

The direct and indirect effects of organizational justice on the human factor through mutual commitment in Ghana and India: a comparative analysis

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Abstract:

This study compares the influence of perceived procedural justice, interactional justice, and mutual commitment on the human factor in Ghana and India. The study further compares how mutual commitment mediates the relationship between procedural and interactional justice, and the human factor in the two countries. The findings indicate that the influence of both procedural and interactional justices on mutual commitment in Ghana and India are similar. However, the influence of procedural and interactional justices on the human factor, and the impact of mutual commitment on the human factor in Ghana and India are significantly different. While mutual commitment mediates the relationship between procedural and interactional justice in the two countries, the findings from Ghana is different from that from India. We discuss the implications of our findings.

Keywords: human factor | procedural justice | interactional justice | mutual commitment | Ghana | India

Article:

Introduction

In a seminal article by Pfeffer and Veiga (1999), they argued that organizations that put their employees' first not only have the potential of increasing their performance but are also more likely to survive. Thus the ability of any organization to achieve its goals, in this globally competitive business environment, critically depends on employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) and their proactive work attitudes and behaviors. An organization's capacity to leverage KSAs embedded in its employees, in addition to engendering supportive work attitudes and behaviors from the employees would enable it to create competitive advantage. The combination of the KSAs and the proactive work attitudes and behavioral qualities of employees has been termed the *human factor* (Adjiboloso, 1995). Accordingly, the *human factor* (HF)

describes the possession and utilization of KSAs and the positive work attitudes and behavioral qualities embodied in employees that facilitate the functioning of organizations and socio-economic institutions on a sustainable basis (Adjibolosoo, 1995).

Since Adjibolosoo (1995) formalized the HF as consisting of employees' attitudinal and behavioral qualities and KSAs, several studies have appealed to the lack of those pro-social attitudes and KSAs to explain the low productivity, absence of progress and development, corruption, unethical behaviors and the dearth of success of organizations, institutions and nations in Africa and other developing countries (e.g., Adjibolosoo, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2005; Adu-Febiri, 1996; Ofori-Amoah, 1996). However, most of these studies are only conceptual in nature and have provided anecdotal evidence to demonstrate the lack of the HF and its consequences in African countries. In addition, most of the studies do not explore the causes of the lack of HF in organizations and what organizations should do to develop and elicit the HF from their employees in order to increase productivity and achieve their strategic goals.

The purpose of this paper is to address this gap by empirically examining and comparing the antecedents of some dimensions of the HF in two economies from the developing world—Ghana and India. We use data from these two economies from two different continents—Africa and Asia respectively—because the attitudes and behavior of employees at the workplace are partially influenced by the socio-cultural and organizational environment in which the work is performed (Gyekye & Salminen, 2009). Therefore, as cultural values and norms of a society or nation influence human behavior, we want to explore whether employees' perceptions of what influences the HF is different in the two socio-cultural environments. This is because though both sub-Saharan African (SSA) and Asian societies are considered to rank high on collectivism and power distance, they are different with respect to the extent of collectivism, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity per Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions. This implies that although SSA and Asian cultures may seem similar on the surface, they are fundamentally different. Given that several studies from the Western world and Asia have shown that perceived organizational justice is positively related to organizational commitment, organizational support and various work-related outcomes including turnover and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) (e.g., Cheung & Law, 2008; Kwantes, 2003; Lam, Schaubroeck, & Aryee, 2002; Lavelle et al., 2009; Patel, Budhwar, & Varma, 2012), we consider organizational justice as an antecedent of the HF. We further investigate the reciprocity involved in employees' perception of the support they receive from their organizations and the commitment they in turn demonstrate towards their organization (i.e., mutual commitment between employees and organizations) as an antecedent of the HF.

Specifically, we posit that the some dimensions of the HF will be influenced by employees' perception of the fairness with which an allocation decision regarding the distribution of outcomes are made (i.e., procedural justice), the interpersonal treatment they receive from authority figures in the organization (i.e., interactional justice), and mutual commitment. Furthermore, mutual commitment will be influenced by employees' perceptions of procedural justice and interactional justice. Thus, we examine mutual commitment not only as directly influencing employee perceptions of some dimensions of the HF but also mediating the relationship between employee justice perceptions and employee perceptions of the HF. However, we expect the relationships between organizational justice, mutual commitment and

HF to be different in the two cultural environments in SSA (Ghana) and Asia (India). The relationships explored in this study are summarized in Figure 1.

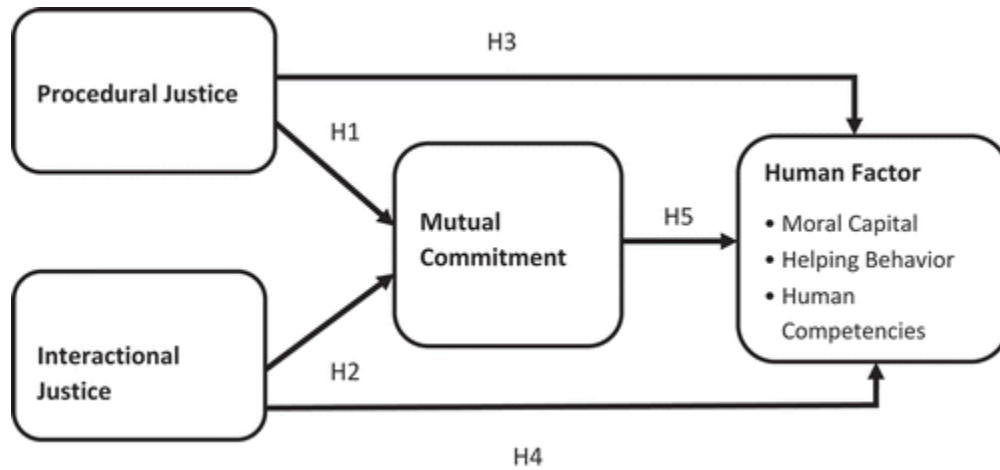


Figure 1. Hypothesized research model.

This study makes several contributions to the literature. First, we take the initial step to empirically explore and compare the antecedents of the HF in developing economy environments in SSA and Asia. Second, although organizational behavior factors such as perceived organizational justice, support and commitment have been extensively studied in the US and other Western economies, relatively little is known about the comparative influence of these factors on pro-social work behaviors and attitudes in developing economies. The few studies that have examined the role of these organizational behavior factors (justice, support and commitment issues) at the workplace in developing economies have been conducted in Asia (e.g., Cheung & Law, 2008; Kwantes, 2003; Lam et al., 2002). Studies focusing on SSA are almost non-existent (e.g., Beugre, 2002; Gyekye & Salminen, 2009). This paper attempts to extend the study of organizational behavior issues at the workplace in developing economies to the SSA context (Ghana), and explore how it affects the HF when compared with an Asian context (India). A recent *Bloomberg Businessweek* article claims that Indian businesses are looking to Africa for growth, and that since 2005, Indian businesses have invested about US\$16 billion and acquired 79 businesses in Africa (Shrivastava and Sharma, 2010). Thus, the findings from the two contexts would be instructive to Indian businesses investing in Africa on how to manage employee relationships in Africa. Third, we focus on mutual commitment, a combination of the support employees receive from their organizations and their commitment to the organization, instead of organizational support and organizational commitment separately as the two-way commitment between employees and their organizations may be more important than either POS or POC separately. Moreover, we examine and compare how mutual commitment mediates the relationship between perceived organizational justice and the HF in the SSA (Ghana) and Asian (Indian) contexts.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: In the next section where we present the research context, we will discuss the economic and socio-cultural environment in Ghana and India. Section three will focus on the theoretical background and hypotheses, where we discuss the concepts of the HF, organizational justice and mutual commitment (perceived organizational support and organizational commitment), and present the hypotheses. Section four describes the

methodology while sections five and six focus on the results, and discussion and conclusion respectively

The socio-cultural contexts of Ghana and India

Although Ghana and India are not Western countries, they are relatively different from one another from an economic and socio-cultural perspective. They, thus present the diversity in the economic and socio-cultural environments needed to compare employees' perception of organizational justice, mutual commitment and the HF in Ghana and India. Ghana is a relatively small country in West Africa with a population of about 25.2 million people (July 2012 estimate); an increase in estimated real gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate from 4.0% in 2009 to 13.5% in 2011, the second in the world in 2011; and an increase in estimated GDP per capita from US\$2600.00 in 2009 to US\$3100.00 in 2011 (CIA, 2012a). Ghana is seen as a model country and a budding success story in SSA with regards to the success of its economic reforms (Faruq & Yi, 2010). India, on the other hand, is the second most populous country in the world with a population of about 1.21 billion people (2012 estimate). India is also seen as one of the fastest growing economies in the world and second only to China in Asia with an increase in estimated real GDP growth rate from 6.8% in 2009 to 7.8% in 2011; and an increase in estimated GDP per capita from US\$3100 in 2009 to US\$3700.00 (CIA, 2012b).

The socio-cultural values of a nation influence the perceptions and work-related behaviors of employees. These socio-cultural values elucidate us with the complex variety of norms, beliefs, attitudes and behaviors of people in different societies (Gyekye & Salminen, 2009). Although both Ghana and India are multicultural and multi-ethnic societies, the cultural differences between Ghana and India could be explained by Hofstede's (1980, 2001) national cultural dimensions of individualism-collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity-feminism. It has been argued that the socio-cultural values of a society that is embedded in individualism-collectivism and power distance influences the work culture of organizations and work-related behaviors of employees (Kanungo & Jaeger, 1990; Mendonca & Kanungo, 1994). Hofstede (1980, 2001) included India and West Africa (Ghana, Nigeria, and Sierra Leone) in his sample of nations.

Hofstede (1980) classified the West African region as high on collectivism, high on power distance, medium to high on uncertainty avoidance, and medium to high on masculinity. Indeed, Ghana is a nation with strong traditional and cultural values. The traditional society which is highly collectivistic is characterized by a deeply embedded communal bond and interpersonal relations. It is organized around kingship groups and communal societies with the extended family at the core and playing a crucial function in the creation of societal norms, values, property ownership and control, and the organization of business activities (Acquaah & Eshun, 2010). Moreover, it is a male-dominated and hierarchical society which is medium on masculinity and high on power distance. Status, prestige, and position are important; and respect for seniority, authority, hierarchy and the elderly are exacted (Gyekye & Salminen, 2009). It is, however, a society that eschews risk, showing high levels of uncertainty avoidance. Thus, the work environment in Ghana is characterized by tall hierarchical structures based on paternalism, high levels of centralization, gender inequality, submission to authority and seniority, and low

levels of delegation and involvement in decision-making (Gyekye & Salminen, 2009; Mendonca & Kanungo, 2004; Takyi-Asiedu, 1993).

Hofstede (1980) further classified India's national culture as being medium on collectivism, high on power distance, low on uncertainty avoidance and high on masculinity. Thus, extant cross-cultural management research have argued that India's national culture is not only complex but also a "cultural island" because, as a high power distance nation, it should be clustered with high uncertainty avoidance nations, but it is low on uncertainty avoidance (Mathur, Zhang, & Neelankavil, 2001; Sparrow & Budhwar, 1997). The traditional social structure of India is also considered to be hierarchical in nature and it is influenced by religion (e.g., Hinduism and Bhuddhism) and the caste system (Budhwar, Woldu, & Ogbonna, 2008; Mathew, Ogbonna, & Harris, 2012; Rao, 2012). The social system further emphasizes respect for superiors and authority figures such as elders, supervisors, managers, teachers, and so on (Budhwar et al., 2008). This creates the pervasive use of ingratiating behaviors towards superiors and authority figures in organizations (Kakar, Kets de Vries, Kakar, & Vrignaud, 2002). Furthermore, the traditional Indian national cultures place a medium emphasis on collectivism, but the collectivistic nature of India's national cultures is revealed by the influence of the caste system and religious dynamics at the workplace in Indian organizations (Budhwar et al., 2008; Patel et al., 2012). India is also a highly masculine society with a strong preference for authoritative leadership, centralization of power and control at the top, and lack of the delegation of decision making authority (Kakar, 1971).

Thus Indian national culture, just like the Ghanaian national culture, may influence the perceptions and behavior of employees in organizations through its hierarchical system, centralization of power and respect for people in positions of authority, dependency on authority figures, interpersonal and spiritual nature, and male dominance of the social and power structures. However, we expect differences in employees' perceptions of fairness, social exchange relationships, and behaviors towards their organizations at the workplace in the two countries because of the differences in the cultures in terms of uncertainty avoidance, extent of the hierarchy and the nature of the collectivism. The Ghanaian national culture is high on uncertainty avoidance, relatively low on hierarchy (when compared to India), and high on collectivism; while the Indian national culture is low on uncertainty avoidance, relatively high on hierarchy (when compared to Ghana), and moderate on collectivism.

It should be noted that the cultures in Ghana and India described above are traditional socio-cultural values which are likely to be contaminated by Western culture and value systems because of globalization, but the traditional socio-cultural systems in the two countries are still very important in affecting behaviors and values at the workplace. Moreover, our reliance on Hofstede's national cultural dimensions to distinguish between Ghana and India allows for simplicity, parsimony, and clarity in describing the cultures of the two countries, it has its limitations. The application of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) dimensions is limited by "reducing culture to an overly simplistic four or five dimension conceptualization; limiting the sample to a single multinational corporation; failing to capture the malleability of culture over time; and ignoring within-country cultural heterogeneity" (Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006, p. 286).

Conceptual background and hypotheses

The human factor

According to Adjibolosoo (1995), the HF consists of the KSAs and the attitudes and behaviors of employees that are leveraged for the betterment of organizations and nations. Adjibolosoo (1995) argues that the HF does not refer to the mere development of human resources and the acquisition of human capital through education and training but also the human ability to effectively utilize and apply the acquired KSAs, in addition to the leveraging of positive work attitudes and behaviors to successfully accomplish set goals and objectives. Adjibolosoo (1995, pp. 33–38) categorizes the HF into six dimensions: spiritual capital, moral capital, human capital, aesthetic capital, human abilities, and human potential.

Spiritual capital refers to the aspects of human personality that is usually in tune with the universal laws and principles of human life. It equips the individual to see beyond what the five senses are able to grasp and furnishes him or her with deeper insights into the non-material world. *Moral capital* refers to the habits and attitudes of the human personality that are based on universal principles regarding right or wrong. It refers to the qualities individuals possess that lead them to conform to ethical principles and standards of conduct. *Aesthetic capital* refers to the possession of a strong sense of and love for beauty. It includes a strong passion for imagination and creativity. *Human capital* refers to the possession of know-how and acquired qualifications and skills (i.e., technical, conceptual, intellectual, analytical and communications), human experiences, knowledge, and intelligence. *Human abilities* refer to the capability or capacity of an individual to undertake activities competently or effectively perform tasks requiring mental and physical effort. They involve the effective and efficient utilization and application of the acquired human capital. *Human potentials* refer to the human talents that may or may not be harnessed and employed for human utilization. These may be referred to as yet undeveloped and unused dimensions of HF.

Adjibolosoo (2000, p. 5) states that

long-lasting human prosperity and success require the balance nurturing and development of each of these integrated components of the HF in every person. Failure to develop each component of the HF will result in poor human performance and living standards.

Thus, employees should effectively develop a combination of these dimensions for their organizations to benefit. For example, an employee who exhibits the moral capital, human capital and human abilities dimensions would be more beneficial to an organization than one who exhibits only moral capital or human capital. Thus human resource development and/or human capital acquisitions are *necessary* but not *sufficient* conditions for HF development, unless they are complemented with human abilities (Acquaah, 2004). It should, however, be noted that there are potential problems with some of the dimensions of the HF. For instance, spirituality is not universally understood and thus seen differently in different societies, nations and organizations. Therefore, individuals' perceptions of spiritual capital may be different in diverse cultures and societies around the world. Furthermore, in some cultures and societies, although there is a high level of spirituality (e.g., they may believe in the existence of a god),

their belief and subsequent actions and behaviors that accompany it may be detrimental to human progress and development. This makes the concept of spiritual capital difficult to conceptualize and measure in a consistent fashion in different cultures, societies, nations, and therefore organizations in different cultural environments. Although, spirituality is not the same as religion, an individual may derive his/her spiritual values from a religious affiliation. Moreover, since *human potentials* are the “undeveloped and unused dimensions of HF” (Adjibolosoo, 1995, p. 38), they do not exist. If they do exist, then they would be categorized as one of the other four dimensions (moral capital, aesthetic capital, human capital, and human abilities). Because of our concerns with the measurement of the spiritual capital and human potentials dimensions, they were not considered as part of this study. Thus, our focus is not on the overall HF as described by Adjibolosoo (1995), but on the HF dimensions which consist of employees’ pro-social behaviors (moral and aesthetic capital) and the utilization and leveraging of employees’ competencies (human capital and human abilities).

Organizational justice

Organizational justice refers to employees’ perception of fairness as it relates to the workplace (Greenberg and Colquitt, 2006; Moorman, 1991). It is the degree to which fair procedures and processes exist and are adhered to in an organization, and the extent to which individuals perceive their leaders as being fair and sincere and having logic or rational for what they do (Dessler, 1999). Researchers have conceptualized and operationalized organizational justice primarily into three types: distributional, procedural and interactional (Moorman, 1991). *Distributive justice* 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* (PJ) refers to the perceived fairness with which an allocation decision regarding the distribution of outcomes are made in an organization (Konovsky, 2000; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993), while *interactional justice* (IJ) refers to the quality of interpersonal treatment an individual (employee) receives from an authority figure during the enactment of procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986; Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler, & Purcell, 2004; Moorman, 1991). We do recognize that IJ has further been categorized into informational justice and interpersonal justice (Greenberg, 1993), but we will focus on IJ in this study. It has been argued that in societies that are high on collectivism and low on individualism such as those in SSA and Asia, interpersonal relationships are very important to employees (Beugre, 2002). Beugre (2002) has therefore contended that PJ and IJ may be more important to employees in SSA than distributive justice since the distribution of outcomes are usually influenced by procedures that have been enacted and employees’ relationships with their superiors and the organization. Moreover, it has further been argued that “procedural justice is more strongly related to employees’ reaction to an organization, whereas interactional justice is more strongly related to employee reactions to a supervisor” (Choi, 2008, p. 525). We thus focus on PJ and IJ in this study.

Mutual commitment

The concept of mutual commitment (MC) derives from covenantal relationships (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004). Similar to social exchange relationships which is based on the norm of reciprocity

(Blau, 1964), covenantal relationships go beyond social exchange and are characterized by open-ended commitment, mutual trust, shared values, high level of involvement and an acceptance of an organization's mission (Snape & Redman, 2004; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). Covenantal relationship in an organization, therefore, encapsulates the reciprocal commitment in the relationship between an employee and his/her organization, in addition to the shared values, involvement and mutual trust that exist among them (Graham & Organ, 1993). Thus covenantal relationships combine elements of the concepts of employees' perceived support from an organization (POS) and their commitment to the organization (POC). POS describes the extent to which employees perceive that their "organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986). Organizational support theory proposes 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 treat them and this may in turn determine employees attitudes and behavior towards the organization. Thus employees may perceive an organization as benevolent or malevolent based on the rewards and recognition they receive from the exchange of their effort (Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999). POS is therefore explained by social exchange theory which is based on the norm of reciprocity, with favors provided on a discretionary basis and returned in an unspecified and discretionary way in the future. POS has been shown to be positively related to a variety of employees' pro-social behaviors towards an organization such as involvement in the organization (Eisenberger, Fasola, & LaMastro, 1990); affective commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Loi, Hang-yue, & Foley, 2006), job satisfaction (Duke, Goodman, Treadway, & Breland, 2009; Eisenberger et al., 2001) and service quality (Vandenberghe et al., 2007).

POC has been defined as the strength with which employees identify with the values and goals of an organization and their involvement in exerting effort towards the achievement of the organization's goals (Reichers, 1985). One of the earliest conceptualizations of POC could be credited to Porter and his colleagues (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boullian, 1974), who regarded commitment as comprising of three interrelated components of *identification* (a feeling of pride and belonging to the organization), *involvement* (the willingness to invest personal effort for the sake of the organization), and *loyalty* (attachment and obligation towards the organization). Recently, POC has been conceptualized as having three components: affective, normative and continuance (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Affective commitment is defined as an employee's identification with and emotional attachment to an organization. Normative commitment is defined as an employee's felt obligation to stay with an organization or loyalty to an organization, while continuance commitment is defined as an employee's perception of the cost involved in leaving an organization. We focus on the affective and normative components of POC in the development of MC because they (1) are most similar to the conceptualization of commitment by Porter and colleagues, (2) deal with an employee's emotional bond to an organization, and (3) are most closely related to both social exchange and covenantal relationships. Employees who demonstrate a strong POC are more likely to exhibit a positive desire and attitude to work towards the achievement of their organization's outcomes. POC has been shown to influence a variety of employee work-related attitudes, behaviors, and outcomes such as intended and actual

turnover and organizational outcomes such as service quality (e.g., Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Vandenberghe et al., 2007).

Hypotheses

Organizational justice and mutual commitment

In developing the hypotheses about organizational justice, we focus on PJ and IJ. We focus on these two because it has been argued that in societies and cultures characterized by high levels of collectivism such those in SSA, PJ and IJ may be more important to employees than distributive justice. PJ refers to the perceived fairness of an outcome decision-making process in an organization. Fair procedures in an organization are based on six rules: it should be consistent, unbiased, correct, accurate, representative, and ethical (Levinthal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980). IJ, on the other hand, refers to the perceived fairness of the interpersonal treatment received from a supervisor during the implementation of procedures. IJ includes such things as treating employees with respect and dignity (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997) and explaining organizational decisions to employees (Bies & Moag, 1986). Both PJ and IJ are believed to engender the development of social exchange relationships (Moorman, Blakely & Niehoff, 1998).

According to social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity, employees will reciprocate perceived justice with favorable attitudes and behaviors towards an organization (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Organizations that treat their employees fairly are not only more attractive to employees but also create the environment where employees are motivated and committed to stay. Moreover, when employees perceive that the procedures used to determine rewards are fair and consistent across the employee population, it would suggest to the employees that the organization values their welfare and that will lead them to develop strong attachment and loyalty to the organization (Lind, Kulik, Ambrose, & de Vera Park, 1993). Shapiro and Kirkman's (2001) conceptualization of anticipatory justice proposes that employee justice perceptions play an important role in encouraging trust in an organization. They argue that employees who trust an organization to behave fairly toward the enactment of procedures and interpersonal treatment are more predisposed to perceive the organization to be fair in the future. Consequently, employees will identify PJ and IJ as an indication of an organization's concern for employees' well-being and organizational support, and will in turn repay the organization through a high level of commitment and work effort. Graham and Organ (1993) have also argued that justice perceptions are important antecedents of covenantal relationships because of their emphasis on employee dignity and well-being. Thus, we argue that employees' perception of PJ and IJ will lead to the development of MC in both Ghana and India. The influence of both PJ and IJ on MC is supported by the work of Coyle-Shapiro et al. (2004). Moreover, several studies have shown that PJ and IJ are antecedents of both POS and POC (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Moorman et al., 1998; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009).

Although there are some similarities of the national cultures of the two countries—hierarchical, centralization of power, respect for people in positions of authority, dependency on authority figures, and male dominance of the social and power structures—there will be differences in the

way employees' perceptions of both PJ and IJ will influence MC in the two countries. This is because of the differences in the collective nature of the two cultures, extent of the hierarchy and status differences, and their propensity to uncertainty avoidance. Patel, Budhwar and Varma's (2012) study of Indian call center employees found that overall justice perceptions are positively related to work group identification which they conceptualize as a form of employees' attitude towards an organization. It has been argued that employees working with organizations in high power distance cultures do not expect the organizations to be fair (Moon, Kamdar, Mayer, & Takeuchi, 2008). However, Patel, Budhwar and Varma's (2012) study of Indian call center employees found that overall justice perceptions are positively related to work group identification which they conceptualize as a form of employees' attitude towards an organization. We, therefore, argue that not only are employees from high power distance and collectivistic societies concerned about social exchange relationships, but there will be differences in the way they react to their employers by way of their work attitudes (Aryee et al., 2002). Thus employees in high power distance and highly collectivistic societies such as Ghana are less likely to voice unfairness due to decision outcomes emanating from procedures (procedural) but internalize such injustices at the workplace when compared to employees in societies that are relatively less collectivistic such as India. However, those same employees from highly collectivistic cultures are more likely to show concern about injustices stemming from interpersonal relationships from authority figures in their organizations (interactional). Moreover, employees in societies that are high on uncertainty avoidance such as Ghana will be less likely to complain and/or openly disclose their attitude towards supervisory or organizational injustices about decision outcomes from procedures, but would more likely to show concern about unfairness based on interpersonal relationships with supervisory or organizational leaders. Employees in societies that are highly hierarchical such as we have in India are less likely to complain about fairness that results from interpersonal relationships with authority figures in an organization than societies that are low on hierarchy such as we have in Ghana in a comparative sense. Thus, although the perception of PJ and IJ by employees in cultures that are highly collectivistic, relatively low on hierarchy and high on uncertainty avoidance such as Ghana will influence their MC, they would be different from cultures that are not too high on collectivism, but high on hierarchy and low on uncertainty avoidance such as India. We therefore present the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1. The influence of employees' perception of procedural justice on mutual commitment will be greater for employees from India than employees from Ghana.

Hypothesis 2. The influence of employees' perception of interactional justice on mutual commitment will be greater for employees from Ghana than employees from India.

Organizational justice and the human factor

We further expect PJ and IJ to influence the HF which focuses on the possession and leveraging of KSAs of employees in addition to the demonstration of positive work attitudes and behaviors. Although the pro-social attitudes and behaviors embodied in the HF such as moral capital resemble some of the behavioral dimensions of OCB (e.g., helping co-workers with work-related problems, above-normal attendance to work, etc.) they are seen as in-role behaviors rather than discretionary behaviors (Adjibolosoo, 1995). Since PJ and IJ deals with employees perception of

fairness of organizational procedures used to make decisions and interpersonal treatment, when employees are treated with fairness, they will perceive that they are valued and will “get a fair shake” from their organization and their representatives if they perform (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993, p. 37). From a social exchange perspective, the demonstration of fairness to employees by an organization will induce employees to engage in pro-social behaviors (e.g., utilizing their knowledge and skills, showing integrity, doing the best for the organization, etc.), that are aimed at helping the organization to achieve its objectives. Lavelle et al. (2009) have also argued that high procedural fairness by an organization motivates employees to make the organization part of their social identity, thus aligning themselves with the organization and promoting the demonstration of positive behaviors that will help the organization to succeed. Thus, employees are more likely to alter their behavior and leverage their KSAs to the benefit of an organization in the conduct of their job responsibilities if they believe that the organization is fair with respect to the procedures used to allocate resources and rewards as well as the quality of the interpersonal treatment during the implementation of the procedure. Choi (2008) has demonstrated that justice perceptions of employees towards an organization have a positive relationship with the employees’ organization-directed reactions.

We, however, argue that the cultural differences between the workplace environments in the two countries will affect the influence of PJ and IJ on the HF in the two countries. While the Ghanaian society is more collectivistic than the Indian society in general, the caste system in India creates a more hierarchical society than Ghana. Moreover, India is low on uncertainty avoidance when compared with Ghana. Thus employees in India will rely more on procedures at the workplace to determine fairness issues at the workplace. Moreover, employees would be more likely to demonstrate pro-social behaviors and the utilization of their KSAs to support their organization’s strategic mission and vision when they perceive that procedures for the distribution of outcomes are fair compared to interactional justice. Patel et al. (2012) found the overall justice perceptions were negatively related to counterproductive work behaviors such as absenteeism and social loafing. On the contrary, employees in Ghana are more likely to use interpersonal relationships at the workplace to establish fairness. Employees would therefore exhibit pro-social behaviors and leverage their KSAs to help their organizations achieve their objective when they perceive high levels of interactional justice compared to procedural justice. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3. The influence of employees’ perception of procedural justice on the human factor will be greater for employees from India than employees from Ghana.

Hypothesis 4. The influence of employees’ perception of interactional justice on the human factor will be greater for employees from Ghana than employees from India.

Mutual commitment and the human factor

MC is conceptualized as the covenantal relationship and the reciprocal commitment that exists between employees and their employers or organizations (Graham & Organ, 1993). It focuses on the perceptions of employees about the support accorded to them by their employers to demonstrate the organizations’ concern about their well-being and their commitment to the organization. Because MC involves mutually supportive relationships, it is usually characterized

by open-ended commitment, mutual trust, shared values, organizational involvement and an acceptance of an organization's mission (Snape & Redman, 2004). Thus MC combines the concepts of employees' POS and POC.

Because the HF consists of the pro-social behaviors of employees towards an organization and its members in addition to the possession and utilization of the KSAs of employees, we expect MC to influence the HF. Employees who experience mutually supportive relationships in their organization will be emotionally attached to their organizations (Van Dyne et al., 1994) and may be more likely to exert more effort to demonstrate positive behaviors for the benefit of the organization. Some of the positive behaviors could be in the form of moral capital (e.g., integrity, following organizational rules and regulations, reliability in performing job responsibilities, taking responsibility and accountability for their own actions, etc.) and helping behaviors (e.g., willingness to help co-workers with work-related problems, tolerance for other points of view, etc.).

Furthermore, the human capital literature and the resource-based view of the firm have also documented the importance of the possession and exploitation of human capital and capabilities for organizational success (e.g., Barney, 1991). Research has shown that human capital attributes in the form of educational qualifications, skills and experience when utilized has the potential to improve organizational outcomes (e.g., Hitt, Bierman, Shimizu, & Kochhar, 2001). Organizations with employees who exhibit MC are more likely to embrace and demonstrate attitudes and behaviors that lead to the development and leveraging of their KSAs to help their organizations achieve their goals. Thus we expect that MC which is the combination of POS and POC will influence the HF. Several studies have demonstrated that both POS and POC influence employees to engage in positive behavior towards an organization such as definition of job responsibilities (e.g., Meyer et al., 2002; Morrison, 1994; Vandenberghe et al., 2007). Based on the arguments we have already advanced about the differences in the cultural background and workplace environments in India and Ghana—extent of collectivism, level of hierarchy and extent of uncertainty avoidance—we expect the relationship between MC and HF to be different in organizations in the two countries. We expect employees in societies that are relatively low on collectivism, relatively high on hierarchy and power distance, and low on uncertainty avoidance to exhibit higher levels of MC which will in turn have a greater influence on the HF. This is because in societies that are not very high on collectivism, but relatively high on hierarchy, high on power distance, and low on uncertainty avoidance, employees do not usually expect a lot of support from their organizations and their leadership. Therefore when organizations in those societies demonstrate that they are concerned about the well-being of the employees, it generates a higher level of commitment from employees in the form of mutual trust, loyalty, attachment, and involvement leading to high MC, which would in turn have a greater influence on HF. We thus hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 5. The influence of employees' perception of mutual commitment on the human factor will be greater for employees from India than employees from Ghana.

In Hypotheses 1 and 2 we posited that employees' perception of PJ and IJ will have greater influences on MC in India than Ghana and in Ghana than India respectively. Furthermore, Hypothesis 5 contends that MC will have a greater influence on the HF in India than Ghana. We

have also argued that perceived PJ and IJ will directly have greater influences on the HF in India and Ghana respectively (H3 and H4). Thus, we suggest that both PJ and IJ will not only influence the HF *directly*, but also *indirectly* through MC in both Ghana and India. Consistent with the arguments in the preceding hypotheses, we further argue that there will be differences in the way PJ and IJ in the two countries influence the HF *indirectly* through MC. We, therefore, present the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6a. Employees' perception of mutual commitment will mediate the relationship between perceived procedural justice and the human factor. The pattern of the mediation relationship will be different for employees from Ghana and India.

Hypothesis 6b. Employees' perception of mutual commitment will mediate the relationship between perceived interactional justice and the human factor. The pattern of the mediation relationship will be different for employees from Ghana and India.

Methods

Three hundred survey questionnaires were personally distributed to individuals working in a convenient sample of 30 organizations in Ghana, while 200 questionnaires were delivered to 20 organizations in India. A maximum of 10 questionnaires were distributed to each organization in each country with half of the questionnaires given to individuals occupying managerial and/or supervisory positions while the other half were subordinate employees. Two hundred sixty-eight (268) questionnaires were returned from the employees in Ghana (response rate is 89.33%), while 149 questionnaires were returned from employees in India (response rate is 74.5%), for a total of 417 questionnaires from the two countries for an overall response rate of 83.4%. Thus, on average there were 8.9 questionnaires per organization in the Ghana sample and 7.5 questionnaires per organization in the India sample. The demographic characteristics of the respondents in the two countries are shown in Table 1, while the descriptive statistics of the samples in each country are shown in Table 2.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of samples in Ghana and India.

Demographic Characteristic		Ghana (N = 268)	India (N = 149)
Gender	Men (%)	62.7	62.8
	Women (%)	37.3	37.2
Age	< 30 years (%)	21.2	33.1
	30 – 39 years (%)	39.2	35.8
	40 – 49 years (%)	26.9	23.0
	50 + years (%)	12.7	8.1
Company Tenure	< 24 months (%)	8.9	18.9
	24 - 60 months (%)	23.9	31.8
	61 - 108 months (%)	37.7	14.2
	109+ months (%)	29.5	35.1
Position in organization	Managerial/Supervisory (%)	47.4	56.4
	Subordinate (%)	52.6	43.6
Type of organization of respondent	Public-Sector (%)	47.8	20.1
	Private (%)	52.2	79.9

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of variables for the Ghana and India samples.

Variables	Ghana (N = 268)		India (N = 149)	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age	37.38	8.84	35.37	9.44
Gender	0.63	0.48	0.63	0.48
Organizational Tenure	89.34	60.56	105.02	102.84
Position in Organization	0.47	0.50	0.56	0.50
Organization Type	0.52	0.50	0.80	0.40
Procedural Justice	3.84	1.44	4.66	1.15
Interactional Justice	4.96	1.25	5.43	1.26
Mutual Commitment	4.67	0.80	5.04	0.94
Moral Capital	4.50	1.13	5.17	0.93
Helping Behavior	4.75	1.12	5.08	1.01
Human Competencies	4.91	0.77	4.92	0.96

Note: Gender: 0 = Female and 1 = Male; Position in organization: 0 = subordinate staff, 1 = managerial/supervisory staff; Organization type: 0 = Public sector, 1 = Private sector.

Measures

Human factor. The HF was measured using the 24-item measure suggested in Acquah (2004). The employees were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with statements about their colleagues or fellow employees on a 7-point Likert scale with 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. Because the psychometric properties of these items have not been determined, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the 24 items using the Ghana sample. The factor analysis yielded four factors with the following names: *moral capital*, *helping behavior*, *human capital*, and *human abilities*. *Moral capital* was measured with 10 items (e.g., employees in my organization have high levels of integrity; employees in my organization are conscientious). *Helping behavior* was measured with four items (e.g., employees in my organization are willing to help others for work-related problems). *Human capital* was measured with five items (e.g., most of the employees in my organization have technical, vocational or university-level education and qualifications), while *human abilities* were measured with five items (e.g., employees in my organization utilize their knowledge, skills and expertise in solving company problems). However, because justice perceptions and social exchange relationships (captured through MC) are unlikely to influence human capital by itself unless it is leveraged for the benefit of an organization, we combined the human capital and human abilities factors to form a *human competencies* variable. We then examined the reliability of the scales by computing the Cronbach's alpha (α). The reliability coefficients for *moral capital*, *helping qualities*, *human capital*, *human abilities* and *human competencies* were 0.91, 0.83, 0.71, 0.79, and 0.80 respectively. The result of the factor analysis which is shown in Table 3 clearly indicates that the reliability of the *human competencies* factor is higher than that of either *human capital* or *human abilities* by themselves and justifies combining the two factors.

We then conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the 24 items in the Indian sample to examine the discriminant validity of the HF constructs obtained using the Ghana sample. The four-factor model did indicate a good fit with the observed covariance matrix: $\chi^2 (df = 246) = 451.31, p < 0.001$; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.075; Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.97; Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.97; Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.97; and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.90. We therefore assessed the HF with the four

variables of *moral capital*, *helping behavior*, *human capital* and *human abilities* in the Indian sample as well. Thus, *moral capital* was measured with the 10 items, *helping behavior* was measured with four items; *human capital* was measured with five items, while *human abilities* was measured with five items. We again combined the *human capital* and *human abilities* factors to form a *human competencies* variable. The reliabilities (α) for *moral capital*, *helping behavior*, *human capital*, *human abilities*, and *human competencies* for the Indian sample were 0.92, 0.85, 0.89, 0.90, and 0.93 respectively. The reliabilities further justify the combination of *human capital* and *human abilities* for form *human competencies*.

Table 3. Exploratory factor analysis of human factor items for Ghana sample.

Scale and Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
<i>Moral Capital</i>				
They believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	0.841	-0.084	0.158	0.091
They generally obey and comply with company rules, regulations and procedures.	0.834	-0.169	-0.003	0.180
They have high levels of integrity.	0.770	0.044	0.329	0.097
They are conscientious (reliable, hard-working).	0.732	0.154	0.355	-0.001
Their attendance to work is above normal.	0.705	-0.151	-0.026	0.110
They consistently demonstrate values and beliefs that are espoused by the company.	0.690	0.104	-0.098	0.299
They are highly reliable in the performance of their job responsibilities.	0.689	0.202	0.177	0.175
They demonstrate humility in doing their work.	0.598	0.282	0.268	0.199
They are highly loyal to the company.	0.549	-0.005	0.337	0.313
They take responsibility and accountability for their own actions.	0.446	0.214	0.226	0.074
<i>Human Capital</i>				
Most of them have a technical, vocational or university-level education and qualification.	0.002	0.894	-0.033	0.112
Most of them possess general skills related to job assignment and responsibility.	0.112	0.782	0.177	0.189
Most of them possess professional skills related to job assignment and responsibility.	0.094	0.770	0.355	0.192
Most of them have the expertise and experience in the area of job assignment or responsibility.	-0.021	0.703	0.266	0.227
Most of them have the ability to apply their knowledge, skills and expertise to solve problems in different environments, contexts and cultures.	-0.021	0.618	0.107	0.074
<i>Helping Behavior</i>				
They appreciate and value ideas of others even when they do not support their point of view.	0.078	0.031	0.832	0.231
They are always ready to lend a helping hand to those around them.	0.006	0.319	0.740	0.200
They are willing to help others with work-related problems.	0.264	0.296	0.661	0.001
They are mindful of how their behavior and attitude affect other workers and their job performance.	0.368	0.138	0.650	0.056
<i>Human Abilities</i>				
Most of them engage in acts of creativity and innovation.	0.361	0.161	0.094	0.732
Most of them possess problem-solving capabilities.	-0.010	0.051	0.218	0.729
Most of them have the ability to develop, articulate, and inspire others with a company-centered vision.	0.131	0.090	0.263	0.684
Most of them have the ability to identify new ideas and opportunities.	0.357	0.106	0.035	0.628
They utilize their knowledge, skills and expertise in solving company problems.	0.294	0.184	0.027	0.579
Eigenvalue	5.671	4.405	3.762	2.970
Percentage of variance explained	23.630	18.354	15.675	12.376
Cumulative percentage of variance explained	23.630	41.984	57.659	70.035

Perceived mutual commitment (MC). MC is defined as the two-way commitment that exists between employees and their employing organizations. Following Coyle-Shapiro et al. (2004),

we describe MC as employees' perception of the extent of the commitment that exists in their relationship with the organization. Thus, MC deals with employees' perception of their organizations commitment to them as employees as shown by how the organization values their contribution and cared about their well-being (POS) and their attachment, identification, and loyalty to the organization (POC) (Van Dyne et al., 1994). We measured perceived organizational support 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) we used the nine highest loading items to measure POS. This measure of POS depicts employees' perception of how an organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (i.e., the organization's commitment to employees). A representative item is "The organization values my contribution to its well-being." POC was conceptualized as employees' attitude capturing the emotional attachment towards their organization and was viewed as involving three interrelated parts: identification, involvement and loyalty. We used seven items from the nine-item scale developed by Cook and Wall (1980) to assess the level of POC which draws on the work of Porter and colleagues (e.g., Porter et al., 1974). This instrument has also been used by Coyle-Shapiro et al. (2004) to assess employees' POC as part of MC. The employees were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the POS and POC statements on a 7-point Likert scale with 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. Following Coyle-Shapiro et al. (2004), the mean scores of the 16 items was used to operationalize perceived MC that exists between employees and their employing organizations. The Cronbach alpha (α) values for perceived MC for the samples from Ghana and India are 0.88 and 0.91 respectively.

Perceived organizational justice. Organizational justice was measured with five items assessing *PJ* and three items assessing *IJ* taken from Moorman (1991). A factor analysis of the eight items separately by country produced two distinct factors – PJ and IJ. *PJ* was measured with five items (e.g., the procedures used to determine my promotion is fair) with $\alpha = 0.92$ for Ghana and $\alpha = 0.89$ for India. *IJ* was measured with three items (e.g., my immediate supervisor gives me an opportunity to express my views) with $\alpha = 0.82$ for Ghana and $\alpha = 0.86$ for India.

Control variables: Consistent with recent studies on organizational justice, POS and POC (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Moon et al., 2008), we controlled for gender (0 = female; 1 = male) and organizational tenure (measured in months). We also controlled for age of respondent (measured in years), the organizational position of the respondent (0 = subordinate staff; 1 = managerial/supervisory), and type of employee's organization (0 = public sector, 1 = private sector).

Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations among the variables for the Ghana and India samples are presented in Tables 4A and 4B respectively. The correlation among many of the independent variables are high in both samples, but our check of the variance inflation factors (VIF) in all the models 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 hierarchical regression analyses for the direct relationships and the bootstrap procedure suggested by Preacher and Hayes (2008) for the indirect relationships.

Table 4A. Correlation analysis for Ghana sample (N = 268).

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age											
2. Gender	0.12										
3. Organizational Tenure	0.71***	0.14*									
4. Position in Organization	0.51***	0.07	0.38***								
5. Organization Type	-0.29***	0.01	-0.33***	-0.13*							
6. Procedural Justice	-0.12	0.12	-0.32***	0.11	0.04	0.92					
7. Interactional Justice	0.19**	0.01	0.01	0.26***	-0.16*	0.57***	0.82				
8. Mutual Commitment	-0.12	0.15*	-0.31***	0.01	0.07	0.67***	0.63***	0.88			
9. Moral Capital	-0.14*	0.17**	-0.30***	-0.01	-0.14*	0.65***	0.54***	0.62***	0.91		
10. Helping Behavior	0.05	0.12	0.09	0.01	-0.14*	0.36***	0.60***	0.47***	0.56***	0.83	
11. Human Competencies	0.17**	0.07	0.14	0.07	-0.49***	0.20***	0.40***	0.31***	0.48***	0.60***	0.80

Table 4B. Correlation analysis for India sample (N = 149).

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age											
2. Gender	0.13										
3. Organizational Tenure	0.70***	-0.07									
4. Position in Organization	0.18*	0.18*	0.08								
5. Organization Type	-0.05	-0.01	-0.23**	0.10							
6. Procedural Justice	-0.13	-0.07	0.17*	0.07	-0.07	0.89					
7. Interactional Justice	0.13	-0.06	0.21**	-0.10	0.02	0.68***	0.86				
8. Mutual Commitment	0.23**	-0.04	0.26***	0.07	0.01	0.74***	0.68***	0.91			
9. Moral Capital	0.08	-0.04	0.15	0.07	-0.02	0.59***	0.54***	0.72***	0.92		
10. Helping Behavior	0.06	-0.04	0.12	-0.01	-0.07	0.56***	0.53***	0.61***	0.82***	0.85	
11. Human Competencies	-0.02	-0.09	0.05	0.03	-0.04	0.59***	0.53***	0.65***	0.80***	0.74***	0.93

Cronbach alpha's are reported in the diagonal in bold font.

Table 5A. Results of hierarchical regression analysis for the Ghana and India samples^a.

Variables	Mutual Commitment (MC)			Moral Capital (MOCAP)				T-test ^c
	Ghana		T-test ^b	Ghana		India		
	Model 1A	Model 1B		Model 2A	Model 3A	Model 2B	Model 3B	
Age	0.038	0.073		-0.025	-0.039	-0.076	-0.122	
Gender	0.118**	0.007		0.149***	0.104**	0.009	0.005	
Organizational Tenure	-0.142*	0.067		-0.183**	-0.130*	0.080	0.037	
Position in Organization	-0.073	0.041		-0.075	-0.048	0.071	0.044	
Organization Type	0.029	0.056		-0.205***	-0.216***	0.013	-0.023	
Procedural Justice (PJ)	0.494***	0.523***	0.45	0.497***	0.312***	0.389***	0.055	-3.93***
Interactional Justice (IJ)	0.290***	0.299***	0.14	0.199***	0.089	0.279***	0.088	-0.02
Mutual Commitment (MC)					0.377***		0.638***	3.99***
Adjusted R ²	0.586	0.607		0.556	0.613	0.358	0.513	
F	54.91***	33.49***		48.75***	53.90***	12.80***	20.51***	

Notes: ^a Coefficients are standardized coefficients. Significance levels: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

^b The formula for the t -test which conducted to verify the difference between the betas of the India and Ghana subgroup samples is as follows.

$$t = \frac{\beta_1 - \beta_2}{\sqrt{\frac{SSE_1 + SSE_2}{N_1 + N_2 - 4} X \frac{\sum X_1^2 + \sum X_2^2}{(\sum X_1^2)(\sum X_2^2)}}$$

d. f. = $N_1 + N_2 - 4$

The t -test is a two-tailed test. Where β is the beta or standardized coefficient, SSE is the sum of squared errors, X is the Organizational justice or MC variable, N is subgroup sample size, and 1 and 2 are the India and Ghana subgroup samples respectively.

^c This t -test comparing Model 3A and Model 3B.

Table 5B. Results of hierarchical regression analysis for the Ghana and India samples^a.

Variables	Helping Behavior (HBEHAV)					Human Competencies (HCOMP)				
	Ghana		India		T-test ^b	Ghana		India		T-test ^c
	Model 4A	Model 5A	Model 4B	Model 5B		Model 6A	Model 7A	Model 6B	Model 7B	
Age	-0.206**	-0.216**	-0.051	-0.081		0.005	-0.003	-0.104	-0.141	
Gender	0.118*	0.086	0.010	0.007		0.075	0.038	-0.045	-0.048	
Organizational Tenure	0.236***	0.273***	0.028	0.001		-0.007	0.032	-0.020	-0.053	
Position in Organization	-0.159**	-0.139**	0.001	-0.016		-0.088	-0.055	0.061	0.040	
Organization Type	-0.029	-0.036	-0.043	-0.066		-0.441***	-0.458***	-0.036	-0.064	
Procedural Justice	-0.076	-0.207**	0.361***	0.144	4.61***	-0.044	-0.229**	0.417***	0.156	4.98***
Interactional Justice	0.727***	0.650***	0.286**	0.162	-6.40**	0.386***	0.286***	0.270**	0.121	-2.13*
Mutual Commitment		0.266***		0.415***	1.96*		0.339***		0.498***	2.06*
Adjusted R ²	0.424	0.451	0.322	0.384		0.344	0.382	0.370	0.463	
F	29.03***	28.40***	11.03***	12.56***		12.01***	21.6***	13.43***	16.96***	

Notes: ^a Standardized coefficients. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

^bTest comparing Models 5A and 5B.

^cTest comparing Models 7A and 7B.

Table 6A. Bootstrap analysis of indirect effects of organizational justice on human factor through mutual commitment for Ghana data^a.

Independent Variables	Mediator Variable	Dependent Variables	β Direct Effect	β Indirect Effect ^b	β Mean Indirect Effect ^c	SE of Mean	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower	Upper
Procedural Justice →		Mutual Commitment	0.763***			0.042		
Mutual Commitment →		Moral Capital	0.466***			0.061		
		Helping Behaviors	0.508***			0.084		
		Competencies	0.440***			0.080		
Procedural Justice →		Moral Capital	0.289***			0.062		
		Helping Behaviors	0.071			0.086		
		Competencies	-0.092			0.082		
Procedural Justice →	Mutual Commitment →	Moral Capital		0.3558***	0.3543	0.057	0.241	0.466
		Helping Behaviors		0.3878***	0.3868	0.053	0.278	0.487
		Competencies		0.3359***	0.3331	0.067	0.202	0.469
Interactional Justice →		Mutual Commitment	0.658***			0.044		
Mutual Commitment →		Moral Capital	0.568***			0.057		
		Helping Behaviors	0.189**			0.068		
		Competencies	0.230**			0.072		
Interactional Justice →		Moral Capital	0.153**			0.055		
		Helping Behaviors	0.530***			0.067		
		Competencies	0.205**			0.070		
Interactional Justice →	Mutual Commitment →	Moral Capital		0.3739***	0.3709	0.054	0.270	0.480
		Helping Behaviors		0.1245***	0.1230	0.062	-0.001	0.243
		Competencies		0.1516***	0.1502		0.031	0.269

Notes: ^a The bootstrap analysis was conducted by controlling for age, gender, org. tenure, position, and org. type but those results are not shown in the table above.

^b The indirect effects from the sample calculated as β of Independent Variable to Mediator Variable multiplied by β of Mediator Variable to Dependent Variable.

^c These are the mean effect estimates calculated across all bootstrap samples (10,000 bootstrap samples).

Significance levels: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 6B. Bootstrap analysis of indirect effects of organizational justice on human factor through mutual commitment for Indian data^a.

Independent Variables	Mediator Variable	Dependent Variables	β Direct Effect	β Indirect Effect ^b	β Mean Indirect Effect ^c	SE of Mean	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower	Upper
Procedural Justice →		Mutual Commitment	0.724***			0.056		
Mutual Commitment →		Moral Capital	0.670***			0.089		
		Helping Behaviors	0.472***			0.101		
		Competencies	0.543***			0.094		
Procedural Justice →		Moral Capital	0.093			0.088		
		Helping Behaviors	0.211*			0.086		
		Competencies	0.209*			0.092		
Procedural Justice →	Mutual Commitment →	Moral Capital		0.4852***	0.4832	0.066	0.345	0.623
		Helping Behaviors		0.3419***	0.3364	0.074	0.212	0.506
		Competencies		0.3930***	0.3888	0.082	0.240	0.562
Interactional Justice →		Mutual Commitment	0.663***			0.063		
Mutual Commitment →		Moral Capital	0.667***			0.080		
		Helping Behaviors	0.490**			0.091		
		Competencies	0.580**			0.085		
Interactional Justice →		Moral Capital	0.109			0.080		
		Helping Behaviors	0.212*			0.091		
		Competencies	0.179*			0.085		
Interactional Justice →	Mutual Commitment →	Moral Capital		0.4420***	0.4433	0.072	0.308	0.592
		Helping Behaviors		0.3244***	0.3262	0.069	0.204	0.476
		Competencies		0.3846***	0.3823	0.084	0.232	0.562

Notes: ^a The bootstrap analysis was conducted by controlling for age, gender, org. tenure, position, and org. type but those results are not shown in the table above.

^b The indirect effects from the sample calculated as β of Independent Variable to Mediator Variable multiplied by β of Mediator Variable to Dependent Variable.

^c These are the mean effect estimates calculated across all bootstrap samples (10,000 bootstrap samples).

Significance levels: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 5 shows the standardized results for the Ghana and India sub-samples. Hypotheses 1 and 2 are tested using Model 1, while Hypotheses 2 to 5 are tested using Models 2 to 7. The findings for Hypothesis 6 are presented in Tables 6A and 6B. In Model 1, the controls influence MC differently in the two countries. While none of the controls are related to MC in India, gender is positive and organizational tenure is negatively related to MC in Ghana. In Ghana, males and employees who have not worked for a longer period of time are more likely to report higher MC. The results from the model further indicate that both PJ and IJ are positively related to MC in both the Ghana and India sub-samples. A t-test comparing the beta coefficients for the Ghana sample with the India sample for both PJ and IJ indicate that there are no differences, therefore, Hypotheses 1 and 2 are not corroborated.

In Models 3, 5, and 7, we examine the impact of PJ and IJ on the HF components of moral capital (MOCAP), helping behaviors (HBEHAV), and human competencies (HCOMP). We posited in Hypotheses 3 and 4 that PJ and IJ will be positively related to HF respectively and that the PJ will have a greater influence on HF in India than Ghana, while IJ will have a greater influence on HF in Ghana than India. In Models 3A and 3B, the results show that while PJ is positively related to MOCAP for Ghana ($\beta = 0.312, p < 0.001$), it is positive but not related to MOCAP for India ($\beta = 0.055, p > 0.10$). A t-test comparing the betas indicated that they are significantly different ($t = -3.93, p < 0.001$). The effects of IJ on MOCAP indicated that it was not significant for both Ghana and India. A t-test comparing the differences further showed that there were no differences in the betas. Thus, both H3 and H4 are not supported for MOCAP.

In Models 5A and 5B, the results show that PJ is negatively related to HBEHAV for Ghana ($\beta = -0.207, p < 0.01$) but not related to HBEHAV for India. A t-test comparing the betas indicated that they are significantly different ($t = 4.61, p < 0.001$). The effects of IJ on HBEHAV indicated that it was significant for Ghana ($\beta = 0.650, p < 0.001$) but not significant for India ($\beta = 0.162, p > 0.10$). A t-test comparing the differences further showed that there were significant differences between the two betas ($t = -6.40, p < 0.001$). Thus, both H3 and H4 are supported for HBEHAV.

In Models 7A and 7B, the results indicate that while PJ is negatively related to HCOMP for Ghana ($\beta = -0.229, p < 0.001$), it is positive but not related to HCOMP for India ($\beta = 0.156, p > 0.10$). A t-test comparing the betas indicated that they are significantly different ($t = 4.98, p < 0.001$). The influence of IJ on HCOMP indicated that it was significant for Ghana ($\beta = 0.286, p < 0.001$), but it was not significant for India ($\beta = 0.124, p > 0.10$). A t-test comparing the differences further showed that the beta were significantly different ($t = -2.13, p < 0.05$). Thus both H3 and H4 are supported for HCOMP. Looking at the overall influence of PJ and IJ on HF, the results show that both H3 and H4 were partially supported since they were both supported with respect to HBEHAV and HCOMP but not for MOCAP.

Hypothesis 5 was also tested by using the results in Models 3, 5, and 7. From Models 3A and 3B, MC is positively related to MOCAP for both Ghana ($\beta = 0.377, p < 0.001$) and India ($\beta = 0.638, p < 0.001$). However, a t-test of the differences in the betas indicated that they were significantly different ($t = 3.99, p < 0.001$), consistent with expectations. The results in Models 5A and 5B also indicated MC is significant and positively related to HBEHAV for Ghana ($\beta = 0.266, p < 0.001$) and India ($\beta = 0.415, p < 0.001$). A t-test of the differences in the betas further

showed significant differences between the samples from the two countries ($t = 1.96, p < 0.05$) and also consistent with expectations. Moreover, the results from Models 7A and 7B also show that the relationship between MC and HCOMP is positive and significant for both Ghana ($\beta = 0.339, p < 0.001$) and India ($\beta = 0.498, p < 0.001$). A t-test comparing the betas indicated that there were significant differences ($t = 2.06, p < 0.01$) as posited. These results indicated that relationship between MC and all the HF variables (MOCAP, HBEHAV, and HCOMP) were greater for India than Ghana; therefore, Hypothesis 5 was supported.

To test Hypotheses 6a and 6b which focus on the indirect effects of PJ and IJ on HF through MC, the bootstrap procedure recommended by Preacher and Hayes (2008) and Zhao, Lynch and Chen (2010) was used. Zhao et al. (2010) argues that because the indirect effect is a product of two parameters, the sampling distribution of the product is not normally distributed. 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). According to Zhao et al. (2010), 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, we used the Preacher and Hayes (2008) script in SPSS. Hayes (2009) recommends the use of at least 5000 bootstrap data samples to conduct the analysis; however, we used 10,000 bootstrap data samples generated by randomly sampling with replacement from the original data sets from the two countries. The results for the Ghana and India sub-samples are shown in Tables 6A and 6B respectively.

The findings from Tables 6A and 6B indicate that both PJ and IJ influence all the HF variables (MOCAP, HBEHAV, and HCOMP) indirectly through MC for both Ghana and India. The results from the Ghana sample show that the relationship between PJ and (1) MOCAP is *partially mediated* by MC; (2) HBEHAV is *fully mediated* by MC; and (3) HCOMP is *fully mediated* by MC. On the other hand, the results from India show that the relationship between PJ and (1) MOCAP is *fully mediated* by MC; (2) HBEHAV is *partially mediated* by MC; and (3) HCOMP is *partially mediated* by MC. The pattern of the results supports Hypothesis 6a. In terms of IJ, the results from the Ghana sample show that the relationship between IJ and all the HF variables (MOCAP, HBEHAV, and HCOMP) is *partially mediated* by MC. However, the results from the India sample indicate that the relationship between IJ and MOCAP is *fully mediated* by MC, while the relationship between IJ and both HBEHAV and HCOMP is *partially mediated* by MC. The pattern of the results for the mediating role of the IJ-HF relationships further supports Hypothesis 6b.

Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine and compare the influence of PJ and IJ, and MC on the HF. We also explored the differences in the mediating role of MC on the relationship between PJ and HF on the one hand, and IJ and HF on the other hand. We appealed to the social exchange perspective to test our hypotheses using data from two countries from two continents (Ghana from SSA and India from Asia). The findings from this study have provided some initial evidence that both employees' perceptions of PJ and IJ influence MC and HF in the samples from the two countries differently. Moreover, there were differences in the way in which

employees' perceptions of MC also influence the HF in the two countries. The findings further show that MC mediates the relationship between both PJ and IJ, and the HF in the two countries albeit in different ways. These findings are intriguing and support most of our hypothesized relationships indicating that small differences in national cultural orientations are likely to have profound differences in the manner in which employees perceive fairness and social exchange relationships at the workplace and how that affects their pro-social behaviors and the leveraging of competencies in organizations.

Consistent with previous research (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004), the findings display a positive relationship between PJ and IJ, and MC in both Ghana and India, albeit in a similar way. These findings may imply that MC could be seen as a social exchange process in which employees reciprocate the care and respect from their organizations, and their attachment, loyalty and identification positively as a consequence of perceptions of fair procedures and favorable interpersonal treatment at the workplace. This is because "procedural justice (and interactional justice) is associated with employee loyalty because the use of fair procedures generates expectations of fair treatment in the long run" (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991, p. 699). It has been argued that employees working in organizations in a high power distance cultures typically do not expect their organizations to treat them in a fair manner (Moon et al., 2008). The findings from both Ghana and India, which are collectivistic societies but in different ways, and also high on both power distance and masculinity, indicate that perceptions of fairness in the areas of PJ and IJ can engender employees' attachment, loyalty and identification with their organizations even in high power distance cultural environments. Thus, in societies and cultures with high power distance as in Ghana and India, employees may tolerate unfair treatment from organizational procedures and people in authority, but that does not mean that they accept the legitimization of inequality created in institutions and organizations as suggested by Hofstede (1980). In those societies, the tolerance of high power distance at the workplace may be a sign of respect and reverence for those in authority but employees also demand curing, nurturing and fair treatment by organizations and their leadership.

Furthermore, the findings from the two countries show that both PJ and IJ can contribute to improving employee attitudes and behaviors in organizations, in addition to leveraging their KSAs to the benefit of their organizations as suggested by Beugre (2002). The findings show that while PJ is more likely to influence pro-social behaviors and the use of employee competencies in organizations in India than Ghana, while IJ influences pro-social behaviors and the leveraging of employees competencies in Ghana than India. The influence of employees' perception of the fairness of procedures at the workplace on HF is consistent with the study by Moon et al. (2008) which showed that employees in India are more likely to engage in taking charge behaviors when they perceive that their organizations are procedurally fair. The findings were also consistent with the Patel et al. (2012) study of employee in Indian call centers. Moreover, the findings of IJ on HF clearly show the pre-eminence of employees' perceptions of fair interpersonal treatment by organizational leaders and authority figures in stimulating their reciprocity to the organization in the form of HF pro-social behaviors (moral capital and helping behavior) and the improvement, utilization and application of the KSAs to help their organizations achieve their goals in highly collectivistic and relatively low hierarchical societies (Hofstede, 1980). It should, however, be noted that employees' PJ engenders proactive moral behaviors from employees in Ghana than in India.

The findings from the two countries clearly show that MC influences HF by eliciting all the pro-social behaviors, in addition to the development and utilization of KSAs embodied in employees. Thus, employees who experience a mutually supportive relationship at the workplace are more likely to exhibit pro-social behaviors and use their competencies for the benefit of their organizations. The findings may indicate that HF reflects a covenantal relationship such that employees may develop and utilize positive social behaviors and competencies in response to MC, which is engendered by employee-organization social exchange relationships to demonstrate high HF. Consistent with our expectations, the relationship between MC and HF was greater in India than Ghana. This implies that employees in societies that are not highly collectivistic, but highly hierarchical and high on uncertainty avoidance are more likely to leverage their covenantal relationships (embodied in MC) to exhibit pro-social behaviors and utilization of KSAs than employees in societies that are highly collectivistic, not highly hierarchical and low on uncertainty avoidance.

The findings from the indirect relationships in the two countries indicated that both PJ and IJ influence HF through MC albeit differently. The findings indicate that while the impact of employees' fairness perceptions at the workplace influences HF only indirectly through MC for the Ghana sample, it affects HF both directly and indirectly through MC for the Indian sample. On the other hand, the impact of IJ on HF is both directly and indirectly through MC for the Ghana sample, but it influences MOCAP directly and both HBEHAV and HCOMP indirectly through MC for the Indian sample. Thus while IJ is crucial in understanding the HF in Ghana, PJ is very important in understanding the HF in India. The finding from our study with respect to the relationship between both PJ and IJ, and the pro-social component of the HF (MOCAP and HBEHAV) indicates that the findings are different from Coyle-Shapiro et al.'s (2004) study using data from the UK, which found that both PJ and IJ influence the organizational participation and civic virtue components of OCB only indirectly through MC. The findings from the Indian sample show that MC only fully mediates the relationship between both PJ and IJ, and MOCAP, but not HBEHAV. Furthermore, the findings from the Ghana sample show that MC only fully mediates the relationship between PJ and HBEHAV. These findings further reinforce the idea that the societal and cultural environment of employees' workplace influence how perceptions of fairness are developed and how they influence behaviors and the leveraging of KSAs for the benefit of organizations.

Managerial Relevance

The findings from the study have some practical implications for organizations in both Ghana and India. First, although Ghana and India are both high power distance cultural environments, procedural and interpersonal fairness are important to employees. Procedural and interpersonal fairness at the workplace leads to the development of employee-organization relationship based on MC because employees are more likely to reciprocate such fairness with a stronger attachment, identification, and loyalty to the organization. Thus organizations in Ghana and India should ensure that formal procedures for the allocation of outcomes as well as the interpersonal treatment of employees by top managers are fair, despite the widely-held believe that employees in high power distance cultures are expected to obey decisions made by authorities without formal legitimate procedures (Moon et al., 2008). Second, treating employees fairly,

procedurally and interpersonally, can engender both the behavioral and KSAs aspects of the HF either directly or indirectly through employees' experiences of MC. Many studies have documented the prevalence of corruption, unproductive work ethic, and negative attitudes and behaviors towards work which manifest themselves in significant amount of shirking, lateness and absenteeism in organizations in developing countries, especially in SSA (e.g., Adjibolooso, 1999). To minimize these unproductive workplace attitudes and behaviors, organizations should manage fairness issues and create mutually supportive relationships with employees. An environment of mutual supportive relationships and fairness has the potential to motivate employees to engage in the behavioral qualities which underlie the HF dimensions of MOCAP and HBEHAV (e.g., integrity, following organizational rules and regulations, reliability in performing job responsibilities, loyalty to organization, willingness to help co-workers with work-related problems, etc.), and the leveraging of KSAs to enable the organization achieve its goals.

Limitations and future research

This study has limitations that must be acknowledged to provide avenues for future research. In both samples we used cross-sectional designs in collecting the data, which precludes the possibility of making inferences about the causality among PJ, IJ, MC and HF. Second, although we collected the data from the two samples at different time periods, the data from each of the samples were collected at a single point in time. This raises concerns about common method variance problems. However, we interspersed the justice, commitment, and support items to minimize common method variance (CMV) problems. Furthermore, both the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses indicated that the constructs were empirically separate. Nevertheless, it would be desirable to use longitudinal data to investigate the relationships examined here in future to address the causality problem. Also the use of temporal separation between some of the variables in each of the samples might help deal with the CMV concern (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Third, the justice and MC items focused on the respondent's perceptions about fairness and the two-way commitment in their organizations respectively, while the HF items emphasized the respondent's evaluation of the extent to which their colleagues possessed and utilized the HF behaviors and KSAs. It is possible that some of the employees may not be able to effectively assess the behaviors and KSAs of their colleagues. Future studies may use supervisors to assess their employees HF behaviors and KSAs. Fourth, our study focused on only PJ and IJ, and did not explore the influence of distributive justice and the separation of IJ into interpersonal and informative justice. Future research may consider using the four-factor organizational justice construct to ascertain whether there are differences between how informational and interpersonal justice affects MC and the HF.

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