

Organizational Justice and Employee Job Effectiveness in Family Businesses in Uganda: The Mediating Role of Organizational Support

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INTRODUCTION

The importance of perceived fairness or justice in engendering positive attitudes and proactive behaviors at the workplace by employees is well established in the literature (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). The significance of perceived organizational justice is demonstrated by its influence (both positive and negative) on work attitudes and behaviors by employees at the workplace. Some of the positive attitudes and behaviors include organizational sup-

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port (Loi, Hang-yue, & Foley, 2006), organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Herda & Lavelle, 2011; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), job satisfaction (Colquitt et al., 2001), job performance (Colquitt et al., 2001), the ability to attract and retain employees, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) (Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler, & Purcell, 2004), trust in an organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Loi et al., 2006), and post-employment citizenship (Herda & Lavelle, 2011). On the other hand, the perception of injustice at the workplace has been linked to increased employee turnover intentions to leave, and unproductive work behaviors such as aggression, hostility, and even theft (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Dailey & Kirk, 1992). Thus, favorable fairness perceptions from employees could engender positive attitudes and proactive behaviors at the workplace which might be critical in contributing to their JEF and the overall success of the firms.

Several empirical studies have been conducted to examine the influence of employees' perception of fairness or justice at the workplace and employee- and organization-related outcomes. However, there have been few studies focusing on family businesses, despite their unique characteristics that lend themselves to potential sources of injustice perceptions at the workplace, by non-family employees in particular (Barnett & Kellermanns, 2006; Carsrud, 2006; Sieger, Bernhard, & Frey, 2011). Family businesses are ubiquitous organizations globally and are very important to entrepreneurial activities and job creation in sub-Saharan Africa (Acquaah, 2011). Family businesses are characterized by paternalistic relationships between the owners/managers and employees (Bertrand & Schoar, 2016), cohesive clan cultures in which employees are hired for the long run and treated generously (Miller & Le Breton-Miller, 2005), altruism and nepotism (Lubatkin, Schulze, Ling, & Dino, 2005; Schulze, Lubatkin, & Dino, 2003), lack of delegation (Sieger et al., 2011), perceptions of in-group status for family members and out-group status for non-family employees (Barnett & Kellermanns, 2006), and top management positions and promotions not based on qualifications and expertise but on relationship to the family (Bertrand & Schoar, 2006). The interaction of the family system with its familial relationships and the business has the potential to create an environment that is favorable to fostering biasness, favoritism, altruism, and nepotism at the family business workplace (Lubatkin et al., 2005), which is likely to create perceptions of injustice by non-family employees (Barnett & Kellermanns, 2006).

Favorable fairness or justice perceptions from employees in family businesses could engender positive attitudes and proactive behaviors at the workplace, which is critical in explaining the success of family businesses. Consequently, there has been increasing attention being paid to justice issues in family businesses (Barnett & Kellermanns, 2006; Lubatkin, Ling, & Schulze, 2007; Sieger et al., 2011; Van der Heyden, Blondel, & Carlock, 2005). However, these studies are mostly conceptual in nature, and there are few empirical studies to corroborate the conceptual propositions about the relationship between justice perceptions and positive work attitudes and behaviors by employees at the workplace (Sieger et al., 2011). Furthermore, other social exchange relationships (Blau, 1964) (e.g., organizational support and organizational commitment) between employees and their organizations in family businesses have received scant attention in the literature. Additionally, to our knowledge, there is no study that has investigated issues of organizational justice and social exchange relationships in family businesses and how they influence employee work performance in sub-Saharan Africa. Thus, there is the need to examine the justice perceptions and social exchange relationships of non-family employees in family businesses and how they affect the job performance of non-family employees at the workplace.

The purpose of this chapter is to examine how perceptions of justice and the extent to which social exchange relationships, especially, perceived organizational support (POS), developed at the workplace, influence the job performance of non-family employees in family businesses in Uganda, a sub-Saharan African developing economy. Building on social exchange theory and organizational justice theory, we argue that non-family employees' JEF would be positively influenced by the level of organizational support they receive in family businesses. POS describes the extent to which employees perceive that their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Moreover, organizational justice perceptions would influence employees' JEF indirectly through organizational support.

This study has the potential to make a contribution to the family business literature since most studies on organizational justice, organizational support, and employee JEF have not been empirically investigated in family businesses in general and sub-Saharan African countries in particular. However, not only are the organizational environments and the mechanisms under which employees and management interact different, but also the relationship among non-family employees and family owners and

management is different in sub-Saharan Africa. different in sub-Saharan Africa. This study further illustrates how senior management in family businesses might perceive the impact of organizational justice perceptions of non-family employees on their behavior, and thus points to the role of POS in boosting the productivity of non-family employees. Thus, studies such as this have the potential to inform family business management of the consequences of perceived fairness and POS by non-family employees at the workplace.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

Perceived Organizational Justice

Organizational justice refers to employees' perception of fairness in an organization (Greenberg, 2001; Moorman, 1991). It is the extent to which employees perceive that fair procedures and processes exist and are adhered to in an organization, and whether their leaders are fair and sincere and logical and rational in what they do (Dessler, 1999). In the family business environment, non-family employees are more likely to experience instances of injustice at the workplace. Although non-family employees are [an] important part of the family business workforce, because they are not part of the family system, they may not be treated the same as family employees. It has been argued that parental altruism facilitates the unequal treatment of family and non-family employees (Lubatkin et al., 2005; Lubatkin, Ling, & Schulze, 2007; Schulze et al., 2003). Family employees may enjoy perquisites such as promotions, salary increases, power relationships, and authority, irrespective of their productivity and contribution to the business. Thus, family businesses are fertile ground for breeding injustice perceptions because of their characteristics such as parental altruism and nepotism (Lubatkin et al., 2005), human resource practices that favor family employees (Barnett & Kellermanns, 2006; Lubatkin et al., 2007), and a leadership culture that puts the interests of family employees above everything (Tagiuri & Davis, 1996). Justice violations in family businesses may also affect family employees, but not to the extent they affect non-family employees. For instance, Lubatkin et al. (2007, p. 962) argue that "parental altruism can expose family employees to justice violations rooted in the inconsistent application of administrative procedures across people and time." Lubatkin et al. (2007, p. 962) further state that "while non-family employees may anticipate that they will receive rewards

that are equitable—that is, generally proportional to their contribution to the firm, family employees may not.” This makes the investigation of the justice perceptions of non-family employees in family businesses an interesting endeavor.

Although there has been ongoing debate about the structure and dimensions of organizational justice, Colquitt’s (2001) validation of the justice construct showed that organizational justice has four distinct dimensions: distributive justice (DJ), procedural justice (PJ), interpersonal justice, and informational justice. The interpersonal and informational dimensions of organizational justice are usually combined into a single dimension called interactional justice (IJ) (Colquitt, 2001; Scott, Colquitt, & Zapata-Phelan, 2007). Thus, the most predominantly studied forms of organizational justice by researchers are distributional, procedural, and interactional (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Colquitt et al., 2001; Kim & Leung, 2007; Moorman, 1991). *Distributive justice*, or DJ, refers to the perceived fairness of the distribution of outcomes (e.g., pay raises, promotions, and selection for further studies/training) in an organization (Moorman, 1991; Organ & Moorman, 1993). *Procedural justice*, or PJ, refers to the perceived fairness with which an allocation decision regarding the distribution of outcomes is made in an organization (Konovsky, 2000; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993). *Interactional justice*, or IJ, refers to the quality of interpersonal treatment an individual (employee) receives from an authority figure and the enactment of procedures (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Moorman, 1991).

We focus on perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justices in this study because sub-Saharan African cultures and societies are high on collectivism and power distance (Hofstede, 1980), and therefore expect a higher level of interpersonal relationships at workplace which should translate into fair processes in the distribution of outcomes. Although Beugre (2002) has argued that PJ and interpersonal justice may be more important to employees in sub-Saharan Africa than DJ, it is important to show how the three dimensions of justice influence the tasks accomplished by non-family employees in family businesses. Consequently, employees are more likely to alter their behavior toward an organization in the conduct of their job responsibilities based on their belief that the organization is fair or unfair about the process by which outcomes and rewards are allocated, the distribution of the outcomes, and interpersonal treatment rather than the fairness or unfairness of decision outcomes.

Although several researchers consider IJ to be part of PJ (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002), we follow the studies that have usually treated them as distinct constructs (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991). The general findings from meta-analytic and other studies of the extant literature on organizational justice indicate that organizational justice perceptions have been linked to several organization-related and employee-related outcomes. The organization-related outcomes include organizational commitment, organizational support, OCB, organization and work-unit identification, lower turnover, counterproductive work behaviors, and higher task performance (Cheung & Law, 2008; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Olkkonen & Lipponen, 2006); the employee-related outcomes include employees' satisfaction with their jobs, pay, and supervisors, job performance, absenteeism, and intentions to leave (Colquitt et al., 2001; Lam, Schaubroeck, & Aryee, 2002; Loi et al., 2006). Though these findings are from businesses that are not designated as family businesses, they may apply to family businesses. "The more fairly non-family member employees feel they are treated, the more likely they are to go above and beyond their given role in the organization" (Carmon, Miller, Raile, & Roers, 2010, p. 213).

Perceived Organizational Support

POS describes the extent to which employees perceive that their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). It is explicated by the concept of social exchange (Blau, 1964), which focuses on the norm of reciprocity in the employee–organization relationship. Organizational support theory argues that "employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001, p. 42). Organizational support theory assumes that employees may ascribe perceptions to the way an organization treats them, and this may, in turn, determine employees' attitudes and behaviors toward the organization. Thus, employees may perceive an organization as benevolent or malevolent based on the rewards and recognition they receive for the exchange of their effort (Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999). Family businesses' characteristics of exhibiting paternalistic relationships between the owners/managers and both family and non-family employees (Bertrand & Schoar, 2006), and also the family owners' and managers' propensity to

establish maternalistic relationships with all employees because of their nurturing attitude (Acquaah, 2013), not only could engender the perception of support but actually provide support for non-family employees.

According to the norm of reciprocity, employees who receive greater support from their organizations recompense their organizations for the support they receive by developing a sense of obligation and staying in the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). One reason for this is employees' perception of support from their organizations engenders satisfaction with the organization (Blau, 1964). The felt obligation for reciprocity and satisfaction with their organizations may minimize employees' intention to leave and also improve their productivity and job performance. Family businesses can also use their "familiness" resource which results from the interaction of the family and the business system (Habbershon, Williams, & MacMillan, 2003) to create an environment where all employees are cared for and supported not only in the performance of their tasks but also in their personal well-being.

POS has been linked to several organization- and employee-related outcomes such as intentions to remain with their organizations, organizational commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Loi et al., 2006; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001), job and organization involvement (Gyekye & Salminen, 2009; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), organizational identification (Cheung & Law, 2008), and job satisfaction (Duke, Goodman, Treadway, & Breland, 2009; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Gyekye & Salminen, 2009; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS studies have also shown that it is positively related to a temporal change in extra-role performance such as looking for ways to improve the effectiveness with which employees do their work (Chen, Eisenberger, Johnson, Sucharski, & Aselage, 2009).

The Mediating Role of POS on the Organizational Justice and Employees' Job Effectiveness Relationship

PJ refers to the perceived fairness with which outcomes and rewards are allocated in an organization. Tyler and Lind (1992) argue that employees would like to be treated with procedural fairness because it signals that they are valued and respected by the organization. Since non-family employees are usually seen as outsiders in the family system, they have less opportunity to influence the processes developed and used in family businesses. "The allocation process through which outcomes such as pay and

promotion are distributed is then likely to be conducted top-down, without the possibility of non-family employees to adequately have a voice” (Sieger et al., 2011, p. 81). In family businesses in sub-Saharan Africa, where the societal cultures are characterized by high collectivism and high power distance, employees expect the mechanisms and procedures used to determine rewards and outcomes at the workplace to be fair. Thus, the presence of procedural fairness at the family business workplace communicates to non-family employees that the organization supports their efforts; this would motivate the employees to react favorably to the organization in terms of their identification, psychological attachment, and commitment to the goals of business. On the other hand, if the non-family employees perceive that the mechanisms or procedures used to determine rewards and outcomes are unfair, and that the family employees are provided too much favor, it would generate unfavorable behaviors and attitudes toward the organization. Similarly, procedural fairness will facilitate the formation of social exchange relationships, and signals to non-family employees in family businesses that the organization cares for their well-being and supports them. Several studies have shown that PJ is positively related to organizational support (Herda & Lavelle, 2011; Moorman et al., 1998; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Rhoades et al., 2001). In addition, it has been linked with variables that show some level of support for an organization such as mutual commitment (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004), organization identification (Olkkonen & Lipponen, 2006), lower turnover, counterproductive work behaviors, and higher task performance (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Being fair procedurally is only a part of the issue of fairness in family businesses. There should be fairness in the distribution of outcomes as well. Some of the outcomes that may engender fairness or unfairness perceptions include pay raises, promotions, and selection for further studies/training in an organization (Moorman, 1991; Organ & Moorman, 1993). Although non-family employees may accept some level of unfairness in the distribution of outcomes to family employees because of parental altruism and the in-group and out-group memberships in the business, perceptions of unfairness or injustice may be developed as soon as “non-family employees zone of indifference” is exceeded (Lubatkin et al., 2007, p. 965). Thus, the perception of fairness or justice by non-family employees in the distribution of outcomes will influence their perception of how the organization values their contribution and cares not only about their personal well-being but also as members of the family business. Consequently, when

non-family employees perceive that the distribution of outcomes such as pay raises, promotion opportunities, and other benefits are unfair, they are more likely to see the family business as unsupportive. Conversely, if non-family employees perceive the family business to be fair in the distribution of outcomes, they will consider the organization as caring and supportive. It has been shown that when employees perceive that their efforts and outcomes are fairly rewarded by their organizations, they are motivated and emboldened to use their resources (skills and capabilities) to perform their tasks (Janssen, Lam, & Huang, 2009). Sieger et al. (2011) have shown that the perception of distributional justice by non-family employees in family businesses positively influences their psychological ownership toward their organizations. This, in turn, has the probability of engendering perceptions of support by the organization.

IJ refers to the perceived fairness with which employees are treated by authority figures in an organization (Bies & Moag, 1986). It deals with the extent to which subordinates are treated with respect and dignity by supervisors. Kim and Leung (2007) have shown that employees in different cultural environments may have different perceptions about the fairness with which they are treated at the workplace. In highly collectivistic cultures, interpersonal relationships are very important and sometimes form the bedrock of the society. As a consequence, employees expect authority figures to show concern for their needs at work, and also to respect them through the interpersonal relationships and interactions they develop with them. Employees will therefore interpret the recognition, attention, and concern through the relationships they receive from authority figures as a sign of support from the organization. Carmon et al. (2010) have shown that both interpersonal justice and informational justice positively influence organizational commitment in family businesses.

Moreover, from a social exchange perspective and the norm of reciprocity, employees perform both their in-role and extra-role activities to reciprocate fair treatment they receive from organizational leaders by making the effort to help an organization achieve its goals (Blau, 1964; Eisenberger et al., 1990). Thus, the norm of reciprocity suggests that non-family employees who perceive high levels of organizational support will be obliged to respond favorably to the organization. Non-family employees will therefore respond to the perceived high POS from their organizations by developing a psychological attachment to the organization and becoming committed and obligated to reciprocate by helping the organization to achieve its goals and objectives. Thus, when non-family

employees perceive that the family business is supportive and values their contributions, they may react positively to the organization and will be more willing to use their pro-social behaviors and skills to improve their JEF and performance. Consequently, we expect employees to exhibit strong positive reactions to utilizing pro-social behaviors and leveraging their knowledge, skills, and capabilities to the benefit of their organizations when they perceive the organizational environment to be supportive and caring.

Several studies have shown that high levels of POS are related to decreased absenteeism, increased organizational commitment, increased job satisfaction, more positive mood, reduced stress, reduced turnover, and increased performance (see Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002 for a review; Chen et al., 2009). These studies indicate that employees are more likely to repay their organizations favorably by exhibiting pro-social behaviors (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002) and utilizing their knowledge, skills, and abilities to the benefit of the organizations in the form of JEF if they perceive them to provide a high level of support. Although these studies are not family business studies, we believe that they may apply to family businesses as well. So non-family employees' POS could be said to moderate the relationship between their justice perceptions (distributive, procedural, and interactional) and the effectiveness with which employees perform their job assignments. Thus:

Hypothesis 1 Perceived organizational support will mediate the positive relationship between procedural justice and non-family employees' job effectiveness.

Hypothesis 2 Perceived organizational support will mediate the positive relationship between interactional justice and non-family employees' job effectiveness.

Hypothesis 3 Perceived organizational support will mediate the positive relationship between distributive justice and non-family employees' job effectiveness.

METHODS

Study Context

The study was conducted using the data of family businesses from Uganda. Uganda is located in the East-Central Africa and is a member of the East

Africa Community (EAC) (which is made up of Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, and Uganda). Uganda is bordered on the east by Kenya, west by the Democratic Republic of Congo, south by Tanzania and Rwanda, and the north by South Sudan. The US Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) (2015) estimates Uganda's population in 2015 to be approximately 37.1 million. It is the third populous country in the EAC. Uganda's economy has been relatively stable since the coming into power of President Yoweri Museveni in 1986. This is because foreign governments and international agencies such as the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank have been supporting the government in undertaking economic stabilization policies, which include currency reform, raising producer prices on export crops, increasing prices of petroleum products, and improving civil service wages (CIA, 2015). It was not until 2005 that multiparty democracy was allowed in Uganda. It is estimated that in 2014, Uganda had a gross domestic product (GDP [purchasing power parity]) of US\$76.94 billion, a real GDP growth rate of 4.9%, a per capita GDP of US\$2000.00, and an inflation rate of 4.7% (CIA, 2015). Uganda's economy is dominated by the agricultural sector, which employs approximately 82% of the labor force. The large percentage of unemployed and underemployed people has motivated a considerable number of Ugandans to undertake different entrepreneurial activities, which has led to an increase in the formation of family businesses. According to Rajna (2015), Uganda was found to be the world's number one entrepreneurial country based on the Total Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) Index. Although there is lack of official statistics documenting the percentage of family businesses in Uganda, a large portion of the privately owned small and medium-sized enterprises in the country are family-owned businesses. Despite the growth of family-owned businesses in Uganda over time, there has not been any empirical study examining the role of social exchange relationships in family-owned businesses in Uganda. Thus, this study does not only fill the knowledge gap, but Uganda presents an important environment to examine the role of social exchange relationships in family businesses in sub-Saharan Africa.

Sample and Data

Survey questionnaires were personally distributed to non-family employees working in a convenient sample of 29 family businesses in Uganda. Businesses that were considered family businesses for the study had to meet three criteria: (1) the managers of the business have to consider that

business to be a family business, (2) the business has to be owned and controlled by a specific family, and (3) family members have to be involved in the business as managers, directors, or employees. In all, 83% of the family businesses were engaged in service activities, while 17% were in manufacturing. The questionnaires were randomly distributed to employees occupying managerial and/or supervisory positions and non-managerial positions in each of the organizations. The respondents were promised anonymity and confidentiality of their responses to minimize the likelihood of the participants responding in a socially desirable manner. Of 230 questionnaires that were distributed, 118 were completed and returned, giving a response rate of 51.3%. Thus, on average, we received approximately 4.07 questionnaires from each of the organizations. There was a large degree of variation between businesses in terms of employees' participation, ranging from two to ten employees. Of the participants, 50% held managerial/supervisory positions, while 60% were male. The age of the respondents ranged from 20 years to 53 years, with an average age of 29 years ($SD = 6.31$ years). They had worked for their organizations for an average of 3.48 years ($SD = 2.51$ years).

Several measures were taken during the survey design and *post hoc* statistical test to minimize potential problems of common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). First, we separated the items used to measure the criterion (employee JEF) and predictor (POS, DJ, PJ, and IJ) variables, and some of the items were provided such that they would be reverse-coded. Second, we also used Harman's (1967) one-factor test. A factor analysis of all the items of the predictor and criterion variables was performed; the outcome yielded five factors with eigenvalues >1 , the first factor accounting for approximately 17% of the variance and all the factors having a combined total variance of 68.4%. The factor analysis results indicate that common method variance issues are greatly minimized. The descriptive characteristics and the correlation matrix of the variables are shown in Table 4.1.

Measures

Employee Job Effectiveness: We measured employee JEF by assessing how the family businesses provided employees with the opportunity to perform and accomplish their tasks effectively. Respondents were asked to assess the extent to which they agree with five statements that focus on how their organizations provide them with the opportunity to perform

Table 4.1 Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix

<i>Variables</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>
1. Age											
2. Gender	0.17+										
3. Organizational Tenure	0.36***	-0.13									
4. Position in Organization	0.25**	-0.05	0.25**								
5. Position Tenure	0.41***	0.01	0.73***	0.17+							
6. Organization Type	0.19*	0.09	-0.08	0.05	-0.12						
7. Procedural Justice	0.10	-0.05	0.07	0.26**	0.07	0.42***	0.894				
8. Interactional Justice	0.08	-0.07	0.02	0.24**	-0.04	0.46***	0.64***	0.907			
9. Distributive Justice	0.05	-0.08	0.04	0.20*	0.04	0.48***	0.68***	0.73***	0.922		
10. Organizational Support	-0.03	-0.04	0.11	0.21*	0.02	0.49***	0.59***	0.75***	0.65***	0.913	
11. Job Effectiveness	-0.14	-0.05	-0.06	0.07	-0.08*	0.44***	0.48***	0.44***	0.38***	0.53***	0.766
Mean	29.10	1.60	3.48	0.50	2.66	0.83	4.70	5.30	5.21	5.06	5.17
Standard Deviation	6.31	0.49	2.51	0.50	1.89	0.38	1.30	1.28	1.52	1.40	1.00
Minimum	20.00	1.00	0.10	0.00	0.10	0.00	1.29	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.80
Maximum	53.00	2.00	16.00	1.00	10.00	1.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00
N	118	118	117	118	117	118	118	118	118	118	118

Significance level: + $p < 0.10$; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

and accomplish their tasks at the workplace (1 = “Strongly Disagree” and 7 = “Strongly Agree”). We operationalized JEF with a five-item scale which was developed purposely for the study. Representative items included “My organization provides me with the opportunity to achieve my objective of improving customers/clients satisfaction,” “My organization provides me with the opportunity that allows me to perform my job more efficiently and effectively.” The Cronbach’s alpha (α) for JEF is 0.766.

Perceived Organizational Support: We measured POS by using the short form of the survey of POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Following Eisenberger et al. (2001) and Coyle-Shapiro et al. (2004), seven of the nine highest loading items were used to measure POS. The items were measured on a seven-point scale, with 1 = “Strongly Disagree” and 7 = “Strongly Agree.” This measure of POS depicts employees’ perception of how an organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. A representative item is “The organization values my contribution to its well-being.” The Cronbach’s α for POS is 0.913.

Perceived Organizational Justice: We measured perceived organizational justice with 17 items from Colquit’s (2001) measure to assess DJ, PJ, and IJ. We performed an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on the 17 items because it was the first time the measure was being used in the context of family businesses in a sub-Saharan African economy. The EFA indicated that organizational justice could be separated into three distinct factors: PJ, DJ, and IJ. The items were measured on a seven-point scale, with 1 = “Strongly Disagree” and 7 = “Strongly Agree.” PJ focused on the procedures used to arrive at the outcomes (e.g., promotion, pay increases, performance evaluation, and training opportunities) for non-family employees. PJ was measured with seven items (e.g., I have been able to express my views and feelings during those procedures) with Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.894$. DJ focused on the distribution of outcome for non-family employees. PJ was measured with four items (e.g., my outcome reflects the effort I have put into my work), with Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.922$. IJ focused on the authority figure in the family business who enacted the procedures used to determine the outcome for non-family employees. IJ was measured with six items, three for interpersonal justice (e.g., he/she treated me with respect) and three for informational justice (e.g., he/she provided reasonable explanations regarding the procedures), with Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.907$.

Control variables: Consistent with recent studies on organizational justice and POS (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Moon, Kamdar, Mayer, &

Takeuchi, 2008), we controlled for gender (0=female; 1=male), organizational tenure (measured in years), and position tenure (measured in years). We also controlled for the age of the respondent (measured in years), the organizational position of the respondent (0=subordinate staff; 1=managerial/supervisory), and the respondent's organizational type (0=manufacturing; 1=service).

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and correlations among the variables are presented in Table 4.1. It should be noted that the correlation between IJ and POS is high, and so is the correlation between IJ and DJ. However, this seems to be the case in organizational justice and social exchange relationship studies in general (Herda & Lavelle, 2011; Sieger et al., 2011). Moreover, our check of the variance inflation factors (VIF) in all the models through a multiple regression analysis indicated that they were all less than 10, the limit suggested by Neter, Kutner, Nachtsheim, and Wasserman (1996). Therefore, the problem of multicollinearity is minimized in the analysis. To examine the hypotheses, we used the bootstrap procedure for testing mediation suggested by Shrout and Bolger (2002), Preacher and Hayes (2008), and Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010).

Zhao et al. (2010) argue that because the indirect effect in mediation models is a product of two parameters and in this study the sampling distribution of the product is not normally distributed because of relatively small sample ($N=118$), the bootstrap procedure provides a better way of empirically assessing the statistical significance of the indirect effects while bypassing the need for the multivariate normality assumption (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993; Hayes, 2009; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). In the bootstrap procedure, Zhao et al. (2010) further argue that if the confidence interval estimate of the indirect effect does not include zero (0), then it can be concluded that the indirect effect is significant and mediation is established. To conduct the bootstrap procedure, the Preacher and Hayes (2008) *MEDIATE* script in SPSS was used. Hayes (2009) recommends the use of at least 5000 bootstrap data samples to conduct the analysis; therefore, we used 5000 bootstrap data samples generated by randomly sampling with replacement from the original data sets ($N=118$). The results from the bootstrap analysis are shown in Table 4.2.

The results in Table 4.2 show that only the control variables of age, gender, and firm type were significantly related to employees' JEF. While

Table 4.2 Bootstrap results of direct and indirect effects of organizational justice through organizational support on employees' job effectiveness^a

Independent variables	Mediator	Dependent variables	β direct effect	β indirect effect (IE)	Standard error	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Age →		Organizational Support (POS)	-0.123+				
Gender →		POS	0.059				
Organization Tenure →		POS	0.155+				
Position in Organization →		POS	0.023				
Position Tenure →		POS	-0.019				
Organization Type →		POS	0.137*				
Procedural Justice (PJ) →		POS	0.110				
Distributive Justice (DJ) →		POS	0.158+				
Interactional Justice (IJ) →		POS	0.521***				
Age →		Employees' Job Effectiveness (JEF)	-0.030**				
Gender →		JEF	0.786***				
Organization Tenure →		JEF	-0.065				
Position in Organization →		JEF	-0.013				
Position Tenure →		JEF	0.034				
Organization Type →		JEF	0.179+				
PJ →		JEF	0.186+				
DJ →		JEF	-0.168				

IJ →	JEF		0.187		
POS →	JEF		0.319**		
PJ →	JEF				
DJ →	JEF	POS →	0.035	0.036	-0.020
IJ →	JEF	POS →	0.050	0.043	-0.032
		POS →	0.166*	0.088	0.019
					0.122
					0.140
					0.362

^aN= 118. *Gender*: Male = 1; Female = 0; *Position*: Managerial/Supervisory = 1; Subordinate = 0

Significance level: + $p < 0.10$; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

gender and organization type were positively related to JEF, age was negatively related. These results imply that, in general, males and non-family employees who work for service organizations perceive that they are more effective at the job they perform at the workplace. However, younger non-family employees perceive that they are more effective in performing their job at the workplace.

Hypothesis 1 (H1) states that POS will mediate the relationship between PJ and non-family employees' JEF. The results in Table 4.2 show that non-family employees' perception of PJ influences JEF in family businesses directly ($\beta=0.186$, $p<0.10$). However, PJ does not influence POS. Thus, PJ does not influence JEF indirectly through POS for non-family employees in family businesses in Uganda. The mediated path from PJ to JEF through POS ($0.11 \times 0.319 = 0.035$) is not significant as the 95% confidence interval values (-0.02 , 0.122) include zero (0). The results further indicate that PJ does not directly affect POS. Thus, H1 is not supported.

Hypothesis 2 (H2) posits that POS will mediate the positive relationship between IJ and non-family employees' JEF. The results in Table 4.2 confirm this hypothesis. While there is no direct significant relationship between non-family employees' IJ and their JEF, there is an indirect relationship between IJ and JEF through POS. The indirect relationship ($0.521 \times 0.319 = 0.166$) is significant because the 95% confidence interval (0.019 , 0.362) did not include zero (0). This finding supports H2.

Hypothesis 3 (H3) hypothesized that POS will mediate the positive relationship between DJ and non-family employees' JEF. The findings reported in Table 4.2 indicate that there is no direct relationship between non-family employees' perception of DJ and JEF in family businesses in Uganda. Moreover, POS does not mediate the positive relationship between non-family employees' perception of DJ and their JEF, despite the fact that DJ is positively and marginally related to POS ($\beta=0.158$, $p<0.10$), and POS is positively related to JEF ($\beta=0.319$, $p<0.001$). This is because the mediated path from DJ to JEF through POS ($0.158 \times 0.319 = 0.050$) is not significant due to the fact that the 95% confidence interval values (-0.032 , 0.140) include zero (0). Thus, H3 is also not supported. The summary of the results is shown in Fig. 4.1.

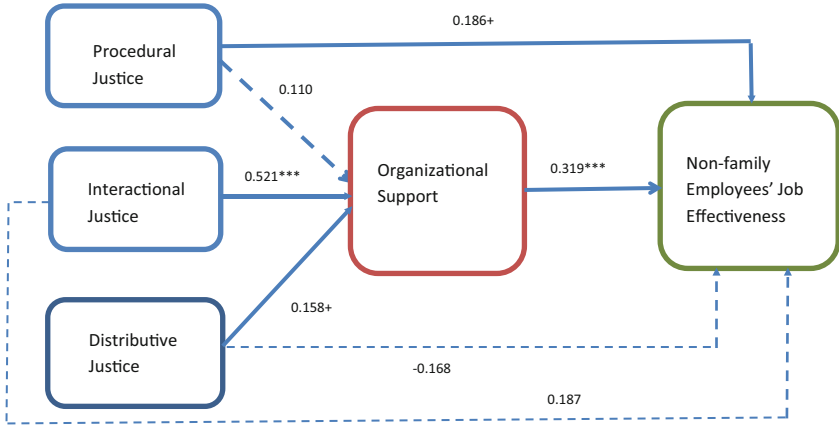


Fig. 4.1 Results of bootstrap analysis

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this study, we examined the indirect effects of non-family employees’ perceived organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) on their JEF through POS in family businesses. We hypothesized that perceptions of PJ, DJ, and IJ by non-family employees in the family businesses will positively influence their JEF through POS. Using data from family businesses in Uganda, a sub-Saharan African country, the findings indicate that while PJ marginally influences non-family employees’ JEF directly, DJ and IJ do not do so. Moreover, the impact of perceived IJ on JEF appears to be mediated by POS in the family businesses.

The organizational behavior literature argues that perceived justice or fairness at the workplace causes a social exchange relationship to be developed not only between employees and their organizations but also between employees and their superiors and managers (Organ, 1988). Social exchange theory predicts that employees are more likely to reciprocate fair treatment at the workplace by putting in more effort to help their organization to achieve their goals (Blau, 1964). The findings from our research indicate that even in family businesses in a highly collectivistic and high power distance culture work environment in sub-Saharan

Africa (Hofstede, 1980), fair treatment of non-family employees results in a perception of support from the organization and the development of social exchange relationship, which, in turn, accrue benefits to the family business through an increase in the effectiveness with which employees perform their jobs.

The findings also indicate that IJ influences the effectiveness with which employees perform their job through POS. This finding is contrary to the research from Asia using non-family businesses, which argues that employees working in organizations in high power distance cultures typically do not expect their organizations to be fair (Moon et al., 2008), and also the predictions that justice effects are strong in societies that are characterized as individualistic and low in power distance (Shao, Rupp, Skarlicki, & Jones, 2013). Although DJ has a marginal influence on POS, it did not directly or indirectly influence the effectiveness with which non-family employees' perform their jobs in family businesses in Uganda. This may be due to the fact that non-family employees in family businesses in Uganda are more concerned with the procedures that are in place for distributing outcomes and the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive from management in the family businesses. Maybe, non-family employees in family businesses in Uganda assume that once management demonstrates good interpersonal relationship with employees and fair procedures are in place for distributing outcomes, there will also be fairness in the distribution of outcomes proportional to the contribution of the employees.

The findings further showed that in family businesses in Uganda, non-family employees' PJ perceptions did not affect organizational support. This finding is consistent with that from the research by Sieger et al. (2011) using family business data from Germany and German-speaking Switzerland, which indicated that PJ does not influence social exchange relationship variables such as affective commitment and psychological ownership. Thus, in family businesses, non-family employees' perception of PJ is more likely to have a direct impact on their work outcomes than through a social exchange variable. At the same time, DJ and IJ are more likely to influence the work outcome of non-family employees through their impact on development of social exchange relationships.

Thus, non-family employees in family businesses value how outcomes are distributed and the treatment they receive from family executives at the workplace. This may be due to the fact that the organizational environment in family businesses is characterized by social relationship building and collegial workplaces, which are manifestations of the development

of social exchange relationships. This is demonstrated by the fact that family businesses develop cohesive clan cultures with their employees and hire them for the long haul (Miller & Le Bretton-Miller, 2005), exhibit both paternalistic and maternalistic relationships with employees (Acquaah, 2013; Bertrand & Schoar, 2006), and a strong sense of fostering identification and cohesion among employees (both family and non-family) that allow employees to see themselves as part of the business family (Zellweger, Eddleston, & Kellermanns, 2010).

From a practical point of view, our findings show that the perceived fairness by non-family employees at the family business workplace is not likely to impact employee JEF unless the non-family employees also perceived that there is organizational support at the workplace. Thus, it is important that family business managers pay attention not only to fairness in their organizations but also to the level of organizational support at the workplace. It is thus important to demonstrate those characteristics that have been attributed to family business environments such as cohesive clan cultures, familiness, and treating non-family employee with both maternal and paternal care. Family businesses in Uganda should, therefore, make an effort to treat all employees fairly and equally at the workplace. They can engender positive perceptions of justice by treating non-family employees with respect, being forthright with decision-making in the organization, and providing equitable rewards that are based on their contribution to wealth creation in the organization.

This study has limitations that should be recognized to provide avenues for future research. We relied on a cross-sectional design in the data collection method; thus, we cannot make statements of causality between the organizational justice, POS, and employee task effectiveness in family businesses. There are also concerns about common method bias. However, we interspersed the justice items with the POS and employee JEF items to minimize common method bias. Nevertheless, it would be desirable to use longitudinal data to investigate the relationships examined here in future to alleviate the causality problem. Furthermore, we used subjective measures of employee task effectiveness, which were also solicited from the non-family employees themselves. However, relying on supervisors for measure of task effectiveness by non-family employees could lead to potential problem of biasness since most of the supervisors are likely to be family members. This approach has also been used in family business research investigating social exchange issues (Sieger et al., 2011). Future research should strive to use objective measures of job outcomes to minimize this problem.

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