The Mediating Effect of Organizational Justice Between Power Sources and Organizational Commitment

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Abstract: This study examines the role of organizational justice in the relationship between energy sources and organizational commitment. This study uses structural equation modeling (SEM) to test the hypothesis on a sample of 160 Indonesian workers in a state enterprise. The results show that energy sources are positively associated with organizational commitment and that organizational fairness is positively related to organizational commitment. The power source, in turn, has a positive effect on organizational justice. The results show that organizational justice plays a mediating role between energy sources and organizational commitment. The conclusions of this study highlight the importance of mediation role of organizational justice in exploring the relationship between energy sources and organizational commitment.

Keywords: Power Sources, Organizational Justice, Organizational Commitment and State-Owned Enterprises

1. INTRODUCTION

Power is crucial to the major concepts in mechanism to an organization (Rahim and Afza, 1993; Zhao, Shang, Lin, Tan, Li, and Liu, 2016). Some organizational behavioral scholars suggest that power used to direct and coordinate activities to organizational goals (French and Raven, 1959; Rahim, 1981; Yukl, 2010). Power prospects work with superiors and a series of important results for members of the organization (Raven, 2008, Yukl, 2010, Fleming and Spicer, 2014).

Classification of leaders or regulatory powers has been established (Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson, 1980, Shukla, 1982), researchers tend to use the five-dimensional model (coercion, appreciation, legitimacy, expert and referral) of the French and Raven models (1959). Fleming and Spicer (2014) explain complex managerial phenomena from a power perspective. Zhao *et al.* (2016) hold a view that the taxonomies of

leader behaviors based on the sources of power and Rahim (1988) tend to see power as a highly individualized effect between power holder and targeted object.

In this study, we examine the fundamental relationship of leaders with organizational commitment of organizational followers and justice mediated by the effects of both. Organizational sustainability disrupted, if employee commitment is not solid (Angle and Perry, 1981; Elias, 2009), Fedor, Caldwell, and Herold (2006) include organizational justice in improving degree of organizational commitment, to avoid a degree of injustice to career policy, work environment and a leader-subordinate relationship will decrease employee commitment (Lam, Yik, and Schaubroeck, 2002; Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Beugre and Baron, 2001).

Furthermore, equity-linked to fair treatment, empowerment, involvement in job satisfaction as well as in organizational activities. Employees often compare rewards they receive to other employees in the internal environment as well as in the external environment of their organization (Morrison and Robinson,1997; Rynes, Gerhart, and Minette, 2004). However, most research on emerging human resource practices has attracted much scientific attention, but most research in this area focuses on the extent to which these human resource practices can improve individual and organizational performance. A little work has explored the psychological process in which such practices affect employee attitudes and behavior, particularly organizational justice as a common denominator in addressing organizational commitment issues.

Organizational sense of justice is combined with a variety of organizational outcomes, such as perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, organizational organizational behavior (Moorman, Blakely and Niehoff, 1998, Moorman, 1991, Moorman, Niehoff and Organ, 1993). They believe that the literature on goal commitment is updated by the resulting psychological phases and proof of the preconditions and consequences of objective commitment (Renn, 1998, Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck and Alge, 1999). In other words, organizational justice can provide an explanation and understanding of human resource management, as well as the result of relationships in the organization/workplace.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Organizational Commitment

Commitment defined as an expressive sense of identification, loyalty, and work involvement, and close relationships of employees with the organization (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982; Cheney and Tompkins, 1987; Chen, Tsui, and Farh, 2002; Pritchard, Havitz, and Howard, 1999; Allen and Meyer, 1990). Allen and Meyer's organizational commitments of affective, continuance and normative commitment are the components of each attitude that differentiated and measured. Affective commitment predicted with work experience, continuance commitment measured by potential loss, and normative commitment measured by aspects relating to individual's family and cultural socialization experiences, (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Meyer, Allen, and Smith, 1993; Meyer, Irving, and Allen, 1998; Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Employee commitment tends to increase if given a specific purpose compared to a general-purpose (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Allen and Meyer, 1990). This means that employees committed if employees are given more detailed jobs that are specific. Financial incentives can also increase employee commitment

to achieving goals that deemed achievable (Colquitt, Lepine, and Wesson, 2015). This means employees will commit to achieving organizational goals if the organization provides financial incentives.

Factors that support commitment to the organization: (a) work situation; understood as a variety of conditions that are external to an individual in the course of execution of his / her work (Shore and Tetrick, 1991; Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001), (b) trust and confidence in organizational management/company; more internal and subjective factors (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Spence Laschinger, Finegan, and Shamian, 2002) and; (c) loyalty to the organization; the supportive response of an employee to the work situation faced by them and the hope for a good situation (Rhoades, Eisenberger, and Armeli, 2001; Settoon, Bennett, and Liden, 1996).

2.2. Power Sources

The success of a leader influenced by nature, behavior, and power (Greenleaf, 2002; Bass and Stogdill, 1990; Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Brass and Burkhardt, 1993). Power have the driving force of leaders to influence, move, and change the behavior of subordinates (Kavanagh and Ashkanasy, 2006; Kotter, 2010; Denis, Lamothe, and Langley, 2001). According to Yukl (2010) power is potential agents to influence the attitudes and behaviors of others or target person. Therefore, the power conception of leadership can not be separated from the ability, authority, and power and use of it possessed. A leader, because his / her status and duties must have power.

The concept of power sources over two conflicting groups of "position power" (legitimate, reward, coercive, information, ecological) and "personal power" (expert and referent), relatively independent, covering several different and overlapping components (Bass, 1960; Etzioni, 1961; Yukl and Falbe, 1991; Yukl, 2010). According to the concept, power derived in part from the intrinsic occasion of its position in the organization and partly because of the attributes of the leader and the leader-follower relationship (Yukl, 2010).

Thus, effective leaders need power, it does not mean that more power will be better. The total amount of power needed for effective leadership depends on nature, task, and situation. The effectiveness of each tactic influences the effort of engagement of the followers, among other things, depends on the leadership's skills, the type of demand and position of the leader and personal power.

2.3. Organizational Justice

The theory of organizational justice states that the individual defines justice not only according to the result received (Greenberg, 1987) but also according to the procedure used to determine the outcome of a person, called procedural justice (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997; Greenberg, 1990; Colquitt, 2001). This leads to the notion that organizational justice classified into content-focused justice (distributive justice) (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997; Cowherd and Levine, 1992; Greenberg, 1987) and justice centered on the process (procedural justice) (Lind and Tyler, 1988; Tyler and Blader, 2003; Blader and Tyler, 2003; Greenberg, 1987).

Distributive justice related to employee perceptions of the outcomes received (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992; Moorman, 1991; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997). Procedural justice deals with employee perceptions of the policies and procedures used to determine the results (Moorman, 1991;

Alexander and Ruderman, 1987; Blodgett, Hill, and Tax, 1997; Konovsky, 2000). Thus, individuals in their efforts make the sense of justice in the workplace, the results they receive alone are not enough. They pay attention to the way or the definition procedure of the result.

The conceptual equilibrium of distribution is the comparison of results to individual inputs and outputs of inputs of others (Cook and Hegtvedt, 1983; Arrow, 1974). If the comparison is not the same, the party that has a higher relationship will feel guilty of being overpaid, while those with lower relationships feel angry paid less (Greenberg, 1990). Based on this statement, people assume that higher or lower payments also cause a sense of injustice.
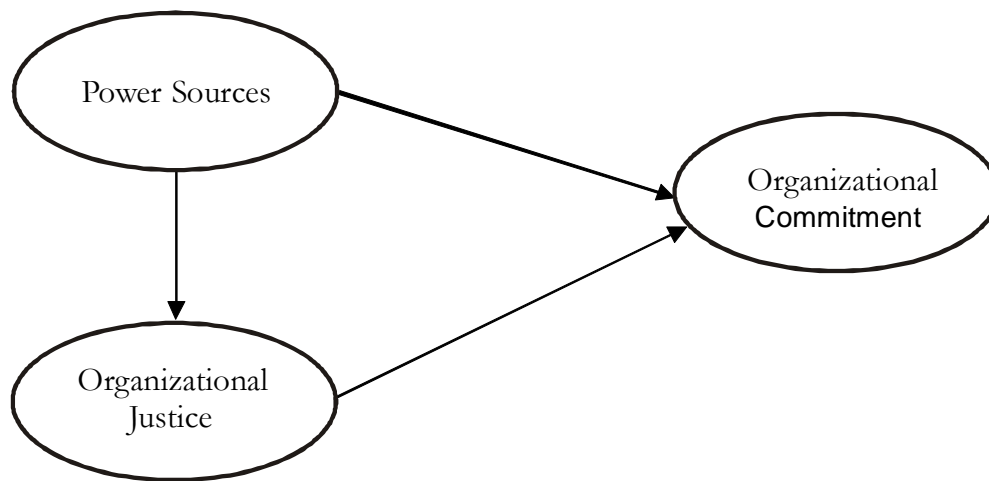
3. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Figure 1: Proposed Conceptual Framework

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. Sampling Design

Data from this survey were collected in 2016 by the state-owned Indonesian Port Corporation or IPC, Indonesia. After IPC management agreed to approve this study, data were collected in a two-part survey: one for employees and the other for their immediate supervisor. Employees are required to complete a self-assessment questionnaire that measures leadership and perceptions of organizational justice. Supervisors are asked to evaluate the organizational commitment of their subordinates. Questionnaires to 167 employees and their bosses directly to IPC who participated in this study. A total of 86 employee questionnaires and 74 supervisory questionnaires were returned, with a response rate of 78% for the employee group and 75% for the supervisory group. After issuing incomplete questionnaires and unparalleled pair of supervisor-overtime, 242 of them remain, including the final sample for this study. Of these samples, 66% were male and 34% were female. The median age was 35, between 19 and 59 years of age. Average duration of respondents was 10.76 years. The employment rate includes workers (21.9%), technical assistants (49.6%), engineers (22.3%) and senior engineers (6.2%).

4.2. Research Procedure

4.2.1. Measures

Size of interest from scales made in Western countries. In Indonesia the source of strength and the size of organizational justice is accepted by Dr. med. Juliansyah Noor, who uses this measure in context in Indonesia. First of all, all the points in the questionnaire are translated by a bilingual expert from the original English version in Indonesia. So this Indonesian translation is translated into English by other bilingual specialists. Finally, the back translations and the original versions of each measure are compared and the differences are solved by the translator. The six-point Likert type scale is used for most constructions in the face of the usual Indonesian trend toward the central trend.

4.2.2. Power Sources

To measure power sources, we used a 5-point scale created by the Rahim of Leader Power Inventory (Rahim, 1988). Question completed on Likert scale 5 points, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (fully agree). The object instrument uses a 5-point Likert scale to measure the perceptions of subordinates about how much each of their boss's strengths are.

4.2.3. Organizational Justice

To measure organizational justice, we used a 5-point scale built by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). Question completed on Likert scale 5 points, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (fully agree). So far, the highest score shows the level of organizational justice perceived. Examples of distributive justice are included, "My work schedule is fair" and "I think that my level of pay is fair." And examples of procedural justice items included, "Procedures designed to generate standards so that decisions made with consistency."

4.2.4. Organizational Commitment

To measure organizational commitment, we used a 5-item scale constructed by Meyer et al. (1993). The questions answered on a 5-point Likert-type scale, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). On this measure, higher scores indicated higher levels of organizational commitment. Examples of organizational commitment items included, "It would be costly for me to change my profession now."

5. DATA ANALYSIS

The nature of this research classified as a causal research. Data obtained from the instrument in the form of questionnaires tested the validity and reliability. Based on the results of the research data for the variables of power sources, organizational justice, and organizational commitment compared with these criteria concluded that the data distribution is normal, both univariate for each indicator or for the multivariate indicator.

Table 1
Test Data Normality

Variable	min	max	Skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
Power Sources						
X1	2,000	5,000	-,328	-1,346	,965	1,979
X2	2,000	5,000	-,628	-2,577	,925	1,898
X3	2,000	5,000	-,345	-1,415	1,545	3,169
X4	2,000	5,000	-,457	-1,875	,543	1,113
Multivariate					7,045	5,109
Organizational Justice						
X5	2,000	5,000	-,138	-,568	-,148	-,303
X6	2,000	5,000	-,249	-1,023	,542	1,111
X7	2,000	5,000	-,347	-1,423	-,216	-,443
X8	2,000	5,000	-,485	-1,991	-,024	-,050
Multivariate					2,609	1,892
Organizational Commitment						
Y1	2,000	5,000	-,484	-1,985	,227	,465
Y2	3,000	5,000	-,196	-,803	-,704	-1,444
Y3	3,000	5,000	,001	,004	,061	,124
Y4	2,000	5,000	-,304	-1,247	,002	,003
Multivariate					,570	,414

Based on the fit-model test result shown in figure 2, it is known that the full model is fit, because it meets the test index based on the required Goodness of Fit.

Table 2
Goodness of Fit Index

	Cut of Value	Result
λ Chi –Square	Expected small value	27,049
Significance Probability	≥ 0.05	0,964
RMSEA	9,000	15,000
GFI	≥ 0.90	0,956
AGFI	≥ 0.90	0,919
CMIN/DF	≤ 2.00	0,644
TLI	≥ 0.95	1,075
CFI	≥ 0.95	1,000

Based on the result of data analysis, the standardized factor loadings of the latent variables was 0,39 (organizational commitment). T-statistic = 2,120, and t table = 1,984. This result indicated that latent variable significant explanation on the higher-level common factor (power sources).

Based on the result of data analysis, the standardized factor loadings of the latent variables was 0,44 (organizational commitment). T-statistic = 2,385, and t table = 1,984. This result indicated that latent variable significant explanation of the higher-level common factor (organizational justice).

Based on the result of data analysis, the standardized factor loadings of the latent variables was 0,64 (organizational justice). T-statistic = 4,551, and t table = 1,984. This result indicated that latent variable significant explanation on the higher-level common factor (power sources).

All the t values reached the significant level, thus indicating the strong correlatives among the two latent variables and integrating them into a higher-level common factor (Hou *et al.,* 2010).
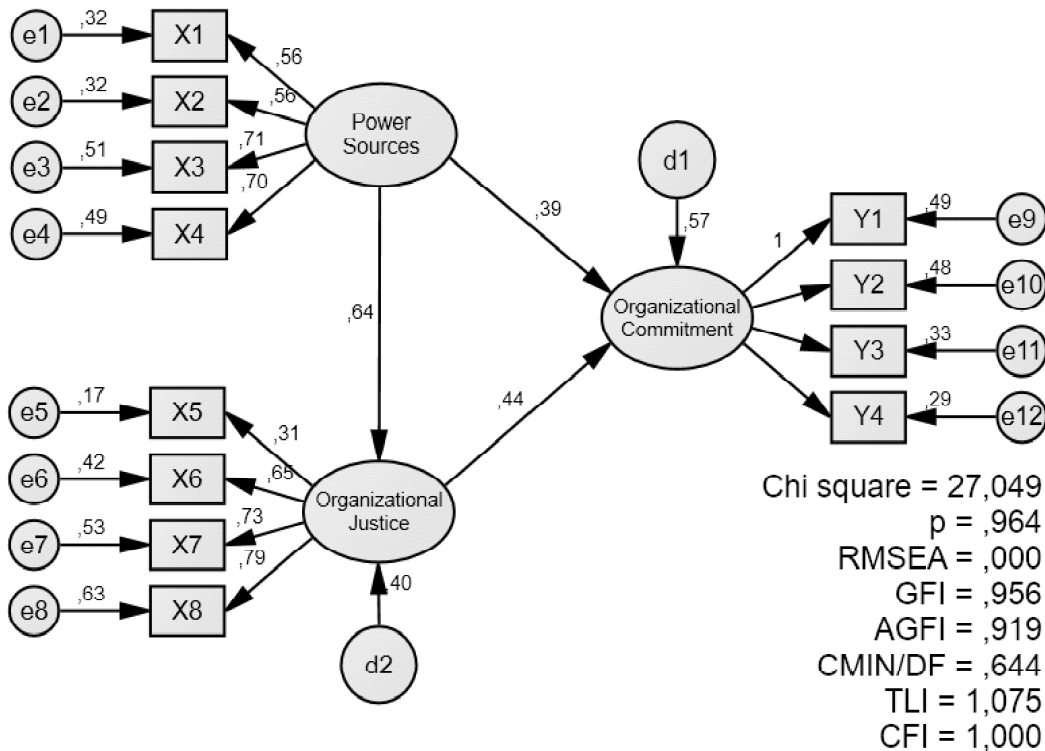

Figure 2: Specification Model

6. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Today, any organization faced with the challenge of sustaining and enhancing employees' commitment through a variety of ways, and one of them is increasing employee sense of organizational fairness within the organization. It believed that giving employees a sense of fairness, then employees will commit and more productive. Power sources built so that the employees are bound and stay at the company and leadership effectiveness oriented to self-ability as a strengthening of employee commitment (Brass and Burkhardt, 1993; Fleming and Spicer, 2014).

Organizational commitment and organizational justice are also influenced by the source of the leader's power that managers have over their employees. An employee who has high motivation and sufficient capability can perform high or low according to the expectations employee feels. Effort and attempt are always associated with rewards (both salary and bonuses). Although basically equity associated with fair treatment, empowerment, involvement in job satisfaction and in organizational activities. Employees who understand the fair review process feel emotionally committed to their organization and work, and stay with the organization. In addition, employees who see their organization being fair, more satisfied with the organization. This, in turn, tends to increase employee job satisfaction. Therefore, employee perceptions of procedural fairness and job satisfaction expected to be positive (McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992).

Rewards are not always synonymous with financially. An employee can feel appreciated by empathetic communication from his work environment. Individuals can also feel valued by engagement in making decisions. In giving rewards not to the job but to the person. Giving rewards considered fair or unjust are often caused by the lack of open communication. When supervisor remains within the formal boundaries in assigning responsibility to subordinates, then they feel that supervisors apply fair procedural. Such managerial behavior is in line with the principles of procedural justice (eg, consistency, representation, oppressive bias), and should increase subordinates perception to manage fair acts.

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