (2016) Organ (1988).
		Courtesy		Fairness and Justice	
		Conscientiousness		Input and Output per rewards	Charles(2019).
5	Organisational Justice	Distributive Procedural Interactional	Equity Theory	Organisational to Individual Perception	Deutsch (1975) Adams (1965).

1.9: Scope of the study

The scope of the study refers to the limits of the research in terms of the depth and breadth of the research. The scope is in terms of time, concepts and geographical coverage.

- a) The time scope was analysed at the point in time where a questionnaire was administered in the organisation at the defined interval of time.
- b) The geographical coverage was in respect to all Banks licensed to provide financial services by the Central Bank of Uganda in the jurisdiction of Uganda.
- c) The conceptual scope was limited to the defined variables of the study being organisational justice as predicted by organisational citizenship behaviours and contextual factors embracing organisational culture, organisational leadership and organisational structure.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0: Introduction to Literature Review.

Literature Review. This involves a survey of scholarly sources on a given topic by identifying current knowledge, relevant theories, methods, linkages and explaining existing gaps as well as the current debate on the criterion variable as predicted by the independent, mediating and moderating variables.

Alternatively, Literature review involves an overview of the previously published works on the subject matter under the study or the defined concepts of the study for the purpose of placing the study in the academic context. The information provided by this review is helpful in supporting or disqualifying the hypothesis of the study as well as providing information which can be used for answering research questions (Baglione, 2012).

Literature review situates the research or the study concept into the given academic discipline and helps prospective readers of the research to gain an insight of the study in terms of the dimension, context, norm, trend, theories and themes of the study. The literature by the existing scholar's reveals different methodologies and gaps established on the given study variable or concept and the areas for further study.

In addition, Baker (2000) shows that there are basically four major steps involved in literature review of which a search of the existing literature precedes other steps, followed by the review of selected literature, developing the theoretical frameworks and conceptual frameworks respectively which are used in answering the research problem statement or research opportunity of the study.

The literature review process also provides a secondary source of information for the study but is critical in supporting the primary findings of the study so that a conclusion is formed and areas of improvement provided for further research. This makes literature review systematic as

it helps a researcher to answer research questions as defined as well as explaining concepts and variables sequentially to create a written record.

2.1: Definition of Key Concepts.

2.1.1: Organisation Culture.

Culture is defined by Hofstede (2001) as the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes one human group from another. The culture in the above sense includes systems of values which are the building blocks of a given culture. Culture is then seen as a disposition of organisations which holds together an organisation and encourages employees to perform as well as feel committed to the organisation.

Based on the generic definition of culture, organisational culture refers to the values, norms and behaviours which define an organisation's perceptions of reality and the way activities are done in the pursuit of the goals, vision, mission and objectives of an organisation (Hofstede, 2001). The organisational culture defines the internal structure and the extent by which an organisation adapts to the environment in pursuit of its objectives.

Accordingly, personality is to individuals whereas culture is to organisations due to the behavioural attributes which are seen, felt, heard and observed by others in the external environment.

2.1.2: Organisational Leadership

Leadership literally is defined as an action of directing a group of individuals to pursue a defined set of objectives per the given timelines. In an organisation setting, leadership involves directing a team to perform activities which are aimed at meeting the goals and objectives of the organisation. Leadership involves authority which is assigned to the leader by virtue of the leadership instruments defining the position and the cardinal role of the leader is to define the objectives, enactment of strategies and influencing others to pursue the selected activities in a given direction (Zeller, 2019).

Organisational leadership refers to the ability of allocating tasks and influencing followers in the articulation and accomplishment of the vision of the organisation.

The concept of organisational leadership is a top to the bottom articulation of the corporate strategy which is disintegrated into department objectives by the leader so that managers are directed in executing these objectives into targets as well as being tasked to account for the different responsibilities assigned in form reports and oral presentations to the leader.

An organisational leader can be localised to a driver of a motor vehicle who propels the vehicle from a given place to a defined destination. Therefore (Zeller, 2019) avers that a leader with a poor leadership style cannot define the organisational strategy accurately in order to fit in the organisational structure leading to poor leadership styles exhibited towards the team.

2.1.3: Organisational Structure

An organisational structure defines how activities involving task allocation, coordination and supervision are directed towards the achievement of organisational goals. The structure determines the extent of strategic implementation as well as the leadership style used in executing the strategy (Pugh,1990).

The activities which are structured and coordinated can involve rules, roles, authority, tasks, information flow and decision making authority organised as standard operating procedures guiding the daily activities of the business. The structure defines individual responsibilities and authority, task allocation and grouping of tasks based on speciality as functions, individual participation in form of teams as well as the use of technology in problem solving based on information networks.

In simple terms, organisational structure is task, authority, and decision centred taking a linear or non-linear context which may be viewed in terms of an organogram or chart showing the decision making hierarchy.

2.1.4: Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

Organisational citizenship behaviours refer to an employee's voluntary commitment with an organisation which is not explicitly defined in the job contract nor the job description (Organ, 1988). These behaviours are discretionary as they are done out of an employees' personal choice and once exhibited, they lead to organisational effectiveness in terms of achieving the defined goals and objectives.

Organisational citizenship behaviours are discretionary because the employee can either do them or refrain from doing them and there is no sanction for non-exhibition. Similarly, these behaviours are beyond the tasks provided in the contract of employment and once these behaviours are done and observed by others at the work place, they influence team mates to perform leading to organisational effectiveness.

Near (1983) avers that organisational citizenship behaviours makes an employee competitive in the job as he or she becomes engaged and committed beyond the task requirements with the resulting consequences of performance improvement and realisation of organisational goals.

In simple terms, organisational behaviours are discretionary, peculiar to an employee, non-contractual, effective and perceived as just, fair and reasonable in leading to organisational justice.

2.1.5: Organisational Justice

Organisational justice refers to the employee's perception of the behaviours, decisions and actions of the employer to the employees which affects the perceptions and attitudes of employees in the work place in terms of fairness or unfairness, justice or injustice in the organisation (Greenberg, 1987).

The employee can judge whether the behaviours of the employer are fair or unfair and in return adjusts his or her behaviours in terms of engagement or disengagement, work deviance and counterproductive behaviours. Organisational justice is a priority for human resource management as it costs the organisation whenever injustice is perceived by employees.

2.2: Business Administration and Business Management

Business Administration involves the formulation of policies by a group of individuals charged with the obligation of defining the vision and mission of the organisation as a whole (Kaplan, 2018). The administration of the organisation is a high level activity with a key focus on resource utilization to promote a return of investment for the shareholders and return on equity as the key performance metrics. The administration of the business lays out the framework for the organisation in terms of structure, reporting lines, accountability and responsibility of the defined tasks. In other words, business administration is carried out by individuals with a defined personality of leaders making decisions for the entire organisation. In regulated organisations, the law presumes leaders to include the Board of Directors and shareholders who invest in the business and delegates authority of monitoring the extent of resource usage to the non-Executive Directors (Mich, 2019).

According to Mich (2019), management is a subset or component of administration in an organisational context because management is specialised based on division of labour and speciality whereas administration is generic as it embraces the resources of the entire organisation which are used in meeting the goals and vision of the organisation and it is long term in nature than management which is objective and task centred. Management aims at implementing and controlling the decisions made by the leaders in the organisation.

According to Henri Fayol (1841-1925), management is comprised of the elements of planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling (Farazmand,2009). The planning component involves the setting of the strategic objectives which embraces the long term objectives of the organisation. The planning component is featured with goal orientation, pervasiveness, continuation of activities, intellectual processes, futuristic assumptions, decision making and managerial functions.

The managerial function of planning means that planning is the first stage of objective setting which organises resources to meet the defined objectives. The goal orientation implies that plans must aim at achieving something for the stakeholders, the perverseness of plans implies that plans are taken at all levels of the organisation and can run and be integrated either from the top to the bottom or from bottom to the top. The continuous activity of planning means that once a given plan is achieved in a defined time period, new plans are made in reference to the present and future desired positions of the organisation. The intellectual process means that planning involves the application of the mind to forecast, scan the environment, imaginations and make predictions which the organisation is bound to face in the foreseeable future, decision making is relevant in choosing between the different courses of action which are cost effective in enabling the organisation to achieve its goals and objectives (Kaplan, 2018). Based on these features, administration embraces planning for the long term position and performance of the organisation as well as its positioning in the market.

Besides planning, organising in management is the process of dividing work tasks into sections and departments which is oriented on specialisation and division of labour where individuals with specialised knowledge, experience and skills are grouped together and assigned special tasks. The allocation of different tasks does not mean incompatibility but rather compatibility for goal congruence of the entire organisation.

Farazmand, (2009) avers that commanding involves communication of the goals and objectives of the organisation to teammates, supervising and obtaining reports relating to the daily execution of work and taking responsibility in performing of the assigned tasks as detailed in the job descriptions and work plans. Similarly, coordination involves the unification, integration, synchronisation of the efforts of group members to achieve unity in executing the defined goals and objectives of units in pursuit of the common organisational goals. The coordination element of management is critical as it is a hidden force which binds all other

functions of management. Also, the controlling element of management involves setting of standards on which performance is evaluated so that the favourable and adverse performance are rectified in a timely manner in form of taking corrective actions.

According to Prachi (2001), there are contemporary five Ms of Management, these include Men, Material, Machine, Methods and Money. This implies that management is a result oriented activity which focuses on achieving the desired output using skills and talent of running systems of an organisation. Management is therefore an activity, a function, process or a discipline.

In contrast, Administration is comprised of the elements of management and its major function is the formulation of plans, policies and procedures, setting of goals and objectives and enforcing rules and regulations.

Similarly, administration lays down the fundamental framework of an organisation within which management of an organisation functions. This framework therefore involves the authority, sanction, rewards and reporting or evaluation of activities. This means that administration is bureaucratic, and hierarchical with a focus on higher or top level goals and objectives of the organisation. The top level echelon at times represents either the owners or business partners who invest their capital to start the business of which they get returns in form of dividends or profits as compared to managers who earn a salary.

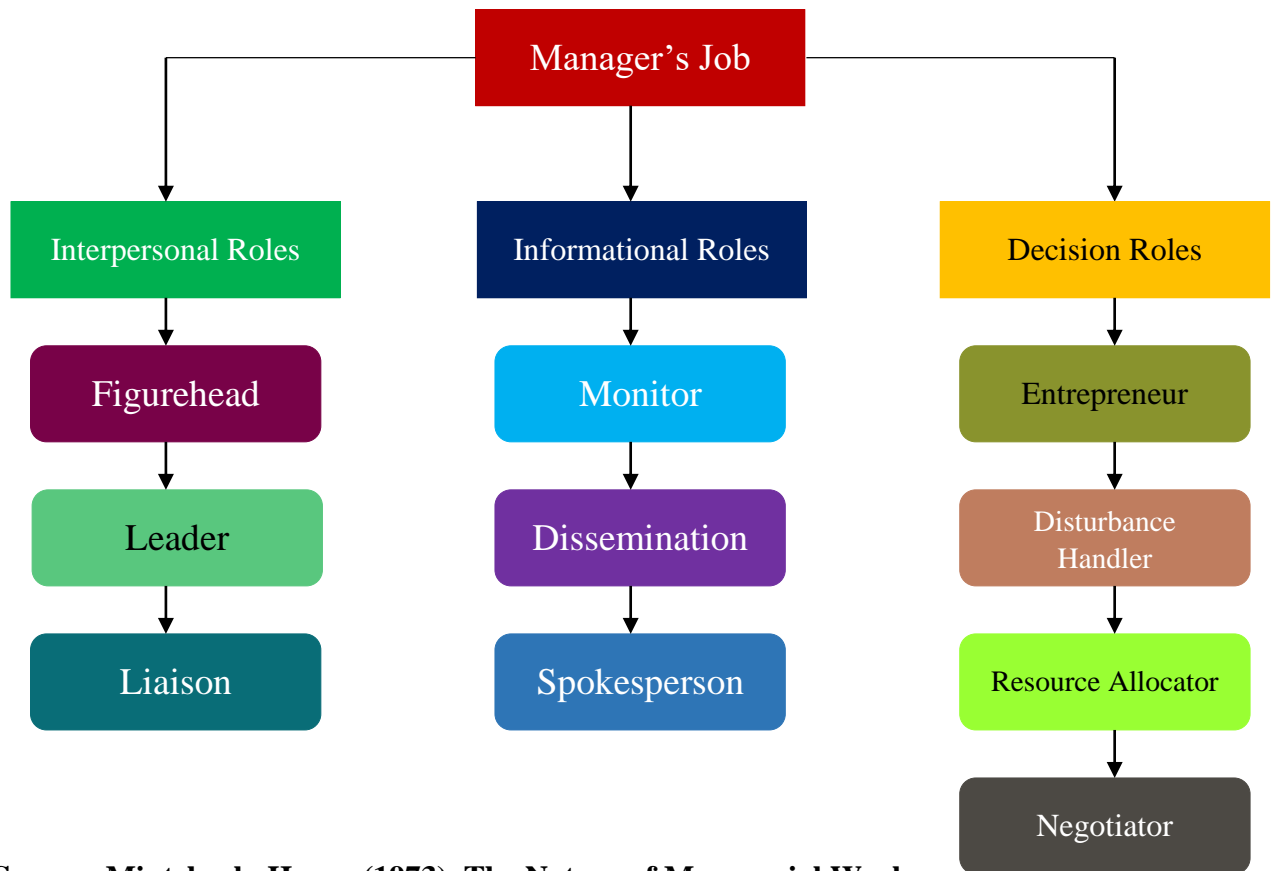
The existing literature and theory therefore distinguishes between administration and management as different concepts but in practice they are used interchangeably or synonymously with trivial differences of the former being forward looking and the latter being inward looking.

2.3: Theoretical Comparisons of Administration and Management

No	Comparative Features	Administration	Management
1	Scope	The Focus is on the entire Organisation	The Focus is on a Segment of the Organisation like Department, Section, Function, Branch , Revenue or Cost Centre
2	Hierarchy	Top Level Hierarchy of the Organisation	Lower and Middle Level Hierarchy
3	Policy	Policy Formulation	Policy Implementation
4	Role	Legislation by passing Rules and Standards of Performance.	Executive function of implementing decisions and governance.
5	Decisions	Universal and applicable to the entire organisation.	Limited to functions or boundaries set by the Administrators.
6	Representation	Represents the owners of the business for instance, Independent Non-Executive Directors in Banks	Collectively Known as Employees, for instance Staff, Management and Executive Directors in Banks
7	Contemporary	Most found in Non Profit making Organisations for instance , Churches, Mosques, Hospitals, Government.	Mostly found in Profit Making organisations like Banks, Companies
8	Resources	Value for money of all resources to promote efficiency , effectiveness and economy of resources	Maximisation of People or staff potential to attain performance expectations

Source: Administrative Theory of Management (Henri Fayol, 1841-1925), Theory X of Japanese Management (William Ouch, 1980, Bureaucracy Theory of Management (Max Weber, 1864-1920).

2.4: The Operational Roles of Management



Source: Mintzberh. Henry (1973). The Nature of Managerial Work

The operational roles of a Manager once practiced can lead to goal attainment and organisational justice among staff.

The roles are clustered into three broad classifications of Interpersonal, Informational and Decision Roles.

The Interpersonal Roles.

- a) The Manager as a Figure Head plays the official role of a professional representing his organisation in social activities and events.
- b) The Manager as a Leader performs the role of motivating and Inspiring Team mates in terms of Coaching, Mentoring and Support.
- c) The Manager as a Liaison Officer performs the role of networking and building contracts with other stakeholders beyond the organisation boundary.

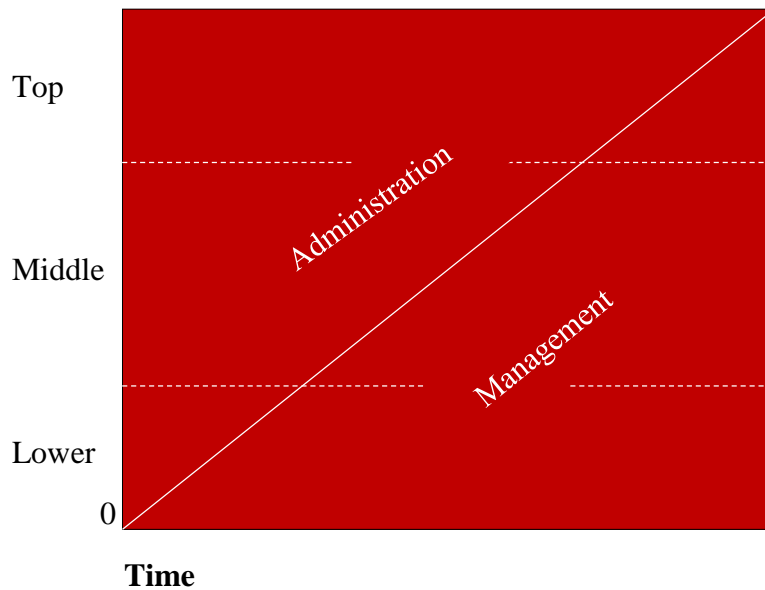
The Informational Roles

- a) The Managers Monitoring Role involves seeking for information within and outside the workplace for the purpose of evaluating departments, discovering problems and addressing them within defined timelines.
- b) The Managers Dissemination Role involves delegating of responsibilities where it is applicable but remains accountable for the decision made by the delegate within the intra vires authority granted.
- c) The Manager as a Spokesperson is duty bound to transmit information outside the workplace thereby performing the role of branding the organisation hence a brand ambassador.

The Decision Roles.

- a) The Manager is categorised as an Entrepreneur whenever there are engaged in creativity, change and risk taking for the production of new ideas.
- b) The Manager as a Disturbance handler is charged with business continuity planning of by ensuring that processes, procedures, activities, resumption sites are in place for business continuity in case of any disruption in the normal business operation caused by internal or external risk events.
- c) The Manager as a Resource Allocator is duty bound to ensure Value for Money of resource allocation in terms of efficiency, effectiveness and economical use of resources in the best interest of the organisation.
- d) The Manager as a Negotiator involves engaging the team mates in resolving tasks within the units, section and departments including engagements with external stakeholders.

2.5: Categorical Classification of Administration and Management Level



Source: Theory of General Administration and Management.

The General Theory of Administration and Management posits that Administration is at a higher level than management (Coley, 2021). That is in the categorical hierarchy, administration starts from the middle level management to the top hierarchy charged with policy formulation, whereas Management starts with supervision of entry staff in the organisation.

The essence of Time in the classification is to the effect that whenever organisations grow and develop over time, managers transform to become leaders in terms of policy implementation to policy formulation. This presumption therefore shows that effective leaders who can steer the organisation to meet the defined goals and objectives need to master the functional and technical aspects of the job before ascending to become leaders in the organisation.

2.6: The Administrative Framework

2.6.1: Planning



Source: The Generic Management Process

2.6.2: Management Sequence



Source: The Generic Management Process

In management, an organisation must analyse its internal strength and weaknesses as well as the external environment drivers which influence its activities. The generic acronyms of SWOT and PESTEL are relevant in this context.

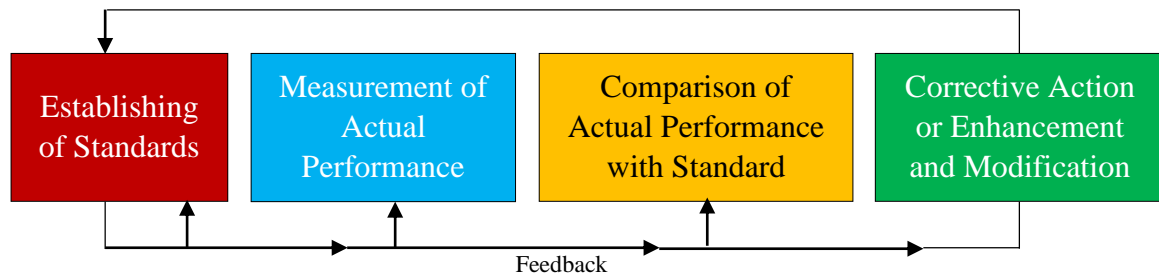
The implication is to the effect that an activity must be defined with precision and documented as a point of reference. In this aspect, organisational justice is an activity which organisations tend to focus on in order to improve staff perceptions with respect to performance.

This is followed up by the evaluation of the strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities in the market for the purpose of performance improvements. Besides this, the external environment is analysed in terms of political, economic, social, environmental, legal and technological drivers impacting on the organisational activities. The failure to incorporate the market drivers into business analysis can make the organisation less competitive in the market by failing to match with market demands.

The objectives set must reflect the strengths and environmental drivers as these impact on the level of staff performance and achievement.

The activities undertaken must be reviewed by comparing actual performance with the defined performance for variance analysis and correction of anomalies for business sustainability over time and stakeholder contribution.

2.6.3: Management Control

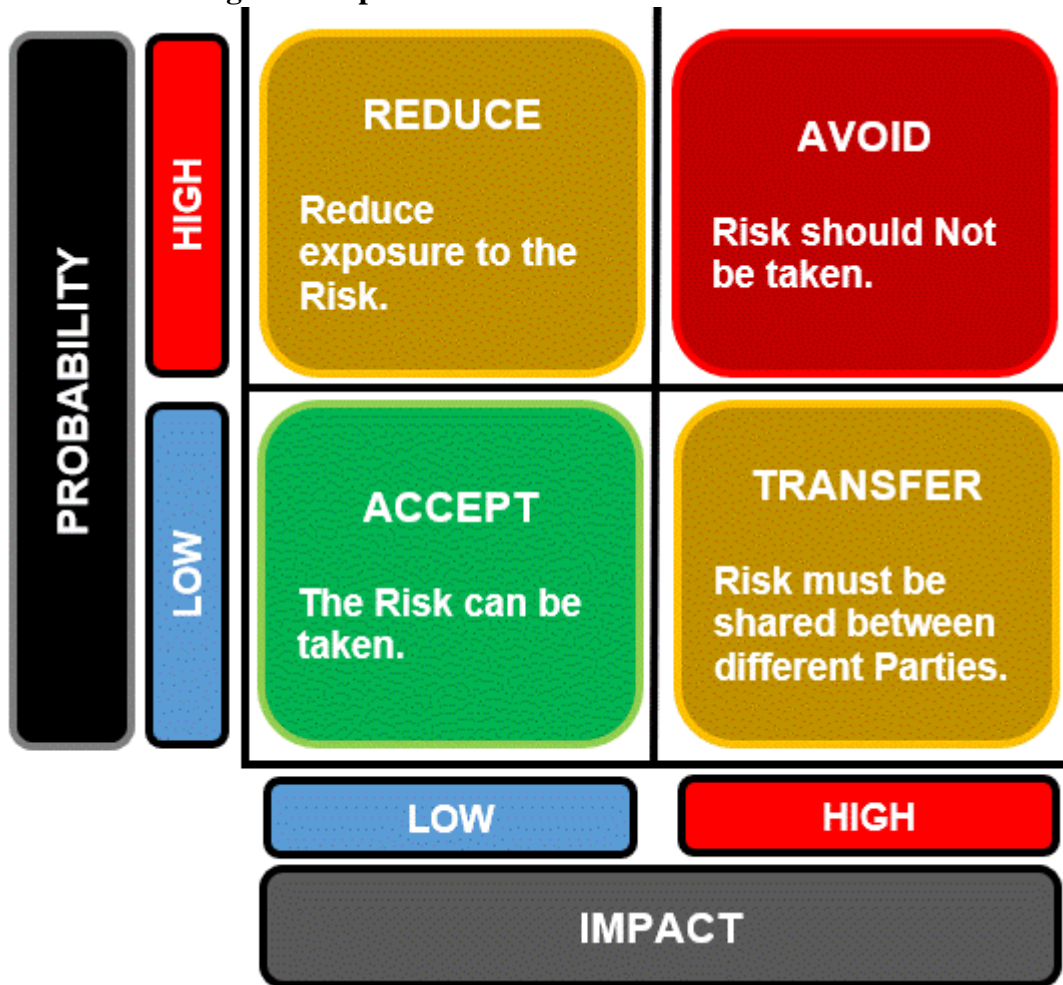


Source: The Generic Management Process

There exists a presumption of management that for every action undertaken there is a reaction hence the rationale for feedback.

The standards provide the norms for benchmarking the desired with actual performance hence guiding management on the course of action undertaken in monitoring of the given strategy.

2.6.4: Risk Management Options



Source: The Generic Management Process

Management control is part and parcel of risk management and organisational justice is felt when decisions made are made under the control doctrine of management.

The decisions which contravene the control concept breed organisational injustice both to staff and the organisation as a whole by resulting into counterproductive behaviours which stifle organisational citizenship behaviours. Thus using the TARA Model of risk management, organisations can improve on organisational justice.

2.6.5: Enterprise Risk Management



Source: The Generic Management Process

Organisational Justice can be managed using the Enterprise Risk Management Model. This infers that, there is a likelihood and impact of misperceptions of organisational activities being misaligned with staff perceptions of justice, equity and good conscience.

In other words, once staff misperceive organisational activities, human resource management risk arises where actual performance deviates from expected or planned performance. The role of the organisation is therefore to put in place avenues of promoting justice and fairness for instance transparent staff performance appraisals and extrinsic rewards like insurance and other benefits as part of staff motivation.

2.7: The Theoretical Disposition

A theory is a set of principles on which a practice of an activity based on or a system of ideas intended to explain a phenomenon especially on the general principles independent of the things to be explained. In these circumstances, Schein (2019) defines a phenomenon as a fact that is observed to exist or happen and whose cause or explanation can be contested.

The phenomenon can be verified by the senses of the rational individual in terms of, vision or sight, heard or auditory, felt or olfactory, tested also known as gustatory, touch also known as tactile and can also be moved which is known as vestibular.

The essential features of a theory include being testable under research or experiments, replicable which means that theories are repeated by other theories, stable meaning that their explanation remain visible and applicable or can be contradicted by other explanations and exceptions, theories are featured with assumptions rationalising their use in practice and theories are simple to comprehend or rather understand once verified and documented.

2.7.1: The Decision Making Theory

Decision making is a cognitive process which results in the selection of beliefs or cause of action among several possible alternative options. According to Joachim (1995), the decision making theory explains the reasoning process of an individual based on assumptions, presumptions, values, preferences and beliefs which results into a choice prompting an action or inaction or an omission.

The decisions made can be a solution to a defined problem with a consequence of an optimal or at least a satisfactory solution which can be rational or irrational based on explicit or tacit knowledge of the decision maker (Roberts, 2010). The decisions made based on explicit knowledge means that the source of knowledge in particular is transferable, articulated, coded, stored and can be accessed as compared to decisions based on tacit knowledge which is

personal to the decision maker and cannot be transferred to another person for being featured with intuition, wisdom, personal knowledge, insight and experience.

According to Simon (1948), the decision making process is divided into two parts one of which is the decision being arrived at and the other is the process of action. That is, a mere making of a decision is not enough without an action or implementing it in observable activities. Similarly, decision making is a process which involves a sequence of activities involving problems of recognition, search for information, definition of alternatives and the selection of an action from one or more alternatives commensurate with the ranked scale of preference. The selection makes the decision making process a matter of compromise because the decision maker is faced with several alternatives or options from which a choice is made.

The theory assumes that the decision maker is rational. This implies that the decision maker makes a choice which is realistic based on the available circumstance although some decisions are irrationally made. The rational decisions maximise the benefits or values whereas the irrational decisions reduce the value for the decision maker which is akin to making decisions whose costs exceed the defined benefits Simon (1948),

In addition, decision makers satisfice. This means that they pursue objectives or make decisions that involve minimum risks and complications as opposed to focusing on maximisation of profits. Therefore, decisions made cannot be perfect as expected but provided the decision maker achieves what is optimal, the decision becomes acceptable.

The theory also assumes that decision making is procedural, that is it involves logical steps involving the intelligence stage where the decision maker identifies the problem in the organisation and formulates solutions to avert the problem. This is followed by the decision action where managers look for suitable strategies involving an analysis of the merits and demerits of the case. This is followed by the choice activity stage which involves making a list

of alternatives and evaluating the consequences of the respective alternatives Simon (1948). The most suitable course of action is selected which requires creativity, judgement and qualitative selection skills.

The theory is limited by imperfections in the environment which limits perfect rationality shown by cognitive dissonance and other limitations of the human cognitive system as well as limitations in accessing relevant information limiting people from making perfect rational choices (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

Alternatively, decision making under risk and uncertainty is different from the norm (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981). That is when dealing with options or outcomes, decision makers pay attention to irrelevant features or to points that affect their preferences. This can be shown by the way in which a piece of information is presented which affects the alternatives chosen by the decision maker. This is called the framing effect and violates the tenet of perfect rationality and extensionality (Arrow, 1982). This effect is also known as invariance by (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981).

Furthermore, decision making under risk challenges the expected utility theory which is a model proposed by Bernoulli (1738). This postulates that the reference independence assumes that the value which is assigned to a given state of wealth does not vary with the decision makers initial state of wealth (Kahneman, 2002). The decision maker takes into account gains and losses instead of considering only states of wealth. Thus contrary to Bernoulli's model, the initial state of wealth affects choice. Tversky & Kahneman, (1981), proposed the prospect theory in which preferences are reference dependent where utility is limited to changes in wealth instead of states of wealth. The prospect model describes a value function that favours risk aversion for gain and risk seeking for loss. This means that a decision maker once presented with a choice with equal prospects chooses one with potential gains than one with potential

losses. The prospect theory is also known as the loss aversion theory. Similarly, the prospect theory assumes that decision makers use numbers when making predictions and assess diverse types of probability Tversky & Kahneman, (1981). In the same way like Simons theory of decision making where decision makers are faced with the limitation of bounded rationality, under the prospects theory, decision makers are also limited by carrying out their numerical predictions correctly by calculating probabilities as they have to copy up with the complexity of heuristics and these lead to systematic errors or biases. These errors are not random but they are systematic.

Both the decision making theory and the prospects theory acknowledge that humans have cognitive limitations but their decision making is also affected by environmental factors (Reyna, 2004).

The decision theory is thus relevant for leaders decision making in the organisation based on personal knowledge which is tacit but also on explicit knowledge (Gigerenzer, 1996). The leader has to make decisions affecting the behaviours of others to perform tasks as well as decisions with respect to the definition and application of cultural norms, values and beliefs. The leader has to make structures of allocating tasks within the organisation and the allocation of these tasks influence the perceptions of employees perceiving justice or injustice in the organisation as well as their citizenship behaviours.

The employees also have to make decisions in their capacity as either leaders of others or as followers of leaders. The decisions made influence the achievement of their tasks and the extent to which they express organisational citizenship behaviours (Gigerenzer, 1996).

2.7.2: The Social Exchange Theory

The decision making theory explains the decisions made by the decision maker amidst alternatives. The theory considers the individual decision maker without due consideration to the person affected by the decisions being made. These decisions can be prejudicial to the adverse party leading to misperceptions, biases and perceived unfairness which is explained under organisational justice. Therefore, the rationale of considering the adverse party to the decisions made in an exchange can be explained by the social exchange theory.

The social exchange theory explains the interaction of two parties or more into a relationship which is based on the cost and benefit analysis to determine the risks and benefits (Homans, 1961). A relationship featured with costs outweighing the rewards or benefits is in most cases terminated unless explicit reasons to the contrary are in place. Accordingly, social exchange involves the sharing of tangible or intangible assets or more rewarding benefits in kind. The relationship can be dyadic for instance the one of an employee and employer or it can be a generalised exchange in which the desired outcome sought is independent or not dependent on the resources provided by the individual.

In addition, (Homans, 1961) postulates propositions about human behaviours by explaining the social exchange in terms of, succession propositions which is to the effect that an individual is likely to perform tasks which are rewarded, stimulus proposition which show that when a stimulus is connected to a rewarded action then a similar stimulus makes the individual to repeat the action. The stimulus in this context is an event in the external environment or outside the individual which stimulates or evokes a response to respond or act in response to the stimulus. Value proposition, this means that the more an action is liked and more valuable the outcome of the action is also liked. The deprivation satiation proposition which is akin to diminishing marginal utility assumes that a reward becomes less valuable when received repeatedly without enough time between the subsequent rewards. There is also frustration

aggression which means that when an action does not receive an expected reward, it causes anger and aggressive behaviours and these behaviours are valued by the individual in the aggressive state to rationalise the disappointment. Similarly, approval proposition means that when an action receives an expected reward which is greater than expected or the action is rewarded with the absence of punishment, there is a likelihood that a similar activity is done to be approved.

According to Douglas (2007), the propositions made by (Homans, 1961) explains human behaviour in a relationship without focus on behaviours formed out of habits which are repeated despite the diminished losses of the propositions and behaviours resulting from ethical and moral obligations on the individual to behave in a defined way towards the adverse party.

The social exchange theory is explained further by the social penetration theory (Richard,2007). The social penetration theory assumes that as a relationship develops, interpersonal communication moves from being shallower to intimacy levels where the individuals can share and disclose pertinent and more inner or personal information and feelings towards one another.

Furthermore, Thibaut & Kelley (1959) shows that the social exchange theory is a frame of reference used to explain the nature of human behaviours and relations. They explain human nature that humans seek reward and avoid punishments, humans are rational meaning that they pursue objectives in relation to their beliefs and the standards that humans use to evaluate costs and rewards vary over time and from one individual to another. They also explain the nature of relationships as being interdependent and procedural. This implies that relationships develop in a process over time hence they do not occur spontaneously or suddenly.

Blau (1964) shows that the social exchange theory does not explain the prisoners dilemma puzzle in a relationship where rational individuals can fail to cooperate even when the cooperation is in their best interest as explained in the game theory. This is attributed to self-interested behaviours demonstrating selfishness of human nature which is exhibited in the behaviours of non-cooperation, individualism and lack of focus on the general picture in form of parochialism. Alternatively, in the organisational context, even when the employer gives the best outcome or rewards, the employees can never the less act selfishly.

The theory does not explain the influence of power on individual behaviours and choices in an exchange relationship Chow (2019). The power dependence relation theory is to the effect that the dependence a person has on another brings up the concept of power. The power differentials affect social structures in relationships by breeding inequalities among individuals in relationships. This power is reflected in fate control and behavioural control, where fate control is the ability to affect a partner's outcomes and behavioural control involves the power to cause another individual's behaviour to change by one's own behaviours acting as a stimulus influencing the behavioural changes.

In summary, Miller (2005) shows that the social exchange theory has inherent limitations of assuming that human interactions are a rational process arising from economic benefits as some interactions are for non-monetary benefits even though they can result into incidental economic benefits. The assumption that humans can open up to each other whenever the relationship is developed underscores instances where individuals deceive each other for the purpose of furthering the relationship based on deception and the assumption of the linear relationship cannot be applicable as some relationships can skip the procedural steps but remain reciprocal. The theory is relevant in explaining the behaviours adopted by employees in perceiving justice in reaction to the actions of leaders which induces them to become engaged to the organisation.

2.7.3: The Equity Theory

The social exchange theory looks at the nature of individuals in relationships as well as the benefits and costs associated with such relationships. However, the hidden intentions of individuals which can obliterate such relationships are underscored hence the need for justice, equity and fairness to sustain such relationships which is explained by the equity theory.

The literal meaning of equity is to the effect that, equity is a quality of being fair and impartial and the norms of equity in the employer and employee relationship is that each individual must be rewarded in proportion to the contribution made towards the organisational goals and objectives.

Equity is built on the maxims or principles of equity which serve as a set of general principles or rules governing the operations of relationships which are based on fairness, justice and reasonableness. The maxims like, equity looks at the substance than the form, equality is equity, he who comes to equity must do equity, and equity looks at that done as ought to be done are used to demonstrate fairness as illustrated in the case of, **Cheese V Thomas (1994), 1, ALL ER 35,**

In this case, the plaintiff agreed to contribute 40,000 Pound Sterling towards his nephew the defendant which was used to buy a house that the plaintiff would be allowed to live in for life. The plaintiff later realised that the defendant missed several payments which exposed the property to the risk of foreclosure and sued the defendant to void the agreement and regain the money and alleged undue influence in the transaction.

The Court of Appel set aside the transaction between the parties and ordered for the sale of the house with each party getting the proceeds in proportion to that which they contributed. The court further held that the transaction was manifestly disadvantageous to the plaintiff as it only gave him a right to inhabit, despite having contributed to the capital. He would therefore have lost the consideration in case the house was repossessed. The defendant had conceded that the

presumption of undue influence applied to the transaction. The fact that the court apportioned the proceeds of the sale of the house based on the contributions made by the parties ensured justice.

Adams (1965) explains the equity theory by stating that individuals prefer a fair relationship between performance and rewards in comparison with others. This means that an employee gets demotivated by the job and his employer whenever the inputs are more than the outputs. The individuals make contributions or inputs from which they expect certain rewards. The inputs are things contributed to the organisation to achieve its goals like education, experience, effort, loyalty, adaptability, resilience, flexibility, adaptability and tolerance of which these inputs can be physical labour or emotional labour which at times is referred to as contribution. In contrast, the benefits or output are the rewards or things which an individual receives as a result of contributing to organisational goals like the salaries, job security, structure, routine, recognition, responsibility, pride including life membership benefits.

The theory assumes the exchange of benefits in relation to equity of which three types of exchanges are defined and these include, overpaid inequity which arises when an individual perceives that the outcomes are more as compared to the inputs in comparison with others. This individual can opt to increase effort or reduce effort and develop a sense of superiority. Similarly, underpaid inequity which arises when an individual perceives that the outcomes are less compared with the inputs in relation with others, perceptions of unfairness develop and counterproductive activities develop in the relationship which reduces organisational value in terms of deterring the achievement of organisational goals. Furthermore, there is equity which arises where an individual perceives the outcomes in relation to input as being equal in comparison with others. The individual develops perceptions of fairness and organisational citizenship behaviours. The relevance of the theory enables employees to make comparisons

of rewards with others in the organisation so as to perceive justice and perform tasks in line with the defined goals and objectives of the organisation.

According to Walster & Traupmann (1978), the equity makes propositions in a given relationship which defines the extent by which individuals make contributions in relationships by either contributing assets entitling them to rewards or liabilities which brings costs to the relationship. This can be compared to a social relationship where assets like beauty and kindness are seen as assets entitling the possession of social rewards whereas individual taints like cruelty are seen as liabilities entitling to possession of costs. The propositions include, self-inside where the individual seeks to maximise their outcomes where outcomes are defined as rewards minus costs, self-outside which applies to groups which opt to maximise collective rewards by developing accepted systems of equitable rewarding opportunities with members attempting to induce other group members to accept and adhere to these systems. The groups induce members to behave equitably by making it profitable to behave per the norms and inequitable by stamping out unfair behaviours in the group. According to Hartfield & Hay (1985), there are other proposition of the equity theory of others inside which states that whenever individuals find themselves participating in inequitable relationships they become distressed and the more inequitable the relationship the more distressed individuals feel. This proposition therefore assumes that the person in the group who gets too much and the person who gets little feel distresses. That is the person who gets much feels guilty and the person who gets little feels angry. The last presumption is known as others inside, which is to the effect that individuals who perceive that they are in an inequitable relationships attempt to eliminate distress by restoring equity.

The theory is relevant as it helps employees to adjust and shape their perceptions based on the pay structure as well as the organisations adjusting reward systems to incorporate both monetary and non-monetary rewards. According to Andrews (1967), organisations are obliged to manage employee perceptions as misperceptions can breed counterproductive behaviours, deter the development of organisational citizenship behaviours as well as affecting the development and implementation of contextual factors which are critical in promoting organisational justice.

2.6: The Contextual Antecedents in an Organisational Setting

An antecedent refers to something which exists before the event or an activity which precedes the event or phenomenon whereas the context relates to the circumstances that form the setting for the phenomenon to occur. Therefore, the contextual antecedents mean the setting or circumstances under which the defined phenomena occur to be observed or measured by the actor (Kakuru, 2008). The investigation of organisational justice involves determining the circumstances or factors leading to its occurrences or rather the predictors being termed as independent variables. The circumstances selected as defining the context include, organisational leadership, organisational structure and organisational culture.

The context defines the setting or the organisational environment under which the employees interact with managers, the defined structures and the cultures which shape their perceptions and actions of performing beyond the expectations or becoming responsible, involved and committed in performing the organisational tasks leading to organisational citizenship behaviours. The context once interpreted correctly impacts on employees' perceptions and once misperceived results into perceptions of injustice among employees. Therefore, organisations are duty bound to implement and improve the working environment in terms of professional leadership and managerial skills including defining work outcomes with clarity.

2.7: The Relationship between Organisational Culture and Organisational Justice

The culture of a given organisation which is reflected in the way activities are performed shapes the perceptions of employees with respect to organisational justice (Colquitt, 2005). The culture makes employees concerned about the fairness of resource distribution such as pay, rewards, promotions and outcomes of dispute resolutions. This is known as distributive justice. The individual employees also pay attention to fairness in the decision making procedures that lead to these outcomes by questioning and attempting to understanding how these decisions are arrived at which is referred to as procedural justice (Tyler, 1992). Similarly, the individuals are concerned with the nature of interpersonal treatment received from others most especially the key organisational authorities and this is referred to as interactional justice.

According to Chow (2019), Corporate Culture influences organisations and individual's outcomes like commitment, loyalty, and innovativeness of employees in terms of problem solving. This minimises employee turnover and probity risks among employees leading to justice outcomes. An organisations culture which rewards performance builds trust among employees and increase loyalty which minimises employee related risks of probity, dishonesty and self-interested behaviours. Probity risks arise when employee engage in deviate behaviours contravening policies and procedures leading to likely losses which can crystallise into losses debited in the profit and loss statements of the Bank. The cultural values and assumptions which are employee centric in terms of empowerment, reward and development reduce employee risks. Employee risks are the likely losses sustained by an organisation when employee behaviours and performance are dysfunctional with the defined goals and objectives of the organisation. The values and assumptions are used to refine employee commitments and engagements with organisations which are evoking organisational citizenship behaviours.

In abide of the Corporate Culture influencing employee probity, Culture is distinctive to organisations and individuals. That is culture defines the distinct and locally shared social knowledge or the shared appreciation of systems and set of beliefs that help to distinguish one section or group of organisation from one another (Ouchi,1983). Accordingly, Corporate Culture is comprised of basic assumptions that a group has discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. This means that the basic assumptions are shared and valued as important, guide and direct the patterns of morals, symbols, attitudes and normative ways of doing business thereby differentiating one organisation form another in terms of performance (Schein, 2019).

According to Davies (2018), Corporate Culture leads to competitive advantage where firms outcompete others in terms of sales, customer services and customer retention. This is premised on a customer centric culture where firms believe in offering excellent customer services embedding after sales services, problem solving of customer complaints leading to total quality management as a basis of strategic competitive advantage. The improvement of the competitive position of an organisation based on the use of customer centric values and beliefs are correlated with strategic leadership in organisations.

Furthermore, Corporate Culture traits are positively related to organisational performance. On this note, (Denison, 2019) describes four cultural traits which are correlated with performance where risk management is a proxy of performance management. These cultural traits or characteristics include involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission traits. The cultural trait of involvement refers to a function of building employee's competences, engagement and responsibility. This cultural trait once developed empowers staff to commit themselves to the organisational activities and decisions which are critical in gaol accomplishments lowering performance and employee risks respectively.

The cultural trait of consistency is to the effect that an organisation is well coordinated in terms of implementing activities in line with the defined goals and objectives within a coherent and systematic way which is uniformly exhibited by all staff members. The uniform or similar implementation of activities minimises operational risks where controls, processes and procedures are implemented unconsciously without any human surveillance from a third party like a supervisor lowering operational risk exposures. The adaptability cultural trait reflects the extent to which an organisation reacts quickly and positively to changes from the external environment. The environment requires the firm to change and refine technological, products and services to align with customer preferences, fashion, regulatory and macro-economic determinants of inflation, interest rates including the regulatory requirements for compliance risk management. Notwithstanding the adaptability cultural trait, there is the mission cultural trait which defines and aligns values, beliefs and activities in line the defined mission of the organisations and evaluates performance in terms of the achievement of stated goals and objectives reflecting mission accomplishment.

Culture per say is a set of values, beliefs, common understanding, thinking and norms for behaviour that is shared by all members of a society. Culture provides guidance to behaviour of society in apparent and sometimes unnoticeable ways and profoundly influences decision making (Hofstede, 2001). In relation to the society setting, organisations are similar to societies and communities in the perspective that are comprised of a group of people who distinguishes themselves by clear boundaries from other work groups as defined by the culture values and norms shared by this organisational unit (Schein, 1990). These values and norms indicate the correct ways of relating with others and these are further reflected in actual behaviours.

Harris (1994) shows that organisational culture and organisational justice are related because culture guides the search for the interpretation of information. That is to say, as members pay attention to the presence or absence of behaviours that are the core of its culture, they interpret and make perceptions of justice.

Alternatively, culture is a social control mechanism. The deviations from cultural norms are noticed and corrected (Sorensen,2002). Thus, a culture which emphasizes fairness, justice and reasonableness motivates individuals to perceive justice when procedures in the organisation are implemented and abided by members. In addition, fairness of resource distribution and the procedures used in decision making are less salient among employees and team oriented cultures. This is consistent with findings of Brockner & Wiesenfeld (1996), who argue that rewards and fairness of procedures are more salient to individuals when interpersonal aspects of decision making are fair but more pronounced and expressed in behavioural conducts when they are marred by unfairness.

Conversely, aggressive cultures encourage employees to focus on outcomes and on outperforming others. These cultures increase focus on tangible resources of exchange in the relationships while discounting the value of fair interpersonal treatment, following partners that results in less attention paid to interactional justice violations Brockner & Wiesenfeld (1996).

In addition, cultural dimensions vary in relation to justice. That is organisational values regarding to internal constituencies such as employees and external customers create virtues of cooperation and morale where internal values are with respect to innovations and productivity of employees whereas external values relating to acquisition and maintenance of customers within the organisation (Oreilly,1991).

This is coupled with a culture emphasising respect of people within and outside the organisation where respect breeds fairness, tolerance and professionalism. The respect promotes justice because every individual by nature wants respect and perceives this as justice irrespective of any other treatment.

Linda (1998) adds that procedures within the organisation which are less cognisant of the inputs made by individuals are perceived as irrational, unfair and unjust. Therefore, in cultural development, it is better to focus on procedures for employee perceptions to be aligned with organisational goals. Similarly, where reasons for certain decisions affecting employees are not explained with clarity, their outcomes are perceived as being unjust and unreasonable. Uhlbien (2000) uses team orientation in explaining organisational justice by affirming that, team orientation is the degree by which corroboration behaviours are valued. A team oriented culture fosters interdependence among members and encourages individuals to make sacrifices for teams, getting along with others and developing friendship where members see relationships taking precedent over individualism which is crucial in promoting justice. Team orientated cultures emphasize maintaining harmony between members, task accomplishments and sharing the rewards of output and when such relationships move towards a family atmosphere, the nature of reciprocity involved moves from social exchange to balanced generalisation (Sparrowe, 1997). Balanced reciprocity involves an exchange in which leaders and members immediately respond to each other's positive actions whereas generalised reciprocity is a social exchange that does not necessitate returning favours immediately in a typical oriented culture.

In view of the above, Barret (1991) argues that strong bonds propelled by teams are not threatened by injustice and these have less concerns for procedural and distributive justice. This is due to the fact that team oriented cultures foster harmony, togetherness, cooperation, commitment, friendship and mutual interdependence where procedures become secondary with

a key emphasis to interactions among teammates geared at performing tasks and solving problems. The fact that organisational culture in form of norms, values and aspirations influences the perceptions of individual employees with respect to justice, fairness and reasonableness in the organisation means that it shapes the performance outcomes, behaviours and interactions among employees which is relevant in promoting organisational citizenship behaviours. This leads to the inference that organisational culture is significantly related to organisational justice.

2.8: The Relationship between Organisational Leadership and Organisational Justice

Javidan (2019) shows that whenever employees perceive that leaders are fair and demonstrate benevolent intentions, they are inferred as being committed to them and high quality exchange results arise which are reflected in performance. The leaders' behaviours are shaped in most cases by internal cultural norms and shared values, practices including organisational aspirations (Schein, 1990). Consequently, leaders' behaviours and management practices tend to reflect behaviour patterns favoured by a given culture as well as following the footsteps and the aspirations of original founders to align their activities with the vision of the founders. This is also seen in the dominant cultural norms which induce leadership behaviours patterns and organisational practices that are viewed as legitimate in creating trust among members.

The leaders shape and modify the working environment to provide greater opportunity for organisational citizenship behaviours in form of involving team mates in decision making, making positive comments on performance, becoming involved in closing performance anomalies and rewarding productive performance as well as stamping out counterproductive behaviours within the organisation (Schein, 1990). The leaders also change the structures of tasks, conditioning work outcomes and designing human resource practices that lead to desired performance outcomes. This shows that organisational leadership has an impact on employees' perception of the degree at which procedures are followed, decisions made affecting reward

systems including the level of interaction between leaders and the subordinates within the organisation.

The leaders define performance expectations, monitor performance and take sanction measures including but not limited to performance improvement plans, remedial measures, enacting strategies of improving performance, benchmarking of the organisation with the industry players in abide of influencing teams to excel per the defined targets.

In this aspect leadership is an art of influencing the direction of others to perform per the defined goals and missions of the organisation as well as motivating them to exceed expectations by giving good examples through involvement and commitment Javidan (2019).

Organisational leadership involves individuals within the organisation who take full command of making decisions regarding the future of others or who can single headedly decide the business model of their organisations like firms, institutions and companies. These individuals are leaders and they are distinguished from managers who are charged with problem solving of the daily operations of the firm to achieve the set objectives which are always specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time bound (Budur, 2019).

In addition, there are different schools of thought explaining leadership in influencing organisational justice. That is, leadership is a trait which is in born and the traits influences a person to implement and exhibit leadership behaviours of influencing others to achieve the vision of the organisation per the traits theory of leadership. This is in contrast with the behavioural theory which asserts that leaders interact with the environment to become effective, efficient and economical leaders who utilise resources in the best interest of the organisation (Demir & Budur, 2018).

Besides the theories, a leader who imparts justice in the organisation must be versatile, knowledgeable, assertive, innovative, market oriented and inventive so as to make the organisation competitive and survive in the market when subjected to environmental dynamics. A leader with these qualities encourages others and is followed by the team in pursuit of success (Budur, 2019). Alternatively, organisational leadership empowers leaders with knowledge strength and authority to improve the organisational environment by involving work teams in decision making, modifications and solving any identified gaps to show the direction of success to the team in terms of strategy improvement, refinement and evaluation for better performance.

In addition, leaders influence their teams to become cooperative for the purpose of organisational success in the work place. This implies that organisational leadership is related with organisational justice in terms of influencing, motivating, cooperating, involvement of team members in decision making, controlling of resources and implementing innovations for the achievement of the goals and vision of the organisation which leads to organisational justice among stakeholders (Fry,2003).

Bayram (2019) argues that organisational leadership enforces organisational justice whenever leaders meet stakeholder expectations entrenched in profitability, customer retention, social impacts as well as compliance with the laws and regulations affecting the organisation as prescribed by the external environment. In contrast, organisations whose leaders behaviours are non-compliant with the regulatory requirements create injustice among stakeholders whenever penalties of non-compliance are enforced against the organisation. The leaders are therefore obliged to be cognisant and assertive with the external environment to enforce justice within the organisations. Based on the stakeholder view, leadership is not only associated with the top positions in the organisation but it involves every individual making a contribution to the goals and objectives of the organisation (Toor & Ofori, 2009).

Furthermore, the leaders can use their positive leadership attributes of character, honesty, integrity, altruism, trustworthiness to control teams coupled with increasing the operational environment of the organisation to attain organisational justice. The desirable attributes of leadership can be explained in the transformational theory of leadership as postulated by James MacGregor (Burns, 1978).

The transformational theory divides leadership into two extremes of transformational and transactional leadership (Budur & Poturak, 2020). Transactional leadership involves an exchange where a leader serves a group of people to get something in return. This type of leadership is common in political governments politics where a leader serves voters with the expectation of getting votes in return (Bass,1999). The transactional leadership can be implied in organisations where leaders develop reward systems for employees working extra hours above the required hours to motivate them with overtime payments.

The transactional leadership is however distinguished from transformational leadership in terms of the effects on employee motivation and development (Bass,1999). Transformational leadership involves developing teams to become leaders in their work place. The leader inspires the team to focus beyond the organisational goals and objectives to market sustainability and development amidst business and market competitiveness. The leaders teach teammates management and leadership skills, empower the teams to become involved in organisational tasks by delegating authority, succession planning and business continuity. These leaders possess charismatic qualities of influencing all employees to become entangled in organisational activities for the collective good of the organisation. Tajeddine (2015) shows that transformational leaders have the vision of the organisation at their heart which they teach to team members and empowers them to become leaders by teaching them leadership skills using their knowledge and experience. These leaders are flexible in modifying and upgrading the working environment to motivate employees in getting involved in organisational tasks.

The flexibility of these leaders promotes interactional justice as the leaders become involved with teammates in decision making as well as encouraging team mates to take on roles in the administrative hierarchy beyond their levels (Demir & Budur ,2019).

Furthermore, the theory of transformational leadership shows that transformational leaders encourage talent and hard work which evokes team mates to utilise organisational resources efficiently and effectively in order to achieve organisational goals (Budur & Poturak, 2020). The utilisation of resources in line with value for money in terms of economy, efficiency and effectiveness results in employees excelling in their responsibilities leading to the development of organisational citizenship behaviours. The transformational leaders also encourage talent development by enacting proactive decisions to address existing problems, creative in providing solutions by thinking outside the expected norm, resilience to external and internal performance shocks making the organisations adaptable to business dynamics in the industry which are propelled by economic, social, political, technological and legal requirements as well as the internal strengths and weaknesses of a given organisation (Demir & Budur ,2019).

In view of the above, there exists another school of thought which explains leadership as a basis for attaining justice in organisations. This is the ethical leadership theory which describes leaders as individuals making decisions within the organisation based on the ethics which exceed the legal requirements provided by the laws. This form of leadership is explained by the theory of morality which prescribes the choices of an individual to decide what is right or wrong based on acceptable moral principles. The leaders following the ethical code of conduct and morality are effective in making decisions which are acceptable by the stakeholders as reasonable, fair and just Tajeddine (2015). The leaders exhibiting morality in decision making promote responsibility and accountability for actions and their actions influence the behaviours of teammates or rather subordinates more than the words spoken to the extent that work cohesion is promoted as shown by friendship, professionalism, cooperation, integrity,

development of professional competences, objectivity and confidentiality for organisational information as drivers of organisational justice. Therefore, a significant relationship exists between organisational leadership and organisational justice.

2.9: The relationship between Organisational Structure and Organisational Justice

Organisations are social entities constituted to achieve specific objectives and operating in coordination with the external environment as open systems. They are characterised by two major dimensions involving structure and contextual dimensions (Draft, 2015). The structure dimension constitutes formalisation level, specialisation level and centralisation level. The centralisation level refers to the inverse of the amount of delegation of decision making authority throughout the organisation as well as the participation of organisational members in decision making (Jaworski & Kohil, 1993). The level of centralisation is related to the hierarchical levels in the organisation at which decisions are made. The circumstances where the power of decision making is placed at the top level of the organisation infers a higher level of centralisation. In a highly centralised organisation, decision making is centralised at the upper levels involving the executive management and board of directors. This is contrasted with a decentralised organisation where decision making is delegated to the lower levels of management which empowers employees with discretionary powers to make personal decisions in the interest of the organisation.

Thibaut & Walker (1978) shows that employee participation in the decision making process makes them to be responsible and accountable for decisions made as well as making them develop fair perceptions of the decision making process in the organisation leading to procedural justice. Similarly, whenever employees are empowered to make decisions which represent their interests in the organisation they are strengthened about their perceptions of the processes and procedures as being just, fair and reasonable for the employer employee relationship to flourish.

Based on the fact that delegation represents a decentralised organisation structure means that perceived fairness of justice is high as compared to decentralised structures where decision making is authorised by a few individuals within the organisation.

In addition, Jaworski & Kohil (1993) defines organisational formalisation as the degree to which rules define roles, authority relations, communications, norms, sanctions and procedures. Formalisation is viewed as the level at which an organisation precisely describes the stated rules and procedures pertaining to the job requirements including the key results areas of the expected performance. These rules and procedures defines what is done, the frequency of doing a task and the boundaries and limitations associated with the task. The procedures prevent arbitrary decision making as each and every person in the organisation is orientated with the rules and norms defining the expected behaviours. In a highly formalised structure, employees' perceptions of fairness are attained as every employee is believed to be treated equitably because the rewards for desirable performance and sanctions for counterproductive behaviours are defined. Fredrickson (1986) adds that when employees recognise that organisations have highly formalised structures they consider themselves as being treated fairly. In a highly formalised organisation everyone is subjected to the same rules and treated equitably under the same circumstances. In light of these circumstances, it can be expected that high levels of organisational formalisation results into a high levels of perceived justice in the organisation.

Alternatively, an organisational structure is a system that outlines how activities are directed in order to achieve the goals of an organisation. The structure can be viewed from the organisational reporting lines and the actual performance of decisions with regard to supervision and approval of decisions in the pursuance of defined objectives Fredrickson (1986) The structure can be grouped and organised by functions where specialisation and division labour is emphasized to promote efficiency, effectiveness and economisation of

resources. The functions can range from finance, human resource, operations, business development among others. The grouped functions can promote interactional justice among themselves sharing information to achieve functional tasks as a team.

In this regard, a function structure promotes interactional justice where communication of tasks is done on a daily basis coupled with functional supervision and appraisals. The structure promotes team work and risk management of mitigating functional gaps from materialising into loss positions. This is coupled with encouraging commitment, engagement and organisational citizenship behaviours where employees master functional tasks and are able to help team mates to fulfil tasks (Demir,2011).

The draw backs of a function structure are modified by using a matrix structure where the functional groupings are interlinked in terms of reporting to achieve higher goals beyond individual functional units. Howard (2019) shows that the matrix structure promotes inter functional cooperation and communication and suitable for functions with closer specialities where monitoring and supervision becomes easy.

In addition, (Demir,2011) shows that organisations have the liberty to structure their tasks based on their objectives. This can be shown in small organisations with a limited number of employees structuring performance tasks using a team based structure where performance tasks are based on the competences of teams to perform with less focus on functional specialities. The teams can be both vertical and horizontal with supervisions shaping their performance and featured with flexibility and dynamism to align with the environmental requirements.

The organisations can also be structured as a network where business functions are monitored using the information technology units to coordinate and carry out external relations using electronic means. The network structure is cost effective and efficient in meeting organisational goals with the exception that not all individual functions can be monitored remotely using

electronic devices as human reasoning and decision making is paramount Howard (2019). In other words, any given structure affects employees perceptions of justice.

The matrix structure is complex for employees to comprehend its application, the team based structure is suitable for small organisations with limited number of individuals and the network structure though cost effective is unsuitable in a highly labour intensive technology organisation rather than capital intensive technology.

Furthermore, studies on organisational justice being predicted by the organisational structure predominantly recognises three forms of organisational justice. These include distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice (Childs, 2019). Distributive justice refers to the employees fairness perceptions about distribution of outcomes. Procedural justice referred to as an employees perceptions of fairness of the processes that lead to those outcomes and interactional justice referring to the interpersonal treatment individuals receive as procedures are enacted and is most reflected to the quality of the relationships between the supervisor and the subordinates (Greenberg, 1990). Although it is discussed that organisational justice is represented by the three factors as drivers, a four factor structure is represented where interactional justice is splinted into the two dimensions of interpersonal and informational justice. Informational justice is conceptualised as the fairness of explanations and information provided to the people who are influenced by the distribution decisions whereas interpersonal justice defines as the interpersonal treatment provided during the enactment of procedures and distribution of outcomes. The structure determines organisational justice in form the strategy taken to implement the tasks, the extent by which the targets are monitored on a daily basis and the rate at which the identified gaps are rectified on a daily basis so that the summative performance expectations are not a surprise to the team members. The employees are therefore able to follow and track their performance based on the strategies implemented and are able to

advise and contribute to the decision making affecting organisational performance which results into organisational justice.

According to Samuel (2019), the structure of the organisation has less impact on the employee perceptions of justice because it is already defined for employees to fit in pursuant to their job requirements and responsibilities. The implementation of the structure in terms of allocating work tasks and rewarding individuals output from the tasks is what brings justice or injustice. Therefore, there is rather a low or insignificant relationship between organisational structure and organisational justice. This assertion underscores the ingredients of the organisational structure in terms of composition, individuals involved in the structure, leadership styles by only looking at the composition of the organisation as a whole irrespective of the different job tasks and performance evaluations.

The organisational structure is accompanied with authority, delegation, decision making and sanction for breaches. The structure where sanctions to subordinates is at supervisor level is featured with justice as the decisions are expedited and solutions formulated without recourse to the higher authorities. This improves perceptions of justice among employees due to the interactional intensity (Elijah, 2019). This is also attributed to formalisation of structures where expectations are defined, output streamlined and work requirements and evaluation criteria defined by the employer to the employees.

In view of the above, the presumption that organisational structure is related to organisational performance holds where the supervision, decision making and evaluation are streamlined, defined and used in performance evaluation so that the employees perceive equity rather than equality in the relationship.

2.10: The relationship between OCB and Organisational Justice

Organisations are an essential element of society because they contribute to society by utilising the individual employees as their human resource assets. The organisations which treat employees fairly in terms of improving the working environment which favours employees stay influences the rate of organisational citizenship behaviours growth and development among employees (Bengre,1998). On this note, literature of organisational behaviour shows that responsibility, commitment, bravery and accountability are key to the success of an organisation in the contemporary business environment.

Accordingly, organisational citizenship behaviour involves self-motivation and awareness of the individual employee to perform beyond the existing job requirements. These behaviours are not determined by the formal reward and evaluation systems although they promote organisational functionality and success. The behaviours have a less link with the job requirement as they involve personal choice and once not exhibited there is no punishment to this effect.

Blakely (2005), shows that whenever employees have a positive perception of their supervisors fair behaviours towards them, the possibility of organisational citizenship behaviour increases. This is notwithstanding that, subordinates with high perceptions of organisational justice show a greater tendency of involvement and participation as well as avoiding anti-social behaviours which are counterproductive to organisational success. The positive working perceptions enable the employees to share work, cooperate with fellow work mates, supporting each other to meet timely deadlines as well as performing work beyond the defined expectations by the organisation.

Smith (1983) suggests that organisational citizenship behaviours is a two factor construct consisting of altruism and generalised compliance. The behaviours of altruism include the direct and intentionally helping behaviours done to help other at work as a personal initiative.

This can take the form of orientating new individuals at the work place so that they are able to feel welcomed and fit in the organisation or assisting others to finish their work load on time so that the entire organisation meets the defined timelines. The concept of altruism is distinguished from generalised compliance which involves helping other employees who are involved in the defined organisational process to follow the policies and procedures in place. This can take the form of advising fellow employees to be punctual at work, finishing work assignments and submitting on time, reviewing of the processes to identify gaps and correcting them so that all employees are aware of the existing policies and procedures. This form of compliance improves perceptions of procedural justice at the work place leading to organisational justice. In this aspect, the employee behaviours influence the implementation of rules which improves the working environment for all employees.

According to Orgun (1988), organisational citizenship behaviours have five constructs which are comprised of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship. In other words, altruism refers to voluntary behaviours which are aimed at helping a specific person within the organisation to solve a task or problem. This can for instance involve showing and explaining a given formula used to solve a given task, showing a new employee how a given machine is operated as well as showing a new employee the different offices of other employees in the organisation. Altruism therefore leads to organisational justice as employees feel secure with a friendly working environment where fellow individuals are willing to help each other with work tasks.

Although altruism is a voluntary behaviour used to help other employees to perform and accomplish a specific task, its exhibition is largely dependent on the personality of the individual employee to intermingle and interact with others so as to achieve organisational goals. The altruism is followed by courtesy as a proactive behaviour which ensures that little or no potential problems and conflicts are aroused among workmates to breed animosity,

conflicts and injustice among employees. This can be achieved by employees engaging in professional conducts coupled with respect towards each other, use of professional language coupled with formal communication which furthers brotherhood, love and respect (Purvanova, 2006).

There are exists sportsmanship behaviours under organisational citizenship behaviours which involves tolerating inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining and exaggeration of the problems as being beyond the expected norm. The employee can tolerate the inconvenience and works normally without complaining or procrastinating and this example gives the others the challenge of remaining calm amidst challenges which is a source of justice to the rest and the entire organisation as a whole. The sportsmanship behaviours are supportive, team oriented and rejoices collectively in decision making as the whole becomes paramount than the individual. In other words, such behaviours are forward looking at the organisations sustenance than focusing on the individual employee.

Morrison (2019) adds that the conscientiousness of the individual employees adds on the sportsmanship sprit exhibited at work. In this aspect, conscientiousness refers to the behaviours that goes beyond the minimum requirements in the organisation. This can involve for instance punctuality, conserving organisational assets, attendance of meetings on time and calling colleagues to participate in daily requirements in form of polite reminders as a form improving the working relations among each other.

In addition, Purvanova (2006) shows that organisational citizenship behaviours are featured with civic virtues. The civic virtues refer to the voluntary participation in the political process of the organisation to enforce its objectives. The participation is not compulsory but the individual finds it very important that the participation furthers the interests of the organisation and binds the employees together as a single family. This can be shown in instances like

responding to email communications as a way of contributing ideas in form of solutions for the betterment of the working environment, performing informal training sessions on a given subject matter so as to sensitizes colleagues on emerging issues in the environment, advising members to exercise their employee rights within a reasonable manner subject to limitations as well as sensitising members on the need for respect of the employer, fellow employee and other stakeholders connected to the environment. The civic virtues once exhibited in a Working environment makes the individual employee a role model as an advocate of justice which influences the organisation to do justice. That is to say, once the employee does justice to the organisation, the organisation is also bound to exercise justice due to the fact that employees exhibiting organisational citizenship behaviours minimise costs at the work place and it becomes very costly for the organisation to disregard justice which creates harmony and brotherhood among employees (Morrison,2019). Therefore, a duo model of justice exists between the employee and the organisation with each reciprocating into the behaviours orchestrated by organisational citizenship behaviours as drivers of organisational justice. This model is however, limited by the fact that not all employees who exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours can influence the organisation justice as this depends on the level or position which the employee holds in the organisation. An employee at the apex of the organisation who exhibits organisational citizenship behaviours is more likely to influence the organisation to implement organisational justice unlike an employee at the entry level whose actions are more noticed by colleagues within the functional sections than at the entire organisational level. Similarly, employees can exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours within hidden motives. This is on the notion that it is hard to predict the behaviours or intentions of an individual unless the behaviours are consistent over time and the employees explicitly states the intention for the behaviours (Morrison,2019). There are also instances where organisational citizenship behaviours are expressed by individuals but the entire organisation

disregards them leading to injustice. This means that organisational citizenship behaviour is inconclusive in leading to organisational justice. There needs to be other factors for instance the personality of the employees, the working environment, the team spirit of members, the reward systems, the sanctions for counterproductive behaviours as well as the aspirations of the organisational leaders impact on the organisational justice.

Besides the limitations, organisational citizenship behaviour is important in influencing the operations of the company in terms of lowering the costs associated with supervising and enforcing employees to comply with rules, enforcing accountability for the responsibilities per the defined job requirements, verification of performance in line the set rules as well evoking voluntary compliance with the norms and values of the organisation which are critical in organisational success. This means that organisational citizenship behaviour has a direct relationship with organisational justice notwithstanding the draw backs and limitations.

2.11: The Mediation effects of OCB on Contextual Factors and Organisational Justice

The conceptual influences include events, experiences and relationships which provide the background for explaining the phenomenon. In a workplace setting personal factors of age, gender, education and work inherent factors of supervision, management styles and leadership influence the perceptions of employee justice in terms rewards received from the inputs provided, the degree at which procedures are implemented as well as the interactions among employees which aims at furthering the interest of the organisation (Lent, 2013).

Brown & Hackett (2000), uses the social cognitive theory to aver that the contextual antecedents provide a background influence and shapes ones decision, plans and implementation of an individuals career goals within the organisation. The background is in terms of society norms, gender, socialisation, major significant social events as well as role models. Similarly, the background includes internal influences such as an individual network support, experience, education, religion and ethnicity contributing to the degree of goal achievement, success and perceptions of justice.

The contextual factors are relevant in influencing individuals to use helping behaviours to do good things like serving others or looking good before others in a bid of serving themselves. Based on this presumption, employees with encouraging and ethically conscious leaders more often help others for the others sake as compared to employees in political environments which are featured with unfair systems and unpleasant work environments. These employees tend to help others in order to gain social esteem for themselves (Joireman,2006).

Consequently, non-mandatory employee helping behaviours literally known as organisational citizenship behaviours are critical to a health organisation functioning (Koys,2011) organisational citizenship behaviours enhances co-workers and managerial productivity and strengthens the organisations ability to attract and retain the best employees.

In other words, Organisational citizenship behaviour is traditionally assumed to reflect a positive prosocial orientation towards ones co-workers or the company. This is true because Organisational citizenship behaviour is associated with other serving traits and values such as the prosocial personality, others orientations and empathy (Penner, 1997).

However, Organisational citizenship behaviour may not always be driven by positive and other serving motivations. Bolino (1999) postulates that employees can be divided into other serving or good soldiers and self-serving or good actors. The good soldiers use Organisational citizenship behaviour out of a desire to be helpful and build positive relations or personal values and which creates pride and commitment to the organisation literally known as organisational concerns. These behaviours are contrasted with employees who are good actors and these use Organisational citizenship behaviour for impression management involving looking good as well as achieving personal and material social rewards. The use of Organisational citizenship behaviour to achieve personal goals does not totally underrate the motives of Organisational citizenship behaviour which includes honesty and humility where employees engage in Organisational citizenship behaviour for self-serving motives. That is, people of low honesty are more likely to engage in fraudulent activities with the organisation as compared to those who are morally upright and profess integrity (Lee, 2003). The motives are likely to affect the amount and quality of Organisational citizenship behaviour which is explicit in the outward behaviours displayed towards fellow employees at the work place.

Furthermore, Organisational citizenship behaviour is driven by personality factors, that is individuals with high agreeableness are generally more gentle and willing to cooperate with others which corresponds to a prosocial personality. Similarly, those individuals with a personality of conscientiousness tend to be dependable, hardworking and preserving of the organisational goals (Graziano & Eisenberg,1997). This assertion is distinguished from self-serving individuals who manipulate others, are insecure and greedy and can help and support

others with a motive of deception. The variations in motives behind Organisational citizenship behaviour means that, Organisational citizenship behaviour per say is not an expression of underlying personality traits.

Bolino (1999) shows that beyond personality, Organisational citizenship behaviour motives can be influenced by workplace contexts and employee attitudes. The context can include leadership and work place politics as these particular factors have a linkage with the degree of work relationships in organisations and the development of Organisational citizenship behaviour. The contextual factors are relevant because they can be modified or rather changed to influence the direction of the work place and shape the employees perceptions of justice and injustice in the work place. This is notwithstanding the fact that the contextual factors are separate and have specific influence on Organisational citizenship behaviour, the context as a whole adds to the degree of the growth and development of Organisational citizenship behaviour among employees beyond the personality factors.

The context can be featured in the leadership style which is consistent with the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977). The leadership plays a key role in driving Organisational citizenship behaviour for different motives. The social learning theory indicates that individuals look at their leaders as role models of appropriate behaviour (Trevino, 1986). The individual employees look at the leaders for cues for behaviours that are rewarded or punished as an influence of good soldier or self-serving behaviours among employees.

There are three major forms of leadership of which transformational leadership is characterised by the leader motivating workers to grow and develop the shared vision of the organisation. Transformational leaders lead to a positive exchange environment where the common interests and goals of the organisation are paramount. In otherworld's, such leaders are likely to motivate the development of organisational citizenship behaviours for each individual employee to be

aligned with shared values and objectives of the organisation. This is manifested into helping co-workers as part of pro social motives and values. The transformational leaders act as mentors and coaches for the subordinates (Bass,2003). The limitation with transformational leadership is to the effect that employees are likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviours for the purpose of being noticed by the leaders as part of recognition and rewards.

On the other hand, the transactional leaders are comprised of those giving contingent rewards based contingences and active management by exceptions. The leaders are concerned with accountability and rewarding of desired behaviours exhibited by employees (Bass, 2003). These leaders are likely to foster positive exchange relationships with employees and their leadership style is positively related with organisational citizenship behaviours. The recognition and rewarding of exceptional behaviours by leaders influences employees to do good in the organisation as they avoid circumstances likely to result into punishments.

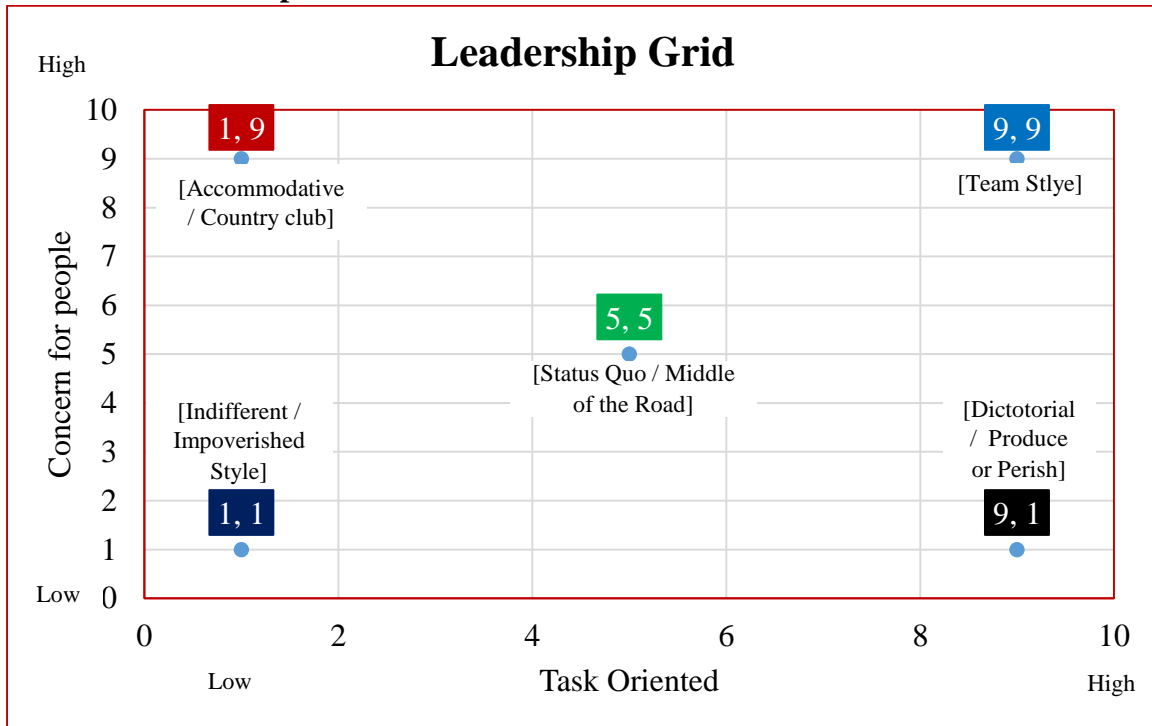
Although both the transformational leaders and ethical leaders show concern for prosocial behaviours, the ethical leaders are more likely to promote and reinforce justice (Brown & Trevino, 2006). In this aspect, it is presumed that ethical leadership is positively related with organisational citizenship behaviours in terms of organisational concerns and motivates as employees are likely to reciprocate positive behaviours in the work place.

Alternatively, the ethical leaders enforce ethical behaviours and set clear standards, they are also likely to disapprove and even potentially punish acts of deception. This makes employees perceive such behaviours as being risky and potentially counterproductive in the presence of an ethical leader with less or no element of organisational citizenship behaviours for impression management.

In addition, there are political leaders at the work place, these are leaders whose behaviours are featured with treachery, inequity and deception which is used to influence subordinates to pursue selfish interests at the detriment of organisational goals. These leaders use informal relationships to seek for cheap popularity within certain groups of employees against the others. This in turn makes work to use opportunistic behaviours to garner social and material rewards (Ferris, 1989). Accordingly, the moment employees notice leaders as being political in decision making, they are influenced to withhold helping behaviours. Therefore, high perceptions of politics at the work place which is propelled by leaders is associated with decreased organisational citizenship behaviours.

Bowman (1999) adds that an environment featured with politics reflects an environment which decreases both the prosocial values and organisational concern motives, but impression management is correlated with politics and political leadership which increases organisational citizenship behaviours. In general terms, a workplace featured with politics is associated with favouritism, nepotism, corruption and deception without regard to ethics, procedures and professionalism. The employees can opt to impress supervisors and co-workers and gain over competitors in the relationship which decrease organisational citizenship behaviours and increases perceptions of injustice among employees.

2.12: The Leadership Grid



Source: Robert, R. Blake & Jane Mouton, (1964)

The Leadership Grid shows the leadership styles exhibited by a leader in influencing the team to attain organisational goals and objectives. The indifferent leadership style involves evasion and elution which implies less concern for both the people or employees and production or rather organisational objectives. The purpose of using this leadership style is to preserve job security and avoiding conflicts with staff. However, the indifferent leadership style stifles creativity and innovation which propels organisational injustice stemming from the persistent failure in meeting organisational goals and objectives (Mckee & Carlson, 1999). The leader should be demoted so that he or she learns the importance of production and employees in an organisation.

Similarly, the accommodative leadership style has a higher concern for people and less concern for production or organisational goals and objectives. The leader uses this style to solicit for popularity and friendliness at the expense of organisational objectives reflected in production requirements.

Mckee & Carlson, (1999), observes that this leadership style demotivates staff in developing and implementing activities beyond their contractual obligations. Therefore, employees are less likely to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours with an accommodative leader who is less cognisant with organisational performance outcomes. The leader makes employees to develop perceptions of procedural injustice as procedures leading to performance evaluation and rewards are less emphasized by focusing more on employee desires. Therefore, organisations cannot survive in the market with such leaders and for shareholders once these attributes are noticed in the Chief Executive Officer, he or she ought to be fired in the interest of stakeholders while following the procedural requirements of contract termination.

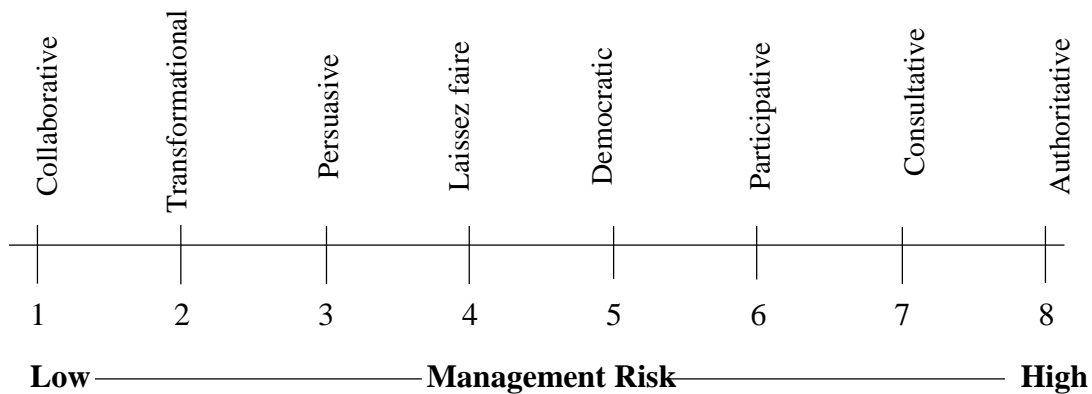
The status quo leadership style provides a concern for people and concern for production. This leadership style assumes that employees are self-motivated to perform with less supervision. These presumptions are based on **Theory Y developed by McGregor**. The use of this theory is important but less competitive as average production is obtained without exceeding the best performers in the market. The employees who are desirous of performing beyond their contractual provisions are discouraged as leaders are comfortable with average performance. The best alternative is to offer refresher trainings to leaders to appreciate the business dynamics which are more likely to wipe out average performance. These dynamics include technological drivers, business cycles, legal requirements and society norms which change over time making the average performers less competitive in the market. The status quo is in contrast with the dictatorial or autocratic leadership style which is concerned with production more than people. This is based on the assumptions of **Theory X** developed by McGregor which gives importance to supervision of employees, external rewards and penalties for non-performance. The theory infers that employees dislike work and have to be coerced by leaders in form of threats, sanctions and punishments (Avolio, 2007). These leaders make employees to develop negative perceptions relating to procedures resulting into organisational injustice as they deploy typical

capitalistic tendencies of profit maximisation irrespective of the means. These leaders can reform the styles so that there is a fair balancing of the concern for production and people.

Alternatively, there is the team style of leadership which emphasises the optimisation of production and employee concerns. This leadership style can be explained by Theory Z developed by Abraham Maslow. This recognises an optimal management style which cultivates worker's creativity, insights, enlightened team work and commitment. The theory focuses on the wellbeing of employees both at work and after work. On this note, other proponents of the theory like Ouchi notes that the theory promotes stable employment, high productivity, employee morale, worker creativity and insight. The leader is involved and works closely with the team by solving problems proactively rather than waiting for feedback from the subordinates (Avolio, 2007). The team mates in turn support the leader in developing courses of action which are aimed at meeting the objectives of the organisation leading to employee commitment and organisational justice.

The behavioural outcomes for a leader exhibiting both the concern for production and the concern for the team includes initiative which involves taking action, driving and supporting others in accomplishing tasks, inquiry involving a questioning mind, researching, verifying and examining the circumstances prior to decision making, advocacy involving the expression of convictions and championing of ideas, decision making involving the evaluation of resources, choices and consequences emanating from the choices before making them, conflict resolution involving confrontation and resolution of disagreements, resilience which involves dealing with problems, setbacks and failures as well as critiquing by delivering objectives, candid and feedback.

2.13: Management Continuum



Source: Douglas McGregor: Theory X and Y of Management.

The management continuum shows the degree of freedom given by a manager to the subordinate whose reciprocity affects the type of management style used in the accomplishment of tasks. The management continuum is to the effect that, the more the freedom given the less the management risk and the lower the freedom the more the management risk. Management risk refers the likelihood or probability of achieving output which is less than the targeted level of output due to resentment, retaliation and revocation of energy by staff (Barry, 1991).

In a collaborative management style, the manager gives freedom to employees to make decisions of which any given decision reached is made by the majority over the minority. The style is featured with extensive communication, team work and consultations. This management approach is limited by time constraints where every team member is consulted and besides consultation, a majority decision may not be the best decision therefore a manager ought to take charge of the decisions made in terms of guiding the team as well as being responsible and accountable for the outcomes of the decisions made.

The transformational management style involves managers influencing teammates to work beyond their self-interests by identifying needed changes through inspiration, maturity and ideas as well as having the concern for the achievement of tasks beyond the expected outcomes. The manager gives authority and autonomy to subordinates to perform tasks resulting into motivation, morale, satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviours as well as organisational justice.

The persuasive manager makes all decisions for the team mates but goes ahead to convince them on the basis of decision making being in their best interest. This increases team work, trust and accountability for the decisions.

A laissez faire management style is applicable for highly skilled and specialised staff where hands off is done. The staff perform tasks based on their expertise, delegation is done with reporting of performance outcomes to the authority taking precedence. The challenge of this style is loss of direction where each staff can pursue their own direction contrary to the strategic direction of the organisation coupled with low production from uncooperative staff.

The democratic management style involves making decisions with the input of other employees so that a consensus is reached. The team owns the decision and the outcomes reflect the entire team. This management style is time consuming and procrastination of decision making is common with the management style.

The participative management style involves a manager trusting the employees and giving them complete autonomy. The opinions and ideas of the employees are taken together which results into engagement, efficiency and effectiveness in decision making.

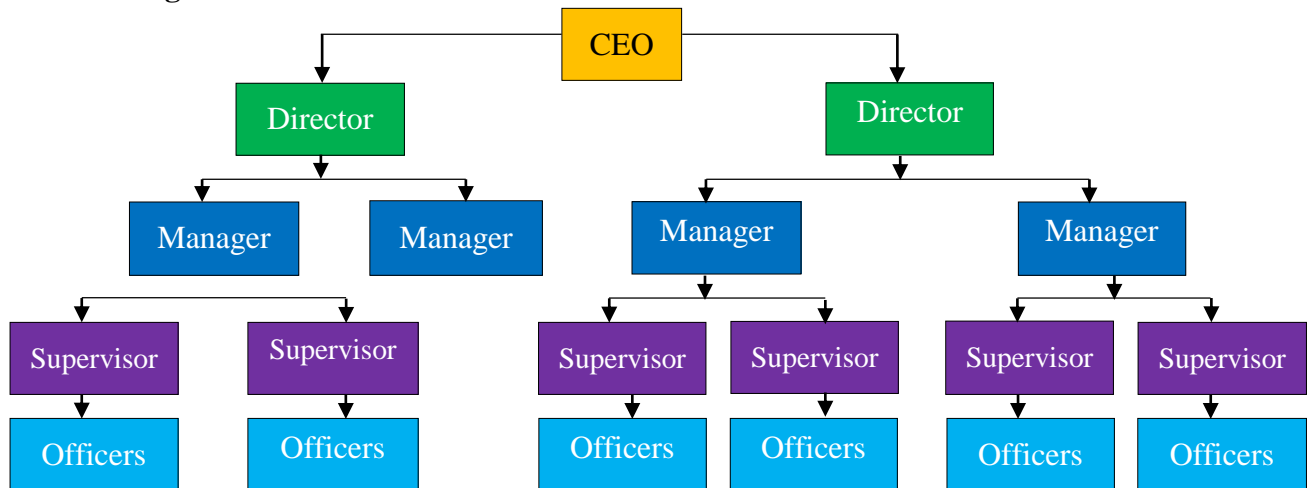
In a consultative style, trust and confidence is placed in the employees and management seeks out their opinions prior to decision making. The consultation creates loyalty, ownership and goal alignment with the corporate objectives. The final decisions are owned up by the entire

team, awareness and communication is fostered and organisational justice is attained due to commitment, awareness and involvement.

An authoritative management style involves the manager making decisions on behalf of the employees. The decisions are communicated from the top to the bottom, there is role clarity of which workers are directed to follow and employees contribute less or nothing to decision making. The style is fit for the unskilled and unmotivated staff who require supervision and direction on task performance.

In summary, the management continuum affects the level of employee perceptions of justice per Barry (1991). The perceptions relate to the degree of freedom given to subordinates to think and make decisions on their own as compared to the direct involvement of the manager in decision making including direct supervision.

2.14: Management Structure



Source: Donaldson: The Management Triangle of Structure, Strategy and Style

The concept of organisational structure is defined as the recurrent set of relationships between organisation members (Donaldson, 1996). The structure includes but not limited to power and reporting relationships such as those identified in organisational charts, behaviours required by organisational members, rules and patterns of decision making which are either centralised or decentralised including communication among members.

The structure encompasses both formal and informal relationships between members and the organisational structure per say is not a standalone concept but interacts with various factors to influence organisational performance. These factors include environmental change, organisational size, technology and organisational strategy.

Based on this analysis, organisational structure determines the strategy taken to realise the goals and objectives. The organisation can involve all members in decision making which is described as bottom to the top or rather decentralised decision making or decisions can be made by the top members and cascaded downwards to the team which is typical in centralised organisational structure.

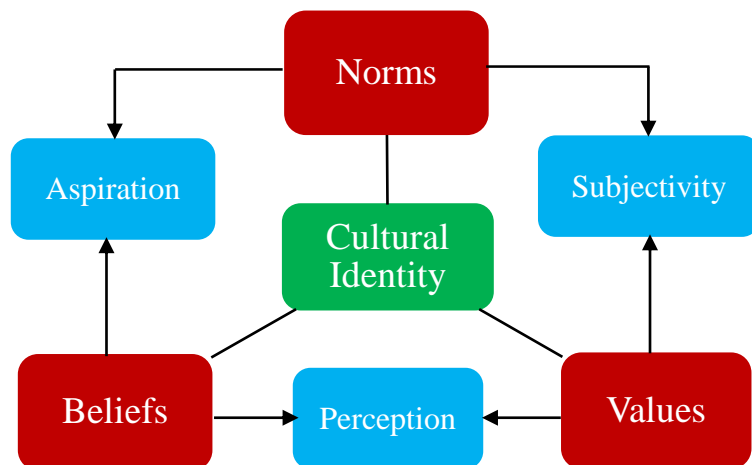
Slevin & Covin (1997) shows that there are two extremes of structuring organisations as a basis of realising their objectives. These are the mechanistic or inorganic and the organic structure. The mechanistic structure is featured with rigidity, tight and traditional bureaucracies, centralised powers, communication and rigid hierarchical channels. Similarly, managerial styles and job descriptions are uniform and formal rules and regulations predominate decisions making.

In contrast, the organic structures are characterised by flexible, loose, decentralised structures, formal lines of authority are less clear, power is decentralised, communication channels are open and more flexible and formal rules supplement informal rules so that employees become adaptable and acclimatised to the organisational goals and objectives.

Furthermore, Rahman & Zanzi (1995) shows that the structure adopted influence the performance outcomes of the organisation. However, in practice there are hybrid structure embracing both the mechanistic and organic structures and less research exists inferring the adoption of a single extreme.

According to Jennings & Seaman (1990), organisational structure affects organisational performance in terms of individual and team outcomes which affect the extent by which job satisfaction is attained by employees. The employees in decentralised structures are involved in decision making and participation in strategy setting, learning and innovations, supervision leading to desirable performance outcomes. This implies that, there exists a positive relationship between organisational structure and organisational justice most especially in a mechanistic organisational structure. The formal procedures suppress bias, create accuracy, retribution, reciprocity, representativeness and accountability. The rules standardise procedures leading to perceived and actual fairness in the organisation.

2.15: Cultural Identity



Source: Communication Theory of Identity.

Culture is defined as the attitudes, beliefs and perceptions of individuals in their workplace (Glorgin,2013). The most prominent component of culture in an organisation is the unconsciousness, implicit and informal environment. The culture in an organisation context includes standards, rules and practices which define a groups set up and consistency in using informal rules for decision making.

A given culture is relevant in motivating employees to defend it in form of performance excellence provided the culture is secure, competitive and performance oriented thereby evoking identification.

Alternatively, organisational culture defines the common set of values and beliefs that are shared by members of an organisation and these values influence the extent of people's perceptions, thinking and actions (Schein, 1992). This implies that culture is a basic set of assumptions that guide an organisations social relationships which are moderated by the unspoken socialisation process taken for granted by members. This value system of culture is used as a reference by members in decision making while executing performance requirements. Moreover, Burns (1978) shows that organisational performance is directly linked with organisational culture.

According to Hofstede (2001), culture is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others. In relation to organisations, culture distinguishes one organisation from the other where members identify with their organisation in contrast to the others. This identity is in form of perceptions, aspirations and subjective judgements. The cultural identity is in form of dressings, communication and interactions, materialism and managerial utility.

In addition, culture identity is a subset of communication theory of identity that establishes four frames of identity in form of personal frames, enactment of communication frame, relationship frame and communal frame (Kotter & Heskett, 1992).

Hecht (2004) shows that the communication theory of identity posits that individual internalise social interactions and a sense of self into identities and communication. In turn identity is expressed or enacted through communication. In other words, the relationship between communication and identity is reciprocal and therefore, communication helps to build, sustain and modify one's culture identity with a given organisation.

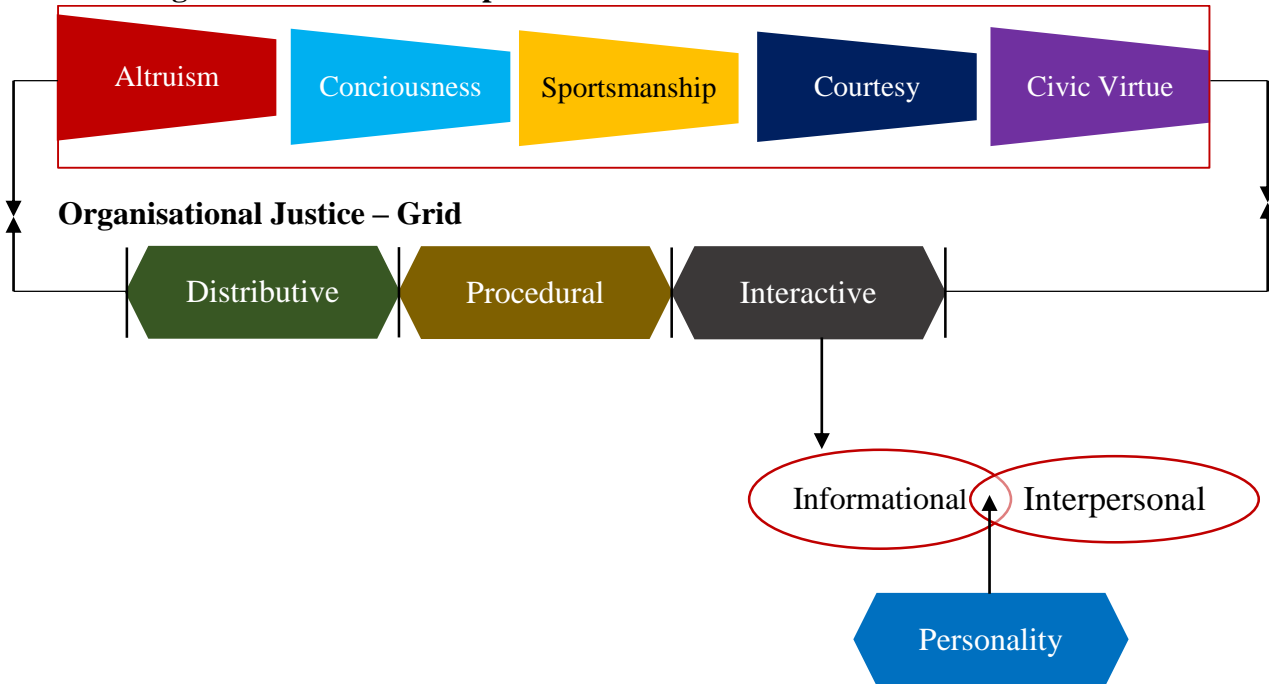
Festinger (1957) avers that the communication theory of identity conceptualises identity as a collective or group quality having a shared element. This means that as members in the group recognise or share a particular language, beliefs, norms and culture, they also share common images of selfhood or identity that transcend individual group members as reflected in cultural products and myths.

Alternatively, Hecht (2004) shows that the communication theory of identity has axiomatic propositions which include, identity have individual, social and communal properties, identities are both enduring and changing, identities are affective, cognitive, behavioural and spiritual, identities have both content and relationship levels of interpretation, identities involve both subjective and ascribed meaning, identities are codes that are expressed in conversations

and define membership in communities, identities have semantic properties that are expressed in core symbols, meaning and labels, identities prescribe modes of appropriate and effective communication, identities are a source of expectations and motivations as well as identities being emerging in nature and context.

In an organisational context, culture leads to identity with the given organisation and motivates members to develop and apply organisational citizenship behaviours at the work place leading to desired performance. The members can identify with the organisation either expressly through communication or implicitly using non-verbal communication as a reflection of cultural identity with the organisation.

2.16: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Grid



Source: Organisational Justice Theory, Social Information Processing Theory and Trust Theory.

The organisational justice theory focuses on perceptions of fairness in organisations by categorising employee’s views and feelings about their treatment and that of others within the organisation (Greenberg, 1987).

Organisational justice can be viewed into two dimensions of descriptive and normative. The descriptive dimension focuses on employees at work. In this aspect, an event is just or unjust because a person or persons believe it to be so. The dimension is subjective as it allows disagreements with respect to what is appropriate or inappropriate (Rousseau,1998). A comparative reference is used which acts as a yardstick in terms of norms, standards, rules or justice criteria whenever the event is perceived as unfair with reference the given criteria.

The normative dimension analyses organisational justice as referenced per the norm or standards of behaviours expected at the workplace which a reasonable person guided by fortitude can evaluate as being fair and just towards an employee.

There are three major categories of organisational justice, that is distributive, procedural and interactive. The distributive justice refers to perceptions about the outcomes of the decisions taken by the organisation which affects the employee. Homans (1961), posits that distributive justice involves perceptions about the process used to arrive at and to implement decisions which affects and leads to procedural justice and interactional justice.

Accordingly, distributive justice concerns perceptions of fairness arising from the organisations allocation of resources and outcomes. The employees can compare the inputs with the outputs of a given decision to evaluate the extent by which a decision is perceived as being fair or unfair. Adam (1965) proposed that feelings of inequity arises where the ratio of a person's outcomes in relation to their inputs from an exchange are perceived as disproportionate as a result of comparison with others.

Bies (2001) shows that procedural justice focuses on the processes, procedures and practices used to arrive at the allocation decision. Thus employee's perceptions that a supervisor conducted a fair appraisal leads to procedural justice perceptions

Similarly, interactional justice connotes individual evaluation of fairness via social and communication criteria. The employees evaluate themselves in terms of being treated by others. These social criteria are either interpersonal justice or informational justice. Interpersonal justice pertains to the dignity and respect with which people are treated. This interpersonal transaction leads to fairness, avoids personal mistreatment and refrains from unnecessary harshness, eschew and bigotry among others.

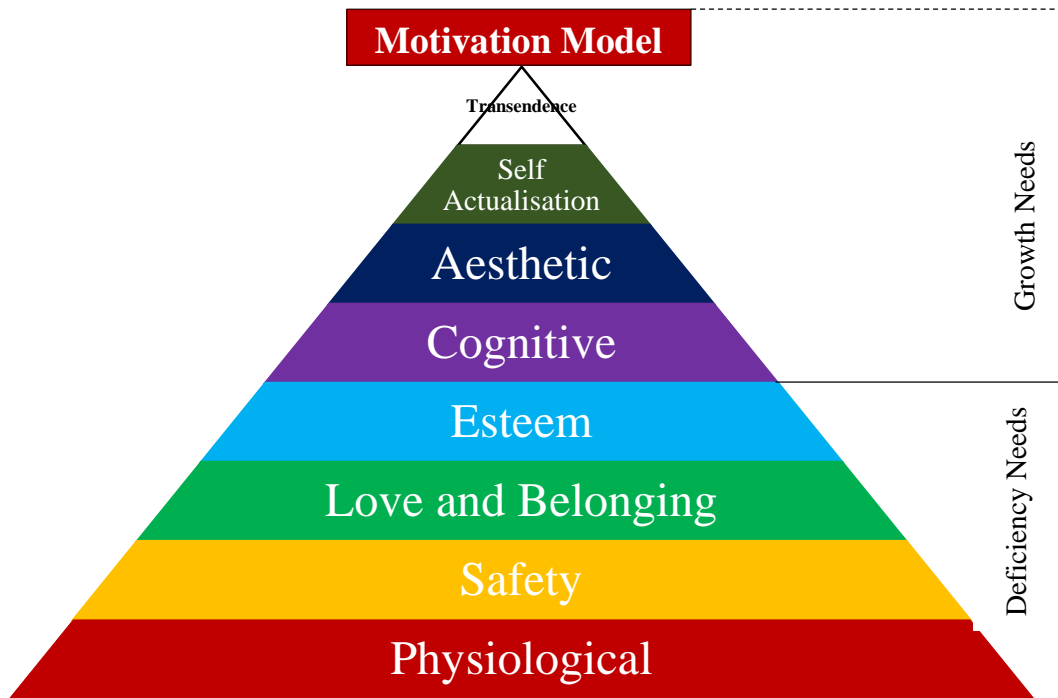
Informational justice on the other hand refers to the provision of relevant evidence and explanations most especially when things go wrong within the organisation (Rousseau,1998). In other words, the intersection of interpersonal and informational justice is defined by the personality of the individual being able to associate and copy with others at the work place.

According to the Social Information Processing Theory as posited by Salancik & Pfeffer (1978), individuals do not work in isolation from one another. On this note an employee engages in social interactions to make sense of the events that take place during their daily activities. The employees may form justice by simply modelling the behaviours of their co-workers. Consequently, as time goes by, justice perceptions of each member of the group are said to converge. In other words, if group members receive similar outcomes, are subjected to similar procedures and are treated in a similar fashion by the source of fairness for instance a supervisor, over time a shared judgement of justice emerges. Robertson (2006) adds that the more time spent in sense making actions, the higher the convergence of group members procedural and distributive justice perceptions.

Organisational justice is attained by the interactions of individuals with each other coupled by the treatment or actions of supervisors towards the employees in terms of allocation or distribution of resources based on the input leading to perceptions of distributive justice, the extent by which the procedures leading to a given decision are made in the organisation resulting into procedural justice as well as the degree of interaction among members collectively known as interactional justice.

Salancik & Pfeffer (1978) adds that the perceptions of justice and injustice in the work place affects the extent by which employees develop and apply voluntary behaviours in helping others at the work place. In other words, once justice permeates the work place organisational citizenship behaviours become eminent in organisational activities. The behaviours are in form altruism, consciousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtues among others. This leads to an inference that organisational citizenship behaviours have a positive and significant relationship with organisational justice.

2.17: The Hierarchy of Needs Model



Source: Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Pyramid (1943).

The perceptions of justice or injustice is influenced by several factors within and outside the organisation however, the innate curiosity to perceive a given fact as just or unjust can be explained using Maslow's Hierarchy of needs (Koltko, 2006).

The perceptions are psychological but evidenced in behaviours which explain the motivation for individuals or employees to initiate, continue or terminate a given behaviour in response to a stimulus. The motivation to act in a particular way entails the forces acting within a person or agent that creates a disposition to engage in a goal directed behaviour (Tay, 2011).

According to Maslow's theory of needs, humans take on behaviours in a continuum of deficiency needs to growth needs. The stage at which an individual has attained in life determines the extent of perception of a given circumstance. Thus for motivation to arise at the successive stage, the preceding stage must have been satisfied.

Although the stages are presumed to be hierarchical and defined in the order, scholars like Goebel (1981) avers that the stages tend to overlap each other and are invisible. Similarly, the lower level needs tend to take precedence over the upper needs as they are fundamental and integral to human nature compared to the higher needs which can be dispensed.

Alternatively, the hierarchy of needs shows the largest and most relevant needs being at the bottom and the needs for self-actualisation and transcendence at the apex.

The physiological needs at the base are biological and comprise human survival which must be met and protected before other needs are satisfied. These needs include, food, shelter and clothing. Maslow shows that an individual struggling to satisfy these needs is demotivated to seek for further needs of safety, belonging, esteem and self-actualisation.

The safety needs entails security of the individual in a given place or in an organisation. The safety needs are manifested in form of job security, grievance handling procedures aimed at protecting the individual rights and obligations, insurance and compensation in case of risk materialisation Goebel (1981). In case a person feels unsafe in the environment, they seek safety in a bid of meeting higher levels of survival. In the physical environment, individuals desist from living in areas of war, natural disasters, family violence and human rights abuses in pursuit of safety needs.

The third stage is of belongingness to a given social group whether small or large. The need for possession of a sense of belonging and acceptance within a social group is a key need for an individual's motivation and performance of a given activity. The groups include professional associations, clubs and work associates among others. In case of a deficiency in group acceptance in terms of neglect, shunning away and complete rejection can adversely affect the individuals ability to form and maintain emotional stability and can culminate into depression, cognitive dissonance, insomnia and madness Goebel (1981).

The social belonging needs can include family, friendship, intimacy, trust, acceptance, love and affection among others. Therefore, in an employer employee relationship, justice is formed when employees are acceptable and accepted by other employees in terms of developing voluntary behaviours of helping each other to achieve the goals and objectives of the organisation collectively known as organisational citizenship behaviours.

The esteem needs include respect and admiration of individuals as well as respect for others. This includes the need for status, religion, fame, prestige and attention (Jones, 2007). The extreme version of esteem includes the need for self-respect, strength, competence, mastery, self-confidence, independence and freedom. The esteem needs allow individuals to discover themselves as well as creating a good reputation in society.

In addition, the cognitive needs reflect the use of ones' brain to reason and make decisions with in the environment. These needs include creativity, foresight, curiosity and meaning (Mittelman, 1991). On this note, an individual who engages in actions that require deliberations and brainstorming have a greater need for cognition and cognitive needs to create meaning, information, comprehension and curiosity which creates the zeal for learning and attainment of knowledge. The cognitive needs include aesthetic needs which refers to the ability to appreciate the beauty within the world around one's self on a day to day basis as well as balancing the beauty with the rest of the body.

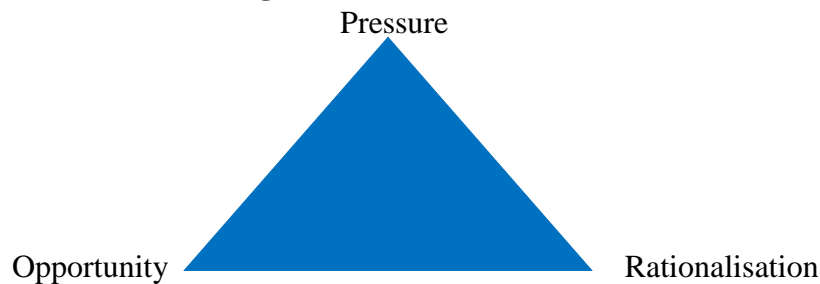
Mittelman (1991) shows that self-actualisation is coined in the phrase, what a man can be, he must be as a basis of the perceived need for self-actualisation. The stage of self-actualisation involves the realisation of one's full potential which Maslow describes as the desire to accomplish everything that one can become or rather the most that one can be. An individual must not only succeed in these needs but must accomplish the previous needs in the hierarchy.

Self-actualisation is explicit in behaviours displayed by the individual and includes developing talent and abilities, pursuing and achieving goals in life of parenting and partner acquisition among others.

Notwithstanding the previous stages, the transcendence needs are prospective to self-actualisation (Tay, 2011). Transcendence or spiritual needs involves feelings of empathy and integrity towards others and encompasses an individual giving one's self to others beyond the expectations for eternal rewards which are non-material but spiritual. This is featured with aspects in form of altruism, self-denial coupled with disinterested and selfless concern for the well-being of others above self-interests.

The theory of motivation is relevant in explaining organisational justice as employees perceptions of the justice and injustice is dependent on a given level of hierarchy (Tay, 2011), (Goebel, 1981). However, the theory is ineffective in its explanation because the levels cannot be ascertained with precision except being descriptive.

2.18: Fraud Triangle



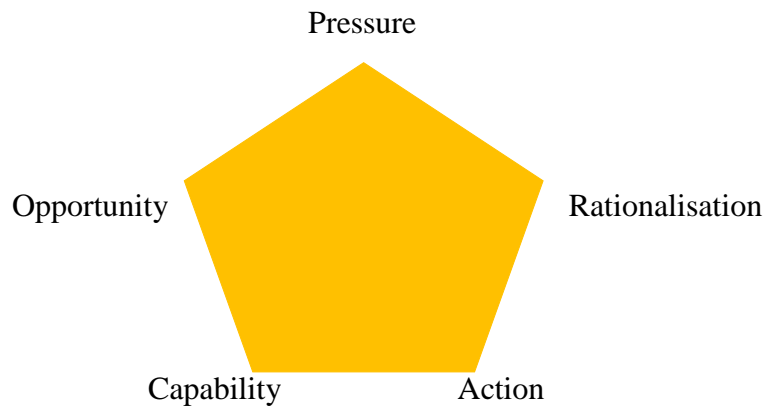
Source: Cressey (1953), Other People's Money.

The Fraud Triangle Theory explains why employees commit fraud most especially where they have perceptions of organisational injustice. Accordingly, fraud is actual fraud involving taking of property of another person hence depriving of legal ownership.

The essence of a fraud triangle is ascertaining the cause of fraud and design measures of preventing it rather than eliminating it because it is inherent in organisational business. In this aspect, the trusted persons become trust violators when they develop ill motives of taking away the organisations property.

The fraud triangle is comprised of pressures which stem from the individual prospective fraudster in form of financial problems, social or domestic wants. The opportunity relates to the loopholes in the internal controls with in the control environment which creates a likelihood of success in execution of the fraudulent act. The rationalisation involves the justification of the fraudulent act for instance, the amount of money to be stolen is small compared to the organisations revenue hence the need for organisations to improve internal controls as part of the organisational structure to promote organisational justice.

2.19: Fraud Diamond

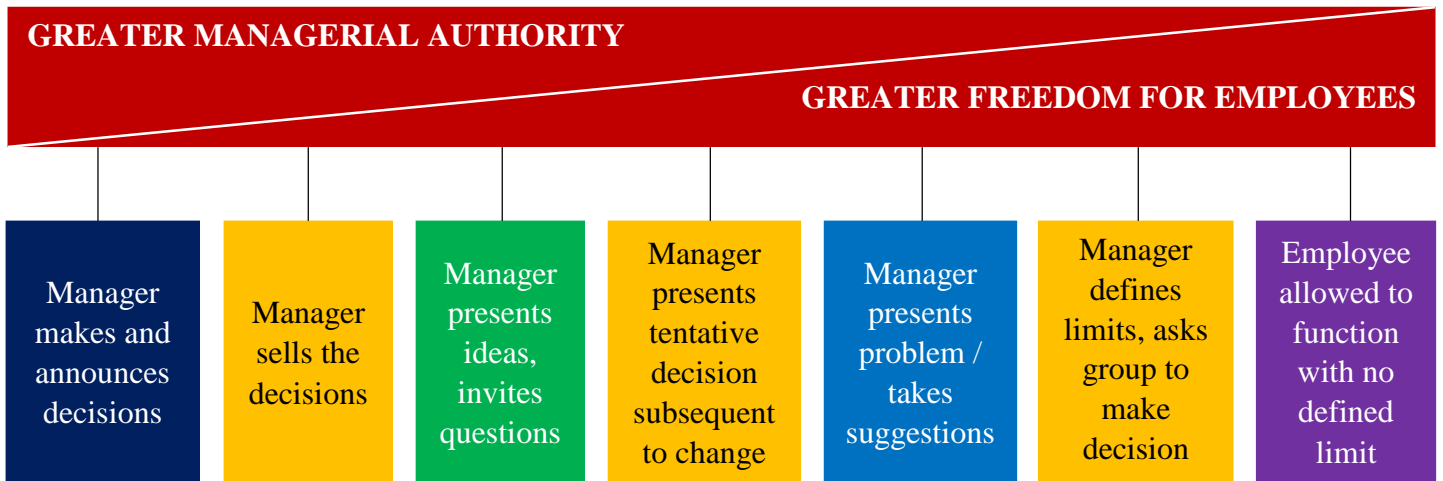


Source: Ocansey & Ganu (2007). The Limitations of the Fraud Triangle Theory.

The fraud triangle shows that a fraudster develops pressures, explores the weaknesses in the internal controls and justifies the fraudulent act. However, the inability to have the capacity to commit the fraud makes the motive unrealised but rather theoretical. The fraudster need to have capability for the fraud to take place. The capability is in form of skills, knowledge, confidence and position of the individual in the organisation to manipulate the fraudulent dealings or circumvent controls are important.

The role of the organisation is put in place an environment which promotes integrity, trust, and ethical conducts by improving and putting in place activities which promote justice, equity and fairness.

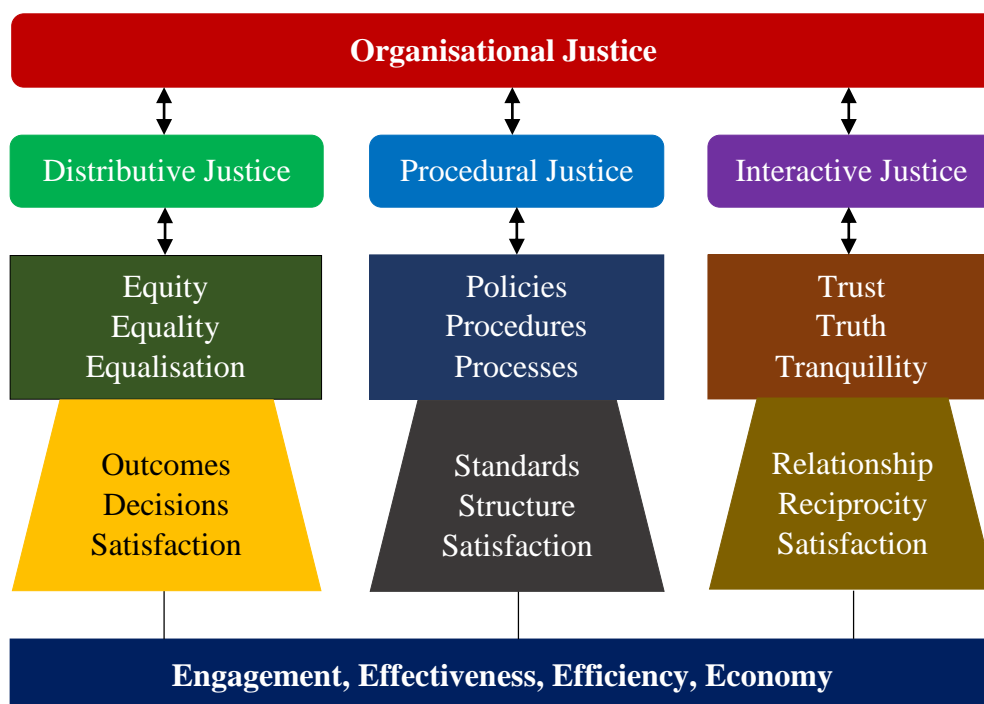
2.20: Decision Making Options



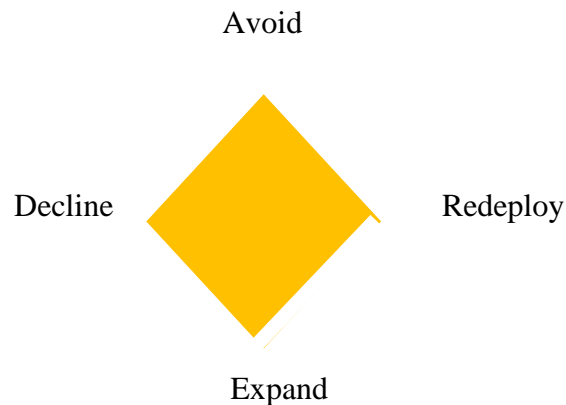
Source: General Management Theory

The authority of a manager to give orders and ensuring that work is done per the norm affects the extent by which workers perceive the organisation as being either fair or unfair hence organisational justice. In this aspect, authority is the right to give orders and ensuring that work objectives are performed as planned. This involves the interaction of a manager with teammates in problem solving for task accomplishment. The orders can be liner or hierarchical in nature

Equity Hierarchy



2.21: Real Options



Source: Option Pricing Model

The conventional Net Present Value method assumes that a project commences immediately and proceeds until completion meaning that it is rigid and fails to incorporate risks and uncertainty in the environment.

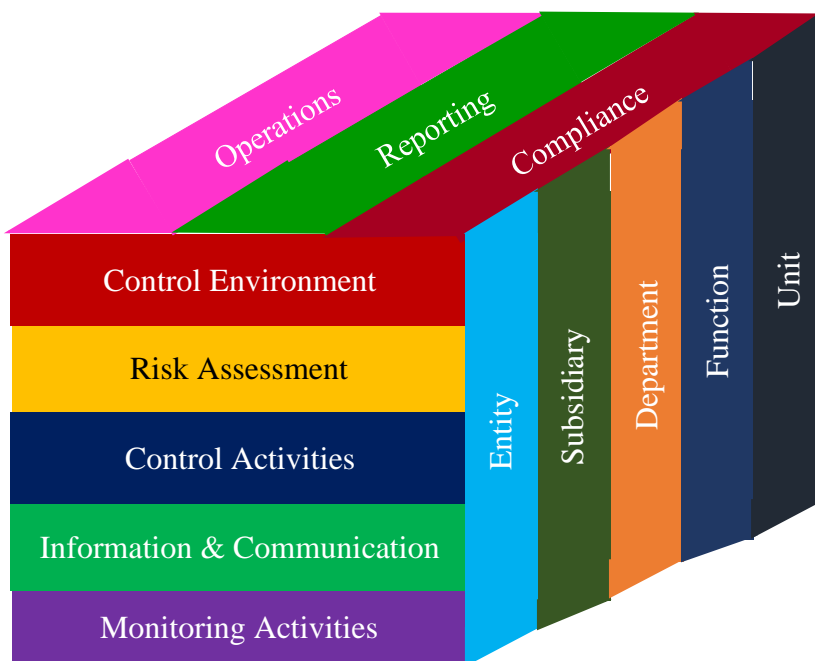
The Real Option Model incorporates risk and uncertainty so that the decisions made reflects the reality of the activities. The options to decision making include, Delay which involves taking time before making the decision of deploying resources, Expand which involves deploying more resources so that the benefits accruing to a project are maximised, Avoid involves refraining from the decision whenever the risks exceed the benefits or rather where the costs exceed the benefits and Redeployment involves transferring resources from one engagement to another hence in practice organisations use the acronym DEAR to enforce organisational justice.

The rationale of option pricing model in organisational justice is for the pricing of the risks associated with decisions affecting employees by quantifying them into monetary terms so that a feasible or meaningful decision is made in the best interest of both the employees and organisations in general.

2.22: Risk Management Activity

Organisations can enforce and implement Organisational Justice when they implement human resource activities based on a risk based approach.

The risk based approach to organisational performance involves defining risk, identifying risks comprising a given activity, assessing risks by attaching ranks which enables the deployment of resources to align risks with the risk appetite and capacity, risk control involving the selection of real risk management options, risk monitoring of ensuring that the plans are aligned with actuals and risk reporting involving accountability and justification of actions taken in ensuring that organisational justice is perceived by employees as being just, fair and reasonable.



Source: Committee of Sponsoring Organisations of the Treadway Commission 2013

The COSO Framework Cube above shows the principles of internal controls which are paramount in enabling the achievement of goals, vision, mission and objectives of an organisation.

The framework links the internal control components-front, internal control objectives-top and organisational units-side on the presumption that once these are implemented, organisational objectives are achieved and since organisational justice is entailed in the objectives of the organisation, the principles enumerated by the framework are relevant.

The control environment refers to the actions of Management and the Board of Directors which are put in place to empathize the importance of controls and the consequences for the breach of internal controls within an organisation. The elements of the control environment include integrity and ethical values, management philosophy and operating styles, organisational structure and competence of personnel.

Based on the aforementioned element, the organisational structure in place in terms of reporting, sanction and accountability affects the control environment and organisational justice.

The risk assessment involves the analysis of the likelihood and probability of adverse events happening which inhibits the organisation from achieving its defined objectives. The results of risk assessment are ranked to ascertain whether the given risk is low, medium or high as a basis of directing managements attention of mitigating the adverse consequences in case of risk materialisation into losses. This is not withstanding the fact that risks have the positive impacts of enhancing organisational performance for instance favourable foreign exchange rates leading to foreign exchange gains.

The risk matrix is a model used in risk assessment where ranks are accorded to risks for instance on a five-point scale as illustrated below from one of the Banks whose employees gave responses in the research questionnaire.

Risk Matrix

Probability	Impact				
	1	2	3	4	5
1	1,1=1	1,2=2	1,3=3	1,4=4	1,5=5
2	2,1=2	2,2=4	2,3=6	2,4=8	2,5=10
3	3,1=3	3,2=6	3,3=9	3,4=12	3,5=15
4	4,1=4	4,2=8	4,3=12	4,4=16	4,5=20
5	5,1=5	5,2=10	5,3=15	5,4=20	5,5=25

Key.

Numeral	Monetary Impact in Uganda Shillings.
1	Less than one Million (1.Million).
2	Between one Million to Five Million (1. To 5. Million)
3	Between Five Million to Twenty Million (5. To 20. Million).
4	Between Twenty Million to One Hundred Million (20. To 100.Million).
5	Above One Hundred Million (100 Million and above)

Numeral	Probability of the Risk event occurring.
1	Rare: The risk event may occur in a time frame of 5 years to 10 years. But can occur in exceptional circumstances.
2	Unlikely: The risk event is likely to occur in a time frame of 3 years to 5 years. But can occur in exceptional circumstances.
3	Often: The risk event is likely to occur in a timeframe of 1 year to 3 years. But can occur in exceptional circumstances.
4	Likely: The risk event is likely to occur within 12 Months.
5	Expected: The risk event is likely to occur almost on a monthly basis.

Risk Rating	Implication of the Risk Ratings.
Low	The identified risk is under control and being managed by the risk owner.
Medium	The identified risk is threatening the risk appetite and has been escalated to the Risk Management Committee. Alternatively, the positions of the risk event is average in relation to the Banks resources and in case of risk crystallisation into losses, the losses can be absorbed by the Bank in the ordinary course of business.
High	The identified risk breaches the risk appetite and has been discussed by executive management and reported to Board Risk Committee. Alternatively, the activity is significant or positions are large in relation to the Banks resources and in case of risk crystalisation into losses the Banks financial soundness may be threatened.

Risk Rating	Quality of Risk Management at Bank level.
Strong	Management effectively identifies and controls all major types of risks posed by the relevant activity or function.
Acceptable	Management identifies and controls most of the risks in the implementation of the business plan.
Weak	Management is inefficient in controlling risks as exhibited in the number of risks without prudent mitigation measures and risks crystallising into losses and penalties causing regulatory attention.

The control activities relate to the policies and producers, processes and values put in place by the Board of Directors for the purpose of helping management in mitigating the risks in abide of achieving organisational objectives.

The COSO Framework defines internal controls as a process effected by an entity's Board of Directors and Management and other Personnel designed to provide reasonable assurance regarding the achievement of objectives relating to operations, reporting and compliance.

The key issues of internal controls include, the purpose of achieving objectives in one or more but overlapping categories in operations, reporting and compliance. There must be defined objectives for any internal control instrument put in place in the organisation.

The internal controls are processes linking one activity with another activity. They are ongoing tasks and activities; they are a means to an end not an end in itself. The activities are sequential, systematic and selective to any a given control rather than being generic.

The internal controls are effected by people, that is the people or staff take on actions at every level of the organisation to effect internal controls thus are people based activities regulating the internal conducts of staff to achieve organisational objectives.

The purpose of implementing internal controls is to provide reasonable assurance to management and Board of Directors that the controls are meeting objectives as intended rather than absolute assurance. This is on the basis that human errors and limitations can arise, audit evidence can be insufficient, based on samples than the population as well as the inherent errors of humanity. The reasonable assurance is based on opinions that the controls are efficient, effective and economical in meeting objectives.

The internal controls are peculiar and specific to a given entity provided are within the Legal requirements. This means that they are flexible in application like can apply to an entity, a subsidiary, department, section or units within a n organisation.

The other elements of controls include information and communication which is relevant is relying information to staff from within and outside the organisation for control implementation.

The monitoring activities are ongoing and feedback provided accordingly, they include ongoing evaluations, separate evaluations used to ascertain whether each of the components of internal controls are functional, the findings are evaluated, communications made in a timely Management and the Board of Directors.



Source: The Generic Risk Management Framework

The rationale of internal controls in the analysis of organisational justice is in the minimisation of Business Risk and Audit risk

Business Risk refers to the likelihood or probability of the profits of the business reducing or the likelihood of activities stemming from the market which leads to the failure of the organisation to achieve its objectives in terms of strategies, operational, compliance, liquidity and operational goals and objectives.

The Audit Risk refers to the likelihood of the financial statements being materially misstated irrespective of the external auditors' opinion stating that they contain no material misstatements. Audit Risk is a product of control risk, inherent risk and detection risk.

The presence of internal controls reduced business risk and audit risk so that organisational objectives internal organisational justice is achieved.

2.3: Employee and Employer Relationship

The employers can improve on employee perceptions when they harness the employer employee relationship so that the both parties benefit in the master servant relationship. This can be analysed using some of the tests of inferring an employer employee relationship in a bid of promoting organisational justice.

The control test is used to show that a master and servant relationship exists which is shown by control for instance the working hours, the provisions of working tools, the conduct of performance management, issuance of a job description, agency relationship where the employee is an agent of the employer which makes the employer vicariously liable for the acts of the employee done during the course of business transactions which injures third parties. This is shown in the case of, **Performing Rights Society Limited V Mitchell and Booker (1924) 1, KB 762**. The defendants were sued for breach of a copy right by playing music in a dance hall which infringed on the claimant's music copy rights. The defendants had agreed with the band to play music in the dance hall which band played music of the claimant. The Court held that the Band was an employee. This was on the basis that the Band had a fixed period of performance, it could be dismissed in case it infringed on the copy right of other musicians hence master servant relationship existed shown by the degree of control.

The limitations of the control test are that; it does not apply to highly skilled labour like professionals who can perform work independently without direct control.

The second test, is the integration test which shows the extent by which work is part and parcel or necessary for the business in case of a contract of employment. This is in contrast of a contract for service where the work done is incidental, impartial, fragmented and accessory to the business.

This can be illustrated in the case of **Stevenson, Jordan and Harrison Limited V Macdonald and Evans (1952) 1 TLR 101**, A management engineer wrote a book using the information gained from working for the firm coupled with information gained from attending lecturers from the University. He died before publishing and the employer claimed copy rights.

The Court held that under a contract of service, a person is employed as part of the business and the work done is an integral part of the business. However, under a contract for service, the work done is incidental, secondary, non-essential or accessory to the business this is not withstanding the fact that the work done is for the business.

The third classification is the multiple factor test, this test looks at several factors of the commercial transaction to ascertain the relationship of employer or independent contractor. This means that no-single factor can be used but several factors. In the case of **Ready Mixed Concrete (South East) Limited V Minister of Pensions and National Insurance (1968) 2 QB 497**, The appellant had hired an employee who was described as an independent contractor. This employee brought his own truck for mixing concrete, could put on company uniforms and his remuneration was based on the mileage of the concrete mixed. The Minister claimed that, the company had to file social security contribution for this employee hence the suit. The Court held that no employer employee relationship existed but an independent contractor based on multiple factor test. These factors included, an employee agreeing to provide personal work in return for the wage, employee being subjected to the control of the master, where control is the power to decide how, where and when work is done, and the degree of investment in equipment.

The Fourth Test is; the parties own characterisation. The parties can choose to characterise the relationship on the condition that it is aligned with the relevant Laws in place.

In the case of **Massey V Crown Life Insurance Company (1977) I WLR 676**, The claimants contract classified him as an independent contractor.

The Court held that he was bound by the contract based on the doctrine of freedom of contract. The parties had chosen to characterise their relationship as that and were therefore bound.

The Fifth Test is the Economic Realities Test. This looks at the substance of the transactions. In the case of **Goldberg V Whitaker House Cooperative Incorporation 366.US.28(1961)**, The Court held that the economic realities test looks at, How much control does the employer has over the employees work, Does the worker has an opportunity to earn more or less money based on how they manage their work, Does the worker own or invest in the requirement required to perform the work , Does the work performed require special skills, Is the engagement long term or short term relationship, How integral or central is the work performed in relation to the business.

In view of the above, the employer must define explicitly the relationship so that the employee is aware of the degree of control so as to perceive organisational justice.

Conclusion. In summary, the literature was used to explain the variables of the study by considering the views of other scholars which was supplemented by diagrams, graphs and case law. The literature showed that organisational justice is relevant for both the organisation and the employee which must be treated with utmost care it deserves.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0: Introduction

This section explains the ways and methods of carrying out research in line with the defined objectives of the study.

The relevance of methodology is to ensure that the methods used in the research brings the desired outcomes of the study and the methods used depends on the research problem.

Research is defined as a structured inquiry or enquiry that makes the use of scientific methods of investigation to generate new knowledge and solve defined problems. The inquiry and enquiry is an act of asking for information, where inquiry is formal and enquiry pertains less formal investigations.

The research is either scientific or social. Scientific Research is a systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of natural phenomenon guided by theory and hypothesis about the presumed relations among such phenomenon. In contrast Social Research involves the collection of information about people and societies or rather their surrounding environment for the purpose of solving problems related to the individuals relations with one another and the society at large. Social research includes methods like qualitative and quantitative methods, primary and secondary research methods.

3.1: Philosophical Orientation

This explains how research uses philosophical lenses in explaining the phenomenon being studied in abide of expanding and discovering new knowledge. In other words, the assumptions made in the research study which influenced the choices made in designing the purpose, methods of data collection, data analysis and interpretation including the inferences made from the research.

Philosophy as a subject is the study of knowledge, reality and existence as an academic discipline. The philosophical lenses provide a methodology used in a given philosophical inquiry for answering a philosophical question or debate (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

Philosophy as an academic discipline uses a system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge, and in general three philosophical lenses are used in explaining a phenomenon and they include epistemology, ontology and axiology. Accordingly, Crotty (1988) avers that the general philosophical lenses are further subdivided into branches of realism, idealism and materialism.

3.2: Ontology

Ontology is the nature, existence and structure of reality (Crotty, 1988). In this context, reality is the summation or aggregation of that which exists as opposed to that which is imaginary. According to Bryman (2008), ontology involves a system of beliefs and interpretations of what constitutes a fact or reality which can be observed and felt with personal senses.

Spencer & Snape (2003), shows that reality per the ontological philosophical position can be explained by the sub lenses of realism, idealism and materialism. Accordingly, realism means that reality is independent and objective of the individuals cognitive actions or processes in terms of beliefs, attitudes and perceptions. This implies that reality or the social phenomenon exists and the actor only identifies and describes it.

Similarly, the idealism lens means that reality is socially constructed by an individual interacting with the phenomenon. This makes reality subjective as the individual makes inferences after the interaction with the phenomenon. The materialism position shows that reality exists in the physical form of matter, its movements and modifications. Therefore, anything which occupies space and has weight in the three states of solids, liquids and gasses constitutes reality.

Based on the above, the ontological position of organisational justice means that it is a point of fact which varies between individuals. However, it is acceptable as a behaviour which is just, fair and reasonable hence universal irrespective of the perceptions of the employees. The acts of respect, kindness, courtesy and consideration of each other are virtues of justice in a given organisation which promotes organisational citizenship behaviours.

3.3: Epistemology

Epistemology is an assumption about the kind and nature of knowledge (Richards, 2003).

The epistemological lens answers the question of what is acceptable knowledge in a discipline or what should be regarded as acceptable knowledge (Bryman,2008). Epistemology describes the nature and form of knowledge, how its acquired and communicated to other human beings (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

Similarly, Burrell & Morgan, (1979) shows that the kind of epistemological assumptions made about knowledge affects the extent to which knowledge of a given phenomenon is uncovered. Therefore, an assumption and belief that knowledge is objective, hard and tangible influences the researcher to use natural scientific methods involving testing and measuring of the phenomenon. This makes the researcher to become an observer in the investigation.

In contrast, an assumption and belief that knowledge is personal, subjective and unique influences the researcher to be involved in the research by making personal inferences and conclusions. This makes knowledge to be relative rather than being universal hence rejecting natural scientific methods of inquiry.

The assumptions and beliefs made about knowledge therefore includes, knowledge being factual as being observable by senses, explicit as being articulated, codified, stored and transmittable to others, conceptual as being learnt by thoughtful and reflective mental activity, procedural as being exercised in performing an activity and once executed, it becomes implicit knowledge which is tacit or personal to an individual.

These assumptions imply that knowledge about organisational justice is gained when the employer interacts with fellow employees and it is from these interactions that perceptions are developed to evaluate justice or injustice in the organisation.

3.4: Axiology

Axiology is the philosophical study of the nature of value and the valuation of things which are valuable. This consists of the intrinsic value embedded in the object and the extrinsic value which is ascribed to the phenomenon by the external environment (Li, 2016). The values are further divided into two parts of ethics and aesthetics. The ethics involves the questioning of moral and personal values as being right or wrong whereas aesthetics concerns the nature and appreciation of beauty as pleasant, positive or artful.

The axiological orientation of organisational justice is the value or virtues of fairness which are cascaded to all employees in form of respect, teamwork, cooperation and coordination. Justice constitutes value as a right cherished by both the employer and employee and among employees themselves because it is just, fair and reasonable to treat one another with respect, courtesy and reverence or high esteem.

3.5: Positivism.

Positivism as a philosophy adheres to the view that only “factual” knowledge gained through observations or rather senses including measurement is trustworthy or relevant for research inquiry.

In a positivist research, the role of a researcher is limited to data collection and data interpretation. This means that the researcher is objective as personal values and beliefs are excluded because the observations and measurements are recorded as they arise from the phenomenon. Positivism therefore depends on quantifiable observations that lead to statistical analyses.

According to Crowther & Lancaster (2008), positivism as a general rule adopts a deductive approach which involves the movement from known to unknown. That is, research is done from the existing theories and studies, development of hypothesis which are tested and conclusions made. This is suitable for scientific investigations. In contrast, inductive research

starts from unknown to known where facts are observed, measured detailed patterns and regularities formulated, tentative hypothesis made and tested and a general conclusion or theories made from the study.

The positivism research makes the researcher independent of the research and only interacts with the phenomenon under investigation by interpreting the results of the observations. The research used a mixed approach of deductive and inductive which was liked by the hypothesis made and tested.

Based on the positivist stand, organisational justice is a fact which is observable, it can be approached using the deductive or inductive approach to explain the phenomenon.

3.6: Research Design

Research design refers to the plan and procedure of conducting research that spans from the broad assumptions to the detailed methods of data collection and analysis.

Alternatively, research design is an overall strategy to integrate the different components of the study into a coherent and logical way so as to address the research problem. The Research Design constitutes the blue print for the collection, measurement and analysis of information and data (Kind, 2019). The purpose of the research design is to ensure that the evidence obtained in data collection is relevant in addressing the research problem logically without bias.

The Research Design can be categorised according to the number of contacts with the study population, the reference period of the study and the nature of the investigation. The number of contacts of the study population encompasses the cross sectional studies, before and after studies and longitudinal studies.

There are two major types of designs in social research. These are cross sectional and longitudinal (Ghauri,2010).

A Cross sectional study has no time dimension, relies on the existing differences rather than on a change following the intervention and selections are based on existing differences rather than random allocation.

According to Neumann (2007), a cross sectional design is preferred because it enables the researcher to gain knowledge on what happened or has been happening about credit decision quality.

Similarly, a Cross-sectional survey design can also be used to explain what has happened or what is going on.

The longitudinal study involves studying the pattern of change of the phenomenon in relation to time. That is the respondents are interviewed at regular intervals which enables the researcher to track changes over time and to relate the findings with the study variables to establish causation. The longitudinal study is relevant in establishing trends and allows the researcher to measure the pattern of change as well as obtaining factual information requiring collection on a regular or continuous basis.

This research uses a cross sectional design rather than a longitudinal design as information collected from the respondents shall be collected at a point in time using the questionnaire rather than over time.

3.7: Research Approach.

The research approach is based on a research problem being addressed which is either deductive or inductive in nature (Ghali, 2010). The deductive approach which is also referred as reasoning from particular to general, starts with the analysis and review of existing theories describing the phenomenon to establish logical relationships existing among the concepts as well as obtaining empirical evidence to test the stated hypothesis. The hypothesis is developed

based on the existing theory and tested by empirical observations. The theory is tested by the observations obtained while conducting the research study.

According Aquil & Hussain (2018), The inductive approach to research involves reasoning from general to particular, that is the research starts with observations of the reality or phenomenon from which theories are proposed and developed. This approach supports the generation of new theories and is flexible because the empirical observations determines the kind of theory to be developed which is not given or defined.

The study uses a deductive approach of reasoning from general to particular. That is, the study begins by the review of theories of decision making, social exchange and equity theory to ascertain the particular implications on organisational justice.

3.8: Research Strategy

A strategy is defined in organisational behaviour as a course of action undertaken that enables an organisation to achieve its defined objectives (Karl, 2019). In the context of research, a research strategy defines the practical activities undertaken to actualise the research objectives which takes the form of quantitative or qualitative research strategy (Micha, 2019).

The quantitative research strategy is often used when natural sciences based research is undertaken involving the observation and measurement of numerical information. The numerical methodology is positivist in nature as observations can be made objectively through the use of senses (Collins, 2019). The quantitative strategy is suitable for the identification and description of variables in order to establish the existing casual relationships (Garner,2009). Similarly, the quantitative study allows the analysis of study results with the use of statistical methods aided by the computer software packages. The method is also used for testing hypothesis and measuring relationships between study variables as well as quantitative data being useful in making statistical explanations and inferences (Samuel, 2019).

However, the quantitative methodology focuses on numbers and statistics hence losses the ability to distinguish between people and institutions or rather connecting life with research (Juliet, 2017). The connection of people with institutions is relevant because individuals make decisions for the success or failure of organisations and their decisions need to be incorporated in the research for meaningful analysis and conclusion on a research phenomenon.

The above limitation requires the use of qualitative analysis to counter the anomalies. That is, a qualitative study provides details about the human behaviour, emotions and personality characteristics which are not disclosed by a quantitative study (Juliet, 2017).

The study will therefore use a triangulation strategy which uses a mixed approach of collecting quantitative and qualitative information for analysis, interpretation, inference and conclusion about a phenomenon (Young, 2019).

Therefore, this study will adopt a mixed approach based on triangulation. The mixed strategy allows the triangulation of information which provides an opportunity for achievement of construct validity. In addition, multiple sources of evidence provide multiple measures on the same phenomena of the study variables. The use of Multiple sources of evidence facilitates the development of a convergence line of inquiry (Yin, 1994).

According to Strauss & Corbin (1990) the use of a combination of both quantitative and qualitative techniques as a research approach helps to overcome the limitations related to each of the methodologies used in isolation and strengthens the mixed approach to research strategy. Mortei (2019) also shows that the triangulation of methodology reduces measurement error and ensures reliability and validity of results. There are previous researchers who used the mixed approach for testing hypothesis and measuring relationships between the study variables. These includes (Juliet, 2017) and Michael (2017).

The study will fit in the mixed approach and the triangulation strategy as the questionnaire will be structured with open ended questions as well as closed ended questions. The open ended questions will allow the respondents to fill in their personal feelings about the research variables of the study.

3.9: The Study Population.

The population is a group of individual persons from which a sample is taken out for measurement. In contrast, sampling is a process of selecting a number of individuals for the study in such a way that the individuals represent a large group from which they were selected.

According to Khan(2019), the determination of an appropriate sample size is necessary because it influences the measure of significant differences, relationships, regressions, and interactions. This assertion is supported by Sekaran (2008), who posits that the sample should be adequate to provide reliable statistics that can reflect the population parameters. The challenge of sampling is how a researcher can obtain an adequate sample size which is representative of the characteristics of the population.

A representative sample can be obtained depending on the level of precision and confidence required for a reliable generalisation. This depends on the level of precision and confidence required for reliable generalisation leading to sample representativeness Bartlett et al (2001). In other words, when the sample size is large, the level of precision and confidence in the data is high. This is in contrast with Brink, Van & Van (2006) who shows that, no prescriptions exist for adequate sample size, but the larger the sample size, the better the statistical power in analysis for the case of quantitative studies. This argument has been supported by Holland, J. H. (1995) who stated that a large enough sample size is essential to perform a variety of statistical analysis.

The population of the study involved employees in Banks which are regulated by the Central Bank of Uganda. A list of Supervised Financial Institutions from Bank of Uganda (2019)

disclosing the number of supervised financial institutions was used in establishing the number of employees per Bank.

3.10: The Sampling Size

The sample determination considers a variety of formulas and chooses the best for instance, Krejice & Morgan (1970) table for sample determination shows that, a population of 290 has an estimated sample of 165. The limitation of the table is that the sample is estimated and does not provide for margin of errors.

The above limitations make it imperative to use the Yamane Formula for sample determination because it provides a clear workable formula that gives a precise and accurate sample size rather than the estimated samples as indicated by Krejice & Morgan table.

The Yamane Formula is to the effect that, $n = N / (1 + N(e)^2)$

Where; n = sample size; N = total population; e = tolerable error (0.05 or 95%).

Therefore, sample size for the households was derived from:

$$n = N / (1 + N(e)^2)$$

$$n = 290 / (1 + 290(0.05)^2)$$

$$n = 290 / (1 + 290(0.0025))$$

$$n = 290 / 1.7275$$

$$n = 168.$$

3.11: Sampling Method and Procedure

Simple random sampling gives an equal chance of sampling units to be included in the sample.

The chance of selecting sampling units does not depend on the selection of other sampling units (Kind, 2019).

The names of employees were listed on small pieces of paper, folded and mixed up thoroughly in a container. The folded papers were picked randomly until the required sample of 168 were attained.

3.12: The Unit of Analysis

A Unit of Analysis refers to the major entity analyzed in the study. The unit of analysis answers the research questions of either, what is being studied or who is being studied. In other words, a unit of analysis forms the subject of the study about which an analysis can be made to generalize the findings of the study.

According to Babbie (2005) there four different units of analysis in social research and they include, individuals, groups, organizations and social artifacts. The individual analysis involves the investigation of behaviors, perceptions, attitudes and opinions of individuals like employees in an organization. secondly the individuals can be aggregated into groups, communities or nations and studied accordingly. The aggregation of groups can be classified into two categories that is groups which are informally structured and organizations which are formally structured. lastly the social artifacts are the human made objects, representations, assemblages, institutions, knowledge and conceptual frameworks that are used to attain a particular expression, goal or desired ends. The analysis of artifacts provides valuable information about the individuals or groups of individuals who created or used them for research.

The unit of analysis for this study were Banks Regulated by the Central Bank of Uganda.

3.13: The Unit of Inquiry

The Unit of Inquiry is the object that is actually observed, measured or interviewed to provide information for a research study. The method of data collection determines the unit of inquiry, that is questionnaires and interviews are answered by individuals within groups or in organizations.

Based on the aforementioned analysis, the unit of inquiry for this this study were the employees who answered the questions in the questionnaire.

3.14: Data Collection Instruments

Data collection instruments are the devices used in collecting data which is processed into information. Data is the raw material for data processing and it relates to facts, events and transactions. In contrast, information is data that is processed in such a way as to be meaningful to the receipt who receives it for decision making.

The data collection instruments used shall include a questionnaires having both structured and unstructured questions with probes to elicit correct and valid responses reflecting reality. The interview questions shall be based on the study constructs as well as on items which are adopted and modified to suite the context of the referenced journal articles.

The rationale of collecting qualitative data is supplement of the quantitative data so that a holistic generation of knowledge and understanding of Credit Decision Quality in Banks is obtained as a basis of knowledge management.

3.15: Validity and Reliability

Validity refers to the accuracy of a measure. This implies that the results of a measurement instrument represent what was intended to be measured.

Reliability refers to a measure which is consent over time. This implies that the results of the measure can be reproduced over time given the same conditions

3.15.1: Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which an instrument measures what it is actually intended to measure (Gregory, 2019).

The constructs of the study instruments are developed from the study concepts and theories reviewed. Construct validity is examined by analysing the convergent and discriminate validity whether they are existent in the data.

Convergent validity is examined to ascertain whether the measures of the items are correlated highly with each other. In contrast discriminate validity is used to test whether the measures of

the items fail to correlate highly with other constructs used to measure the same variables (Sekaran, 2000).

The research takes into consideration construct validity in the research instruments and results incorporated into the study for ensuring validity.

Similarly, Content validity is used in measuring all constructs included and represented in particular theories used in this study (Gregory, 2019).

Content validity was determined by giving the instruments to 10 respondents who were experts in the field of study, and their responses were anchored on a five -point scale. The scale ranging from scale;1. Strongly Disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Somewhat Agree 4. Agree 5. Strongly Agree of the items used in measuring the constructs.

Content validity index is there after obtained by dividing the proportion of items declared as valid by the total numbers of items (Amin, 2005).

The final reliability and Content validity index was computed and the results exceeding 0.7 of the content validity index were adopted as suggested by Amin (2005).

3.15.2: Reliability

Reliability refers to the degree of consistence of a measure. That is an instrument is reliable when it gives the same repeated results under the same conditions.

This study uses references from journal articles and text books of professionals to review literature as well as theories on the study variables. The references were used in the construction of the research instruments which was used in data collection. The data collected was analysed using computer aided software to ensure reliability of the instrument.

The reliability of an instrument can be assessed into three categories, that is, stability of an instrument, internal reliability and inter-observer consistency according to Bryman and Bell (2013).

Stability of an instrument involves a testing procedure where an instrument is applied to a specific sample at a given time and repeated to the same sample after some time so that the degree of correlations between the two observations determines the reliability of the instrument.

This research used data from the completed questionnaires which was qualitative questions but transformed into quantitative data by coding on a five-point scale.

Internal Reliability of an instrument measures the extent to which the indicators which make up the scale or index are consistent. The Internal Reliability of the Research Instruments are tested with by the Cronbach Alpha test. The removal of any additional items are preformed to improve the reliability of each variable under the study.

According to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) shows that instruments used for social research should have a reliability with alpha values of 0.7 and above.

The Inter-observer consistence involves testing an instrument with experts in the subject matter so as to get an overview of the relevance of the indicators in the instrument.

The questionnaires were pre tested by the selected employees from Banks before the final use and questions which were unreliable were dropped and only questions which produced reliable answers were incorporated into the final questionnaire.

3.16: Triangulation Method

Triangulation involves the use of multiple data sets, methods and theories in addressing the research question.

The key aspects of Triangulation include, Data Triangulation which involves using different data from different times, space and people in performing the research. Theory Triangulation which involves using varying theories to explain the research problem in answering the research question, Investigator Triangulation which involves using multiple researchers in collecting and analysing data as well as Methodological Triangulation which involves using different methods in conducting the research.

The Triangulation method was used to create credibility in research analysis by using several methods in the research, gain a complete picture regarding the variables under the study as well as enhancing the validity of the research.

3.17: Modelling the Study Variables

The variables of the study were modelled in a bid to facilitate measurement and interpretation of data.

(1). Functional Relationship Exits

$$Q = f(X_1, X_2, X_3, Z_1) \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation I}$$

$$Q = f(X_1, X_2, X_3, Z_1) \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation II}$$

Where; $Q = \text{Organisational Justice}$

$X_1 = \text{Organizational Culture}$

$X_2 = \text{Organisational Leadership}$

$X_3 = \text{Organisational Structure}$

$Z_1 = \text{OCB}$

3. Exogeneity

The error term is uncorrelated or independent of the explanatory variables

$$E(\varepsilon_t|X) = 0 \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation IV}$$

The error terms in each observation within the model are uncorrelated or independent of the explanatory variables. Therefore, the X variables do not depend on the dependent variable Q rather, Q depends on X, Z hence et. The fact that the independent variables are independent of Q and et, then estimated coefficients are consistent when using the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) in estimating the equation. However, if the independent variables are not independent of et and Q, then OLS becomes biased.

4. Non-endogeneity

No explanatory variable is correlated with the error term.

$$\text{Cov}(XZ_1, \varepsilon_t) \neq 0 \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation V}$$

The explanatory variables that are not exogenous are called endogenous variables. The presence of endogeneity implies that that XZ are correlated with the error term making OLS estimates biased and inconsistent in the presence of endogeneity regressors.

5. Non-deterministic

The error term is present in the model so that Q is determined by XZ₁

$$\varepsilon_t \neq 0 \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation VI}$$

6. Non-stochastic

The expected value of Q is determined by XZ₁

$$E(\varepsilon_t|X) = 0$$

7. Model specification

$$Q_{t_{i-n}} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1t_{i-n}} + \beta_2 X_{2t_{i-n}} + \beta_3 X_{3t_{i-n}} + \beta_4 X_{4t_{i-n}} + \beta_5 X_{5t_{i-n}} + \beta_6 X_{6t_{i-n}} + \varepsilon_t \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation VII}$$

$$Q_{t_{i-n}} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1t_{i-n}} + \beta_2 X_{2t_{i-n}} + \beta_3 X_{3t_{i-n}} + \beta_4 X_{4t_{i-n}} + Z_{1t_{i-n}} + \varepsilon_t \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation VIII}$$

8. Combined estimated model

$$Q_{t_{i-n}} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1t_{i-n}} + \beta_2 X_{2t_{i-n}} + \beta_3 X_{3t_{i-n}} + \beta_4 X_{4t_{i-n}} + \beta_5 X_{5t_{i-n}} + \beta_6 X_{6t_{i-n}} + \beta_7 Z_{1t_{i-n}} + \varepsilon_t \dots \dots \text{Equation IX}$$

9. Estimation of time series model for $\beta =$ use of ordinary least squares

$$Q = T + C + S + I \text{ and } Q = T \times C \times S \times I \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation X}$$

Where; T = Trend; C = Cycle; S = Seasonal Variation and I = Irregular Component

4.8: Confirmatory tests for the model.

4.8.1: Pre-Diagnostic Tests

Pre-diagnostic tests are used due to the fact that time series data is used. The pre-diagnostic tests are carried out to establish normality, stationarity and co-integration of the series. Jarque-Bera test is used to test for normality, Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test for stationarity and Johansen Co- integration procedure for testing co- integration on variables.

1.1. Normality Test (Jarque-Bera Test)

A normality test is a statistical process used to determine if a sample or any group of data fits a standard normal distribution. A normality test can be performed mathematically/graphically.

Jarque-Bera test is a goodness-of-fit test of whether sample data have the skewness and kurtosis matching a normal distribution.

$$k_3 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^3}{ns^3} \dots\dots\dots \text{Equation 1.1}$$

$$k_4 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^4}{ns^4} - 3 \dots\dots\dots \text{Equation 1.2}$$

$$JB = n \left(\frac{(k_3)^2}{6} + \frac{(k_4)^2}{24} \right) \dots\dots\dots \text{Equation 1.3}$$

Where x is each observation, n is the sample size, s is the standard deviation, k_3 is the skewness and k_4 is the kurtosis which is asymptotically distributed as chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom. Therefore, we use the critical value from the chi-square tables in deciding whether to reject or fail to reject.

1.2. Stationarity Test (Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test)

A times series has stationarity if a shift in time doesn't cause a change in the shape of the distribution. Basic properties of the distribution like mean, variance and covariance are constant over time. The series will be tested for stationarity using the Augmented Dickey Fuller Test. The ADF statistic is will be computed using the formula below:

$$\Delta y_t = \alpha_0 + \lambda_t + \delta y_{t-1} + \sum_{t-i}^l \phi_i \Delta y_{t-i} + \varepsilon_i$$

Where l is the lag length

The ADF statistic tests the null hypothesis that the series are non-stationary against the alternative that the series are stationary. Where the absolute value of the computed ADF statistics is greater than the tabulated one, the null hypothesis is rejected and an inference drawn that the series are stationary at a given level of significance.

1.3. Co-integration Test (Johansen test)

Co-integration tests analyseses the non-stationary time series-processes that have variances and means that vary over time. Two sets of variables are co-integrated if a linear combination of those variables has a lower order of integration. The variables in the study will be tested for co-integration in order to establish if there exists a long run relationship between the series.

Johansen's procedure shall be used:

$$\Delta\omega_t = \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \Gamma_j \Delta\omega_{t-j} + \pi\omega_{t-k} + u_t$$

Where ω_t is (n*1) vector, Γ_j and π are (n*n) matrices of parameters representing short term and long run impacts respectively. $\pi = \alpha\beta$ Where α reflects the speed of adjustment toward equilibrium, while β is a matrix of long run coefficients.

The short run relationship is analysed by the vector error correction model. The equation becomes:

$$\Delta y_t = \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \pi_i \Delta y_{t-i} + \pi y_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t$$

1.4. Short run relationship model

The study analytical model for the short run relationship will be depicted by the regression model:

$$\Delta Y_t = \sigma \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \gamma_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \eta_j \Delta Y_{t-j} + \sum_{m=1}^{k-1} \xi_m \Delta Y_{t-m} + \sum_{n=1}^{k-1} \upsilon_n \Delta Y_{t-n} + \sum_{w=1}^{k-1} \tau_w \Delta Y_{t-w} + \sum_{z=1}^{k-1} \varphi_z \Delta Y_{t-z} + \sum_{q=1}^{k-1} \varsigma_q \Delta Y_{t-q} + \lambda ECT_{t-1} + u_t$$

Where;

$k - 1 =$ Lag length reduced by 1

$ECT_{t-1} =$ Error correction term

$u_t =$ Residual

4.8.2: Post-Diagnostic Tests

1.1: Heteroscedasticity

This is a generalisation of the classical linear regression model to the case where the variance of the error terms is not constant across the time series units. The Breusch –pagan test is used to detect for heteroscedasticity in the time series data. The test statistic is defined as:

$$\widehat{BP} = N.R^2 \sim asy\chi^2(2)$$

Where N = sample size

Reject the null hypothesis if $\widehat{BP} > Bp_{critical}$ or $p - value < significance\ value$

Alternatively, Heteroscedasticity refers to the situation where the variance of the error term is dependent on the independent variables,

Therefore $Qit = XZit + eit \dots N(0, mwe2)$.

Where $E(\epsilon_t^2) = \sigma^2 = V(\epsilon_t)$ is the non-constant error variance. This relaxes the assumption that, $E(\epsilon_t^2) = \sigma^2$. This makes the OLS not an effective estimator though it remains unbiased.

The other tests for heteroscedasticity includes,

(1). The Breussch-Pagan test is used, so that $Q_{it} = b_0 + b_1X_{1Z1} + \epsilon_t : \epsilon_{it} \dots N(0, \sigma^2_{it})$.

So, $H_0 : \theta = 0$.

H_1 : at least one of the θ is not zero,

(2). Weighted Least Squares(WLS), This is used to compute a more efficient estimator of the OLS in the presence of Heteroscedasticity.

$Q_{it} = b_0 + b_1X_{Zit} + \epsilon_{it} \dots \epsilon_{it} \dots N(0, \sigma^2_{it})$.

$Q_{it}^* = b_0 + b_1X_{Zit}^* + \epsilon_{it}$.

So the $\text{Var}(\epsilon_{it}) = \text{Var}(\epsilon_{it}) / \sigma^2_{it} = 1$. The OLS applied to the transformed model must give the BLUE estimate. The Best Linear Unbiased Estimator. The OLS estimator are linear, unbiased and have the least variance among the class of linear and unbiased estimators.

1.2: Autocorrelation/ serial correlation

Autocorrelation / serial correlation occurs when the error term from different observations are correlated to another. The Durbin-Watson test was used to detect for autocorrelation. Durbin-Watson test statistic is a test for first order serial correlation. It measures the linear association between adjacent residuals from a regression model.

The Durbin-Watson test statistic is defined as:

$$\widehat{DW} = \frac{\sum_{t=2}^T (\hat{\epsilon}_t - \hat{\epsilon}_{t-1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_t^2} \approx 2(1 - \hat{\rho})$$

$2 \approx 2(1 - \hat{\rho}) \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 3.7}$

Reject the null hypothesis if $\widehat{DW} \leq d_L$ or $\widehat{DW} \geq 4 - d_L$

Do not reject the null hypothesis if $\widehat{DW} \geq d_U$ or $\widehat{DW} \leq 4 - d_U$

1.3: Granger causality test

Unlike other tests that simply identify the relationship between variables, Granger causality tests check the causal relationship, this test will be used to determine whether one time series may be used to forecast another. Granger (1969), points out that causality is said to exist between two variables when a variable (X1) Granger-causes (predicts) another variable (X2) better than that variable can predict itself.

1.4: Ramsey Regression Specification Error Test

It tests explanatory variables for a non-linear relationship with the response variable. It tests whether the X's have a non-linear relationship with Y? It's a general test for model misspecification, it uses degrees of freedom and tells if there is an error in the form of your regression.

Consider $Y = X\beta + \varepsilon$

Solve for \hat{Y}^2 , which is $(X\hat{\beta})^2$, Solve for as many $\hat{Y}^{\#}$ as needed.

The new regression is $Y = X\beta + \delta_1\hat{Y}^2 \dots \dots + \delta_{k-1}\hat{Y}^k + \varepsilon$

$Y = X\beta + \delta_1 Y^2 \dots + \delta_{k-1} Y^k + \varepsilon$

Test significance of the δ 's, Run an F-test, if δ is significant implies: a polynomial relationship, unless $\delta = 0$ then you have the correct form. If δ is not significant implies you have the correct form.

1.5: Multi Collinearity.

This arises when two or more explanatory variables are perfectly collinear so that it is possible to express one as linear combination of the other.

The presence of multi collinearity does not affect the OLS as it remains BLUE, but parameters cannot be estimated with precision (high standard errors) and have wider confidence intervals.

Multi collinearity is detected by

- i. High R² and high F-Statistic (low p-values) with low t-values (high p-values).
- ii. High pair wise correlations among regressors (like greater than 0.8).
- iii. Auxiliary regressors (of explanatory variables on other explanatory variables).

The remedy to multi collinearity, includes increasing more data, dropping the offending variable from the model, data transformation (like logarithms or deviation from the mean), the use of advanced methods (Ridge Regression).

There is a presumption that, all regression models have multi collinearity, but is a question of how much of it to accommodate and also, non-experimental data is prone to multi collinearity and multi collinearity is not a problem of prediction but only for identifying individual contributions of the particular collinear variables.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1: Introduction

This chapter discloses the final analysis, presentation and interpretation of the findings of the study pursuant to the study objectives. This entails the presentation of descriptive statistics informed by frequency analysis, mean, standard deviation, confirmatory and structural equation modelling.

4.2: Descriptive Statistics

This shows the narratives of the population in terms of characteristics which are unique and peculiar to the research for the purpose of attaining the research objectives.

Descriptive statistics describes the basic features of data of the study and is contrasted with inferential statistics which draws conclusions, meanings and judgements of the data presented.

The features of descriptive statistics include measures of frequency, counts and percentages, measures of central tendencies for instance the mean, median and mode, measures of dispersion or variations and standard deviation, measures of the position involving percentile ranks and quartiles.

4.2.1: Response Rate

This shows the variance between the targeted sample and the actual number of respondents. A response rate exceeding a fifty percent scale means that more respondents answered the questions with a likely hood of yielding realistic and objective results as compared to a response rate which is less than fifty percent (Sekaran, 1999).

Aday (1996) defines a response rate as the total number of participants in a study to the number of participants who were asked to participate. That is the fraction of the actual respondents to the expected respondents expressed as a percentage. Similarly, Altman (2007) argues that a higher response rate is preferable because missing data is not random. This implies that there is no satisfactory statistical solution to deal with missing data that may not be random.

Response	Number
Target Sample	168
Actual Sample	125
Response Rate	74%

Source: Primary Data.

The actual response rate exceeded 50%, this implies that there was a likelihood of accuracy and reasonableness of the survey which aligns with (Sekaran, 1999). Accordingly, the higher the response rate, the higher the likelihood of meeting the defined objectives of the study.

4.2.2: Gender Classification

Gender	Number	Percentage
Male	89	71%
Female	36	29%
Total	125	100

Source: Primary Data.

The data obtained from the respondents shows that 71% were males and 29% were females. The gender distribution per the response implies that Banks employee more male as compared to females. This is in conformity with the results published by the Uganda Bureau of Statics report 2021 which showed that the unemployment rate for females was 52% as compared to 48% for the males.

The Banks can leverage on employing similar proportions of male and female in a bid of promoting equality as enshrined in Article 21 of Constitution of the Republic of Uganda so that employees can perceive organisational fairness besides the individual fairness.

4.2.3: Employee Classification.

Characteristics	Actual Respondents	Percentage
Bank Employees	82	66%
Non-Bank Employees	43	34%
Total	125	100%

Source: Primary Data

The data shows that most of the respondents were from Commercial Banks as shown by 66% response rate as compared to 34% response rate for employees in Non-Bank Financial Institutions. The included Credit Institutions and Micro Finance Deposit taking Institutions.

The results were a replica of the distribution of Supervised Financial Institutions in Uganda at the reporting date which consisted of 26 Commercial Banks, 4 Credit Institutions and 5 Micro Finance Deposit taking institutions (Bank of Uganda, 2021). This can be a justification for a higher response rate of employees in Commercial Banks as compared with the Non-Bank Financial Institutions.

4.2.4: Employee Positions

Employee Position	Actual Response	Percentage
Executives	21	17%
Senior Managers	28	22%
Managers	27	22%
Officers	49	39%
Total	125	100%

Source: Primary Data.

The data shows that most of the respondents were at Officer level and these accounted for 39%, followed by Managers at 22%, Senior Managers at 22% and Executive Managers at 17%.

The findings are aligned with the contemporary Bank practice, where most Banks have a flat organisation structure. That is to say they employ more officers at entry level and these progress in ladders based on experience at manager and executive management level.

4.2.5: Employee Experience

Experience	Actual Response	Percentage
Less than 1 Year	53	42%
Between 1-5 Years	64	51%
10 Years and Above	08	7%
Total	125	100%

Source: Primary Data.

The data shows that most of the respondents had worked for a period of less than one year showing a rate of 42% as compared with employees who had worked between one and five

years with a responses rate of 51% and those who had worked for more than ten years had a response rate of 7%.

The findings are aligned with the findings of scholars like Andrews (1967), Adelman, and Fredrick (2018) who postulated that organisational injustice lowers the employee retention rate so that more and more employees are recruited over time unless working conditions are improved to which, distributive justice, procedure justice and interactional justice results from such organisational adjustments.

4.2.6: Employee Education

Education	Actual Response	Percentage
Bachelor’s Degree	78	62%
Master’s Degree	19	15%
Professional Qualifications	12	10%
Others	16	13%
Total	125	100%

Source Primary Data

The data shows that most of the employees had a Bachelor’s degree with a response rate of 62%, followed by those with a Master’s degree at 15% response rate, those with other qualifications had a response rate of 13% followed by those with professional qualifications like professional accounting and banking qualifications with a response rate of 10%.

The research by Babbie (2005) shows that education qualifications affect the degree by which employees perceive justice and injustice at the work place. That’s is those who are highly educated and skilled tend to be justice sensitive by advocating for their rights as compared to those with less or basic education required for the job. Those with basic education are more confrontable and less sensitive with injustice at the work place. Therefore, it becomes difficult to get a realistic picture in an organization with mixed or rather classified employees based on ranks and positions.

4.2.7: Correlation

		1	2	3	4	5
1	Organisational Leadership	0.00				
2	Organisational Culture	0.43**	0.00			
3	Organisational Structure	0.21**	0.19*	0.00		
4	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	0.52**	0.33**	0.41*	0.00	
5	Organisational Justice	0.63**	0.51**	0.54**	0.71**	0.00

** Correlation is Significant at 1%(2 Tailed).

Source: Primary Data

The correlation analysis was used to determine the relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable.

Correlation measures the relationship between two variables and the strength of the relationship between the two variables is measured by the correlation coefficient (r), which ranges between -1.0 to 1.0, where -1 shows a negative relationship, 0 shows no relationship and 1 shows a positive relationship (Sekaran,1999).

The results of the correlation show that organisational leadership has a positive and significant relationship with organisational justice ($r= 0.63^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). This means that organisations with leaders having favourable leadership skills embracing teamwork, cooperation, commitment and integrity has an impact on the perceptions of justice among staff.

Similarly, adverse leadership skills involving autocracy, less concern for staff at the expense of concern for production leads to counterproductive behaviours among staff as a response to the poor leadership styles exhibited.

The correlation results show that organisational culture is positively related with organisational justice and the relationship is significant ($r = 0.51^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). This means that a given performance oriented culture which is transformational, productive and dynamic leads to organisational justice perceptions among staff as compared to a laissez faire culture without standards and less cognisant of norms, values and aspirations which promotes injustice among employees.

In addition, the results of the study show a positive relationship between organisational structure and organisational justice ($r = 0.54^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). The relationship implies that whenever the organisation is structured in decentralised context where employees participate in decision making it leads to employee perceptions of fairness and equity leading to organisational justice unlike a structure which is centralised with less authority given to employees to participate in decision making.

Similarly, the results of the study show that organisational citizenship behaviours have a positive and significant relationship with organisational justice ($r = 0.71^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). This means that employees who exhibit behaviours of altruism, consciousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtues tend to have positive perceptions of the organisations which leads to organisational justice. This is in contrast with employees who only perform what they are supposed to do per the defined job descriptions which may connote injustice irrespective of fulfilling the core roles of the job.

4.2.8: Regression Analysis

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Standard Error	Standardised Coefficients Beta	T	Significance
Organisational Leadership	0.610	0.210	0.510	2.354	0.014
Organisational Culture	0.639	0.149	0.480	1.960	0.193
Organisational Structure	0.591	0.290	0.560	1.701	0.043
OCB	0.714	0.201	0.401	1.901	0.401
Dependent R	0.563			F Statistic	15.167
R Squared	0.3169			Sig (F. Statistic)	0.000
Adjusted R	0.301				
Standard Error	1.730				
n	125				

Source: Primary Data

The regression model was used to establish the extent of the variations in the dependent variable as predicted by the independent variable. That is the significance of the independent variables of organisational culture, organisational leadership, organisational structure and organisational citizenship behaviours on organisational justice.

The results of the regression show that the changes in organisational justice can be explained by 32% of the variations in the independent variables of organisational culture, organisational leadership, organisational structure and organisational citizenship behaviours.

The 68% of the variations in the organisational justice as a dependent variable can be explained by other factors which are not specified in the model or rather extrinsic.

4.2.9: Multiple Regression Analysis

The multiple regression analysis is an extension of the simple linear regression which is often used to predict the value of a variable based on two or more variables.

The multiple regression model was used to test for the mediation effect in order to demonstrate how one variable affected the second variable which in turn affected the third variable. The intervening variable or rather the mediating variable mediates the relationship between the predictor and the predicted.

Baron & Kenny (1986) proposed a four step approach in which several regression analyses are conducted and the significance of the coefficients examined at each step.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Standard Error	B	t	Significance
Constant	2.361	0.111	0.427	21.290	0.000
OCB	0.109	0.039	0.119	3.713	0.000
Dependent Variable	0.35	0.034		1.034	0.32
R	0.760				
R Square	0.577				
Adjusted R	0.549				5.69097

Source: Primary Data.

The results of the multiple regression model show the mediation effect of organisational citizenship behaviours can explain organisational justice by 58% and 42% of the variations can be associated with other factors held constant per the conceptual framework as the contextual antecedents.

The fact that the mediation effect is above fifty percent means that it is significant as shown by Baron & Kenny (1986) who avers that a strong mediation effect tends to have a regression coefficient exceeding 0.5.

4.4.10. The Analysis of Variance

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Regression	4188.472	4	1039.120	32.213	0.000b
Residual	3065.667	95	32.213		
Total	7263.250	99			

Source: Primary Data.

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) shows that the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. This shows that the independent variables suitably and significantly predict the dependent variable ($F(4,95) = 32.213$ $p < 0.005$). The regression model is a good fit of the data.

4.3: Factor Analysis

Factor Analysis was done by determining the correlations between the observations in terms of the underlying factors which were not observable. The main purpose for carrying out Factor Analysis was to summarize variables from the constructs with multiple questions into more meaningful and interpretable factors, and to also explore theoretical structure (Barclay, Higgins and Thompson, 2001).

Factor Analysis is a technique used to reduce a large number of variable into fewer number of factors. The technique extracts maximum common variances from all variables and puts them into a common score. The technique describes data using many fewer dimensions than the original variables.

The technique is part of the general linear model and assumes a linear relationship as well as the nonexistence of multi collinearity. The technique can be analysed into three types of Exploratory Factor Analysis, Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modelling.

4.3.1: Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis was performed to test the number of factors that could be seen as an analysis of the construct validity of a scale.

In other words, Exploratory Factor Analysis was used to determine the number constructs used in measuring the items of the construct. Factorability was also performed to determine if there were sufficient correlations between items, which were tested using Bartlett's test of sphericity (sig. < .05), and Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA), which must exceed 0.70 for both the overall test and each individual variable.

A statistically significant Bartlett's test of sphericity (sig. <.05) indicated that sufficient correlations existed among the variables to proceed. Variables with less than 0.50 were omitted one at a time, with the smallest one being omitted each time.

Both Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test were used to examine the adequacy of the sample used in the pilot study, and to test the hypothesis that the variables are uncorrelated in the population. Furthermore, as a criterion for item selection, communality (That is the variance in each item explained by the extracted factors) above 0.50, was considered.

In the study, Factor loadings were performed for the purpose of better interpretation and analysis and the purpose of Factor loadings were carried out to determine correlations between one item and another and including the component. However, if only one item loaded well on a component, the component was not well defined and thus this item was left out.

Furthermore, if only two loaded well, it was considered reliable, only if the two items were highly correlated with one another but not with other variables.

Exploratory factor analysis on the pilot data were performed on the different variables under study and the results were presented and discussed below.

	Organisational culture	Organisational Leadership
This Bank treats all employees with courtesy respect and affection	.878	
This Bank has standards of performance evaluation for all employees	.811	
This Bank recognises and rewards excellent performers with incentives	.729	
This Bank treasures integrity and professionalism exhibited by employees	.718	
This Bank has defined procedures for sanctioning misconduct of employees	.705	
This Bank has a list of core values observed by all employees	.661	
This Bank has a defined objective of providing excellent customer service in the industry	.838	
This Bank has policies of attracting the best talent in the industry	.810	
The leaders in this Bank are proactive in guiding teams in the execution of defined tasks		.793
The leaders in this Bank formulate different options to different problems		.736
The leaders in this Bank are cognisant of the market requirements when executing tasks		.735
The leaders in this Bank involve staff in decision making		.822
The leaders in this Bank discuss performance objectives with staff		.715
The leaders in this Bank make decisions which are optional in the interest of stakeholders		.630
The leaders in this Bank make decisions which are optional in the interest of stakeholders		.0578
Eigen value	4.012	4.413
Variance (%)	24.219	23.887
Cumulative Variance (%)	24.21927498	48.106
Determinant = .087; KMO= .848; Bartlett's test, chi-square = 3657.551, df=91, p=.000		
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.		

Source: Primary Data.

The results of the study indicate that 15 items were loaded on the constructs of both organisational culture and organisational leadership and constructs loaded well with a total component of five for organisational culture.

The KMO was sufficient at .848 to predict the likelihood that the data was factored well based on the correlation and partial correlation between the variable constructs.

The constructs with absolute values above 0.50 were taken to determine the loadings on each factor for organisational culture and organisational leadership.

The Principal Component Analysis using Varimax with Kaiser Normalization was performed to test the components of Organisational Culture and Organisational Leadership, which yielded three factors with Eigen values of greater than 1.

There were 11 items of organisational culture and organisational leadership with capabilities loaded on factor 1 with significant loadings of 0.701 to 0.872, which explained 40. % of the variance.

	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	Organisational Justice
Employees in this Bank share information with others at ease	.677	
Employees in this Bank can perform any task whenever requested by a colleague	.711	
Employees in this Bank work in teams to accomplish tasks	.829	
Employees in this Bank respect each other at work	.618	
Employees in this Bank are always punctual at work	.785	
Employees in this Bank endeavour to correct errors before submission of final reports to supervisors	.861	
This Bank treats all employees equally		.738
This Bank encourages employees to adhere to policies and procedures consistently		.600
This Bank encourages conflict resolutions among staff		.793
This Bank discourages individualism in the execution of work activities		.836
This Bank has a reward system for employees commensurate with achievements		.735
<i>Eigen value</i>	4.012	4.113
<i>Variance (%)</i>	24.219	23.887
<i>Cumulative Variance (%)</i>	24.2192	58.876
<i>Determinant =0.87; KMO= 0.808; Bartlett's test, chi-square = 3657.551, df=91, p=.000</i>		
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.		

Source: Primary Data.

The results of the study indicate that 11 items were loaded on the constructs of both Organisational Citizenship Behaviours and Organisational Justice and constructs loaded well with a total component of five for organisational culture.

The KMO was sufficient at .808 to predict the likelihood that the data was factored well based on the correlation and partial correlation between the variable constructs.

The constructs with absolute values above 0.50 were taken to determine the loadings on each factor for Organisational Citizenship Behaviours and Organisational Justice.

The Principal Component Analysis using Varimax with Kaiser Normalization was performed to test the components of Organisational Culture and Organisational Leadership, which yielded three factors with Eigen values of greater than 1.

There were 8 items of organisational citizenship behaviours and organisational justice with capabilities loaded on factor 1 with significant loadings of 0.87 to 0.808, which explained 58.876 % of the variance.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The purpose of this Chapter is to interpret and describe the significance of the findings of the study in relation what is already known about the research problem under investigation as well as explaining new insights and emerging themes from the study for knowledge generation and creation.

This embeds a critique of the existing knowledge to generate deductions which are unique and peculiar to the research as well as being relevant to the contemporary practices of organisational growth and development notwithstanding the point of departure from the existing and previous researchers on the subject.

5.1: The Relationship between of Organisational Culture and Organisational Justice

The results of the study showed that organisational culture is positively related with organisational justice and the relationship is significant ($r=0.51^{**}$, $p < 0.010$). The results are in line with scholars like Burns (1978) who shows that organisational culture embeds leadership which defines the cultural norms, values and aspirations of the organisation and it distinguishes one organisation from the other in the same industry or market. That is to say, the role of leader in an organisation involves encouraging teammates with professional advice, counselling, coaching and mentoring so that these are used for performance excellence and survival in the market. The leader creates a sense of identity, inspiration and takes ownership of the work performed by others.

On this basis, a transformational leader evaluates the strength and weaknesses of teammates and assigns them tasks which are critical in enhancing individual performance. This therefore implies that organisational leadership is a transformer as well as a mediator of the resources leading to organisational justice.

According to Uma (2010), culture has a direct impact on leadership styles. This can be shown where a transactional leader uses the control and reward mechanisms to motivate the teammates. The control and reward mechanism aim at harnessing the benefits with a focus of avoiding errors as well as maximising the performance potential for the attainment of organisational goals and objectives leading to organisational justice.

The transactional leader is contrasted with laissez faire leadership style which has less or no accountability for resources entrusted with, less recipients of remembrances and less involved in important issues which are critical in organisational growth and development including being less cognisant with performance outcomes (Bass & Riggio,2006).

In addition, transformational leadership style enhances creativity and raises the morale and level of motivation of teammates as well as being considerate of natural justice in decision making. This induces justice perceptions from teammates and increases performance outcomes. This is also evidenced in the use and encouragement of technical competences and professional behaviours among teammates in abide of sustaining performance over time and space for market competitiveness Burns (1978).

Based on the existing literature which classifies organisational leadership as a driver for organisational justice, there is need for a separation of the key leadership styles which are linked directly with a defined dimension of organisational justice. This is imperative because each leadership style has specific influence on the culture of the organisation. This can be illustrated in a laissez faire leadership style which has a negative influence on organisational performance in terms frequent absence from work and less involvement in critical decision making (Eagli & Schmidtc,2003). Similarly, a laissez faire leadership style is ineffective and destructive as it erodes trust in the leader as a supervisor and the organisation in general.

The distinction in leadership styles and the need for the alignment with the given dimension of organisational justice is vital in assessing and evaluating the degree of influence of leadership style on the components of organisational justice, otherwise, ineffective leaders can hide behind effective leaders to collapse organisations in form of bankruptcy, receivership and liquidation which breeds perceptions of injustice among employees

5.2: Emerging Theme One: Justice as Fairness and Reciprocity

The individuals sense of justice is an extension of the innate tendency to answer in kind (Rawls,1980). This is reflected in organisational behaviours where employees are capable of acting from a sense of justice against personal interest when they have reasonable assurance that others shall treat them with justice. This implies that whenever leaders structure norms as benchmarks for defining what is good, fair and unfair and abide by them in decision making both the organisation and members benefit and these decisions further the goals and objectives of the organisation leading to sustainability and competitiveness in the market. The benefits are thus reciprocal to the employees and the organisation when the organisational long term interests are pursued rather than the short term and individual self-interests reflected in short termism.

Similarly, there is a presumption of rationality where an employee returns good in proportion to the good received as a mutual advantage of justice and fairness. This leads to cooperation, trust and transparency in form of disclosure of benefits and costs in the relationships (Becker,2002). The participants perceive the behaviours as being performed in furthering of organisational justice and equity and are enjoined to participate by exhibiting similar conducts rather than opposite conduct which are counterproductive and adverse to the entire good of the organisation.

The irrationality limits justice as fairness and reciprocity as the positive behaviours are rewarded by negative conduct which discourages the furtherance of justice perceptions leading to perceptual injustice.

According to Cohen (1995), proportionality of rewards holds justice as fairness and reciprocity. The implication of this presumption is that individuals ought to be rewarded in proportion to their contributions to the organisation in terms of financial performance, cost control and third party perceptions of performance. The presumption of proportionality sets a benchmark form which justice and fairness are referenced in terms of entitlements and sanctions which are observed and perceived by individual senses. This can be shown by an individual employee who receives something as a favour when it surpasses the defined organisational entitlement. This individual reciprocates by giving more than the other party is entitled to obtain in the relationship (Anderson, 1999). This can be contrasted with negative reciprocity also known as retribution which is invoked whenever the rules or the norms are contravened with in form of non-compliance shown by the imposition of sanctions.

The norm of compliance holds as a benchmark for justice as fairness and reciprocity and it embraces internal compliance with the internal rules in form of policies and procedures which imposes an obligation to be obeyed in terms of observable conduct (Anderson, 1999). Besides, the internal obligations, there are external norms impacting on organisational conduct which shapes its culture and norms. These stem from the legal and regulatory environment and their implementation determines justice perceptions.

In a nutshell, justice as fairness and reciprocity as stemming from the integration of organisational culture and organisational justice holds when benefits are reciprocal, participants are rational, proportionality of rewards are made in form of equity as well as compliance with the defined internal rules and external norms in the environment.

5.3: The relationship between Organisational Leadership and Organisational Justice

The results of the correlation show that organisational leadership has a positive and significant relationship with organisational justice ($r= 0.63^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). This means that organisations with leaders having favourable leadership skills embracing teamwork, cooperation, commitment and integrity impacts on justice perceptions among staff.

Shuck & Herd (2012) shows that leadership is a process of influencing the activities of another individual or a group towards attaining defined objectives. The key tenets of organisational leadership aim at promoting a favourable working environment among staff and these include directing, motivating and influencing teammates towards the strategic goals and objectives in abide of adding value in terms of efficiency, effectiveness and economical use of resources. The leaders can extract the best performance from teammates whenever they exhibit behavioural characteristics of optimism, creativity and competences which creates a working atmosphere of trust, confidence and engagement of teammates.

The leaders can articulate the vision and mission of the organisation to teammates, enact strategies of meeting the defined objectives, evaluate the internal strength and weaknesses, threats and opportunities in the market and formulate best solutions to the identified gaps. This is coupled with the assessment of the external environment affecting the organisation so that internal decisions made are aligned with the market to deter obsolesce and application of less competitive activities which erode value addition created by the organisation. This entails the evaluation of the political environment, economic dynamics, technical drivers, legal and the ecological processes likely to affect the accomplishment of organisational performance.

In addition, Shuck & Herd (2012), shows that organisational leadership is relevant in promoting justice whenever, employees expectations are factored into the daily routines of the organisation most especially under performance management where employees and their supervisors are given an opportunity to justify the performance scores as referenced by the

agreed performance benchmarks prior to performance implementation. The leaders role is to moderate the results and generate alternatives and options of enhancing performance beyond the expected norm which is described as creative organisational leadership and management.

The role of a leader is therefore not only limited to assessment and formulation of performance options, organisational leadership extends to the managerial aspect of planning, coordinating, organising, controlling and decision making which can be categorised as management by objectives so that teammates are aware of what to achieves in a defined period of time. This call for the formulation of objectives which are specific, measurable, attainable, relevant and time bound within the organisational strategy for the period.

The objectives are derived from the master plan or the strategic plan rather than being a standalone objectives and the moment teammates grasp by implementing them into action, the organisation gains as well as the individuals in terms of desirable performance scores. These can form a basis for rewards, promotions including termination where adverse performance is less tolerated within an organisation hence affecting perceptions of organisational justice.

In addition, the leaders can transform adverse performance into desired performance by motivating staff with new and vibrant strategies, creating networks with other players in the market and generating leads and clues where business prospects can be generated to attain the strategic plans. This entails the use of option like declining prospects, enhancing prospects, accepting prospects with positive net present values as well as redeploying resources to other ventures where wealth can be generated as the best possible alternative. The leaders can be able to enhance performance when they are creative, active in research and interested in performance excellence or else the mere existence of resources and opportunities are not enough with a sluggish personality of leadership which is pessimistic and disoriented.

5.4: Emerging Theme Four: Strategic Contingency

The existing literature shows that organisational justice can be attained whenever leadership is effective. However, this relationship is on the presumption that leaders are retrospective and prospective enough to scan the internal and external environmental requirements affecting the organisation. On this note the theme of strategic contingency incorporates the current situation at stake which is neither historical nor futuristic which previous scholars tend to underscore. The strategic contingency means that leadership and management are focused on problem solving as and when they arise irrespective of their personality traits, competences and aspirations but rather use the rational knowledge which fits the situation.

In other words, the essence of strategic contingency implies that strategies are formulated but the extent of their achievement depends on environmental variables which are either favourable or unfavourable and this justifies the use of contemporary options as solutions for addressing the performance gaps.

Hickson (2019) shows that strategic contingency encompasses the use of a variety of solutions to address a given problem rather than relying on rules and norms. This calls for common sense, intelligence, creativity, gut feelings, reasoning and objectivity based on the facts. The best solution chosen in the circumstances defines an effective leader who is perceived as just, fair and rational by a third party under an officious test.

The strategic contingency concept therefore means that organisational justice exceeds outcomes and inputs of distribution, procedures and interactions between members by focusing on the present and the future rather than the historical phenomenon because these are past events which are out of control. The essence is to focus on the current gaps, rectify them and ensure that consistent fairness is promoted over time hence organisational justice.

5.5: The Relationship between of Organisational Structure and Organisational Justice

The results of the study showed that organisational structure is positively related with organisational justice and the relationship is significant ($r=0.54^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). The relationship means that defined structures within the organisations are used in implementing justice as compared to unstructured lines of authority and decision making.

According to Mintzberg (1972), organisational structure is a framework of relations on jobs, systems, operating process, people and groups making efforts to achieve the defined goals. This structure consists of elements, divisions and coordinated activities which at times is presented as an organisational chart although an organisational structure exceeds an organisational chart which only shows job positions and rank of roles.

The elements of an organisational structure include, people, policies, processes and systems, the divisions like include units, departments, branches, subsidiaries and head office whereas the coordination includes the chain of command, authority and power necessary for decision making in terms of benefits and sanctions affecting the defined goals.

An organisational structure is akin to a human body whose structure is defined by the skeleton holding the bones, organs and tissues. Therefore, when there is a malfunction with the structure, the framework becomes shapeless or rather non-functional. Based on this metaphor, a wrongly defined organisational structure leads to the execution of a wrong strategy defined by the values and norms which in turn affects the style of leadership exhibited in solving problems and generating solutions for business sustainability and performance. This leads to the misalignments of objective with the selected strategy and this malfunctionality is literally termed as organisational multiple structural failures which is comparable to the human body malfunction state known as multiple organ failure.

Hold & Antony (1991) argues that to embrace justice, the organisational structure must be defined rightly or else injustice is perceived and justice misperceived as organisational failure. Accordingly, an organisational structure embodies all organisational processes, models, power, reporting, formal communication channels, responsibility, decision making and delegation.

The relevance of organisational structure involves the facilitation of information flow within both upwards and downwards coupled with feedback, prudent decision making which is systematically generated based on defined norms, standards and practices including the selectively sourced reactions to environmental demands as well as conflict resolutions between units, departments and individuals. Similarly, organisational structure maintains relations between reporting lines and promotes accountability and transparency where reporting units are defined per reporting lines, timelines of reporting and expected reports outlined from the job holders. This clarity in reporting relationships is paramount in promoting procedural justice.

Foruli (2004) adds that there are three dimensions of organisational structure which can be exhibited in terms of hierarchy, function and inclusion. The hierarchical dimension portrays the structure in terms of ranks of units and job positions within the organisation based on a defined classification, the functional structure groups similar jobs, activities, logical requirements and specialisation in particular units and inclusive structure is defined by the extent to which a job holder is near or far from the central decision making authority. In other words, the closer one is to the central authority, the more perception of justice is felt as compared to one who is far from the central decision making authority of the organisation.

Besides the dimensions, there are two major documents used in defining organisational structure, there include the organisational charter or rather structure and the organisational guide.

The organisational charter shows the functions and duties within the organisation whereas the organisational guide contains the vision, mission, goals, values and objectives of the organisation which guide members in the execution of their duties as well as forming the basis of benchmark in terms of target achievements, refinements and modifications.

In addition, organisational justice which is defined as the extent by which employees perceive the workplace procedures, interactions and outcomes as being fair in nature. The perceptions can influence attitudes and behaviours for the good or ill will which in turn influences employees performance and successes in the organisation. The violation of any of the elements of justice makes organisational justice visible.

Adams (1965) refers to distributive justice as an outcome being distributed proportionately with the inputs based on the equity principles. The work outcomes in this context include wages, social approval, job security, promotion and career opportunities whereas the inputs include education, training, experience and effort.

In contrast to the aforementioned, Greenberg (1994) shows that procedural justice arises when fairness is made in the decision making process leading to the outcome. Therefore, procedure justice can outweigh distributive justice when the outcomes are arrived at fairly pursuant to the procedures. The processes are enshrined in the structure and once abided by, the employees perceive justice. In between distributive and procedural is interactional justice which refers to the quality of interpersonal treatment received by those working in the organisation as part of the formal decision making processes.

Bies & Moag (1986) shows that interactional justice can be enhanced when the existing structure allows for truthfulness, respect, propriety and justification of decision making for instance qualitative components in the appraisal tool which subjects members to personal judgements and opinions about conduct.

5.4: Emerging Theme Two: Justice Ranked on Structure, Strategy and Style

Organisational justice perceptions among employees is determined by the comparison of the inputs with their outputs to ascertain the extent of faire distribution of the outcomes with the inputs which is literally known as distributive justice. The alignment of the outcomes with the inputs can be embedded in the structure of the organisation Bies & Moag (1986). The structure thus provides a framework by which employees design the strategy of achieving work targets in terms of delegation, performance appraisal, and rewards for successful performance as well as strategies designed for performance improvements of employees with adverse performance. The managers are responsible for the strategies formulated and bound to use their leadership styles which are suitable in enhancing performance to the desired standards. Therefore, justice in this aspect is seen and perceived based on the structure in place, strategy adopted within the structure and style of implementing the performance standards.

Alternatively, the employees can perceive structured justice using the contribution to outcome ratio similar to the peers in the organisation to ascertain whether an appropriate level of reward for a particular degree of output arises. This ratio can be explained by equity or fairness in the salary structure defining the salary scale for the different employees. The defined structure enables the organisation to put in a strategy of retaining staff so that they can be promoted and move to different grades as part of an employee retention strategy.

The equity or fairness is limited by equality where benefits within the organisation accrue to all members irrespective of the job structure which transforms fairness from perception to reality which is seen by members. This can be illustrated by medical insurance benefits which are given to all employees irrespective of salary grades and ranks. The implication is that fairness can be attained based on equity and equality depending on the structure, strategy and style of management and leadership in the organisation.

5.5: The Relationship between OCB and Organisational Justice

The results of the study show that organisational citizenship behaviours have a positive and significant relationship with organisational justice ($r = 0.71^{**}$, $p < 0.01$). This means that employees who exhibit behaviours of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtues tend to have positive perceptions of the organisations which leads to organisational justice.

This is in contrast with employees who only perform what they are supposed to do per the defined job descriptions which may connote injustice irrespective of the fulfilment of the core roles of the job.

According to McAllister (1995), organisational citizenship behaviours entails outstanding results for the organisation as it enhances self-motivation even though it is not directly or explicitly predicted by the formal incentive systems defined in the organisation structure. Similarly, the key tenants of organisational citizenship behaviours are self-motivation which is not part of the job agenda but rather a personal choice which is discretionary and does not attract punishment or sanction.

Most of the scholars linking organisational citizenship behaviours with organisational justice like Organ (1985) show that there are key elements of the linkage in form of sportsmanship, conscientiousness, altruism, courtesy and civic virtue. This linkage is based on the notion that, behaviours which exceed the defined job requirements induce members by induction to copy the good deeds of other in order to excel professionally and enhance competences.

The reverse is true for bad behaviours which are countered by bad behaviours among staff as a way of retribution unless conflict resolution as a measure is put in place to enhance justice.

Organisational citizenship behaviours lead to organisational spontaneity defined as the extra role behaviours that are performed voluntarily but which are relevant in contributing to

organisational effectiveness McAllister (1995). These behaviours include helping co-workers, protecting the organisation, making constructive suggestions, developing oneself and spreading good will. These behaviours promote justice and fairness in the organisation as well as justice among the individual employees. Smith (1983) shows that altruism as a behaviour involves an individual helping another in a face to face situation or directly like one orientating a new staff in the operations of the organisation, completing the work load of another staff.

This is coupled with generalised compliance which is incidental to the job but very relevant in enhancing sustained performance for instance punctuality at work. The other values embedded in organisational citizenship behaviours which promote justice include courtesy as a proactive behaviour aimed at avoiding potential conflicts likely to arise with colleagues at work and is achieved by utmost respect to others. This is in addition to virtues of sportsmanship which refers to tolerance of the inconveniences and imposition of work without complaining and exaggeration of the present circumstances for the purposes of limiting animosity with others. Furthermore, sportsmanship can be aligned with civic virtue in promoting organisational justice McAllister (1995).

In this aspect, civic virtue involves the voluntary participation in the political process of the organisation for instance attending meetings, answering telephone calls of colleagues, reading work emails so as to participate in the governance of the organisation without lagging behind in work activities.

Based on the exiting literature, organisational citizenship behaviours and organisational justice are related as the discretionary behaviours contribute to direct organisational success

5.6: Emerging Theme Three: Embedded Justice

Fletcher & Weinstein (2002) avers that justice needs to be embedded within and to engage the community, cultures and the contexts of conflicts. Embedded justice means that an organisation designs structures, systems and work activities using fairness and equity as the driving norms or standards in abide of attaining organisational justice. This allows employees to develop behaviours above the expected job descriptions in terms of helping colleagues, cost control, and general respect and trust of others at the workplace.

The leaders and managers play a vital role of embedding justice in the work place by defining and implementing the vision, mission, goals and objectives of the organisation which encompasses values of fairness and equity among others being cascaded to teammates. The role of the leader is thus to generate solutions whenever expectations deviate from the norm as well as improving on the operational environment to evoke the growth and development of organisation citizenship behaviours as virtues among all employees in the organisation. This results into virtues of transparency, responsibility, accountability, professionalism and due care at the work place which enables an organisation to accomplish goals and objectives leading to sustainability and business competitiveness in the market.

Cole (2019) shows that embedded justice in organisational activities is relevant in minimising as well as eliminating counterproductive behaviours among employees. This is due to the fact that all work activities are designed with fairness, transparency and equity so that the temptations of deviance are minimised to maximum. Counterproductive behaviours in this context refers to conduct by employees which harms fellow employees and the organisation as a whole and can range from withdrawal, abuse, theft, sabotage and production deviance.

In view of the above, embedded justice can enhance virtues within the entire organisation and can be contingent on distributive, procedural and interactional justice.

5.9: The Mediation effects of OCB on Contextual Factors and Organisational Justice

The results of the study showed that the Principal Component Analysis using the Varimax method based on the Kaiser Normalisation yielded an Eigen Value which was greater than 1 with a significant loading of 0.870 and 0.808 respectively, with a cumulative variance of 58.876%. This means that the mediation effect accounted for the variations between the variables by 58.876%. That is organisational justice was explained by 58.876% when the mediation effect of organisational citizenship behaviour was present and 41.13% of the variations in organisational justice could be explained by other factors without the mediation effect.

Hazah (2019) shows that the mediation effect is effective when the cumulative variance on the Kaiser Normalisation is above 0.5 or rather 50%. Based on the findings, organisational citizenship behaviour mediation is effective in predicting organisational justice hence its relevance can be deduced from the existing literature.

According to Organ (1983), there are work related behaviours that induce organisational citizenship behaviours. This means that their presence enhances employees helping behaviours and among these includes job satisfaction. Similarly, employees engage in organisational citizenship behaviours whenever they are satisfied with the organisations work environment as they feel bound to reward the organisation in return (Bowline, 2010). These behaviours are not recognised in terms of any formal benefits and rewards but the individual practices them as voluntary behaviours, they are optional and not mandatory hence dependent on the individuals own discretion.

In addition, the work environment must create satisfaction to engage the employee to perform voluntary behaviours notwithstanding the leadership strength and involvement. The leaders must treat employees fairly with courtesy, respect and professionalism. The treatment creates an obligation among employees of abiding by the social norms created resulting into

organisational justice. However, injustice is evidenced whenever leaders create job insecurity among staff which decreases organisational citizenship behaviours. The reduction is in form of reduced performance, increased absenteeism, reduced job commitment, turnover and deviate workplace behaviours.

Colquitt (2001) shows that the mediation effect of organisational citizenship behaviours and organisational justice is based on organisational commitment. The aforementioned concept refers to the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation. The individual has personal sacrifice for the wellbeing of the organisation which creates positive attitudes to the extent of sacrificing for the betterment of the organisation. The organisational commitment is further reflected in affective, continuance and normative commitment. The affective commitment means the individuals psychological attachment to the organisation which influences the commitment of staying. There is also continuance commitment which means that the employees preference to stay with the organisation is based on the belief that leaving is more costly than staying which is beneficial whereas normative commitment arises when an employee feels a sense of obligation and a desire to benefit the organisation for the resources utilised and received from the organisation, even though the employee may feel unhappy on the job.

The mediation effect of organisational citizenship behaviours therefore implores organisations to improve the work place environment so that it is favourable for employees to engage in voluntary activities which promotes organisational justice. This omission of workplace improvement in the interest of employees and the employers leads to injustice which is destructive to the organisation and can in extreme circumstances cause bankruptcy and liquidation.

5.10: Emerging Theme Five: Discretionary Motivation

The mediation effect of organisational citizenship behaviours and organisational justice is to the effect that employees voluntarily exhibit work effort whenever they perceive the work environment as being just and fair to them in advancing their careers and ambitions. This work effort is termed as discretionary effort and it means the level of effort which an employee is capable of giving which exceeds the bare minimum that is required on the job Colquitt (2005). The discretion motivation is voluntary and relative as it varies from individual to individual without attracting any monetary rewards. Robbins (2019) shows that discretionary motivation is dependent on leadership behaviours at the work place. The leadership behaviour refers to the ability of a leader to influence teammates to perform at a high level to achieve organisational goals. The critical role of a leader in discretionary motivation is to shape the work environment and influence employee attitudes, perceptions and work behaviours acknowledged in organisational citizenship behaviours. The leaders determine what tasks employees perform and how these are done, the relationships formed with subordinates and amongst members of the work group and the general conditions under which employees work. Organ & Padsakoff (1996) adds that leadership behaviours influence the power to leverage the untapped talent and energies of employees to evoke team performance by creating a work environment that supports positive performance.

Similarly, Kotter (1992), points that different leadership styles are relevant in building discretionary motivation. That is, supportive leaders show concern for the wellbeing of employees, instrumental leaders make the tasks clear to employees of what is expected of them and how they accomplish it, contingent leaders reward employees based on their performance and transformational leaders instil values, goals and aspirations that inspire and energise employees which is key and vital to organisational justice.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents conclusions and recommendations from the findings of the study as well as deductions obtained from the reviewed literature on the study variables.

6.1: Objective One: Culture and Justice

The study showed that organisational culture was positively related with organisational justice and the strength of the relationship was significant. The organisational culture was evidenced in form of values, norms, beliefs and aspirations which distinguished one organisation from the other and organisational justice was measured based on the elements of distributive, procedural, interactional as well as informational justice based on the existing literature.

The conclusion from the aforementioned relationship was an emerging theme of Justice as Fairness and Reciprocity. This means that in an organisational setting, justice benefits both the organisation and the employees in terms of performance achievement, compliance, cost control and general risk management.

6.2: Recommendation One: Operationalisation

Banks should structure their activities based on equity and fairness to attain organisational justice. The structuring should be systematic to embrace, people, processes, procedures, systems and preparedness for external events emanating from threats and opportunities.

6.3: Objective Two: Leadership and Justice

The findings of the study showed that organisational leadership was positively related with organisational justice and the strengths of the relationship was significant.

The findings were supported by the existing literature that leaders can articulate the vision and mission of the organisation to teammates, enact strategies of meeting the defined objectives, evaluate the internal strength and weaknesses, threats and opportunities in the market and formulate best solutions to the identified gaps.

The relationship was aligned to the existing literature and this facilitated the formulation of an emerging theme of Strategic Contingency. This implies a leader who influences teammates to generate solutions which are relevant and fit to the existing problem and once solved the interests of the organisation and the individual are protected.

6.4: Recommendation Two: Empowerment

Banks should empower staff with skills and trainings in leadership and management of resources so that they are able to remain competitive in the market as well as promoting competences and adoption to the changing requirements in the market most especially in the digital age of technological transformation and leverage.

The empowerment should be strategic to include most of the prime stakeholders inter alia, staff, management, executives, board members and customers. The empowered staff are more likely to improve on their perceptions of justice viz a viz injustice which can promote sanity, commitment and being sacrosanct to organisational values.

6.5: Objective Three: Structure and Justice

The findings of the study showed that organisational structure was positively related with organisational justice and the strength of the relationship was significant.

The findings were concomitant with literature which averred that organisational structure is a framework of relations on jobs, systems, operating process, people and groups making efforts to achieve the defined goals. That is structure embeds divisions and coordinated activities which at times are presented as an organisational chart though an organisational structure exceeds an organisational chart by being whole inclusive of dynamics and ethos intrinsic and peculiar to the organisation.

The conclusions of the findings with the cosmopolitan literature of scholars led to a deduction of Justice based on Structure, Strategy and Style as a working model for organisations which value peace, fairness and equity at a workplace.

The structure as a framework aids in formulation of strategy as a course of action for achieving objectives and influences the style adopted to influence teammates in the execution phase amidst the prevailing environmental circumstance and available options.

6.6: Recommendation Three: Inclusiveness

Banks should formulate a framework which is aligned to its vision, mission, goals, values and objectives in a bid of being competitive and sustainable in the market. The structure should be comprised of the key drivers of business, entailed with professionalism and a compliance culture fitting the industry notwithstanding the fact that the strategy should be inward and outward looking including the styles of leadership being intra vires to the organisational norms and values.

6.7: Objective Four: Citizenship Behaviours and Justice

The study showed that organisational citizenship behaviours are positively related with organisational justice and the extent of the relationship was significant.

The relationship was affirmative to the existing research, that is employees who exhibiting behaviours of altruism, consciousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtues tend to have positive perceptions of the organisational activities which leads to organisational justice over time.

The above presumption is contrasted with employees who only perform what they are supposed to do per the defined job descriptions but which may connote injustice and bar others in performing duties exceeding the defined job parameters.

Therefore, organisational citizenship behaviours can flourish when all staff can exhibit it as way of promoting justice irrespective of being voluntary and discretionary in nature. This contributed to the theme of Embedded Justice

The theme of embedded justice is reliant on the role of leaders and managers being changed with the duty and responsibility defining and implementing the vision, mission, goals and objectives of the organisation encompassing values of fairness and equity being cascaded to teammates.

6.8: Recommendation Four: Tranquillity

Banks should implement performance standards which are calm, peaceful, realistic, attainable and transparent in abide of evoking organisational citizenship behaviours which are discretionary but efficient in promoting performance success, accountability and justice in the organisation.

6.9: Objective Five. Mediation Effect of Citizenship Behaviours

The mediation effect of organisational citizenship behaviours between contextual antecedents and organisational justice was significant on a normalised yield value. This implies that organisational citizenship behaviours could explain organisational justice as an independent variable like any other independent variable in the model besides its mediation effect.

The presumption of mediation is in support with literature which is to the effect that organisational citizenship behaviours are work related behaviours above the defined job norm. The employees engage in organisational citizenship behaviours whenever they are satisfied with the organisations work environment by developing feelings of being bound to reward the organisation in return.

The behaviours are not recognised in terms of any formal benefits and rewards but the individual practices them as voluntary behaviours, they are optional and not mandatory hence dependent on the individuals own discretion.

A theme of Discretionary Motivation was adopted from the detailed analysis of literature in relation with the findings of the study. The essence of discretion is the psychological effect

which propels an employee to perform beyond the extra mile well knowing that such behaviours are non-formal and voluntary without monetary benefits.

6.10: Recommendation Five: Inveterate

The Banks should espouse discretionary behaviours among employees so that they are established and sustainable rather than being solitary. The members can repeat such behaviours whenever a favourable and pleasant environment is established based on standards, rationality and values of transparency, trust and accountability so that employees can inveterate the behaviours over time in the organisation.

6.11: Point of Departure

The existing research by Byrne & Cropanzano (2001) found organisational justice is perceived by workers at an organisational level either being *faire* or *un faire* in terms of organisational norms and standards which defines the ongoing activities. This argument is further developed by Greenberg (1985) who argues that organisational justice influences the extent of employees' perceptions of work in terms of the time, focus, ability and responsibility of completing a given work task. Similarly, Organ (1988) shows that an organisation with a favourable working environment which nurtures employees career growth and development enhances positive perceptions of justice resulting into organisational citizenship behaviours, resilience, engagement and commitment. These narratives focused at employee perceptions of justice at organisational level of which the current debate is individual perception of justice which is aggregated to organisational level.

The individual level perception of justice was tested and some of the questions in the research instrument included, *Employees in this Bank share information with others at ease*, and the discovery led to informational justice as one of the components of organisational justice.

Secondary, the researchers like Organ & Paine (1996), Hofstede (2001) and Neumann (2007) among others avers that organisational justice is perceptual, psychological and attitudinal.

However, the research findings showed that organisational justice is real. Some of the leading questions to this effect included, *This Bank treats all employees with equity*. The responses showed that organisational justice can be *Seen* under sight or is *Visionary*, can be *Heard* under sound or *Auditory*, *Felt or Smelt* hence *Olfactory*, *Tested* known as *Gustatory*, *touch* under *Tactile* and *Moved* from places literally known as *Vestibular*.

Therefore, this research used and adopted a positivist approach in nature of treating organisational justice as a reality which is real and factual than ideal or based on ideas.

6.12: Reflexivity

The general rule is that reflectivity is necessary and relevant due to the fact that qualitative research is subjective. Therefore, it become imperative for a researcher to minimise and desist from personal biases and judgments in the research process (Braun & Clarke,2019).

Reflexivity involves examining personal judgements, practices and beliefs during the process of data collection and ensuring that these do not influence the outcomes of the research for the purpose of clarity and precision. The researcher reflecting on personal beliefs and values must question own assumptions for the purpose of ensuring that the research is free from biases and prejudices.

Reflectivity can be approached in two ways of which, one can involve a researcher aiming at reducing biases where as in another the researcher can use bias as a central driving force for knowledge creation but in any of the cases, personal biases ought to be expunged in the research.

In view of the above, independent questionnaires were issued and filled by the respondents and the researcher's role involved collection. These were delivered to a research analyst who conducted research analysis and delivered the analysed data for compilation by the researcher.

Similarly, data compilation was supported by the existing literature to draw inferences and conclusions. This excluded personal biases and value judgements in the research.

6.13: Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are the moral principles governing the process of conducting research. They include integrity, confidentiality, voluntary participation, informed consent and anonymity among others.

In order to abide by the principles of ethics while performing the research, permission was sought from the different Banks to conduct research and after obtaining permission, the questionnaires were distributed to the respondents who answered the questions respectively.

The information obtained and the responses in the questionnaires were strictly used for academic research and not for any other purpose.

The literature by previous scholars were acknowledged by in text citation under the APA Format of referencing involving the author and date of publication as well as bibliography and references per the appendix to the report.

6.14: Limitations of the Study

The research was cross sectional as the responses in the questionnaires were collected at a point in time. This implies that the benefits accruing from longitudinal study were not realised most especially collecting data repeatedly from the same object of the study.

There was a variation of the response rate for the respondents. The actual and the desired response rates were not equal, although the actual response rate was desirable as it exceeded the necessary minimum.

Similarly, not all questions in the questionnaires were filled in by the respondents which limited the scope and coverage of the research per the stated objectives.

The criterion variable was limited to three parameters of distributive, procedural and interactional justice hence skipped the informational justice which is relevant in predicting organisational justice.

The research aimed at establishing the relationships between the variables of the study not causation of establishing the causes and effects between the variables of the study as a limitation generic to behavioural research.

The research sourced information from employees who filled the questionnaires with less regard to other stakeholders like the Board of Directors who are critical in contributing to organisational justice.

6.15: Areas for Further Research

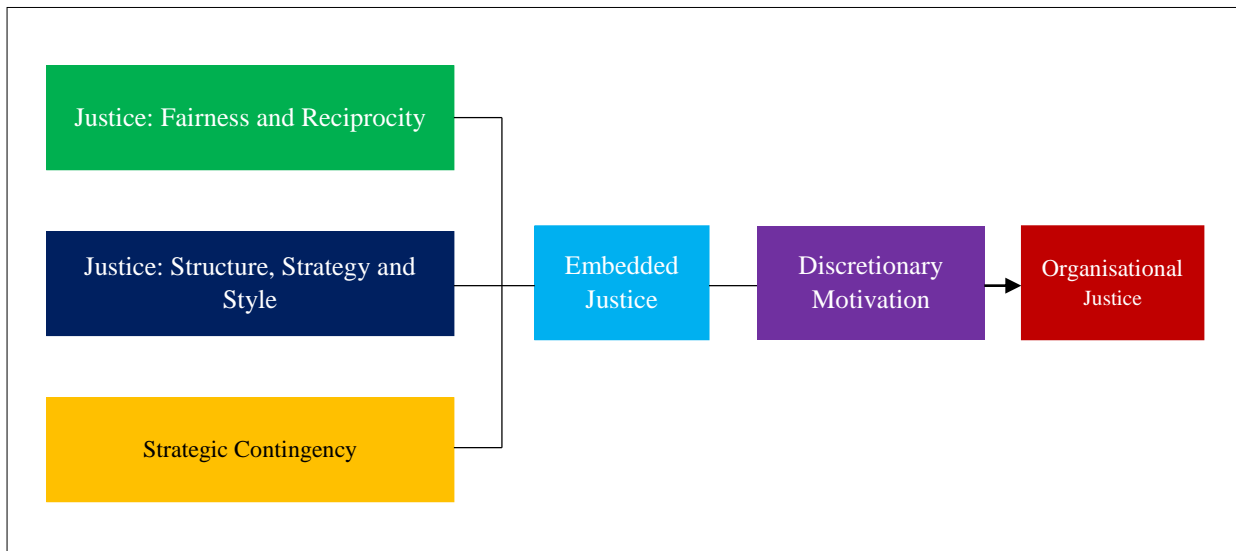
The research was cross sectional in nature as the responses were collected at a point in time.

There is need for a research using the longitudinal research methodology to ascertain, The Contextual Antecedents and Organisational Citizenship Mediation on Organisational Justice of Banks in Uganda.

A further research can be done on Organisational Justice of Banks using the four parameters of distributive, procedural, interactional and informational to ascertain how its predicted by the Contextual Antecedents and Organisational Citizenship Mediation.

A study can be done ascertaining Organisational Justice in other Regulated Financial Institutions like Insurances and Money Lending Companies which receive customer deposits and employee staff. This is due to the fact that; this research was limited to Banks.

6.16: The Researchers Peculiar Model



Source: Mulumba Joseph, PhD Model.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Questionnaire.

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a PhD Student at Selinus University of Science and Literature researching on the Topic of, **THE CONTEXTUAL ANTECEDENTS AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR MEDIATION ON ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE OF BANKS IN UGANDA.**

I request for your precious time by filling in this Questionnaire which is adopted as a tool of collecting primary information for this research.

The information provided shall be treated with utmost confidentiality it deserves and shall strictly be used for this academic research.

I take this honour to thank you in advance for accepting this request and pray that all the required responses are filled up to facilitate the accomplishment of the defined objectives of the study.

Regards.

Student.

1. Background Information

Gender Male Female

Organisation. Bank Non Bank

Position. Executive Senior Manager Manager Officer.

Experience. Less than 1 Year 1- 5 Years 5-9 Year 10 Years and Above

Education. Bachelor, Master Professional Others

2.Fill the questions Tick the response which is aligned with your perceptions of this Organisation as ranked by the scale below,

5	4	3	2	1
Strongly Agree(SA)	Agree(A)	Neither Agree Nor Disagree(NAD)	Disagree (DA)	Strongly Disagree(SD)

Required Responses

No	Description	5	4	3	2	1
	Organisational Culture					
1	This Bank treats all employees with courtesy respect and affection	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
2	This Bank has standards of performance evaluation for all employees	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
3	This Bank recognises and rewards excellent performers with incentives	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
4	This Bank treasures integrity and professionalism exhibited by employees	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
5	This Bank has defined procedures for sanctioning misconduct of employees	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
6	This Bank has a list of core values observed by all employees	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
7	This Bank has a defined objective of providing excellent customer service in the industry	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
8	This Bank has policies of attracting the best talent in the industry	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
	Organisational Leadership					
9	The leaders in this Bank are proactive in guiding teams in the execution of defined tasks	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
10	The leaders in this Bank formulate different options to different problems	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
11	The leaders in this Bank are cognisant of the market requirements when executing tasks	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
12	The leaders in this Bank involve staff in decision making	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
13	The leaders in this Bank discuss performance objectives with staff	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
14	The leaders in this Bank make decisions which are optional in the interest of stakeholders	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
15	The leaders in this Bank make decisions which are aligned with the vision and mission of shareholders	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours					
16	Employees in this Bank share information with others at ease	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
17	Employees in this Bank can perform any task whenever requested by a colleague	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
18	Employees in this Bank work in teams to accomplish tasks	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
19	Employees in this Bank respect each other at work	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
20	Employees in this Bank are always punctual at work	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
21	Employees in this Bank endeavour to correct errors before submission of final reports to supervisors	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
	Organisational Justice					
22	This Bank treats all employees equally	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
23	This Bank encourages employees to adhere to policies and procedures consistently	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD

24	This Bank encourages conflict resolutions among staff	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
25	This Bank discourages individualism in the execution of work activities	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD
26	This Bank has a reward system for employees commensurate with achievements	SA	A	NAD	DA	SD

Appendix 2: Table for Sample Determination

Table for determining the Random Sample Size from a determined Population

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2,800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3,000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3,500	346
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4,000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1,000	278	4,500	354
35	32	150	108	360	186	1,100	285	5,000	357
40	36	160	113	380	191	1,200	291	6,000	361
45	40	170	118	400	196	1,300	297	7,000	364
50	44	180	123	420	201	1,400	302	8,000	367
55	48	190	127	440	205	1,500	306	9,000	368
60	52	200	132	460	210	1,600	310	10,000	370
65	56	210	136	480	214	1,700	313	15,000	375
70	59	220	140	500	217	1,800	317	20,000	377
75	63	230	144	550	226	1,900	320	30,000	379
80	66	240	148	600	234	2,000	322	40,000	380
85	70	250	152	650	242	2,200	327	50,000	381
90	73	260	155	700	248	2,400	331	75,000	382
95	76	270	159	750	254	2,600	335	1,000,000	384

Derived from: Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D.W. (1970). *Determining sample size for research activities*. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 30,607-610.