

Examining the Relationship Between Perceptions of Organizational Justice, Innovative
Work Behavior, and Transformational Leadership after Controlling for Gender

Dissertation Manuscript

Submitted to Northcentral University
School of Business and Technology
in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

by

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November 2018

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Approval Page

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Abstract

The purpose of this quantitative non-experimental, correlational study was to examine the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership after controlling for gender in management-level business professionals in the United States. Specifically, this study was to observe gender differences in innovative work behavior and organizational justice on leadership to examine whether women experience the same levels of fair treatment and work behaviors compared to men; whether gender predicts transformational leadership. A convenience sample of 61 management-level professionals participated in an online survey. Hierarchical Multiple regression analyses tested hypothesized relationships between organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership using the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS), Innovative Work Behavior Scale (IWBS), and Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Leader Form (MLQ5X) Scale. The results revealed that overall organizational justice significantly predicted transformational leadership. Also, innovative work behavior significantly predicted transformational leadership. However, gender did not significantly predict transformational leadership style. Given the importance of innovation to the organization success, leaders can use their intellectual stimulation to motivate employees to be more creative and provide the resources needed. Conversely, to support employees, leaders idealized influence can foster a justice climate toward innovation for long-term organizational sustainability. Recommendations for future research include a qualitative research to probe thick descriptions about the variables of this study. Further research could include employees, particularly Millennials, by gathering data from both Millennials and superior utilizing the variables in this study.

Acknowledgments

First, is to dedicate this work to my family. To my two loves Michael and Sandro for their support, to my husband Frank being patient waiting for this journey to end, and to my instrumental brother Bundy who has been my biggest cheerleader throughout my life, greatest supporter, and guiding me through difficulties all my life with his moral support.

I also thank several friends for your invaluable mentoring in my journey. Dr. Eric Terry, Professor Robbie Allen, and Dr. Shereka Browne. A special thanks to a very exceptional person Dr. Thomas Wilson, who was there to pick me up when I was down, wanted to quit, he was my rock in guiding me through difficulties encountered in this dissertation journey.

I gratefully thank Dr. Charles Fenner, Subject Matter Expert (SME), and Dr. Sharon Kimmel Academic Reader (AR) who provided instructional support. I thank the best mentor and dissertation chairperson, Dr. Mohamad S. Hammoud, for his guidance, encouragement, and support throughout this journey.

Last, but not least, thanks to Dr. Ramon Daines, and Dr. Sara Northern from the Academic Success Center for their valuable guidance and coaching. Again, thank you all for the support given throughout the most challenging trajectory of my life. I would not have succeeded without this enduring support. This journey has been a challenging time, where I discovered myself again. Now, I can say that I am done! Having fate, trust in God, and positive thoughts are the only way to complete this trajectory. Going back to one of my pleasures, taking care of my plants and orchids. I am the master of my fate and the captain of my soul.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

In the 21st century, it is critical for organizations to integrate improved indicators for performance evaluations without direct or indirect gender bias when evaluated within an organizational setting (Dusterhoff, Cunningham, & MacGregor, 2014). Women should be empowered into top leadership roles through the pathway of career advancement (Angst & Borowiecki, 2014). Furthermore, women are committed to their organizations, often have unique skills such as empathy (Hoff & Scott, 2016). Also, who work long hours (Cha, 2013), and receive minimal recognition, which affects their promotional trajectory (Treviño, Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, & Mixon, 2018). In return, women seek output in the form of rewards (Khoreva & Tenhiälä, 2016), increased in pay (Zheng, Wang, & Song, 2014), promotions, recognition, and additional responsibility (Kim, Edwards, & Shapiro, 2015; Sidani, 2013).

From the 1960s to now, women have gained increased leadership positions; however, these statistics are staggering from an equity perspective (Bark-Hernandez, Escartin, Schuh, & van Dick, 2016). The numbers disclosed an underrepresentation of women in leadership positions (Schuh et al., 2014). According to Catalyst (2015), women represented only 4.6% of CEOs at S&P 500 companies, and only 19% have attained positions as board members of companies on the U.S. Stock Exchange. During the years 2012 and 2013, no increased was observed for women in leadership positions on the boards of Fortune 500 companies (Catalyst, 2015).

The U.S. Department of Labor reported that from 1970 through 2012 women comprised 47% percent of the labor force (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). Also, in 2014, 57.0% of women were in the labor force, which was less than a 0.2% change compared to 2013. Men's participation is usually higher than women. However, men's participation in the labor force

declined by 0.5% to 69.2% in 2014 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). From a justice perspective, these statistics indicated that women, regardless of some advancement over the past decades, should reflect a more realistic increase in leadership (Bark-Hernandez et al., 2016).

Furthermore, women have successfully achieved identical or higher educational levels in education (Joshi, 2014) and middle management positions, as compared to men (Joshi, Son, & Roh, 2015; Schuh et al., 2014). Women remain underrepresented in higher level administration and information technology positions (Bark-Hernandez et al., 2016). Above all, throughout history, women have faced many challenges in labor establishments, and have been underrepresented in corporate leadership positions (Hoyt & Murphy, 2016). These challenges for women stem from many problems such as labor market discrimination, gender gap, and gender bias in the job market (Bastida & Moscoso, 2015; Hoyt & Murphy, 2016). The marketplace challenged women in attaining top leadership positions (Bastida & Moscoso, 2015), because of appearance, selection procedure, (Vithya, Karunanidhi, & Sasikala, 2015), and sexuality being misused in organizations setting (Ferreira, Bastos, S & d'Angelo, 2018).

Upward mobility is stagnant in the workplace, and explanations for the underrepresentation of women at the top leadership centers around four schemes of stereotypes of women: (a) women lack effectiveness compared to men (Schuh et al., 2014), (b) women's management and educational nature (Bark-Hernandez et al., 2016, Joshi, 2014), (c) female's hindrance and family responsibilities (Vázquez-Carrasco, López-Pérez, & Centeno, 2012), and (d) women seem to be scrutinized more fervently than their male counterparts (Bark-Hernandez et al., 2016). Whereas men are and had been consistently more represented in positions of power, women appeared to be currently less likely to access power relative to men (Stainback & Kwon, 2012) because selection committees were more likely to select a candidate with

similarities or based on their preferences and stereotypes. In addition, most men appeared more aggressive than do women and are regarded as assertive, leading, and strong; which is known in the gender literature as agentic (Kossek, Su, & Wu, 2017), while women were regarded as communal and nurturing (Bark-Hernandez et al., 2016; McCarty, Monteith, & Kaiser, 2014). Despite these ongoing discussions about gender inequality, several scholars have argued about the veracity of these assertions of gender inequality, which are still inconclusive (Johnston & Lee, 2012), and a need for exploring demographic characteristics such as gender. Optimizing women's contributions in management and leadership was necessary (Bastida & Moscoso, 2015; Hoyt & Murphy, 2016) to progress to more senior appointments.

Owing to inequalities in organizations, justice and fairness are more critical today than previous years (Loosemore & Lim, 2016); it is vital to the rapid changes in organizations (Linna et al., 2014), and individual well-being (Ghosh, Sekiguchi & Gurunathan, 2017; Greenberg, 2010). Organizational justice theory is grounded on employee's perception regarding fairness within organizations (ElDinAboul-Ela, 2014; Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014). The justice research encompassed several facets of justice and fairness (Adams, 1963; Greenberg, 1986, 1990a, 1990b). The dynamic of work-related that links to employee's perceptions of fairness and rewards; within organization reflected job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention (Czarnota-Bojarska, 2015; Nasurdin, Ahmad, & Razalli, 2014). The landscape of overall justice consisted of distributive justice deals with organizational incentives (Adams, 1965; Leventhal, 1976). Procedural justice deals with organizational processes (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Informational justice deals with management's communications to the employees providing accurate information and suitable justifications for actions (Bies & Moag, 1986), and interpersonal justice referred to the amount of dignity, respect,

and politeness that the affected individuals receive by the authority making the decision (Greenberg, 1993).

On the other hand, leading for innovation is critical in the marketplace, and innovation remains at the forefront of organizations (Siddiqi, 2015). Within the organizational setting, it is essential for leadership to foster an innovative climate by recognizing problems and opportunities and devise solutions and empower employees to achieve progress (Björkman, Ehrnrooth, Mäkelä, Smale, & Sumelius, 2013). One vital area of innovation is the way of new products and technologies were developed in organizations, and the significant challenges in building and sustaining a robust talent pipeline (Björkman et al., 2013). Because of the transition to ever-changing demographics and workforce preferences, there exists a dire need for developing new competencies to revitalized organizations (Björkman et al., 2013). Furthermore, leaders established directions for innovation and provided necessary resources such as human assets, capital, and information, optimally for successful implementation (Bertels, Koen, & Elsum, 2015; DaSilva & Trkman, 2014).

From its traditional perspective, transformational leadership styles affect organizational performance (Bass, 1997; Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999) and employees' motivation (Cloutier & Lamarche, 2015). In turn, motivation can improve employees' job satisfaction (Morgenroth, Ryan, & Peers, 2015), thereby enhanced company productivity (Northouse, 2016). Also, leadership has been viewed as a process; this was reflective on how individual influenced groups in achieving shared goals (Yulk, 2013). Depending on the leadership model, leadership development was more than just developing individuals to lead (Fischer, Dietz, & Antonakis, 2016). It is about developing innovative strategies to use teams for improved performance effectively; to leverage diversity and inclusion as a competitive advantage (Fujimoto, Härtel, &

Azmat, 2013). Moreover, empirical evidence from Herrera, Duncan, Green, and Skaggs (2012) suggested that leader attributes, behavior, status, and influence vary based on the cultural background in the countries where leaders work. Leadership differences and similarities can be biased based on a person's assumptions regarding leadership qualities (Herrera et al., 2012).

The challenge organizations face currently, is how to create an enabling environment that recognizes the potential roles and responsibilities of women in the development of leadership (Fischer et al., 2016). In an effort to utilize strategies that will address the organizational and sociocultural hindrances that have contributed to gender inequalities, and the inability of women to realize their full potential (Bastida & Moscoso, 2015). It is vital to revisit and probe how gender leadership affects organizational success with different skills and styles in gauged leadership effectiveness, that may be different for females and males in organizations. Because of the multifaceted nature of leadership discourse of women within the context of innovation and underrepresentation in top leadership positions is to examine the factors of less representation in innovation in meeting the challenges of the new global marketplace.

Statement of the Problem

The problem addressed by this study was that little was unknown about the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership after controlling for gender in management level business professionals in the United States. Although women have the same experience and education as men (Bark-Hernandez et al., 2016, Josi, 2014), women are not being utilized to maximize their leadership contribution to innovation process and systems (Kovalinen & Poutanen, 2013).

Understanding the value of women within business organizations is an important goal toward gender equity in workplace leadership (Kaushik et al., 2014; Steyn & Jackson, 2015).

Studies have shown that empowered women create economic benefits, a positive effect on business, global competitiveness (Haile, Emmanuel & Dzathor, 2016), and ethical transparency (Eagly, Gartzia, & Carli, 2014; Hoyt & Murphy, 2016).

Organizations must innovate to remain competitive in the global marketplace. An innovative climate can support employees in formulating breakthrough ideas and developing new products and services (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010). Innovation was focused on concepts and business models (Bertels et al., 2015; DaSilva & Trkman, 2014) that arose because of current or unpredicted needs of the organization. A key factor was understanding who participates in the advance breakthrough on concepts and business models, strategically (Pecis, 2016), based on gaps found, and presented suitable solutions.

In a meta-analysis conducted of men' occupations and job complexity based on performance and rewards, women performed equally, but their pay was less than their male colleagues (Joshi et al., 2015). Although women performed on a par with men and earned less, business leaders continue to expend resources recruiting men, which may affect their companies' bottom lines. Women's representation in 2014 was only 4.6% of the CEOs of S&P 500 companies (Catalyst, 2015). Thus, additional research was required to determine if innovative work behavior relates to organizational justice and transformational leadership in support of organizational innovation.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative non-experimental, correlational study was to examine the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership after controlling for gender in management-level business professionals in the United States. Specifically, this study was to observe gender differences in

innovative work behavior and organizational justice on leadership to examine whether women experience the same levels of fair treatment and work behaviors compared to men; whether gender predicts transformational leadership.

Participants were solicited through Survey Monkey on a voluntary basis. The study sample population consisted of management-level business professionals from a varied background in Boynton Beach, Florida. A minimum sample size of 98 was determined using G*Power 3.1.9.2 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2009). The predictor variables: (a) gender (control variable), (b) perceptions of organizational justice includes distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice, and (c) innovative work behavior, and (d) the criterion variable is transformational leadership. Participants rated their own insight regarding perceptions of gender, perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership.

For this study, three pre-validated instruments were utilized. The first instrument was the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) developed by (Colquitt, 2001) was used to measure overall justice consisting of distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice. The second instrument was Innovative Work Behavior Scale (IWBS) developed by de Jong and den Hartog (2010), was used to measure four facets of innovative work behavior: idea exploration, generation, championing, and implementation. The third instrument was the Multifactor Leadership Model Questionnaire Form 5X Short Form Rater Version (MLQ5X) survey (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999), only the transformational model was used. Participants' rated their leadership style consisting of two subscales that are, idealized influence attributes (IA) and intellectual stimulation (IS). Multiple regression analysis was used to provide an estimation of the accuracy of the predictions, and the quantifiable measure of the relationship

between predictor and criterion variables (Field, 2017). By surveying leaders from various professional, this study's purpose was achieved by examining participants' perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership.

Conceptual Framework

Integrating insights from organizational justice Homans' (1961), and research on innovative work behavior (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010) on the perception of transformational leadership (Burns, 1978) are the conceptual lens of this study. Equity theory was first coined by Stacey Adam's (1963) incorporating various ideals more clearly from Homans' (1961) distributive justice. Equity theory became a central approach to evaluating issues of justice in the workplace (Greenberg, 1990a, 1990b; Greenberg & Folger, 1983; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Similarly, to Homan, Adams stated that any exchange relationship possibly could be perceived as unfair to the parties involved (Adams, 1963). Furthermore, equity theory described relationships between an employee's motivation and their perception of fairness at work when compared to others (Adams, 1963). Understanding the perceptions of women in innovation has been greatly overlooked in top leadership positions affecting women's trajectory; acting as a hindrance to higher positions.

Moreover, organizational justice theory has been used in gender studies, on the evaluation of individual's capabilities based on gender roles in the pursuit of equity in the labor establishment (Adams, 1963, 1965). The work-related progressive of justice that links employees' perceptions of fairness and rewards within organization contexts were job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention is based on organizational justice (Czarnota-Bojarska, 2015; Nasurdin et al., 2014). Furthermore, organizational justice has evolved in the workplace and has shown to have a direct correlation with job performance,

satisfaction, and commitment (Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012; Whitman, Caleo, Carpenter, Horner, & Bernerth, 2012). To gain an understanding, was to examine the overall justice scheme of distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice would reflect individuals' values in consideration to justice guidelines, and whether justice was instrumental in the attainment of value-added outcomes.

Currently, work performance in innovation is critical for organizations and indication of fairness is paramount. Since the dawn of the labor establishment, evaluations have been the benchmark for either promotion or termination (Linna et al., 2014). Organizational justice is at the center of work performance appraisals/evaluations (Linna et al., 2014). Therefore, if women are performing above expectations on a par with men, women should be rewarded with promotional incentives to leadership with more responsibilities like those offered to men (Alagaraja & Shuck, 2015). In any competitive environment, leadership styles have influenced innovative behaviors (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010). To accomplish, innovative behavior successfully is to embrace power-sharing, empowerment, and consultation through participative leadership (Yukl, 2013). Some scholars have operationalized innovative behavior construct as multifaceted behaviors (Jansen, 2000; de Jong & den Hartog, 2007, 2010). Also, there were limited studies measuring employees' innovative behavior as a multifaceted construct (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010).

Innovative work practices recognized by various scholars were inclusive of creativity of innovation aspects (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010; Janssen, 2004). For example, creativity stated laterally with innovation can be perceived as dichotomous. Thus, created the demarcation between creative and innovation that incorporated innovative behavior with outcomes (Mumford & Licuana, 2004), and sometimes overlooks idea pursuit, which was an essential part of creative

work practice (Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby & Herron, 1996; Hunter, Laursen, & Seymour, 2007; Shavinina, 2011). Implementation was part of creativity (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010; Shavinina, 2011), and creativity is new, original, and creates new knowledge. Many factors affected creativity and innovation such as group, teams, or individual aspect (Shavinina, 2011). Contrary to creativity, innovative behavior should result in some benefit such as organizational change. Innovative behavior was an antecedent that improves organization operations that were expected to result in innovative output. The core of innovative behaviors has been influenced by leadership styles (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010), that played to empowered and enhanced these behaviors. Hence, innovative work behavior and organizational justice were positively associated with transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership behaviors and styles affected performance (Arnold, Connelly, Walsh, & Martin Ginis, 2015; Burns, 1978) and innovation (Bento et al., 2015; Liu, 2013). Also, transformational leadership may link to women's leadership role (Hernandez-Bark et al., 2016). For example, PepsiCo Indra Nooyi's dynamic transformational leadership was reflective by influencing followers or groups in achieving shared goals (Yukl, 2013). Therefore, transformational leadership would be a contributing factor to further women's advancement (Vinkenburg, van Engen, Eagly, & Johansen-Schmidt, 2011). Regardless of scholarship perceptions, some empirical findings were confirmatory of this relationship and providing further investigation of these assertions was indicated.

Furthermore, the theoretical relationships regarding the concepts discussed in this section formalized in the conceptual framework provided in Figure 1. As stated, this study was to observe the relationship between the four perceptions of organizational justice: distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice, innovative work behavior and gender on

transformational leadership. This research effort was to examine how these factors affect transformational leadership because the context of innovation is gender confined, and women's inability to realize their full potential . Differences may exist within an organization of how women being treated compared to men.

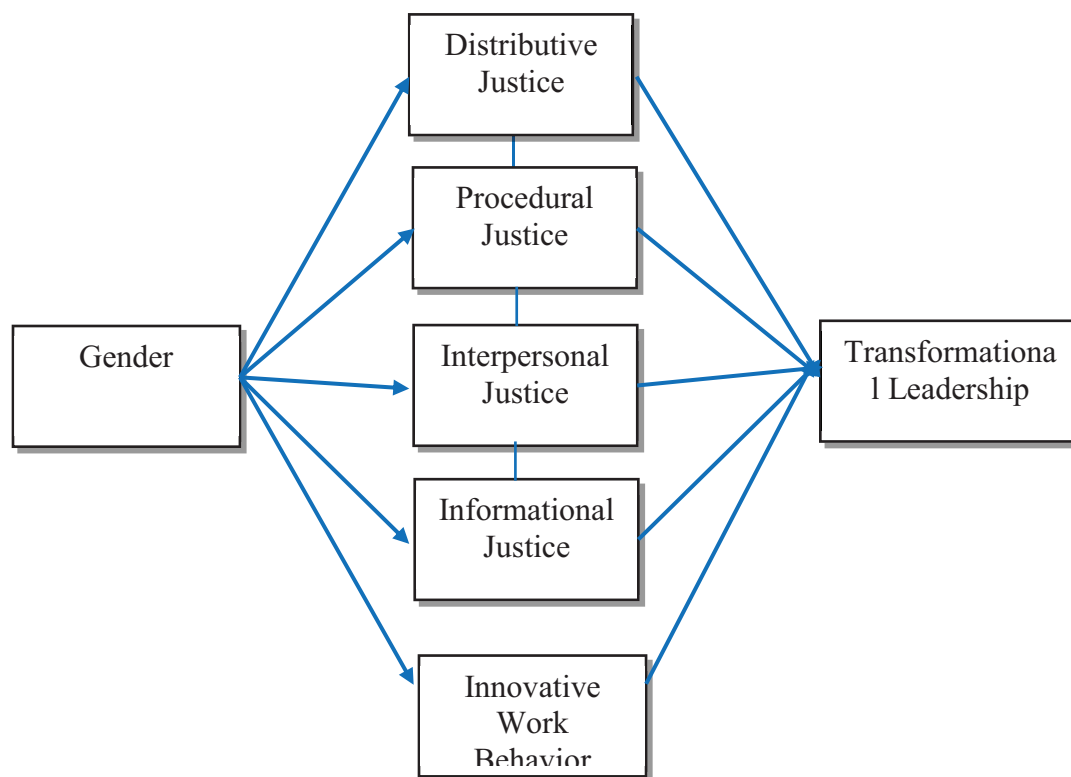


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework.

Nature of the Study

A quantitative, non-experimental, correlational design was chosen to explore the relationship between, perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and criterion variable of transformational leadership because of its applicability to the research questions (Delost & Nader, 2014). The purpose of this study was to determine if perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior (as predictor variables), predicted transformational leadership (as the criterion variable), and covariates with gender, age, ethnicity,

education, and tenure with organization variables that others have related to transformational leadership (Schuh et al., 2014).

A correlational design was appropriate for determining whether relationships between these variables exist, the strength of those relationships, and determined the positive or negative associations that exist among the variables (Field, 2017). A regression analysis was used to ascertain the magnitude to which these independent variables can empirically predict whether there was a relationship with transformational leadership (Field, 2017). Non-experimental designs are used when human characteristics are not possible to manipulate (Delost & Nader, 2014).

Quantitative correlation methods with hierarchical multiple regression analyses were valuable when comparing predictor variables *perceptions of organizational justice* and *innovative work behavior*, with the criterion variable of *transformational leadership* (Field, 2017). The Pearson's *r* and *Beta* correlation coefficients measure the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two or more variables (Field, 2017). This research method was applicable in determining whether predictive relationships existed between these variables.

Participants were solicited through SurveyMonkey on a voluntary basis. The sample population for this study consisted of management-level business professionals in the United States. Data collection commenced after receiving approval from Northcentral University Institutional Review Board. All electronic data was protected with a password and stored as soon as it was retrieved from the website. Participants' names were excluded from the survey questionnaire, and the results did not include either the names of organizations or participants. These results were descriptive with extensive narrative detail data, which convey a portrait of people and their behaviors that depicted the characteristics of the population (Jackson, 2016).

For this study, three pre-validated instruments were utilized. The first instrument was the OJS developed by (Colquitt, 2001) to measure overall justice. The second instrument was the IWBS developed by de Jong, and den Hartog (2010) was used to measure four facets of innovative work behavior: idea exploration, generation, championing, and implementation. The last instrument was the MLQ5X survey (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio et al., 1999). Only the transformational model was used. The IBM computer Software Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data collected and applied necessary statistical techniques. Multiple regression analysis was used to provide an estimation of the accuracy of the predictions, and the quantifiable measure of the relationship between predictor and criterion variables (Field, 2017). Identifying a predictive relationship between (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice, and innovative work behavior), and transformational leadership outcome, might signify an opportunity to improve the relationship leader-manager support striking a balance between equity and social change within organizational settings.

Research Questions

The research questions and hypotheses that drove this study was to examine perceptions of organizational justice included, distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice, innovative work behavior and perceptions of organizational leadership within organizations. The study research question and subquestions were as follows:

Q1: After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of organizational justice (OJS), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?

The following subquestions emerged from the overarching research question:

- Q1₁. After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of procedural justice, innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?
- Q1₂. After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of interpersonal justice, innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?
- Q1₃. After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of informational justice, innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?

Hypotheses

- H1₀: After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of organizational justice (OJS), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).
- H1_a: After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of organizational justice (OJS), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).
- H1_{1,0}: After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of procedural justice, innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).
- H1_{1,a}: After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of procedural justice, innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

H1_{2,0}: After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of interpersonal justice, innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

H1_{2,a}: After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of interpersonal justice, innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

H1_{3,0}: After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of informational justice, innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

H1_{3,a}: After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of informational justice, innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

Significance of the Study

First, this proposed research effort would have significance for working women. The study findings might provide women and organization leaders with information to help prepare women for higher executive level positions, thereby boosting women's feelings of self-efficacy, accomplishment, and job satisfaction (Warrick, 2016). This study was needed to understand the relationship between gender, perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership in a sample of management- level business professionals in the United States.

Second, the study might provide insight to organizational leaders to recognize the benefits of promoting women leaders, especially in corporations that limit women's access to leadership. Studying the effects of leadership and women's hindrance would help broaden views

on the effect of women in leadership within local and multinational corporations, and show how employees' satisfaction can be improved, striking a balance between equity and social change within organizational settings. The value of this study was envisioned to measure organizational justice, innovative work behavior and transformational leadership in advancing the behaviors associated with organizations. As well as a better understanding of problems related to organizational justice practices and can benefit business leaders by providing guidance on equity policy. Modern organizational leaders were concerned with employees' performance, and how organizational leadership affected employees' motivation (Morgenroth et al., 2015). These drivers contributed to the body of knowledge on employee management by identifying a predictive relationship between distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice, and innovative work behavior in transformational leadership.

Furthermore, findings from this research would benefit policy related to laws such as Title VII of the U.S. Civil Rights Act of 1964, for further implementation in eliminating or minimizing discrimination to reduce inequalities. The study would provide organizational leaders in the private and public sectors to mirror organizations that were successful in hiring female C-suits. The outcomes of the research would provide a better understanding of issues related to employees' perceptions of justice and women's advancement in innovation. The findings would be instrumental for leadership to create an environment of opportunity for employees' advancement and promote inclusive organizational justice standards in workplaces. For researchers, this research effort served as a starting point to broaden contemporary understanding and lead to generalized findings that may fill an existing gap in knowledge and contribute to new knowledge in the areas of gender, leadership, innovation, and organizational justice theory.

Definition of Key Terms

Organizational Justice. Organizational justice is a worker's perception concerning the fairness obtainable within the organization (Schminke, Arnaud & Taylor, 2015).

Distributive Justice. Distributive justice implies fairness in the distribution of resources and rewards that benefit an individual from the organization (Rahman, Shahzad, Mustfafa, Khan, & Qurashi, 2016).

Procedural Justice. Procedural justice is viewed as a process like a democracy. It is perceptive to openness, fairness, and transparency while organizations reflect on decision making, that is interlinked with a person's behavior and attitude reflecting fairness from managers and supervisors (Zheng, Wang, & Song, 2014).

Informational Justice. Informational justice is generally to explain how procedures and outcomes are decided in providing an explanation to an affected individual when a decision is made (Enoksen & Sandal, 2015). Said explanations should be fitting, realistic, and specific.

Interpersonal Justice. Interpersonal justice is underpinned by politeness and respect from those in positions of authority (Enoksen & Sandal, 2015).

Innovation. Innovation is the development and implementation of new ideas (Garud, Tuertscher, van de Ven, 2013) of systems and people. Within this realm, interactions outline the infrastructure in sustaining innovation and provide a directional approach of applicability (Pecis, 2016).

Innovative Work Behavior. Innovative work behavior is critical to organizational success (Shanker, Bhanugopan, van der Heijden, & Farrel, 2017). Innovative work behavior is an individual engaged behavior in the quest to introduce, or apply new ideas, products, improved processes, and procedures within the organization (de Jong & den Hartog, 2007) viable to

influence corporate core objectives.

Leadership. Leadership style shows behaviors of respect, motivates employees in achieving an organizational goal, and executes what is best for the organization (Bass, 2008; Owens & Hekman, 2012). The leadership style of this study is transformational leadership.

Transformational Leadership Style. Transformational leaders use motivation to excite employees in achieving shared goals for long-term on behalf of the organization. Also, fostering good behaviors and individual alteration goes beyond their potentials (Bass, 2008).

Summary

This study was needed to understand perceptions of organizational justice, innovation work behavior and perceptions of organizational leadership within organizations. This study provided a foundation to improve policies to establish equal and fair opportunities for female business leaders and workers to improve their career advancement. Participants were solicited through Survey Monkey on a voluntary basis. The study sample population consisted of management-level business professionals in the United States. For this study, three pre-validated instruments were used to gather participants' insights regarding perceptions of gender, perceptions of organizational justice, innovation work behaviors, and transformational leadership. The first instrument was the (OJS) developed by (Colquitt, 2001) and was used to measure overall justice. The second instrument was (IWBS) developed by de Jong and den Hartog (2010), was used to measure four facets of innovative work behavior: idea exploration, generation, championing, and implementation. The last instrument was the (MLQ5X) survey (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999), and only the transformational model was used. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used in this study to provide an estimation of the accurateness of the predictions, and the quantifiable measures of the relationships between

the predictors and criterion variables (Field, 2017). This study contributed to the existing literature by focusing on gender-based determinants of transformational leadership. This research method was applicable in determining whether predictive relationships exist between these variables and may offer insights on innovation behavior extended the knowledge of gender relationships in the workplace setting.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The variables of organizational justice (OJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (TFL) were the focus of this research and review of the literature. The objective of this study was to explore gender differences in innovative work behavior and organizational justice, to discover their predictive statistical relationship whether women experience the same levels of fair treatment and work behaviors compared to men. The challenge organizations face currently, is how to create an enabling environment, which recognizes the potential roles and responsibilities of women in the development of leadership (Fischer et al., 2016). Also, due to inequalities in organizations, justice and fairness are more critical today than previous years (Loosemore & Lim, 2016), and essential to the rapid changes in organizations and individual well-being (Gosh et al., 2017; Walsh, Dupré, & Arnold, 2014).

Documentation

This dissertation problem, purpose statement, research variables, conceptual framework, research questions, and hypotheses were the groundwork for the literature review research. The literature search strategy began with a critical evaluation of books, articles, and peer-reviewed sources from 2014 to 2018 to determine how relevant these items were to this study. Also, seminal works were reviewed prior to 2008.

To accomplish the purpose of the research, resources such as *EBSCOhost, ProQuest, Sage, ABI/Inform Global, Science Direct, Gale Academic OneFile, Wilson OmniFile, and Taylor and Francis Social Science* were researched. Also, abstracts and dissertations from Northcentral University were used as part of the resources, to ascertain the most effective methods currently found in the literature. The key terms or words used in locating data were *genders, innovation, creativity, discrimination, equity theory, equality, inequalities, work performance, motivation,*

organizational justice, transformational leadership, and leadership. Research materials used for this study when possible were limited to peer-review journals published within the last 5 years (Xu, Loi, & Ngo, 2014; Bedi et al., 2015). The studies were analyzed and categorized for potential used in the current study, and key themes between positive and negative outcome were examined.

The literature review provided substantial material related to organizational justice, including all the pillars that make up its framework. The influence of fairness was the main concern within organizations, organizational justice on employee retention rates, and their perceptions of the overall workplace. In general, these elements are essential to the successful functioning of an organization how leadership style and values influence employees, the organizations, and effects of these phenomena on women's career advancement. In addition, how innovation and transformational leadership is approached are dynamic, related to change.

The literature review concluded with an effort on the gap encountered in the available empirical literature and offered a conceptual foundation on which the opportunity created on organizational justice within the four dimensions of distributive, procedural, relational, and interpersonal justice; innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership. Each section concluded consolidating and summarizing existing research. Lastly, a summary of the overall literature review was provided within the themes.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual lens consisted of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership. Numerous studies Deschamps et al. (2016), Lian, and Min, (2016), Rahman et al. (2016) have examined organizational justice; this construct has been researched over many millennia began with Aristotle focused on fairness in the distribution of resources

amongst individuals (Rawls, 1971). The scholarship focused only on the fairness of outcomes based on decision known as distributive justice; the ideals were clearly from (Homans, 1961). Similarly, to Homans, Adams (1965) stated that an exchange relationship is perceived as unfair to the parties involved. Conversely, the seminal work on Adams' (1965) equity theory is a social comparison theory focused on distributive justice. Equity theory became a central approach to evaluating issues of justice in the workplace (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Equity theory purposes on relationships between employee's motivation and perception of fairness at work when compared to others (Adams, 1963). Equity theory describes individual perception between outcomes and inputs of tasks, skills, knowledge, and abilities against someone of the same caliber on the relational interplay between ratio and output. If individuals detect their input or ratio matches, then equity is obtained. Due to their input or output of themselves is not comparable to their peers, individuals will decrease or lower their work input in matching the output of their peers (Colquitt, 2012). Furthermore, organizational justice initiates a different course of action towards individual paradigm in the belief of justice and fairness interchangeable (Greenberg, 1990a, 1990b; Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Given that equity theory is key to the norm of appropriate allocation of standard as perceived in organizations, other standards of fairness was applied in other conditions (Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1976).

In addition, other norms and organizational justice grew in 1974 with Nozick; (Rawls 1999, 2001). In fact, the landscape of OJ has been broken down into five individual perceptions or categories are more definitive. The development of these scholarship corroborations started with distributive justice during the 1950s through 1970s with devotion on fairness, focused in the distribution of outcomes (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005; Rahman et al., 2016). Furthermore, distributive justice involves how tangible and intangible resources assigned to employees were

based on corporate incentives such as allocation of possessions, power amongst individuals, and which incentives are distributed amongst members of the organization (Deschamps et al., 2016). A society in which incidental inequalities in outcomes do not arise, are considered a society guided by the principles of distributive justice such as women receiving lower pay or how prisoners perceived justice (Beijersbergen, Dirkzwager, Laan, Molleman, & Nieuwbeerta, 2015); distributive justice has been researched more often and is more developed than the other justice approaches. Subsequently, grasping that distributive justice cannot exclusively explain the perception of injustice; procedural justice emerged as a second dimension.

Procedural justice originated during the 1970s until 1990s that altered the impetus of fairness to measure responsible reward distributions (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1990a, 1990b; Greenberg & Folger, 1983; Rahman et al., 2016). Procedural justice is about the fairness and openness of the processes taken place in organizations, such as business decisions, promotion information, regulatory processes, and allocation of benefits (Dechamps et al., 2016; Nasurdin et al., 2014; Raham et al., 2016), leading to the procedure used determining various outcomes and sanctions (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Procedural justice increases trust in leadership (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015), organizational commitment of employees, an organization's performance (Shin, Sung, Choi, & Kim, 2015). An essential facet of procedural justice relates to authoritative control in legal decisions (Beijersbergen et al., 2015). At the same time, if individuals perceived procedures as unfair, they will leave the organization, leading to high employee turnover (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015). Although, procedural justice is assumed as a separate construct; some researchers posited that procedural and distributive justice are interlinked rather than entirely independent (e.g., Folger & Knonsky, 1989). Procedural justice was found in relation to general evaluations that impact the whole organization such as

organizational commitment and supervisor evaluation (Shin et al., 2015); while distributed justice was influential to personal and specific outcomes such as pay, job, and satisfaction with performance appraisal and transformational leadership (Deschamps et al., 2016; Nasurdin et al., 2014; Raham et al., 2016).

Although distributive and procedural justice were the pillar of justice for decades, scholars' experiential research found another dimension called interactional justice. Since the mid-1980s, devotion was given to interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986) relative to fairness, respect, and politeness. Interactional justice is the focus of the quality of interpersonal treatment between employees and management. In this regard, this perception involved people affected by management decisions, who are treated with dignity, and respect importantly, during performance appraisal (Dusterhoff, Cunningham, & MacGregor, 2014), as well as personal treatment received based on the organization procedures with information received from managers and supervisors (Demirtas, 2015). Furthermore, Greenberg (1993) postulated that these two forms of justice, interpersonal and informational were formed from interactional justice (EldinAboul-Ela, 2014).

Informational justice deal with the administration's communications to the employees (Greenberg, 1993; Greenberg & Folger, 1993) with information presented to the affected people regarding why certain outcomes resulted from impartial decision-making. The objective of informational justice is to ensure there is clarity in the delivery of information provided to an affected individual when a decision is made. Additionally, there is dignity and respect from the employees' perceptions which correlates with the conclusion made. Equally, interpersonal justice fourth-dimension refers to an amount of dignity, respect, and politeness that the affected individuals received from the authority making the decision (Greenberg 1993; Greenberg &

Folger, 1993; Schminke et al., 2015). Research findings have documented their effects in various situations, for example, ill-treatment perceived from supervisors and peers' transgressions related to job threatening work environment, and hostile behavior (Hoobler & Hu, 2013). Consequently, this negative effect appeared to translate perceptions of injustice into restorative behavioral responses. Such as negative behavior, organizational attitudes, dissatisfaction, absenteeism, and poor performance, among other things. Specifically, interpersonal justice, if conducted correctly, has proven to increase employee loyalty and reduced absenteeism (Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014). Nevertheless, interpersonal justices seemed to be an under-studied aspect of organizational justice that would provide valuable information from employers' and employees' perception of justice in their organization (Johnson et al., 2014). Furthermore, informational and interpersonal justice dimensions are usually examined together and create less understanding of their effects (Au & Leung, 2016).

To extend the literature on organizational justice was to examine *why* and *how* these four types of organizational justices are important to improve employees' motivation and utilization was to take this four justice into consideration. The evolution of this theory provided enough empirical evidence supporting fairness relationship with various outcomes including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention (Czarnota-Bojarska, 2015; Nasurdin et al., 2014). Researchers have revealed the practical, constructive results of organizational justice through work outcomes on attitudes and behaviors. Some of these results, included ethical leadership, organizational behavior, organizational commitment, and job performance have been established in the scholarship of organizational investigation (Cloutier & Benoit, 2015; Johnson et al., 2014; Schminke et al., 2015). Also, empirical studies have shown that employees' value and reciprocate justice instrumentalism (Stam, 2007), relationism, and

moral values (Schminke et al., 2015). Accordingly, knowledge of organizational justice derived from cross-sectional studies, evaluating between-person differences based on perception and reactions (Johnson et al., 2014). Additionally, other studies on pay satisfaction where employees were more satisfied and happier when the pay reform was established (Cloutier & Benoit, 2015). From the employees' perspective, pay for performance places greater risk and rises subjectivity influenced by supervisory bias in the process of pay determination (Zhen, Wang, & Song, 2014).

Although researchers have addressed the effect of organizational justice this work is also not without limitations. Despite the four conceptualizations of organizational justice, they have not encompassed four types of justice simultaneously in their research models (Beijersbergen et al., 2015, 2015; Rubin, 2015). The social exchange perspective has been used by several researchers to identify the separate roles of distributive justice (Choi & Sai, 2013; Deschamps, Rinfret, Lagacé, & Privé, 2016). The social exchange perspective has also been used to distinguish the interactive functions of distributive and procedural justice (Biswas, Varma, & Ramaswami, 2013) of organizational behavior, leaving out informational and interpersonal justice (Beijersbergen et al., 2015; Choi & Sai, 2013; Deschamps et al., 2016; Rubin, 2015). Nonetheless, including one or three-justice dimensions in a study may impose a limited understanding of how organization's fairness in an organization governs pervasive perception by the organization's employees, clients, and customers (Deschamps et al., 2016). By excluding one or three dimensions may lead researchers to ignore any significant relationship that could exist if those dimensions omitted, or if included. Moreover, new research provided different perspectives on organizational justice theory and the applications in today's workplace (Colquitt et al., 2012). Additionally, the importance of justice in the workplace supported by numerous

studies and empirical research provided a context of how organizational justice affects practice (Beijersbergen et al., 2015; Choi & Sai, 2013; Deschamps et al., 2016; Rubin, 2015).

Currently, the gap encountered in the research for gender and leadership usefulness in organizations is that most studies (Beijersbergen et al., 2015; Choi & Sai, 2013; Dechamps et al., 2016; Rubin, 2015), centered within one or three aspects of organizational justice dimensions. Although this theory is mature the research area of two or three-dimension shortcomings in research for supportive approaches that are now developing in the field of gender. However, this gap represented an opportunity for this research focused on the four elements OJ, to the well-established theory. Utilizing this approach to identify the various influences of innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership was necessary to gain a better understanding of these variables and how they interact and predict the relationship between gender, OJ, IWB, and TFL. These dimensions and results are further discussed in subsequent paragraphs.

Subsequently, leaders can foster innovation by recognizing problems and opportunities and devise solutions, empower and reward employees for achieving progress. One vital area of innovation is new products and technologies. Also, organizational leaders must encourage creative climates and innovation, to aid the organization in solving obstacles and/or developed improvements (Haider & Akbar, 2017). Innovation originated within an organization based on the interactions of employees' effort, and to be successful in the innovation process, everyone must be involved (Shanker et al., 2017). Other researchers supported this view that employees were critical to the innovation process due to their cognitive skills and activities that are critical for continued innovative development, improved growth, profitability, and market value (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010). Employees' behavior influence organizations functional performance based on effective knowledge application and technological skills. To generate innovative

initiatives thus creates a suitable competitive advantage. Organizations that want to survive, and prosper, must respond to the challenge of globalization. The leadership may need to shift their focus and strategy to new ways of doing business. Although organizations experience long stability, innovative work behavior is crucial when change is incremental, and transformational changes developed an opportunity attaining competitive advantage (e.g., Jensen, 2000).

Organizations that fail to innovate remain at risk and less able to gain and sustain competitive advantage (Shanker et al., 2017). While most leaders today view creativity and innovation for long-term sustainability, a few continued their typical approach to innovation, where the cost benefits do not match against the cost of potential failure or failed businesses (Moreno, García-Morales, Montes, & Llorens, 2013).

Innovation advancements thus influence or enhance a product or delivery of service more efficiently, as well as creating challenges. However, innovation theory emphasized that innovation is more than creativity; it incorporates the implementation of the idea (Wu, Parker, & de Jong, 2014). Nonetheless, these behaviors needed for implementation of ideas to optimize products that will enhance personal and business performance and hence meet competition. Innovative behavior is an attitudinal construct that changes the situation and employees' awareness to explore opportunities, finding gaps, and providing solutions to problems. IWB is consistent with the individual cognitive skills (Wu et al., 2014). Furthermore, several researchers labeled innovative work behavior and displayed behaviors of individuals in exploring, generating, championing, implementing novel ideas, process, and procedures (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010; de Jong, 2007).

These behaviors were assumed to contribute to the work outcome (Haider & Akbar, 2017; Shanker et al., 2017). Others posited that IWB assisted organizations in gaining

competitive advantage. Although there was a positive correlation between innovative climate and IWB consisting of robust face validity, past research was focused on climates effect on organizational and team level innovations. While IWB is lateral thinking beyond the normal on different approaches for process improvements, there exist new technologies and new ways of realizing tasks and procured resources to actualize an idea (Prieto & Santana, 2014). As discussed by Shanker et al. (2017), IWB involved three processes: (a) idea generation, (b) idea promotion, and (c) and idea realization. Idea generation is the first stage of creativity in creating new useful ideas in any field (see Jansen, 2000). Employees are the sources of novel ideas in organizations; conversely, a creative idea derived from employees finding gaps or problems and used an approach that is unique for solving problems or suggested improvements, the leader articulated strategic decision to influence the pursuit of innovation (Haider & Akbar, 2017). Evidently, de Jong & den Hartog (2010); de Jong (2007) viewpoint on innovative work behavior consisted of four dimensions: (a) of idea exploration, (b) generation, (b) championing, (d) implementation, and used in this study. The first two dimensions are creative dimensions known as ideation dimensions. While the other two dimensions convert creative ideas realized benefits into innovation. Opportunity exploration consisted of looking at various tools for improved processes, or current services in the light of work process, programs, systems or services to developed new management approaches better than competitors (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010). While idea generation was the next step of IWB and presented an opportunity for exploration of an idea, and to gather information in reaction to an apparent need for innovation. It is integral to rethink making changes in business processes to achieved improvements in performance, or when the functionality of the operations encountered various problems in the organization (Nadina, 2011). Also, championing was an initiative taken by an individual or person who is

passionate, confident to persuade leaders of the need for change and fights for the creative change in the organization. Personal energy and effort required to promote a new idea successfully despite rejection by others. Implementation phase where all the events occurred, having the rights skills of people, where the new product introduced by bringing that idea to reality. When previous requirements were completed implementation referred to the process built rather than the design process. During this phase, new products, work processes, or services, tested and modified (de Jong 2007, de Jong & den Hartog, 2010), these components were completed, required for the implementation (Gundry, Ofstein, & Monllor, 2016).

As discussed previously, some researchers distinguished between idea generation and idea implementation phase in combining these two phases into one concept termed innovation behavior (Afzar, Badir, & Saeed, 2014). Most important, organizational creativity is generating novel ideas, while innovation is from a variety of options; from ideas generated and implementing the best-chosen option. Technological advancements thus influenced or enhanced a product or delivery of service more efficiently, as well as creating challenged in knowledge-intensive settings. That is not to say, creative behaviors and outcomes emerged as a component of the innovation process, marrying these two concepts provided maximum value to the organization and its operation.

Every organization has a variety of different leadership styles including laissez-faire, participative, servant, transactional, and transformational when dealing with employees. Researchers often explored the construct of leadership by recognizing that leadership is vital for organizational success as well as influenced the behavior of groups or individual toward the achievement of some goal (Avolio, 2007). While leadership phenomena do not have a universal definition in the scholarship, leadership holds a different meaning for different people and no

ideal definition exists (Yukl, 2013). However, leadership is essential to the process and results of any organization. Leadership was often viewed as the single utmost factor influencing failure and success in organizations (Bass, 1990). Furthermore, Bass and Avolio (2008) posited that the leadership styles were on an endurance active transformational and transactional, but laissez-faire is passive leadership.

An early definition of leadership provided by Chemers' (1997) consisted of three models of leadership involved three essential tasks of leaders. Also, a leader must begin with relationship development, through meaningful interactions by which they developed relations and recognized anticipated results while monitoring employees' commitment, attained outcomes, and maintained an elevated level of individual obligation to stakeholders. Furthermore, resource utilization is to attain fiscal resources, assessing competing demands, and managed the resources in achieving ambitious objectives competently and successfully was integral to the leadership role. Lastly, image management were those behaviors admired by stakeholders based on leadership culture and positive actions that are consistent with the expectations of followers that encouraged corporate image.

Equally, Kouzes and Posner (1987) suggested that successful leadership was vital in any organization, espoused during emergency situations and navigating through organizational changes. Positive relationships between leaders and followers are paramount in empowering individuals to succeed in ascertaining goals. Kouzes and Posner (1987) promote five practiced of exemplary leadership behaviors. The first is modeling the way; leaders who walk the talk, exhibit two key behaviors; they clarify their values and set examples for others to follow, and leader's actions aligned with their substantive values. Second, inspiring a shared vision symbolized leadership in spreading their ambitious vision regarding what they want to achieve

in the long run. Third, challenged the process, in search of innovative ways to improve the organization; taking risks and continually generating small wins and learned from experience. Fourth, enabling others to act, foster collaboration, build spirited teams, involved others, build trust, and empowered. Lastly, to encourage the heart is the process of recognized contributions that the individuals make; for every winning team, leaders celebrated values and victories by creating an esprit de corps (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

As per Northouse (2016), leadership is a process. This process allowed the leader to direct a group of people to achieve organizational goals. Northouse (2016) argued that a leader does not include a trait or characteristic that imbues a leader, but a pact that occurred between the leader and followers. For the most part, leadership is not a one-street event; it is an interactive game about influence. Leadership exerted around motivating followers. Influence, as a practice, is an idea about the effectiveness of the leader being instrumental on followers (Northouse, 2016), these interactions often occurred within groups. Perhaps, it is not necessary to have followers but still manifested leadership skills (Northouse, 2016). The objective of a leader was to increased profits for the organization and shareholders (Friedman, 1970). Also, the abusive leader offered concern and how these behaviors affect followers (Northouse, 2016). The strife between followers was hostile, used verbal and nonverbal actions aimed at workers, and tended to use his/her power to undermine employees (Bedi, Alpasla, & Green, 2015).

Transformational leadership began with Burns (1978) seminal work. Burns' theory was significant in postulating strategic leadership transformation between leader and follower. In this context, Burns' (1978) characterized transforming leadership as it occurred, and engagement between people or groups, and leaders and employees raised the bar between motivation and morality. Bass (1985) extended the work of Burns (1978) by the emotion's mechanism

underlying transforming. Bass then changed the word, transforming to transformational leadership and how it measured, and the pathways on followers placed on performance and motivation (Bass, 1985).

Examining the effect of leadership and organizational actions, particularly transformational leadership, underpinned as an effective leadership style in driving organizational performance (Zhan, Li, Ullrich, & van Dick, 2015). Similarly, leadership behaviors can be associated with emotions and suggested that people who practice transformational leadership have positive effects on their followers in sharing positive emotions (Arnold, Connelly, Walsh, & Ginis, 2015). Also, this type of leadership used vision, motivation, influence, and inspiration as organizational actions (Ali, Jan, Ali & Tariq, 2014). One portion focused on group and encompassed leadership actions that altered follower ideals and stimulated them to pursue a united vision of the future; this encouraged entirely the members of the organization to operate outside their limitations (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978).

A study conducted by Nafiah and Sri (2018) found that transformational leadership and work engagement had a significant effect on innovative behavior, and work engagement mediated an effect on transformational leadership, thus resulting on improved employee innovative behavior through transformational leadership (Nafiah, & Sri, 2018). Also, Dechamps et al. (2016) analyses found that procedural and interactional justice were influenced by transformational leadership. Also, the correlations reported with procedural and interactional justice were affected by followers' work motivation. However, distributive justice was the least influenced by the follower's work motivation. Demirtas and Akdogan, (2015) examined the effect of managers' ethical leadership on members of the organization. The findings revealed that managers' ethical leadership associated with the ethical climate of the organization,

attributed to the business operations and shaped the climate. In which case, members were more committed and tended to behave in a more honest and trustworthy manner (Demirtas & Oakden, 2015). Other studies have shown that transformational leadership was effective in comparison to other leadership styles, lead to better performance and gratification in the office landscape (Atmojo, 2015). Furthermore, another study showed that transformational leadership was also a motivational style (Vitto, Higgins, & Denney, 2015). This style energized followers inspired developers in fostering trust and respect, the opportunity for advancement, congruency with leader's vision benefited all within the organization (Vitto et al., 2015).

Additionally, transformational leadership has resulted in several positive outcomes not solely in the workplace but also in the nurse's environment (Brewer et al., 2016). In Brewer's et al. (2016) study, findings supported organizational commitment, job satisfaction, mentor support, promotional opportunities, and age was linked with the purpose to stay, while ethnicity, was negatively linked to non-local job opportunities and work settings with the purpose to remain. Clearly, no relationship on purpose to remain, or job satisfaction, but association existed with organizational commitment (Brewer et al., 2016).

Transformational leadership also attempted in the nonprofit area, such as government practices (Van der Voet, 2014). Leaders in the public sector shifted their focus from transactional to transformational avoided the slight focused based on the transaction-oriented method. Kahai, Jestuare, and Huang (2013) agreed with Van der Voet (2014), that transformational leadership increased cognitive effort, while transactions decreased the attainment.

When referred to the transformational leadership theory, it is important to describe the application of a measurement tool known as Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form

5X (MLQ5X) (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Research has also shown often positive outcomes of the construct (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995, 1999; van Knippenberg & Sitking, 2013, Ariyani & Hidayati, 2018), merit the usage. In contrast to the argument of the positive outcomes, researchers argued that the questionnaire suffers irregularity from the four subscales (Deinert, Homan, Boer, Voelpel, & Gutermann, 2015). The psychometric properties of the instrument consisted of 142 statements about the behavior of the leader. There are two forms of the MLQ: (a) the leader form, where leaders rate themselves, and (b) the rater form completed by employees of the leader. The instrument consisted of four subscales behaviors that assess leadership style.

1. Idealized influence attributes incorporate behaviors that included pride, in followers in association with their leader.
2. Inspirational motivation materializes when leaders articulate the mission, motivate, and inspire others to achieve goals.
3. Intellectual stimulation is empowering employees with differing viewpoints to come up with creative solutions when solving problems.
4. Individualized consideration is the way leaders interact with those they lead which involves the promotion and development of employees (Bass & Avolio, 1994). In this study, only two behaviors were analyzed, that is, idealized influence (IA) and intellectual stimulation (IS). Although different leadership styles and theories discussed are not in depth, this study focused only on transformational leadership.

Organizational Justice Introduced as a Mediator

Many of the studies conducted on organizational justice have focused on a specific group or agenda (Choi & Sai, 2013). Fairness has been a concern of every organization, but sometimes

fairness is determined strictly by the eye of the beholder. What was determined to be fair by management was viewed slightly by labor and vice versa (Johnson et al., 2014). Statistical results tend to portray organizational justice holding positive emotional aspects and attitudes of employees together (Schminke et al., 2015). Positive feelings about items such as pay, annual reviews, supervisor, and management trust can be greatly affected by the perception of organizational justice and fairness. The authors of the following study decided to explore more of a broad base style concept (Choi & Sai, 2013).

For instance, a study conducted by Choi and Sai (2013) provided a more generalized example of organizational justice and fairness and emphasizing that previous studies were focused on a specific group thus limiting the usefulness of the information obtained. Their research was guided by two questions. “Does organizational justice matter within federal agencies?” and “What are the relative effects of the three dimensions of organizational justice?” (Cho & Sai, 2013, p. 3). The idea of equity and fairness in business can be traced back to the early 1960s. One would think that in the past 57 years ample research on the subject would have been conducted and the various approached on the subject would have been as equally covered. Not so for Cho and Sai (2013). As seen in previous studies, perceived injustice in any outcome led to a disgruntled and unproductive workforce. The empirical outcomes of their study concluded that cooperation held the most sway with employees and loyalty to management held little to no value in their perception of fairness. In addition, the statistical analysis revealed that employees are more interested in having a say in the decisions their company is making than being loyal to a person in a position of power. Employees are looking to have a voice in their company’s future to some extent. More specifically, distributive justice is obtained when parties

involved in the transaction receive the same level of investment-to-profit ratio. If inequity was perceived, then the aggrieved party will take steps to correct this perceived injustice.

Furthermore, informational and procedural justice had similar mean values, thus leaving distributive justice with the lowest mean value. Procedural justice is seen as equal parts: the distribution of outcomes and fairness in the determination of those outcomes. The strongest measure of procedural justice predicted higher employee retention rates and loyalty. The subjects of the study tended to value knowing honest information from senior management than caring how the rewards are handed out. The study results found that procedural and informational justice a more interlinked than interdependent. The third value studied was interactional justice. Interactional justice focused on how management behaves during the decision-making process. While the period was determined by labor and not management. However, this can prove to be a difficult aspect of organizational justice being proficient. Although proficiency required management to behave with respect and politeness during all steps of the decision-making process, equally important, unbiased methods by which decisions are made, and how the decisions presented to employees with timely feedback of grievances voiced by the staff. Future research should increase the sample size and diverse sample data (Choi & Sai, 2013). The study also attested that fairness was very important with employee's perceived congeniality of a decision or an outcome, closely feelings of input to a given decision.

Enoksen and Sandal (2015) found that anxiety-based values such as power and achievement were correlated between their values and perceived justice. Enoksen and Sandal (2015) key employees from a health clinic in Norway within five locations to analyzed hypothesized relationships between the influence of personal values on employee's perceptions of organizational justice. The investigators designed the survey items to measure four layers of

interest in the Organizational Justice Scale (Colquitt, 2001). The researcher investigated (distributional, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice). A confirmatory factor analysis was performed using LISREL8.80 in testing the four-factor model (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006) using the Norwegian version of the Organizational Justice Scale. The data were analyzed using hierarchical regression. In the cases of anxiety-free values such as universalism or self-direction, there was less variance. The study highlighted that someone's personal values might be of a greater factor as to what the person perceives to be just or unjust. In fact, justice may be defined slightly differently from person to person making it more difficult to come to one concise conclusion. Future research should consider larger samples and diverse participants based on personal values influenced on employee's perceptions of organizational justice (Enoksen & Sandal, 2015).

Conversely, Johnson et al. (2014) found that perceptions of procedural justice also predicted the increase chance of irregular and sometimes destructive behavior depicted by the participants, but the addition of positive interpersonal justice interactions had a countering effect on these negative behaviors. Hostility, poor self-esteem and job satisfaction were greatly curtailed by positive interactive justice occurrences throughout the day. Furthermore, Johnson et al. (2014) found that the moderated effect caused by individuals with extraversion and neuroticism traits were engaged in interpersonal justice behaviors replenished the resources. These occurrences affected the responses of the surveys conducted in the afternoon of the ten-day study. What is interesting was the fact the researchers found that the act of acting fair may inflict some harm on the subject's emotions. This finding was interesting because it is generally thought that positive interactions have only positive effects on the parties involved (Johnson et al., 2014).

Distributive Justice

Kim, Edwards, and Shapiro (2015) conducted a study of work outcomes relative to a referent other within similar inputs such as educational background or job responsibilities were as followed: equally poor, equally favorable, poorer or more favorable. The participants were China, Japan, and South Korea. The data was analyzed using a polynomial correlation for the social comparison on distributive justice (e.g., Edwards 1994, 2002; Edwards & Parry, 1993). The study found that in Japan because they promote mutually beneficial relationships were more likely to find a situation unfair when they got higher benefits such as pay and job security when compared to China and South Korea. This study adds to the literature in which scholars in management should recognize theoretical and empirically a broader cultural group and not just various cultural groups (Kim et al., 2015). Cultural reasons the Japanese were more sensitive to what they perceived to be unfair and more likely term a situation as unjust than Chinese and South Korean. The findings were consistent with other findings indicated differences in East Asians related to cognitive, attitude, and behavior patterns (see Kim & Leung, 2007; Kim, Weber, Leung, & Muramoto, 2010).

In another study, Shin and Sohn (2015) found out how social comparison affects people on their work attitudes. For example, people with low self-esteem and high performances tend to compare themselves more often with work and non-work-related situations. As such leading to less job satisfaction than other individuals mitigated by distributive justice interaction. In this study, the sample was comprised of 500 full-time employees. From 23 diverse organizations such as information technology, finance, and manufacturer in South Korea. Participants were recent graduates from the liberal arts program at the university. From the 500 participants, only 433 surveys were accepted at 87 percent responses. The sample demographics consisted of 59

percent men and 41 percent women. The age varies from 25 to 45 years old. Using a questionnaire that was translated from English into Korean language using back-translation (see Brislin, 1981) assessed the reliability and validity of the instrument. The statistical analysis performed was hierarchical linear modeling. Thus, suggested that forthcoming research could emphasize a fixed limit. Since previous research findings suggested the effects of other justice types on an individual's attitude (Colquitt et al., 2001). Also, future study should incorporate procedural and interactional justice as outcomes for social comparison is needed in this area.

Procedural Justice

Khoreva and Tenhiälä (2016) set out to survey gender differences in reactions to pay inequity and procedural justice. The aim was to find out if gender differences attributed to paying comparisons and knowledge of remuneration. In analyzing the data from two universities consisted of 416 employees in Finland, a structural equation model was used. The cross-sectional study findings suggested that male employees sympathized with their female counterpart for the pay inequity. Due partially to the fact that they spoke openly about their pay. Conversely, women procedural justice was firmly related to organizational commitment in contrast to their male counterpart. Females employees did not speak as openly about their pay and less informed about inequity, therefore, being unaware of injustice. The effects were due to pay comparison and knowledge of remuneration. Men tend to compare their earnings with outside other; women do it from within.

Procedural and Interpersonal Justice

In using a different approach in comparison to other studies Johnson, Lanaj, and Barnes (2014) attempted integrating ego depletion theory with interpersonal and procedural justice to observe the emotional and physical cost of such behaviors. The experience-sampling method

was used on a sample of 82 managerial employees in a weekend masters' degree in business administration program. Although other studies focused on justice experience from the participants' perspective, this research takes a different approach by using a within-person approach resolving a gap in the literature. Of the 800 surveys completed only 562 were usable for the study's criteria. The researcher divided participants into two groups: one group completed the survey in the morning, and the second group completed the survey by night. Observation of participants was conducted over a ten-day period and collected data questionnaire from the two groups (Johnson et al., 2014). Study results indicated that procedural justice behaviors proved to be depleted; such as being able to concentrate and focus. Interpersonal justice behaviors when engaging were found to be replenished. It was determined that depletion was guided on the performance of organizational citizenship behavior, and citizenship behavior with justice practice (Johnson et al., 2014).

Furthermore, the authors made a compelling case for their study because the design utilized the within-individual effects and less attention has been devoted to individual differences that could safeguard or enhance the resources needed of interpersonal actions at work (Johnson et al., 2014). One of the strengths of the design was the favorable attitudes of participants that extend organizational citizens behavior on the following day, which organizations are benefited (e.g., Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Although other researchers have used ego depletion theory associated with various negative organizational outcomes associated with deviant behavior and reduced organizational citizens behavior (e.g., Christian & Ellis, 2011; Thau & Mitchell, 2010). Because interpersonal justice behaviors comprised fewer rules and discussion than procedural justice, they represent rewarding positive interactions. Johnson et al.

(2014) further recommended future studies to investigate other individual differences with the construct of this study.

Organizational Justice and Organizational Citizens Behavior

Özbek, Yoldash, and Tang (2016) used a quantitative randomly sampling plan for their study. The sampling frame consisted of 600 full-time employees. A total of 402 subjects participated in the study from two companies in the food industry. It included line managers and regular employees. The sample consisted of 222 men and 180 women for a response rate of 55% and 45% respectively. The age group was between 16 and 61 years old. The average work experience was 1 to 35 years. High school diploma 47% and college degree 53%. The salary ranged from \$400.00 to \$4,200.00. The focus of the study was to learn from organizational justice if procedural, distributive, and interactional justice would change related work attitude and behavior, particularly organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) sub-theme (obedience, participation, and loyalty). The sample frame was for participants from Jalalabad, Kyrgyzstan, Soviet Union. The English version of the organizational justice instrument was translated into Kyrgyz and Russian languages utilized translation-back translation (Brislin, 1970). Hypotheses and research questions were tested and used the hierarchical regression model. Özbek et al. (2016) findings partially supported hypothesis 1 that procedural justice was positively related to organizational obedience, no significant relation to participation and loyalty. Hypothesis 2 was supported, and distributive justice relates to obedience, participation, and organizational loyalty. Hypothesis 3 was also, supported. Interactional justice and OCB were the strongest of the tree relationships. The weakest relationships were distributive justice and OCB. As suggested by Aiken and West (1991) the single slope analyses inferred significantly, and the positive relationship amongst distributive and organizational justice in high individualism and the lower

individualism had a negative and nonsignificant relationship partially in support of hypothesis 4a. Hypothesis 4b supported, and partially supported was hypothesis 5. Some limitations reported by Özbek et al. (2016) was the small sample size, and the cross-sectional data used did not provide direct causation relationship. Included generalizability to other types of organizations, populations, countries and more variables. Also, suggested longitudinal data from multiple sources; relying on a self-reported questionnaire for all construct. Differences may exist between organizational citizenship behaviors and self-reported organizational citizenship behaviors; also utilized different moderators such as power distance and traditionalism (e.g., Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 2007). Mediators: trust (e.g., Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002), and leader-member exchange (Gu, Tang, & Jiang, 2015) in previous Soviet Union countries.

Loosemore and Lim (2016) argued that when people believe business transactions are fair, a positive, desirable behavior is exhibited in organizational citizen behaviors. The study showed that working harmoniously, providing flexible effort, respect for others, and conflict resolution to settle problems are results of when business transactions are fair. Consequently, for the most part, less empirical evidence supported these assertions. In addressing this gap, and to achieve the research objectives in Australia, and participants consisted of the supply chain, suppliers, subcontractors, consultant, and contractors. What the study showed is that despite the elevated level of injustice perceived by those outside the industry, it does not seem to be viewed as high within the industry. Furthermore, most injustices fall within the organizations were not cultural. Despite popular believe this problem is not solely to the Australian construction industry because other cultures perceived the same. Within this credence, research put forward the predicament of senior supervisor, which seems to be the group that suffers the most from injustice across all its technical categories. Loosemore and Lim (2016) findings determined that

that project contributors of OCB are guided by the interpretation of interpersonal justice in the business sphere. The emphasis on procedural injustice (performance evaluation, consultation, consistency of decision making, appeal and culture) and distributive justice (relative rewards relating to education, stress, responsibilities, performance, and effort) indicated that the main form of injustice felt by participants appeared to be created by individuals. Also, the results suggested a subtler perception of the challenges that correlates in viewing the effects of one type of organization justice react with one another in affecting project organization citizenship behaviors (Loosemore & Lim, 2016). The primary limitation was the small sample size. The recommendation would be simply to increase the sample size. Project performance can be enhanced if project managers treat participants with politeness, respect, and dignity. For that matter, everyone should be treated with respect, politeness, and dignity in general. These results contradicted the findings of Saal and Moore (1993), Major and Deaux (1982) both claimed that gender predisposed perceptions of fairness in promotional decisions, and women usually responded with lower negativity than their male counterpart when treated unfairly. The findings were consistent with Khoreva and Tenhiälä (2016) who opined that female employees did not speak openly about their pay and were less informed about inequity, therefore, being unaware of injustice.

Distributive justice has gained momentum and attention in research as the driving factor of justice in organizational settings (Rahman, Shahzad, Mustfafa, Khan, & Qurashi, 2016). Also, it is viewed as the ideal form of justice gaining the attention of organizational management and behavioral researchers (Greenberg, 1987). A cross-sectional method was utilized to carry out this study in finding out the direct relationships between organizational justice and organizational commitment. The study was conducted at three public universities, Abdul Wali Kha University,

University of Peshawar, and Hazara University in Pakistan. The sample for this study was 500 participants, and 250 responded from the three universities in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. The study utilized correlation analysis for the direction of a relationship between independent variables distributive justice and procedural justice and dependent variable organization commitment. Data analysis was performed applying regression analysis. The results indicated that there was a positive effect between distributive justice and organizational commitment in support of hypothesis 1. Findings from this study were aligned with those of Fatt, Knin, and Heng (2010). Hypothesis 2 was supported due to the linear relationship between procedural justice and organizational commitment. These findings were consistent with Lau and Moser (2008) that found procedural justice had a positive association with organizational commitment. These differences were related to organizational commitment construct and findings were consistent with Khoreva and Tenhiälä (2016), where females employees did not speak openly about their pay and less informed about inequity, therefore, being unaware of injustice. This research contributed to the field by providing insights into the distinctiveness of the model that has not previously used in education in Pakistan. Also, this finding was important because it underscores the need for three or four dimensions of organizational justice with organizational commitment.

Ultimately, going beyond normal expectations to improve operations of the organization, defending it and being a loyal employee is to benefit the organization. In general, employees expect their workplace experiences to be fair and judge their relationships with the organizations they serve using justice as an essential foundation (Loosemore & Lim, 2016; Özbek et al., 2016; Rahman et al., 2016).

Organizational Justice and Innovative Work Behavior

Organizational justice (OJ) has been found to be either a positive or negative central motivational factor on employees' behaviors (Akram, Haider, & Feng, 2016). When employees feel unfairly treated, their productivity and performance may decrease affecting their contribution to work performance (Momeni, Ebrahimpour, & Ajirloo, 2014). Per Van de Ven (1986) EIWB is driven by individuals, using motivational stimulation (Amabile, 1988), and relates to task performance. Several organizational and individual factors have been investigated as essential elements of innovative work behavior (e.g., Jansen, 2002; Mumford & Licuana, 2004). At the individual level, OJ may be a motivational process underlying EIWB (Jansen, 2000). In addition, IWB is an extra role behavior (e.g., Jansen, 2000) and because this is an extra role it is not a prerequisite for employee job requirements. As a result, when EIWB is not recognized, it could shape supportive or undesirable employee behavior. However, de Jong, (2007) argued IWB calls for individuals going beyond their job description and willful intentions. Since, IWB is an attitudinal construct that changes corresponding to situation and employees' awareness, if employees feel they are treated unfairly, EIWB expectations most likely will decrease their performance and productivity (Wu et al., 2014). Limited studies have examined the relationship between IWB and performance (Shanker et al., 2017). As these studies show, there is a link between innovation and perceived justice, and the willingness of employees to express their ideas or thoughts which drives innovation (Momeni et al., 2014; Suliman, 2013; Usmani & Jamal, 2013).

Suliman (2013) conducted a study to determine how strong this link between innovation and employee perception of justices and readiness to innovate within an innovative climate. Also, in testing the mediating role of innovation climate in justice-readiness to innovate

relationship. The findings determined that there was a direct link between the actions of leadership and the willingness of the staff to promote innovative ideas. The three perceptions of justice were significant on the outcome of innovation climate. Interactional justice showed the high value ($r= 0.71, p < 0.00$) in comparison to procedural justice ($r=0.54, p < 0.00$), and distributed justice ($r=0.67, p < 0.00$). The variance on readiness to innovate was interactional justice ($r= 0.74, p < 0.00$) with the highest value compared to distributive justice ($r= 0.61, p < 0.00$), lastly procedural justice ($r= 0.69, p < 0.00$). As this study showed, the empirical evidence indicates interactional justice is more significant in comparison to the other justice. Suliman (2013) suggested that the presence of a positive perception of justice makes it easier to determine employee behavior and attitudes. While a negative climate or uncondusive work climate with mistrust, injustice, and arguments, in general, will predispose employees' readiness to innovate (Suliman, 2013), and most likely will decrease their performance and productivity (Wu, Parker, & De Jong, 2014), thus making them more likely to leave.

In another study by Momeni et al. (2014) sought to explore the effect of inferential organizational justice on innovative work behavior in Ardabil province of Iran. The researchers utilized the overall justice climate incorporating temporal and spatial justice. Thus, Momeni et al. (2014) conclusions revealed a strong correlation between distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice with EIWB. All seven hypotheses were confirmed leading Momemi et al., (2014) to conclude organizational behavior on innovative job behavior through employees' self-efficacy is more than the direct effect. The significant $P<0.05$ level and parameter factor are 0.427 related to self-efficacy on innovative job performance. When employees perceive fairness from remunerations and incentives, the self-efficacy and innovative work behavior would be advantageous to organizations based on these results and leadership

should be more attuned to a fair distribution of rewards and compensation (Momemi et al., 2014). The analyses were consistent with Jaiswal and Dhar (2015) that found a positive and significant moderating relationship between self-efficacy and employee creativity. The researchers did not provide recommendations for future study, and no limitations were included, the study contributed to the scholarship on employee innovative behavior and managerial practices. Also, creative self-efficacy is a key role in increasing employee creativity (Wang, Rode, Shi, Luo, & Chen, 2013).

OJ is a complex phenomenon, and some researchers believe that this phenomenon should incorporate spatial and temporal justice (Usmani & Jamal, 2013). Temporal justice was viewed from social justice theory which indicated that temporal autonomy is the discretionary control on a person's time. In the workplace, temporal justice was defined as the fair distribution of time to all employees except marital or social standings (Usmani & Jamal, 2013). Since OJ is about fairness, Usmani and Jamal (2013) claimed that time was a resource and is not part of distributive justice and is a separate form of organizational justice. Additionally, spatial justice was defined as the perception about the "appropriateness of distance" and contains "resource distance" and budget allocation discrimination between different organizational members in the sharing of resources (Usmani & Jamal, 2013).

In this current study, spatial and temporal justice was incorporated into the four-justice climate on innovative work behavior in China (Akram, Haider & Feng, 2016). The analysis indicated that OJ overall had a strong and positive correlation on EIWB. As suggested by the results distributive was the weakest value ($r = .528$, $p < 0.00$), procedural, ($r = .627$, $p < 0.00$), interactional ($r = .604$, $p < 0.00$), temporal ($r = .605$, $p < 0.00$) and spatial justice ($r = .606$, $p < 0.00$). The findings of these analyses proposed that all forms of organizational justice were

correlated with employee innovative work behavior. Also, spatial and temporal placed the most powerful correlation between EIWB (Akram et al., 2016). Time can highly shape the different time of justice as it relates to employee innovative behavior.

In addition to this indirect relationship, another study examined the relationship between IWB and performance (Shanker, Bhanugopan, van der Heijden, & Farrell, 2017). Shanker et al. (2017) sought to examine the mediating effects of innovative work behavior on the relationship between organizational climate for innovation and organizational performance of managers in Malaysian. Shanker et al.'s research findings suggested a significant relationship between climate for innovation and organizational performance ($\beta = 0.62$ $p < 0.05$). Also, the findings indicated that the climate for innovation is positively related to IWB ($\beta = 0.54$ $p < 0.05$) and with organizational performance. The findings disclosed that IWB had a significant relationship on organization performance ($\beta = 0.39$ $p < 0.05$), indicating that IWB mediates the relationship between organizational climate for innovation and organizational performance, however no interaction with organization performance. These results highlighted the benefits of employee strong work behavior, and empirical evidence indicated that the relationship between these constructs are obscure due to individual behaviors may affect directly organization performance positively or other behaviors elements that influence performance (Shanker et al., 2017) such as retention or burnout which may lead to employee turnover.

Another study conducted in (2015) by Hsu and Wang in the hospitality industry in Taiwan to investigate the effect of OJ, EIWB, and organizational support, using only three dimensions of organizational justice consisted of distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Analysis of the results showed positive correlations with idea generation between distributive, procedural and interactional justice. In addition, idea marketing was positively

related to distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Also, idea practice was correlated with distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. Additionally, organizational supports were moderating effects on the correlations between OJ and IWB (Hsu & Wang, 2015). The relationship for this research was not expected. The findings were consistent with the theoretical framework for this research and provided further evidence to support the theory.

From these findings, the association between OJ and IWB seems to straightforwardly imply that employees strong work behavior is likely to result in performance and retention. In like manner, self-efficacy linked to self-evaluation, and it relates to personal fulfillment. The related approaches having the same objective are for an individual's behavior to be in support of innovation. Also, employee innovative work behavior positive relationships with several components of organizational justice, meaning the higher perceived organizational justice, the innovative behavior enhanced. Employees require motivational clue to exert themselves in creative roles is that innovative thinking stimulated. Moreover, it has been suggested that the perception of justice could influence the innovativeness of the employee and the willingness of said employee sharing potentially valuable ideas with their employer. IWB is consistent with the individual cognitive skills (Wu et al., 2014). Furthermore, innovative work behavior displayed behaviors of individuals in exploring, generating, championing, implementing novel ideas, process, and procedures (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010; de Jong, 2007).

Organizational Justice and Leadership Ethics and Values

A value related to leadership is ethics. The value and ethical issues facing organization leaders are complex. Business ethics translate to leadership and organizations considering the rules of moral philosophy (Bedi, Alpaslan, & Green, 2016). Ethics in business, go beyond making a profit for the organization or obeying the law (Pekurinen et al., 2017). They require

conformity to higher standards regarding professional conduct and on the obligation to others based upon the organizational structure and values. Furthermore, leaders must not only meet moral standards but also teach ethical behaviors to their employees (Bedi et al., 2016; Demirtas & Adkogan, 2015).

The study conducted by Bedi et al. (2016) investigated if perceptions of ethical leadership were connected to higher job achievement and emotional well-being. Probing further, Bedi et al. (2016) considered social learning theory to model how ethical leaders affect their followers in organizations. The social learning theory posited that behaviors are learned, and these relationships are interactions between leaders and followers based upon environment, observation, and experiences (Bandura, 1986). Bandura argued that behaviors are learned and consist of observation of individual behavior, remember witnessed behavior, as a model to follow based on benefits, and repetition of said behavior influences individual beneficial outcomes (Bandura, 1986). Also, Bedi et al., (2016) in agreement with Bandura (1968), stated that within organizations there are two ways that employees learn how to behave ethically: (a) was to imitate their superior's behaviors, and (b) imitate other employee's actions and behaviors (Bedi, Alpaslan, & Green, 2016).

Additionally, ethical leaders inspire followers to act morally by being good role models and acknowledge those who follow the ethical standards. Meanwhile, those who act unethically are disciplined (Bedi et al., 2016). The findings led Bedi et al. (2016) to conclude that there was a positive relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction. As expected, leading in an ethical manner spreads throughout the organization and shapes the climate. Also, an employee's commitment tends to be higher and results in less turnover intention (Bedi et al., 2016).

When behaviors in organizations are perceived to be ethical, perceptions influence ethical decision making and transcend to the behaviors of employees and their attitudes towards performance (Demirtas, 2015). The intention of Demirtas and Adkogan (2015) was to analyze organizational justice regarding work commitment, ethical leadership, and organizational misbehavior. These findings were consistent with Bedi et al. (2015), in which a positive relationship was found between ethical leadership and employees' individual behaviors. Also, the findings indicated that ethical leadership is associated with ethical climate (Demirtas & Adkogan, 2015). Stated another way, there should be continuity of a thriving, ethical environment when leaders act morally and trustworthiness (Bedi et al., 2016; Demirtas & Adkogan, 2015). Therefore, companies with strong ethical stances gain more support from employees, customers, and the community. When leaders give consistent and robust support for ethical conduct, employee satisfaction increases together with the degree of job identification with the organization. These elements are essential to the successful functioning of organizations. Another way an organization increases their management techniques to have frequent interactions with transparent channels of communications (Bedi et al., 2015; Demirtas & Adkogan, 2015). Consequently, ethical leadership is fundamental to actors influencing ethical behaviors and organizational ethical climate.

Ethical Climate. An ethical climate is known to be a work climate characterized by individuals' behavior on social conduct and procedures (Demirtas, 2015). An ethical climate can be achieved when the factors are clearly understood. Moreover, leaders and managers represent the organization, and their personal interests may not align with the interests of organizations (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015), the reason more research is conducted, in finding when leaders befittingly represent the interests of the organization (Xu et al., 2016). Researchers concurred

that employee perceptions of an ethical climate underscore within individuals' representations of a shared ethical environment. That is not to say it is just a cause of employee's impressions about random bad behaviors in organizations, instead is the overall function based on the atmosphere in which employees are rooted (Hansen, Dunford, Alge, & Jackson 2015). However, Hansen et al. (2015) study, links corporate social responsibility perceptions to ethical leadership, justice, and trust. The findings led Hansen et al. (2015) to claim, that employee's trustworthiness is distinguished and understood through corporate social responsibility. When individuals, trust, others are more likely to be sincere and elevate corporate social accountability. Hence, it is important to recognize that employees developed certain ethical references based on an organization's actions (Hansen et al., 2015).

Khuong and Dung, (2015) investigated ethical leadership, organizational justice, and ethics based on rewards and how they influenced employee's trustworthiness. The findings indicated that organizational justice has a major influence on an employee's engagement. When employees receive a higher reward for their effort, they manifest higher trust and engagement (Khuong & Dung, 2015), and organizational commitment (Xu et al., 2016). When fair treatment is practiced, the employee's perception of justice and trust is elevated and encouraged employees to remain committed to an organization (Khuong & Dung, 2015; Xu et al., 2016). These findings were consistent with (Bedi et al., 2015; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2014; Hansen et al., 2015) that organizational justice is a positive outcome to employees' relationship between ethical leadership, job commitment, and satisfaction. However, organizational justice did not affect employee engagement with trust.

Trust. There are three critical elements that determined trustworthiness: ability, benevolence, and integrity (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Xu et al., 2016) of the general

interest. Trust, and the trustworthiness of that fundamental relationship is the organization stakeholder relationship. Also, trustworthiness is a critical factor in building personal commitment and trust; being trustworthy is a virtue that attached individually, or collectively (Xu et al.,2016). Although trust and trustworthiness are used interchangeably, they have distinct meaning; trust is a situational factor, and trustworthiness is a quality displayed by parties that engenders trust (see Blois, 1999).

Organizations should strengthen their ethical leadership by selecting individuals with higher standards of ethical conduct, which is pivotal to the employees and hold everyone to the same standards. This type of leaders continuously incentivizes and fosters ethical codes and procedures through high moral standards. Ethical leadership can be an effective tool in solving the prevalent, persistent problem (Brown & Treviño 2006; den Hartog 2015; Treviño den Nieuwenboer, & Kish-Gephart, 2014). An ethical leader incentivized the employee to embrace high moral standards and hold others accountable for not meeting those standards (Xu et al., 2016). Quality practice of ethical behaviors at the micro level (day to day lives), they are found to be persons with less self-interest and are more altruistic. Altruism and integrity are core values of ethical leaders are viewed as caring for the organization and employee's well-being, so that organizational goals are met. Ethical leaders tend to communicate their actions and bring awareness that unethical behaviors will not be tolerated. Therefore, employees tend to automatically expect the leaders to conduct in determining the codes, policies, and procedures in supporting organizational structure (Xu, Loi, & Ngo, 2016).

Another example of ethical leadership is presented in the study conducted by Hansen et al. (2016) where corporate social responsibility perception is linked to ethical leadership. The study revealed that individuals tend to trust others and are more likely to be sincere and believe

that corporate social accountability is due to ethical leadership. Ethical leaders change the basic values, beliefs, and attitudes of followers so that they are willing to perform beyond minimum levels. Furthermore, the three factors most predictive of good leadership are proper relationship building, appropriate utilization of resources, and ethical image management (Hansen et al., 2016). Also, trustworthiness is a critical factor in building personal commitment and trust. Trust is most likely to build added value for the organizational stakeholders as well as increased wealth for society. Only when organization members relinquish their personal commitment within a zone of indifference (see Bernard, 1938), or zone of trust will organizations be able to obtain investment required to achieve meaningful long-term wealth creation.

Based on the governance approach specifically to the long terms goal and the establishment of strategic competitive advantage, ethical stewardship honors the duty of long-term wealth creation to benefit all stakeholders rather than the short-term allure of personal self-interest (see Hosmer, 1996). Congruence and alignment of organizational rules, roles, and values create trust. The moral position must be honored, and the interests of all parties must be protected. Furthermore, trust is perceived as part of the ethical leadership; thus, moral values underlie with trust between employer and employee relationships. Employees tend to have positive assumptions about the actions, words, motives, and decisions in organizations when there is a trust established (Xu et al., 2016). When employees trust their organization, employees believe they will not be taken advantage. Contrary to this belief, researchers' findings suggested that ill-treatment perceived from supervisors and peers' transgressions related to job threatening work environment, and hostile behavior (Hoobler & Hu, 2013) translate perceptions of injustice into restorative behavioral responses, inclusive of counterproductive behavior in a toxic climate.

Unethical Behavior. There has been a concentration on organizations and unethical behavior over the past years (Effelsberg, Solga, & Gurt, 2014). A key to implementing an organizational culture that does not tolerate unethical behavior stems from individual value choices (Jacobs, Belschak, & den Hartog, 2014). Despite the ongoing discussions about the desirability of ethical response, an individual's core values guide principles of right and wrong (Schminke et al., 2015) for making fair decisions about unethical behaviors. Contrary to ethical values, Effelsberg et al. (2014) study focused on why followers engaged in unethical behavior that benefits an organization. Due to past indiscretions of several organizations' fraudulent behavior such as the 2001 Enron scandal, some scholars have written about the dire need of ethical dimensions of leadership.

As Effelsberg et al. (2014) argued, followers' personal goals may coincide with company goals in some situations. Similar, or even matching employees' goals, strongly and identify with their organization's goals. However, one can safely assume that employees with the same level of organizational identification would disagree to engage in counterproductive behavior depending on their unique disposition toward ethical and unethical behavior. The outcomes of Effelsberg et al., (2014) study indicated that transformational leadership entails the certain risk of encouraging followers to contribute to their company's success in ways considered to be unethical. As pointed out by Effelsberg et al. (2014) a conceptual distinction would be helpful for understanding the complexities of the issue. More precisely, legibility needs clarity between pro-organizational and ethical followers (Effelsberg, Solga, & Gurt, 2014). These findings were consistent with Engelbrecht, van Aswegen and Theron (e.g., 2005), where transformational leadership would affect the ethical climate, and transformational leadership should have demonstrated integrity. These findings were inconsistent with other studies based on

transformational leadership values and beliefs. The issue is whether transformational leadership is ethical (e.g., Linden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; Peus, Kerschreiter, Frey, & Taut-Mattausch, 2010). A 2016 meta-analysis by Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu (2018) indicated that ethical leadership is a valuable tool more likely to diminish the problem of employee defiance besides leadership styles such as servant leadership, authentic, and transformational.

Toxic Climate and Counterproductive Behaviors. A toxic climate is an environment where there exists a lack of capability to attain operational goals or loyalty (Rana & Rastogi, 2015). Compared to an ethical climate, employee's commitment tends to be higher (Bedi et al., 2016), and transcend to the behaviors of employees and their attitudes towards performance (Demirtas, 2015; Demirtas & Adkogon, 2015). When fair treatment is practiced, the employee's perception of justice and trust is elevated and encourages employees to remain committed to an organization (Khuong & Dung, 2015; Xu et al., 2016).

For the most part, toxic climate exists not only in the office settings but also in schools. Such counterproductive behaviors by leadership encompass deadlines that are impossible to meet, demeaning individuals, constant yelling in the workplace (Ariza-Montes, Muniz, Leal-Rodriguez, & Leal-Millan, 2014) and subjective performance evaluation (Deschamps et al., 2016; Nasurdin et al., 2014; Raham et al., 2016). Employee counterproductive behavior consisted of theft, aggressive behaviors towards coworkers such as bullying (Loerbroks, Weigh, Li, Glaser, Degen, & Angerer, 2015; Lutgen-Sandvik, Hood, & Jacobson, 2016); towards supervision after performance evaluation (Deschamps et al., 2016; Nasurdin et al., 2014; Raham et al., 2016), and destroyed organizations property (Ariza-Montes et al., 2014). Because solving processes, motivation by fear and seldom relent sound decisions; affected internal

communication between leaders and employees is ineffective, and interpersonal relationships motivated by control and self-centered agendas (Demirtas, 2015).

When trust and commitment are present, organizational justice could create a positive relationship with that counterproductive work-behavior (Xu et al., 2016; Hansen et al., 2016). Procedural justice corrected these observed counterproductive behaviors (Jacobs et al., 2014). The practice of organizational justice may improve or mitigate a toxic climate from severe damage, by establishing influence on employees' attitudes exposed commitment to supervisors (Shin et al., 2015) could mediate the toxic climate (Dusterhoff et al., 2014), and the absence of which can result in absenteeism and high employees' turnovers (Johnson et al., 2014) moral and well-being are adversely affected (Walsh et al., 2014). Ethical leaders tend to communicate unethical behaviors will not be tolerated. Therefore, employees tend to automatically expect leaders to act pursuant to the policies and procedures of the organization (Xu et al., 2016). As such, toxic climates can be avoided if organizations adopted an ethical climate component of ethical leadership.

Ethical climate practices will create a relationship which may or may not be positive for its environment, society, and customers. When employees understand the ethical climate, they understand its culture, better working conditions, and better working relationships emerges. Other tangibles costs can become apparent when there is an ethical conflict between employees and employer. There is ample evidence that organizational justice is essential to ethical leaders and individual' mirror positive or negative behaviors of an organization. Furthermore, altruism is central to an ethical climate. The impetus here is that ethics as an emerging pressure for stronger corporate governance intersects ethics, trust, and ethical climate. These three events can repair the imbalance created by unethical behavior, counterproductive behavior, and a toxic

climate. There is a strong relationship between leadership, trustworthiness, and ethical stewardship. The objective is essential to stabilize the relationship between these elements to alleviate the relationship between the organization and its stakeholders.

The nature of relationships and the perceptions of followers were associated with fairness, justice, and trust they are subjective perceptions based upon an individual's subjective lens that consists of an ethnized filter. Leaders who operate from a stewardship perspective will have creative solutions and vision that demonstrate their commitment to desired outcomes. The global marketplace has grown to be increasingly competitive and the perception of leadership behavior, trustworthiness, and ethical duties can either promote or impair the employees' commitment to their organization. Generally, this included leadership by moral relationship, trustworthiness, and ethical stewardship with their employees, stakeholders, and the community. It is unclear if the external stakeholders and society were beyond the organization interest, and empirical research is needed to clarify transformational leadership with followers from a consequential view. These studies appeared to be theoretically based on empirical research on the leader, ethical values, and leadership behavior. Also, the findings on ethical and unethical characteristics of employee behavior were some of the same organizational justice antecedents, specifically organizational justice perceptions. One last point worth mentioning is that organizational justice is moderating effects on transformational leadership.

Gender Moderating Role in Leadership

Toward understanding issues related to gender and leadership, researchers are not to focused on gender differences, instead of the focus on why leadership effectiveness emerges (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014). Some researchers posited that the same behaviors as values did not provide the same outcome for men and women (Hentschel, Braun,

Peus, & Frey, 2018). Researchers have identified gender differences related to leadership focused mostly on influenced behaviors (Rosette, Mueller, & David, 2015). Meanwhile, female and leadership roles were considered typically incongruent, female actors in consideration for possible leadership positions were perceived as having minimal leadership capability (Rosette et al., 2015), and are less considered keen on leadership roles. Female leadership suggested that women are nurturing, caring, homemakers that delve into females' stereotypes values (Hentschel et al., 2018). While male leadership was based on the masculine values indicative of assertiveness, control, and command qualities that are relevant to goal attainment (Hentschel et al., 2018). However, these two opposing views, male and female leadership style, could result in gendered-viewing the organizations differently and whether these differences benefited or disadvantaged to female leaders (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Marcus (2016) contested that the lack of women representation in corporate America is not due to their lack of qualification. Instead, Marcus (2016) argued that women enter the market because they are as equally ambitious as they are qualified. Yet their optimism quickly dissipated due to the obstacles they face quotidianly. Marcus (2016) showed that women's determination is solid. Most of the women indicated that entering their organizations they were highly motivated and ambitious, yet challenges and bias from the workplace suppress their ability. The lack of opportunity to advance in the organization, the lack of support from members of management, as well as the absence of their peers in managerial position contributed to their weaning ambitions (Marcus, 2016). Also, Heckman, Johnson, Foo, and Yang (2017) reinforced this global injustice even further by saying that most top-level management positions are occupied by white men. They suggested that the disproportion is mainly because female leaders are discouraged and exhausted from all the critics that come when women are in power (Heckman et al., 2017).

However, when organizations are failing in performance, and the bottom line is affected, some organizations placed female in a position of power (Cook & Glass, 2014). Cook and Glass (2014) have confirmed in three studies that Fortune 500 companies from 1996 through 2010 show the differences between men, women, and minorities in CEO positions. The first study was to determine if businesses are having difficulty, would hire minorities as CEOs. The findings indicated that yes they would hire minorities as CEOs. The second study reflected that more white men were in their CEO positions for a longer term than minorities. The third study revealed that during the downturn of business, minorities were then placed in the CEO positions. Also, minority CEOs were substituted for white men CEOs when businesses were starting to fail. In 2013, CEO positions in Fortune 500 companies consisted of 21 women and 19 minorities (Cook & Glass, 2014). The glass ceiling is still in place at the present time, and the only way to make a change is to start with the board of directors and a culture of diversity.

Hentschel, Braun, Peus, & Frey (2018) sought to test how women and men appear evaluated in terms of leadership effectiveness. Drawing from the expectancy theory that women have communal behaviors, which are transformational, and men have agentic behaviors, which are autocratic, and viewed as acceptable or violating the expectations of their gender. An experimental three-study research design using a two-dimensional field study of leaders who exhibit transformational leadership style, due to the underrepresentation of women in leadership (Hentschel et al., 2018). They argued that transformational leadership benefits men's rather than women's progress. The findings indicated that for men transformational leadership resulted in higher consideration for promotions, which centered on the acuity of leadership effectiveness. Men who display transformational leadership remained in favor of promotional opportunities instead of promotions for women (Hentschel et al., 2018).

The distinction between agentic and communal attributes is central to leadership roles. While leadership roles are experiencing some gradual change, power is linked to leadership and power influence promotional opportunity (Zhen et al., 2014). Perhaps leadership in this century is to shift the ideals to a more collaborative style because women view the world from different lenses than men. Organizations depend on the leadership style and globalization advocates for less controlled leadership. Although research on transformational leadership espoused to be an effective style, an expectation would be for organizations to seek more female leaders (Hernandez-Bark et al., 2016). Conversely, Hentschel et al. (2018), and Rosette et al. (2015) contradicted those assertions of transformational leadership based on their findings that men displaying transformational leadership were more suitable for top mobility than women, thus leaving an untapped gap that could expand the organization's competitiveness.

Gender Inequalities in the Workplace

There is no question that women in the United States and other countries are limited to access to power and are underrepresented in higher levels of business (Zhen et al., 2014). Women in their attempts to develop their career goals, go through vast challenges. However, women have been slowly progressing toward top leadership in companies not only in the United States but also worldwide. Several regulations have passed to stabilize this inequality such as the Equal Pay Act of 1963 refers to all organizations should pay women and men equally for the same work. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 law sought to discourage pay discrimination. Regardless of these legislations, the inequalities between men and women are still prevalent in the workplace. In a gender forum, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2013) emphasized several important gender issues. One of the imperatives is gender equality and should be forged by incorporating strategies in education,

political, cultural, and socioeconomic in as much as possible in forging gender gaps (Adema, 2014) thus creating a more sustainable and inclusive society.

There are several reasons for gender inequality. Some of these are the historical status of women. Perceived mainly as housewives (while men were regarded as family providers), and conservative religious or traditional approaches towards women that tend to adopt this perception (Munin 2013). From a cultural perspective, the meaning of sexual orientation using race, body size, and shapes is not culturally accepted. Denisses and Saguy (2014) wanted to find out what it is and how these constraints affect women working in the construction trade. While the predisposition is that women are lesbian and for that matter are not viewed as real women. Men's are always degrading women to remove them as a threat to *heteronormativity* and male privilege (e.g., Ingraham, 1994). On the other hand, Glick, Wilkerson, and Cuffe (2015) conducted a study and participants were selected using a survey of people's attitudes toward other males and females in modern society. Previous research on precarious manhood suggested that masculinity identification differs from women classification because of their gender (Glick et al., 2015). The results supported their hypothesized masculinity identification that would correlate to in-group favoritism to the conventional masculinity subtypes (masculine and career men) with a complementary bias towards regular feminine subtypes (homemakers and feminine women); but not towards out-group derogation towards gender-nonconforming male and feminine style. However, the six gender-nonconforming male and female subtypes (feminine men), only one presented more negative attitudes. Hence, masculinity identification was correlated with both hostile sexism and benevolent sexism. This study had several weaknesses (1) the examination of general attitudes about male and females' subtype was used instead of behaviors focusing on women and men. (2) Because Glick et al. (2015) used similar

identification scale that was used in (Maass, Cadinu, Guarnieri, & Grasselli, 2003) study. In the 2003 study, it was noted that some men were more likely to harass a feminist lady, even without a prior masculinity threat and threat-related through upper identification that tends to increase harassment. (3) Another drawback of Glick et al. (2015) study was the spotlight on men attitudes as well as excluding women participation. Since previous research on precarious manhood suggested that masculinity identification differs from women classification because of their gender and new research should explore how women identification within their gender affects attitude toward gender subtypes.

Gender Discrimination

Another potential explanation for the differential presence of female role in leadership is discrimination. Gender discrimination in the field of labor is a multifaceted phenomenon that has many different manifestations. Discrimination suggested that women and non-dominant groups are disadvantage excluding their abilities, rather on factors not related to the profession such as race, age, sexual harassment, and salary gap.

Gender racism. Racial discrimination has been an issue since 1776 when the United States gained their independence from England. The issue has predominately focused on the dichotomy between Caucasian and African-American wealth and privilege (Bell, Marquardt, & Berry, 2014). The dyadic concept is that Caucasians (Whites) have the most privileges and wealth while African-Americans (Blacks) have the least, with all other races filling in the spectrum (Bell et al., 2014). Data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2016), showed a difference in average weekly earnings between Whites and Blacks for full-time salaried employees is just over 23%. One of the findings of Bell et al., (2014) presented is that Whites were more comfortable with Latinos and Asians than with Blacks. Vallejo (2015) supported this

view with anecdotal evidence that subtle racism against middle-class Latinos by Whites was ameliorated with the continued association. The country is currently moving toward a multi-tiered hierarchy of race instead of trying to abolish the hierarchy altogether (Bell et al., 2014). Some contended that racial ideology against Blacks, or beliefs that Blacks are inferior in some way to Whites, continue to shape the racial hierarchy (Bell et al., 2014). Stereotyping is still a continuing problem for all minorities in the workplace, with many politicians making immigrants as a threat to US citizens' jobs and the economy at large (Vallejo, 2015). Other, less radical, stereotypes persisted in the workplace, such as the opinion that Mexicans must come from large families, are a persistent source of subtle racism that permeates the workplace and is difficult to eliminate due to its benign-seeming nature and the acceptance of those being stereotyped (Vallejo, 2015). Gamble and Turner (2016) study consisted of ten African American women at the executive leadership level in Georgia postsecondary institutions. The participants have seen a slight increase in African American representation at the administrative level of the postsecondary institution. However, representation is scarce. Organizations have implemented diversity programs to add to the number of minority staff and educators, but African Americans women continued underrepresented. Another problem is the lack of African American mentors, which creates barriers to become leaders. Five out of ten participants postulated the importance of family and the influence of upbringing. They all disclosed that family members always make them feel secure, gave positive influences, and motivation. Participants mentioned receiving support from their family and would not have succeeded without their support; thus, becoming successful in their careers. Gamble and Turner (2016) stated that genders learn society's expectation early in life, and family is an important influence; all participants agreed that they have difficulties finding a work-life balance. They usually feel stressed, and have extra pressure

to fulfill societies' expectation, as a mother, and as a career woman. Participants also agreed on the importance of networking, especially within the community. Another factor was the role that managers had in their career advancement, half of the participants mentioned that male bosses were encouraging, supportive, and motivate them following their dream. However, having only male bosses as role models resulted in negative perceptions. An important realization of these women regretted not taking more risks during their career and stated that taking risk is necessary for higher leadership in the organizations. Ultimately, the study noted the importance of strong work ethics and the importance of leaving a legacy. All participants agreed that challenging work and persistence pays off, as well as acting ethically and responsibly. The study findings showed that barriers do exist for African American women in postsecondary institutions and postsecondary institutions should aid African Americans women and minorities to advance into higher education administration, inclusive of diversity board, where this awareness program can increase and stimulate professional development (Gamble & Turner, 2016).

Gender ageism. One often overlooked form of discrimination that causes inequity in the workplace is ageism. Ageism is considering a candidate or employee less favorably because of their age. It is a practice that hinders older workers by setting them aside, as well as disregarding their value and knowledge (Vasconcelos, 2015). Owing to the false belief that people who are older are not capable of physically performing their job like a younger counterpart having an older or lesser education. The greatest source of low competence was believed to be lack of technical skills, specifically indicated a lack of familiarity with modern computer programs. This assumption led to unfair human resources practices, such as hiring or promoting younger applicants. Researchers supported the position that older workers, over the age of 55, do not show any tendencies toward *workplace aggression, on-the-job substance use, tardiness, and*

absenteeism (Vasconcelos, 2015). However, evidence suggested that judging the equity across age groups by current income can be misinterpreted because of the sensitivity of the metric to the age composition of the sample of the study (Aaberge & Mogstad, 2015). Aaberge and Mogstad (2015), call this a “life-cycle bias” in the empirical analysis of income inequality. While there are still persistent and unfair human resources practices that affect older employees because of ageism, there was less evidence that there is inequity in the pay between older and younger workers (Aaberge & Mogstad, 2015; Vasconcelos, 2015).

Gender salary gap. It is elusive to fully explain the differentiation in pay between men and women by the difference in education, the direction of research has changed. The demarcation was not explained in recent studies, by the difference in the number of years of study (or the level of training) in the education sector; men and women have different specializations (Machin & Puhani, 2013). The shift in the accent of the literature from the volume of education received to the subjects studied also indicated a shift in goals: now that women have achieved equality in education (Josi, 2014); the goal of achieving equality in pay has shifted further and was determined by the type of education (O'Reilly, Smith, Deakin, Burchell, 2015). In other words, pay equity is increasingly becoming an ‘elusive’ concept. Also, women face issues such as pay, income, earnings, money, wages, or salaries phenomenon known as the gender wage gap (Davidson, 2014). Burkus, (2016), discussed pay transparency to prevent inequity in pay, regardless of a person demographic. His research indicated that people employed by companies that keep pay secret are more likely to feel underpaid and possibly discriminated against. As suggested by Burkus (2016) there is a 23% difference in wages between men and women in companies in the private sector, where most companies have a pay

secrecy policy. When compared to Federal Government employees, salaries are kept within certain ranges provided to everyone, the gender wage gap shrinks to 11% (Burkus, 2016).

To find the reason behind pay deprivation Davidson' (2014) investigated the underlying factors of pay satisfaction and sought to discovered why individual women who have lower wages or salaries did not report dissatisfaction with their income. A phenomenon that Crosby (1982) called "the paradox of the contented female worker." The distributive justice theory of remuneration satisfaction based on congruency from Adams' equity theory, (1965), and Lawler's discrepancy theory, (1971) with perceived satisfaction or perceived fairness in comparison to the person's input and outcomes, as well as the inputs and results of other peoples or referent. The findings showed that privilege and money connected to satisfaction, and the female attorney with underpayment seems to be using different social references and lower feelings of entitlement. Furthermore, the wage gap also was affected by female physicians versus their male counterparts, and female physicians felt lack of mentoring within the medical field (Hoff & Scott, 2016), and women's childrearing responsibilities as mothers (Bismark et al., 2015).

Another study carried out by Joshi, Son, and Roh (2015), revealed that sex differences in reward were much more significant than performance. When women are in a luxurious position, even if the work performance of both genders is parallel, women were awarded much lower than men. Other result showed that the presence of women in influential position was symbolic because of women in power have direct access for other women. Nonetheless, these powerful occupations that are directed by women also indicated more problems for rewards such as salary, bonus, and performance evaluation. In less prestigious occupations, however, barriers to entry are lower than those of prestigious ones, a strategy that was purposely used to keep the status quo. In order words, the opportunity for managerial positions in the less prestigious

establishment is easier, which also implied that the salary would consequently be low. Also, Joshi et al. (2015) noted throughout the years; women were successful in closing the performance gap. Unfortunately, the same cannot be said for the salary gap; for women, performance does not dictate salary. In credence, in high-value occupation, men and women performed equally well, except women received lower rewards. Nevertheless, an industry dominated by women, maybe this gap can be reverse (Joshi et al., 2015).

Gender Sexual Harassment

Safety and security are important in the workplace. Sexual harassment is systematic and pervasive and has been an issue in the workplace for years; this is another barrier for women. Although, there are laws in place for this issue very seldom has it at the forefront as it is today. “Pandora’s Box has been open,” finally, and sex discriminations will no longer be a hidden issue. Women are now starting to speak up about experiencing sexual harassment from male employees while on the job. Kaushal, Kaur, and Kumar (2016) addressed the issue of sexual harassment in the workplace. The study finding revealed that majority of the female employees declined sexual harassment at workplace and only a few employees accepted that they faced sexual harassment in the workplace (Kaushal et al., 2016). Some of the actions persistent in the workplace like staring and attempts to be touched, which made them uncomfortable. It is presumed that sexual misconduct has been perpetuated by their superior (Srinivasan, 2015), and their silence is due to embarrassment and financial necessity; therefore, they do not seek justice.

Sexual harassment can happen at any organizations, especially at the male-dominated occupation. Looking outside the United States, women in other countries also experience harassment and discrimination. Botha (2016) study found that women in the mining industry in countries such as Canada, Australia, and South Africa are still being exploited and sexually

harassed. Incidents that are taking place daily includes whistling, name calling, use of vulgar or derogatory language, showing off body parts and physical contact that range from touching to sexual assault and rape. Furthermore, Botha, (2016), described some safeguards organizations could incorporate to ensure the work environment are free from sexual harassment. One of the safeguards was to construct a sexual harassment policy, enforce the policy, training provided to employees, procedures followed, reporting procedures developed, investigate sexual harassment complaints, and manage the seriousness of the allegations and take appropriate actions to protect victims (Botha, 2016).

National Public Radio (NPR) reported recently that members of Congress are taking steps against sexual harassment by promoting harassment training. Yet, the irony is Congress is not exempted from sexual harassment claims. For years, women endured sexual advances in Capitol Hill; a place that is ripe for harassment with thousands of young female workers. The same men who are writing the rules against harassment were the same ones doing the devious act (Davis, 2017). Also, this behavior was found in the United States Agricultural Industry. Block (2014) explained how female farmworkers in agriculture failed to report sexual abuse due to ignorance of protection laws. Most of the women farmworkers came from outside of the United States on work visas to make a better life for their families. They came with the assumption that the work will be better than in their native country. Unfortunately, that is not always the case. In comparison to wages in their country, they do earn more in the United States. These women farmworkers experience a great amount of harassment, as well as several cases of abuse, and sexual harassment that go unreported. Countless cases of harassment go unheard because these women are afraid, they may lose their jobs if they report these behaviors, and many were terrified to be sent back to their native country. Additionally, the language barrier and lack of

legal knowledge hindered these women farmworkers. Furthermore, Rahi (2015) explained how traditional oppressive norms in India had relegated women to secondary status at the workplace and in the household, where they are subjected to sexual exploitation. The living situation is far worse in other countries, and workers do not file complaints or report the companies, while sexual harassment purportedly for these women working here in the United States despite the laws in place. Women in these industries need advocates to help them become informed workers.

Coincidentally, the same issues occurred in law enforcement (Yu, 2015). Law enforcement has one of the lowest women employee rates because of harassment issues. Women in law enforcement often faced sexual harassment from their male coworkers. Women occupy 47% of the total workforce in the United States, which is close to half of the workforce. Other research found that the percentage of women law enforcement officers were low because they encountered sexist attitudes and resistance from their male counterpart in their departments and divisions (Yu, 2015). This behavior makes women hesitant when considering a career in law enforcement (Randhawa & Narang, 2013; Yu, 2015). Sexual harassment has a negative influence on the work environment and individual wellbeing (Kaushik et al., 2014). However, women in India, feel more comfortable discussing these violations with a policewoman instead of a male officer (Randhawa & Narang, 2013), which led to an increase with female police workforce. The challenges faced by women police force in the United States and India included gender discrimination, sexual harassment, and organizational incivility.

Real or perceived gender differences is an ill-conceived notion that has barraged women from achieving their potential. Specifically, those women who aspire to upward mobility, with educational and professional experiences parallel to their male counterpart. As discussed, the gender differences phenomenon plagues all industry without dimension. However, gender

differences such as pay, age, sexual harassment, and discrimination affect women not exposed to the type of positions or experiences that are essential to achieving top leadership positions.

Understanding the value of women's competence and potential could contribute to organization success by melding these perceived demarcations between gender and tap into the full potential of women for continued economic growth.

Furthermore, studies show employment for women is largely predetermined by occupational segregation based on gender. Even in developed democracies, despite the significant representation of women in the higher echelons of corporate governance, a phenomenon such as the *glass ceiling* still transpire. Similarly, segregation of women in the marketplace not only determines the quality of women's employment but also becomes sources of inertia an impediment for effective development of the economy. Ample research conducted to change these situations, and some organizations have implemented several programs to aid women representation in leadership positions.

Gender Global Issues

Researchers like Choi and Park (2014) reported that the crisis that women face is a global one. Korean women face the same problem, especially those in the Korean government. The increase of female employment across countries is remarkable. Yet, even with the growth, the Korean labor force, like the US, is dominated by men. Choi and Park (2014) findings indicated that the representation of women in high function occupations and in the government was significantly small with limited access for upper-level functions.

The previous studies focused on the United States, and gender pay is also affected in the global market. India is a developing country and the changing landscape in the economic and social condition required that women work regardless of their religion, class or social status, and

issues related to managing family and making an adjustment to succeed in the workplace. This led Kaushik, Sharma, and Kaushik (2014) to study gender issues like gender stereotype, gender discrimination and sexual harassment in the context of the Indian environment. A key interpretation by Kaushik et al. (2014) exposed seven job-related factors: infrastructure, human resource functions, organizational climate, legal pursuit, empowerment, training and development, and ethical concerns. Two individual influences: interpersonal and mindset that were considered essential for women employees in Indian organizations. Kaushik et al. (2014) indicated that age and the level of management had no significant effect on these factors, but male and female respondents differed significantly regarding these issues. The study contributed mostly to the Indian workforce and contribution in general to gender theory and organizational settings.

Since the gender wage gap still plagues many women in labor markets around the world, much research has been done to determine the factors that are causing these inequities and how to reduce them. Per Sidani (2013), reducing gender inequity and encouraging female participation in the labor market will require a combination of education and favorable cultural dimensions. For example, cultures that emphasized traditional family roles for women discouraged them from attaining higher levels of education and employment and further contributed to the gender wage gap. Furthermore, the gender wage gap could be attributed to women being alienated from jobs that are traditionally thought to be male-dominated professions (Sidani, 2013). For some countries, overcoming these perceptions and ensuring gender equity will not be easy, but it is crucial to creating a more productive and talented labor force.

There are three cultural variables that are important contributors to the issue of gender pay equity: gender egalitarianism, institutional collectivism, and level of education (Sidani,

2013). Gender egalitarianism affects women's compensation because it is an overall value of a society, and the members of that society will usually act accordingly. Therefore, higher gender egalitarianism would lead to more equity in the workforce between men and women. High gender egalitarianism increases female labor participation as a percentage of male participation (FPM), and female earned income as a percentage of male earned income (FIM) (Sidani, 2013). Institutional collectivism plays a part that focused on the cause of a sub-group, such as women, would be considered less important to a society that highly values the collective interest (Sidani, 2013). This also directly shaped both FPM and FIM, and the level of education has been found to modify only one of the determinants: FPM. In addition to Sidani (2013) gender egalitarianism, Chang, Connell, Burgess, and Travaglione (2014) included career breaks, industrial segregation, occupational segregation, undervaluation of women's skills, and pay setting methods showed gender wage gap in Australia was the most influential contributor for gender discrimination.

Cloutier and Benoit's (2015) study was to identify an indicator for successful implementation of pay equity plans. Several factors that affected perceived fair pay for female-dominated jobs in Canada, after the implementation effect of Quebec Pay Equity Acts. Cloutier and Lamarche (2015), findings revealed that employee perceptions of justice were on several factors such as uniformity of implementation, relevance to job evaluation criteria, and transparency. Also, the participants were highly educated affecting the outcome of the study. Cloutier and Lamarche (2015) recommended duplicating this study incorporating demographics as well as across different organizations to determine fair equity pay in the workplace. This study contributed to organizational justice perspective and perceived fair pay. However, as Herzberg

(1966) asserted that pay is a hygiene factor or possible dissatisfies, Lawler's (1981) research provided performance-based pay is an influential incentive since money is a piece of the pie.

The findings attained from this review demonstrate that women all over the world face the challenges of gender inequality, wage discrimination/equal pay, sexual harassment, career advancement, and work-life balance. Despite more women advancing their education, expanding their technical/training skills and honing their talents, gender differences erode with other types of differences. Also, the gender wage gap shows a significantly decreased, nonetheless persistency of the wage gap between men and women continued. As the decompositions illustrated the standing of changes in gender alterations in education and experience, and in luxury, positions were interpretation for the reduction in the gender pay gap. Furthermore, gender differences in positions and industry in credence were essentials in explaining the gender wage gap, despite occupation upgrade of female relative to their male counterpart. Evidently, men are more represented in positions of power as a key factor. Thus it can be assumed that women are less likely to access power relative to men (Kossek, Su, & Wu, 2017), selecting a candidate with similarities, or base on preference and stereotypes. However, if organizations are willing to work together to improve the status quo for women in the workplace, society will see a more prosperous economy.

Summary

The review attained from the scholarship critically examined the interconnection between OJ, IWB, and TFL. OJ theory is grounded in an employee's perception regarding fairness within organizations (ElDinAboul-Ela, 2014; Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014). **The dynamic of work-related justice that links to employee's perceptions of fairness and rewards within organization contexts reflects job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention (Czarnota-**

Bojarska, 2015; Nasuridin et al., 2014). Perceived injustice leads to a disgruntled and unproductive workforce (Cho & Sai, 2013, Jonson et al., 2014). Based on the pivotal research findings discussed in this chapter, a foundation can be established indicating what is known regarding OJ, IWB, and TFL as well as additional research needs. These results provide support for further research on the relationship between organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership.

A quantitative non-experimental, correlation study was utilized to examine the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership. Furthermore, this research is descriptive since the researcher will observe gender differences in innovative work behavior and organizational justice on leadership to investigate whether women experience the same levels of fair treatment and work behaviors compared to men from several organizations in the United States. Also, gathering the quantitative data from a convenience sampling, the study design was a correlation, and statistical analyses were to determine the relationships among the study variables. In this study, three instruments combined were used for obtaining data for all the variables. The OJS, IWB, and the MLQX5 questionnaire were administered to participants in a single survey. Ethical safeguards were mitigated during research. This research design allowed for answering the research question and testing the hypotheses objectives, allowing for the results of the study are clear of bias without manipulation in completing the dissertation within the time frame.

The goal of this project effort was to provide more insight into the role of gender, organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership. Understanding the dynamics of social exchange theory, and innovative behavior usually has a component produce benefit (de Jong & den Hartog, 2007). Therefore, the purpose of this correlational study

was to explore distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice, and innovative work behavior to discover their statistical predictive relationships with transformational leadership.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The problem addressed by this study was that little was known about the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership after controlling for gender in management-level business professionals in the United States. The purpose of this quantitative non-experimental, correlational study was to examine the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership after controlling for gender in management level business professionals in the United States. Specifically, this study was to observed gender differences in innovative work behavior and organizational justice on leadership to examine whether women experience the same levels of fair treatment and work behaviors compared to men.

The research methodology and design were described in this chapter. In addition, the operational definitions of the variables, the collection of data, and analysis with details to afford replication of the study were elucidated. The procedures used for selecting participants and instruments were also described. Assumptions, limitations, and delimitations were provided. Lastly, the ethical considerations and assurance were stated.

The research methodology and design were quantitative non-experimental, correlation design. A quantitative non-experimental, correlational method was used to answer the research questions, to analyzed responses, and to draw conclusions (Delost & Nader 2014). The non-experimental designs were preferred when human characteristics are not possible to manipulate (Delost & Nader 2014).

Utilizing a quantitative method was appropriate, an empirical investigation of the phenomenon and deductive reasoning to develop predictions from general theory (Zyphur & Pierides 2017). Additionally, quantitative methodology offered (a) measurement of variables

and generalizability to other situations, (b) testing hypotheses, and (c) relating a study of interest to existing theories. Quantitative investigations required a certain number of observations to obtain valid and reliable conclusions (Delost & Nader, 2014). Also, quantitative methods were preferred where the sample data is to a larger population.

The alternative to the preferred quantitative research was the qualitative method. Contrary to quantitative research, qualitative research starts with broader, often exploratory research questions, instead of a hypothesis. Qualitative research methods followed an exploratory scientific method to explain what is seen; and this confirmation will likely meet the exploratory and descriptive needs of the study (Park & Park, 2016). Qualitative research is conducted on self-reports and observable behaviors on how people make sense of their world, and the experiences they have of that world; conducted in natural settings, attempting to make sense. Qualitative research can also take place in structured or semi-structured interview settings (Park & Park 2016).

Quantitative correlation methods with multiple regression analyses were applicable when compared predictor variables perceptions of organizational justice and innovative work behaviors, with the criterion variable of transformational leadership (Field, 2017). The Pearson's r and $Beta$ correlation coefficients measured the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two or more variables (Field, 2017). This research method was applicable when seeking to determine if predictive relationships existed between these variables. While being important in minimizing subjectivity, and maximizing objectivity between variables (Bennett, Briggs, & Triola, 2014), having a high correlation does not create a cause-effect relationship; rather, it does permit for the predictive relationship (Benett et al., 2014). The used of multiple regression analysis provided an estimate of the accurateness of the predictions, and the computed

measure of the relationship between predictor and criterion variables (Wilson & Joye, 2017). Also, was to determine the positive or negative associations that occurred among the variables (Bennet et al., 2014, Field, 2017; Wilson & Joye, 2017), and regression analyses allowed to ascertain the magnitude to which these independent variables can empirically predict whether gender has a relationship with transformational leadership (Wilson & Joye, 2017).

Although experimental design exists, it was not chosen for this study. Experimental design, when used in various types of studies, is well renowned for the advance of high internal validity (Jackson, 2016; Houdek, 2017). As a result, external validity may be low, and findings may not be generalized outside the experimental conditions; as well as not being replicated (Jackson, 2016; Houdek, 2017). Another drawback was that it could be immensely challenging to design a realistic experiment in social science, such as business or education setting because people rarely are randomly assigned to conditions or laboratories settings (Jackson, 2016; Houdek, 2017). As in any experimental research study, when a treatment is given to one group over the other, this perception can be wrong and unjust (Jackson, 2016; Houdek, 2017). While experimental studies are costly and time-consuming the used of correlation method was preferred (Jackson, 2016; Houdek, 2017).

The quasi-experimental design was not chosen for this research. The quasi-experimental is the most practical choice for conducting outcome evaluations in the social or medical industries context (Rockers, Tugwell, Røttingen, & Bärnighausen, 2017). Quasi-experimental researchers use preexisting or self-selected groups, such as individuals already enrolled in a program or treatment regime, it avoids the additional steps required in random assignment to study conditions, also the ethical justification in withholding, or delaying treatment or substituting a less beneficial treatment for a selected group of participants in the study. The

limitation of this design is that without randomization, the study groups may differ in relevant ways that account for some of the group differences in some outcomes after the intervention (Rockers et al., 2017). Both experimental and quasi-experimental study involved control and manipulated variables and was not appropriate for this study.

Selection biases were arguably one significant threat to external validity. Bennett et al. (2014), argued that a threat to external validity was drawing erroneous inferences from the sample. To avoid selection bias was to apply random selection that assures different units in the population are selected by chance (Bennett et al., 2014), and able to generalize. Conversely, correlation design advanced external validity was the extent a sample size represents the condition of the population drawn. However, external validity was only valid for samples drawn from the same population. The degree the sample means, and variances overlap with means and variances of population results determined the extent of external validity (Bennet et al., 2014).

Population and Sample

In fulfilling this quantitative correlation study, a convenience sampling was selected from the population. Participants were solicited using an electronic survey with screened questions to ensure actual participants met the criteria for volunteering in the study. The interested participants were provided with a link to the Survey Monkey website where an introductory letter provided information related to the purpose of the study, informed consent, and how their information was safeguarded. Participants who completed the criteria for performing their work were included in the study. Participants were required to read, then agreed or disagreed to the electronic consent form prior to starting the survey. The study consent form ensured that participants understood that the survey respondent was confidential and anonymous. Also, participants could withdraw without penalty at any time. The convenience sampling responses

from participants reflected those within the general population and increased the validity of the data collection process (Wilson & Joye, 2017). Also, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics like correlations are frequently used to explore the nature of the relationships between the variables identified in the research question (Bennet et al., 2014).

To determine the sample size necessary to detect a significant effect on the population, a priori power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3.1.9.2 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2009). To ensure that an effect can be detected for this research study, a minimum sample size of 98 participants was targeted for the final sample size. The sample consisted of various management-level business professional that was more likely to have a blend of technical expertise in process and technology improvements, which are complex required decision-making and problem solving.

The statistical test used to determine sufficient sample size was the F test, linear multiple regression, fixed model, R^2 deviation from zero, assuming six predictor variables, gender (control variable), perceptions of organizational justice included: distributive, procedural, informational and interpersonal justice, innovative work behavior (predictor variables), and transformational leadership (criterion variable) with a small to medium effect size $f^2 = .15$, $\alpha = .05$, and power = .80. Using *a priori* analysis, 98 participants were needed to achieve statistical power (Faul et al., 2009).

For the effect size factor, a small to medium effect size for predictors was expected. The reliability of predictors was expected to be .80, the relationships between organizational justice, innovative work behavior and transformational leadership was expected to be strong, and predictor range restriction was not expected to be observed (McShane & Gal, 2017). For this study, the significance level or alpha was set at $p \leq .05$.

Materials/Instrumentation

To address this study's stated purpose, research questions, and hypotheses, a quantitative non-experimental, correlation design was conducted to gather data from the convenience sample of management-level business professionals in the United States. The online survey was administered by Survey Monkey included a cover letter introduced the survey purpose and ensured confidentiality. An online survey was cost-efficient in obtaining information, while the disadvantaged to this method was that it depends on external data collection sources and conceivably included long data collection period to collect enough surveys to make the study feasible (Wilson & Joye, 2017).

The time frame for the assessment of the instrument was between 10 to 15 minutes, consisting of 38 questions. The reliability and validity of the instruments have been established through prior research (Enokesen, 2015; Schminke et al., 2015, Arnaud, & Taylor 2015). Three instruments combined were utilized during data collection. Permission to use the instruments were requested. Appendix A contained copies of these scales of participant questionnaire. Also, Appendix B contained the written permission obtained to utilize each of these scales by the authors.

The first instrument was the Organizational Justice Scale (OJS) developed and validated by (Colquitt, 2001) contain 20 items, used four dimensions for operationalizing justice and fairness (Enoksen & Sandal, 2015; Schminke et al., 2015). Previous research posited strong correlations within the justice dimensions (Colquitt et al., 2013; Molina, Moliner, Martinez-Tur, Cropanzano, & Peiró, 2016). Participants used a 5-point Likert scale response, from 1 to a very small extent to 5 to a very large extent. For distributive justice, the Cronbach's alpha is .96, contained four elements; denoted employees' perception on how reward and distribution of

resources mirror their contribution. For procedural justice, the Cronbach's alpha is .90, contained seven elements; denoted employees' perception of fairness of the procedures used to make decisions, and employees can partake explaining their feelings and views. Also, the information is unbiased and accurate in the forthcoming decision. The interpersonal justice Cronbach's alpha was .95, contained four elements; denoted employees' perception to an amount of dignity, respect, and organizational rules that the affected individuals receive from the authority making the decision. Interpersonal justice underlies that a person should be respected reasonably. Lastly, informational justice Cronbach's alpha is .91, contained five elements; denoted employees' perception of management truthfulness in communication, by thoroughly explaining to the concerned party regarding why and how a decision made and why certain outcomes thrived (Enoksen & Sandal, 2015; Schminke et al., 2015; Zhou & Li, 2016).

The second instrument was the Innovative Work Behavior scale (IWBS) developed by de Jong, and den Hartog (2010) measured four facets of innovative work behavior: opportunity exploration Cronbach's alpha is .90. Idea generation Cronbach's alpha is .90., idea championing Cronbach's alpha is .95., and idea implementation Cronbach's alpha is .93. Participants used a 5-point Likert scale response, from 1 not at all to 5 frequently, if not always, consisting of ten items.

The third instrument was the Multifactor Leadership Model Questionnaire Form 5X Short Form Rater Version (MLQ5X) survey (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Effelsberg, Sandal, & Gurt et al., 2014), was used to measure employee's perception of their leadership styles. The MLQ5X in previous studies has been very reliable with alphas greater than .80 by researchers (Arnold et al., 2015). Only the transformational model was used consisted of two subscales that are, idealized influence attributes (IIA) and intellectual

stimulation (IS) consisting of 4 questions each. The transformational leadership scale Cronbach's alpha was .94 (Effelsberg et al., 2014, Arnold, et al., 2015).

Operational Definitions of Variables

Organizational Justice/Predictor variable. The organizational justice scale contained 20 items with four subscales (Enoksen & Sandal, 2015; Schminke et al., 2015). The organizational justice scale was an interval scale measurement. Participants used the 5-point Likert scale responses from 1 to a very small extent to 5 to a very large extent. For distributive justice, participants rated distributive justice to the outcomes they receive from their jobs, such as pay, evaluations, promotions, rewards, and the likes. The elements measures are adhering to an equity rule for allocating outcomes as different to an equality or need rule (Adams, 1965; Leventhal, 1976). Examples, items rated included: “Do those outcomes reflect the effort you have put into your work”? “Are those outcomes justified, given your performance”? and “Do those outcomes reflect what you have contributed to your work”? (Scott, Colquitt, & Zapata-Phelan, 2007, p. 1601). For this scale, the Cronbach’s alpha was .96. For procedural justice, participants rated the procedures their leaders used to make decisions about pay evaluations, promotions, rewards, and the likes. The elements measures are adhering to Leventhal’s (1980) and Thibaut and Walker’s (1975) justice rules. Examples, items rated included: “Are those procedures applied consistently?” “Are those procedures free of bias?” and “Are you able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?” (Scott et al., 2007, p. 1601). For this scale, the Cronbach’s alpha was .85. For informational justice, participants rated the information based on the explanations given by leadership for the decision made. The items assessed adhering to Bies and Moag’s (1986) justification and truthfulness rules, and by (Greenberg, 1993). Example of items rated included: “Is your supervisor candid in communications with

you?” “Does your supervisor explain decision procedures thoroughly?” and “Does your supervisor communicate details in a timely manner?” (Scott et al., 2007, p. 1601). For this scale, the Cronbach’s alpha was .91. For interpersonal justice, participants rated organizational rules received and the amount of dignity, from superior. These measures contain four elements scale adhering to (Bies & Moag’s, 1986; Greenberg, 1993), respect and organizational rules. Example of items rated included: “Does your supervisor treat you in a polite manner?” “Does your supervisor treat you with dignity? Does your supervisor treat you with respect?” and “Does your supervisor refrain from improper remarks or comments?” (Scott et al., 2007, p. 1601). For this scale, the Cronbach’s alpha was .93.

Innovative Work Behavior/Predictor variable. The scale developed by de Jong and den Hartog (2010) was chosen as their dimensions are found to be more easily interpretable and the rigor applied to describe the components of innovative work behavior is thorough. Innovative work behavior is multidimensional; this scale is an ordinal scale measurement that investigated several aspects of innovative behaviors activities assumed by employees. These qualities or facets consisted of opportunity exploration. Example of items rated included: “How often does this employee, search out new work methods, techniques or instruments?” “How often does this employee generate original solutions to problems,” and “How often does this employee find new approaches to execute tasks?” (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010, p. 14). For this item, the Cronbach’s alpha was .90. Idea generation, an example of items rated included: “How often does this employee search out new work methods, techniques or instruments?” How often does this employee generate original solutions to problems? “How often does this employee find new approaches to execute tasks?” (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010, p. 14). Idea championing, an example of items rated included: “How often does this employee encourage key organization

members to be enthusiastic about innovative ideas. “How often does this employee attempt to convince people to support innovative ideas (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010, p. 14). For this item, the Cronbach’s alpha was .95. Idea implementation, an example of items rated included: “How often does this employee systematically introduce innovative new ideas into work practice.” “How often does this employee contribute to implementing new ideas.” “How often does this employee put effort into the development of new things?” (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010, p. 14). For this item, the Cronbach’s alpha was .93.

Leadership style/Criterion variable. Leadership style is a process that symbolizes a leaders’ role through the creation of sustainable competitive advantage and interaction with followers engaging with clear communication, skills, and behaviors. As well as architects of their organization (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Effelsberg et al., 2014), taking special effort to develop relationships and purpose among their followers.

Transformational leadership style was measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X Short Form (MLQ-5X) (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Effelsberg et al., 2014). Only two dimensions of transformational leadership were completed by participants. Idealized influence attributes incorporate behaviors that inculcate pride in followers in association with the leader. Intellectual stimulation which implies that a transformational leader pursues differing viewpoints when solving problems and engage others in viewing those problems from a different approach. Participants rated their leadership style on a 5-point Likert scale ranging Not at all (0) to Frequently, if not always (4). The transformational leadership scale Cronbach's alpha was .94 (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1995). The variables of the transformational leadership style were ordinal scale.

Control variables (covariates). Gender was a nominal scale, education, ethnicity, was an ordinal scale, age was a ratio scale, and organizational tenure was a continuous variable, and was dummy coded. These covariates were controlled since these variables would affect the relationship between gender, organizational justice, innovative work behavior and transformational leadership (Schuh et al., 2014). While not the focused of this study; past research has identified these demographic variables, such as an individual's age, education, and organizational tenure, as potential influences on employees' innovative behavior and performance (Schuh et al., 2014).

Gender. For gender, participants were asked if they are male or female. This variable was nominal and dummy coded (males = 0; females = 1) for analysis.

Age. For age, participants were asked their age, ensured participants was 18 years or older to participate in this study. Age-associated with leadership role tenure (Hernandez-Bark, 2016; Schu et al., 2014) collected at the interval level. After evaluating the distribution of age, age was then be grouped into ordinal categories.

Ethnicity. For ethnicity, participants were asked to select their ethnic background. Each ethnic background was dummy coded (1=White, 2=Black, 3=Hispanic, Asian, 4=Mixed, and 5=Other) for analysis was a nominal variable.

Education. For education, participants were asked if they have a high school diploma or equivalent, associate degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, or doctoral degree. Each education level was dummy coded (high school diploma or equivalent = 1; Associate degree = 2; bachelor's degree = 3; master's degree = 4; Doctoral degree = 5), this was a nominal variable that measures the educational level.

Tenure. For tenure, participants were asked how many years they have been with their current organization. Interval variable and was grouped as necessary. After evaluating the distribution of tenure, tenure was then grouped into ordinal categories.

Study Procedures

In addressing this study's stated purpose, research questions, and hypotheses, a quantitative non-experimental, correlation design was conducted to gather data from a convenience sampling of management-level business professionals in the United States. Once approval was gained from the Northcentral University IRB on July 2, 2018, invitation was sent out to recruit participants on July 5, 2018. The recruitment site was permitted by Tia Bennett Department Director which complements about 1350 employees, using their electronic bulletin board. Additionally, emails to participants and social media were also used. The online survey that was administered by Survey Monkey included a cover letter introduced the survey purpose, the duration of the study, as well as the demands placed upon them as a participant.

Potential participants were asked if they were an executive, director, manager, supervisor, team leader, workgroup leader who (a) worked on change processes or systems in their organization; (b) participated in operational management processes, schedule and plan sequence of developmental programs included evaluation performance; or (d) supported ongoing business and operational management process for their organization program.

Individuals who were not in those roles were considered non-eligible to participate in the study and were excused from the study and thanked for volunteering. Only 110 responses met the research criteria and gained access to the survey. All potential participants first entered demographic information. Thereafter, participants did not gain access to the survey until they

acknowledged by I agree, or I disagree to the consent form (see Appendix C) assured participants of their right to privacy and confidentiality (Wilson, 2015).

Subjects were requested to complete the survey as soon as possible. Participation was very low, and a follow-up reminder of the survey invitation was sent thereafter on July 25, 2018, which increased the sample. The survey was inclusive of the scales from OJ, IWB, MLQ5X short-form questionnaire. Although answers were encrypted and stored on the servers at Survey Monkey, non-identified data was retrieved for analysis and encrypted (Garfinkel, 2015).

Data Collection and Analysis

Data collection for this study was conducted using three pre-validated instruments. In discovering a relationship between the variables in the study, a multiple linear regression analysis was utilized (Field, 2017). A statistical significance of the estimated relationship was assessed based on the degree of confidence that a true relationship exists among the estimated relationships (Field, 2017). Results at the $p < .05$ threshold was considered statistically significant. A priori power analysis was conducted and determined that 98 participants would be needed to achieve statistical power (Faul et al., 2009).

The data collected from the survey were analyzed using appropriate statistical techniques. The data collected to test the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables were analyzed using multiple linear regression (Field, 2017). All data collected were stored and maintained in a safe place with emergency plans for unforeseen circumstances. Data storage access was protected by authorized members. These data were stored in their unique format, after completion of the study, and kept for a minimum of three years (OHRP, 2018).

All data were analyzed using (SPSS). The correlation analysis included descriptive statistics for each survey, sample size, mean, and standard deviation. Goodness-of-fit tests

reflected whether the predicted values were an accurate representation of the observed values (Wilson & Joye, 2017). All analysis was conducted at the 95% confidence level to determine statistical significance. In all cases where parametric inferential was used; a priori test of homogeneity of variance was conducted (Field, 2017). In cases where the homogeneity of variance assumption was not met, a Welch's correction of degrees of freedom to adjust for uneven variances or nonparametric tests such as Mann-Whitney U, Kruskal-Wallis, or Spearman's Rho, was conducted which do not rely on the assumption of homogeneity of variance (Field, 2017; Wilson & Joye, 2017).

Assumptions testing was conducted to evaluate the univariate distributions of the study variables. Normality testing was assessed using both visual (histograms, pp-plots, and qq-plots) and statistical (skew and kurtosis z-scores, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, and Shapiro-Wilk tests) methods (Field, 2017). Study variables that violated the normality assumption were mathematically transformed (e.g., natural log, inverse, squared, or cubed, etc.) or turned into categorical variables for analysis. Extreme outliers were assessed using boxplots and values was replaced with missing values if they are found to be greater than 1.5 times the interquartile range (IQR). The linearity of continuous variables was assessed visually using matrix scatterplots with fit lines to ensure that the relationship is linear. If non-linear relationships were found, they were assessed and included in the regression analysis to control for their effects (Field, 2017; Wilson & Joye, 2017). Multicollinearity and heteroskedasticity were both assessed in post-estimation using variance inflation factors (VIF) testing to assess multi-collinearity and using White's test of heteroskedasticity and by plotting the residuals over the predicted values to look for cone-shaped patterns indicative of heteroskedasticity. If multicollinearity was present (VIF greater than 5), variables that are conceptually similar (e.g., they may be two parts of some latent

construct) was aggregated together, or offending variables that have the least contribution to explaining the variance in the dependent variable was removed from the model (Field, 2017). If heteroskedasticity was present, robust standard errors (heteroskedasticity-consistent standard errors) was computed to account for the effects of this assumption violation (Field 2017).

Assumptions

The assumptions for this quantitative non-exploratory, correlation study design started with the correlation feature. The correlation method was appropriate based on assumptions of the variable relationship, consequently to avoid a causation relationship. As the researcher, an assumption was made dealing with several variables and that a relationship exists between gender, organizational justice, and transformational leadership. Conversely, participants of the sample selection were representative of the population. Ensuring reasonable assumption, that the survey website was accessible to participants with easy navigation. Also, an assumption was made regarding participants. That participant responded truthfully and honestly during data collection. Also, safeguarded participants identity by ensuring that no personal identifier information was collected based on honesty and respect. Several questions were incorporated during the data collection process ensured active participation. If participants were not actively participating and not selecting the appropriate response, the participant was departed from participating and those departed was not incorporated into the data set for analyzes.

At the inception of this research, several assumptions stipulated. First, in the administration of the OJS, MLQX5, and IWB instrument was assumed that participants experiences represented the scale items in the questionnaire and the scales was reflective of innovation work behavior, organizational justice, and transformational leadership. As participants recruited for the study, a stipulation was that participants were currently working in

a management-level business professional in the United States. Also, participants were to respond honestly to the questions regarding their perceptions of innovation work behavior and their experience of organizational justice and transformational leadership. Lastly, the research questions and hypotheses were evaluated ensured alignment within this research, and the study findings can yield generalizability.

Limitations

Several limitations were found in this study. While this study requires participants' honesty, a potential limitation was participants' bias in responding to the questions in this research. Another limitation was having adequate statistical power .80 on a sample of 98. The sample collected was 61 considered small, and a post hoc analysis was performed. The post hoc analysis for the 61-sample collected determined power of 0.5408334, given the sample size collected (see Appendix E). A further limitation that altered this research was low response rates. Low response rate in research is a recurring problem (Sauermann & Roach, 2013). To minimize low response, a second notification email was sent to the different online communities with the survey link. Since, this is a non-experimental, correlation study there was no manipulation or control of variables for causal outcomes. Using an experimental or a longitudinal design to strengthen causal inferences, were issues with the practicality of these models in completing a dissertation, hence was not feasible due to time constraint and associated costs.

Surveys provided some advantages; however, it is not realistic to assume to measure the population on its entire but provided an estimate of a true population. Also, a plausibility was that participants missed some questions, purposely misrepresented, or recall poorly on actions or situations requested (Wright, 2015). An additional limitation was self-selection bias that created

difficulty in generalizing from the sample to the broader population, for example, non-representative sample. As such, those participants who participated may be different from the general population based on critical traits. Individuals who participated in the study were more likely to have clear-cut opinions in comparison to those who are not volunteering.

Delimitations

There are several delimitations in this study. The research problem and research questions can be viewed as delimitations. Also, participants' criteria were knowledgeable of technical expertise on process and technology improvements, in other words, innovation. The statistical conclusions were strengthened using hierarchical regression analysis. The analytical procedure was the quantitative non-experimental, correlation study design, and testing of theoretical hypotheses. External validity was mitigated selecting members from a large population (98 participants).

Ethical Assurances

IRB approval was sought prior to any data collected. The fundamental importance of conducting this research was to ensure the protection of participants serving as volunteers and freedom from harm (Wallace & Sheldon, 2015). Also, risks to participants were to maximize the benefits and minimize possible damages such as physical or psychological, devaluation of personal worth, economic, and legal harms (Wallace & Sheldon, 2015). In conducting this research, absolute honesty and integrity were to present the information correctly and thoroughly, preserve participants privacy, confidentiality, and well-being. Additionally, provided the research methods, presented the results precisely without bias and manipulation, as well as others, work presented correctly (McCusker, & Gunaydin, 2015). Since the validity and reliability of the measurement was very crucial in research. The researcher did not jeopardize

under any circumstance in providing erroneous information that could obstruct the likelihood of future studies (Wallace & Sheldon, 2015). This research design was different than previously conducted research, and this research was built to be straightforward and repeatable. Using statistical methods, accurate reporting, and conclusions and recommendations drawn from careful analysis of the results were necessary. Also, it is important to equate the price and consequences of unethical behavior and emulate how society, communities, and stakeholders view mistakes and negligence.

Yet, very seldom are the risks physical (Wilson, 2015). Within this context, the risks of using survey and interview questions may be less obvious to identify in comparison to other types of research (Wilson, 2015). Therefore, the risks will not be as harmful within the forecasting and completing the research. The goal was to minimize harm. Also, when a study exposed subjects to whom there is no justification, in comparison to does that not exposed to harm. There were protocols to followed using third-party survey companies and choosing the appropriate format for storage and data retrieval was confidential (St. Andrews University, 2017). For example, Survey Monkey used the Safe Harbor agreement; then it is necessary to understand the stipulations in the contract. The researcher included a risk assessment at the inception phase of the dissertation. Furthermore, it was necessary to adopt several steps to avoid any potential harm during the process. Additionally, to mitigate risk to participants, the researcher submitted to Northcentral University Institutional Review Board ensured the safety of participants and the protection of their rights. In general, the researcher communicated with members involved in the research project in acquiring an understanding of any potential harms that could exist. If any plausible harms were detected, an examination of the harm was necessary and ensured that the harm was inevitable.

Privacy and Confidentiality. Participants' privacy and confidentiality were important in this study. Although, privacy has increased in comparison to previous years; it was imperative to ensure participants that their privacy and confidentiality were safeguarded during this research. Privacy posed ethical inquiries when conducting research due to the sensitive nature of collecting data. Privacy was essential since the method of the collection of data from individuals or groups was an online environment (Resnik, Neal, Raymond, & Kissling, 2015). Currently, privacy was a sensitive topic to be considered throughout the scheme of the research. While the investigation continues, one important key was that the researcher did not impose on participants' privacy (Resnick et al., 2015). The researcher protected the data using password code and will dispose of it after seven years by deleting the file used in this research.

Informed Consent. According to Resnik et al. (2015), the standard rule of effort is the applicability of protection is only to a human subject or individual participant in research. Although, the researcher study involves unidentified participants a consent is necessary from participants. Additionally, complete information was disclosed to the participants before agreeing to partake in the investigation study. Consent means that the researcher provided participants with an option to participate or not to participate in the study and participants accepted (CITI, 2017). Participants' misperception lessened by providing clear instructions to eliminate any uncertainty. The consent form was written in plain language for comprehension purpose and included in Appendix C.

Summary

This quantitative study contributed to the body of knowledge by examining the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership. One might argue that the instrumental dimensions of justice

constructs deserve attention as separate, as well as their differences, exist in how each construct provided a context for studying organizational behaviors. That is to say; the social exchange processes imbue within organizations influences individuals' attitudes and group behaviors, including job performance, ethical leadership, organizational behavior, organizational commitment, citizenship as indicators of effectiveness (Cloutier & Benoit, 2015; Johnson et al., 2014; Schminke et al., 2015).

As justice utility as a predictor of innovative work behavior and transformational leadership, past researches have centered within one or three aspects of organizational justice rather than a more focused measure of the four dimensions of organizational justice. Utilizing this approach was to identify the various influence of innovation behavior and transformational leadership and how these relationships transformed each other. Previous research on organizational justice and individual factors have been investigated, and these results showed the relationship between innovation and perceived justice and the willingness of employees to express their ideas or thoughts which drives innovation (Momeni et al., 2014; Suliman, 2013; Usmani & Jamal, 2013). Although leadership is experiencing some gradual change, is to shift the ideals to a more collaborative style (Zhen et al., 2014).

The researcher designed this quantitative research study to determine whether there was a significant and measurable relationship between organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership. Presented a unique opportunity to study this phenomenon because no other studies have empirically tested the relationship between organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership. This research adds to the body of knowledge of human resources management practices in areas of gender, leadership, innovation, and organizational justice theory.

Chapter 4: Findings

The purpose of this quantitative non-experimental, correlational study was to examine the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership after controlling for gender in management level professionals in the United States. Specifically, the study purpose was to observe gender differences in innovative work behavior and organizational justice in leadership to examine whether women experience the same levels of fair treatment and work behaviors compared to men and whether gender is predictive on transformational leadership.

I chose a quantitative design study utilizing a correlation method with hierarchical multiple regression analyses when comparing predictor variables perceptions of organizational justice and innovative work behaviors, with the criterion variable of transformational leadership (Field, 2017). The variables for this study were: (a) gender (control variable) (b) distributive justice, (c) procedural justice, (d) interpersonal justice, and (e) informational justice; (f) innovative work behavior, (as predictor variables); and (g) transformational leadership (as the criterion variables).

Using a convenience sampling technique, with invitations to management-level business professionals working in the United States were requested, and 61 participated in the study. Demographic data are presented first, followed by the results of each of the research questions. Additional analysis in the form of independent t-tests using the study variable of gender to identify if significant differences between gender as it related to, organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership style. Hierarchical multiple regression (HMR) analyses evaluated the effect of organizational justice, innovative work behavior on transformational leadership relationships.

This chapter presents the data collection and analysis to answer four research questions addressed in Chapter 1. The chapter includes two main sections: (a) the findings of the study, and (b) the evaluation of findings. The summary of the results will end the chapter.

Validity and Reliability of the Data

This study aimed at examining the relationship between organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership. Before using multiple correlation models on the above relationships, the gathered data from management-level business professionals working in various organizations in the United States to examine the reliability of the measurement's scales. The validity and reliability of the present study are provided in Table 1. Cronbach's alpha was performed to test the reliability of six scales of the three instruments used to measure the variables in this study. The OJ construct consisted of 20 items represented (a) distributive justice $\alpha = .95$, (b) interpersonal justice $\alpha = .91$, (c) informational justice $\alpha = .92$, (d) procedural justice $\alpha = .91$. IWB consisted of ten items $\alpha = .88$. The outcome of transformational leadership MLQX5 subscales consisted of 8 items with $\alpha = .78$.

Table 1 displays the results of Cronbach's alpha tests. Cronbach's alpha value is from .70 and above is considered acceptable internal reliability (Field 2017; Wilson & Joye, 2017). The Cronbach's alpha values of all six scales were greater than .70, indicating all scales had reliability. The results of Cronbach's Alpha ranged between .78 and .91 are considered adequate for this research (Field, 2017).

Table 1

Cronbach's Alpha of Six Scales (N=61)

Variable	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Distributive justice	.95	4
Interpersonal justice	.91	4
Informational justice	.92	5
Procedural justice	.91	7
Innovative work behavior	.88	10
Transformational leadership	.78	8

Results

The responses received during the data collection period from July 5, 2018, through August 5, 2018, produced the data presented in tables. Also, for analysis of quantitative data mean and standard deviation were used. Pearson correlation analysis was used for assessment of the relationships among various scales. Statistical significance was considered at P value ≤ 0.05 .

Participant demographic information. A total of 61 persons participated in this study. The survey for this study was created and disseminated employing SurveyMonkey, an online survey tool. A post hoc test of G*Power 3.1 was used to determine the achieved power level of the sample (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). Given the small sample, a post hoc test indicated there was enough power to detect either a Type I or Type II error, or not finding a difference when a relationship exists (see Appendix G). The results of four research questions and hypotheses are documented to include the corresponding histogram, scatterplot and summary analysis.

Demographic Characteristics

The demographic data of the sample are displayed in Table 2. Four demographic variables collected include gender, position, ethnicity, and education of the participants. For gender, 54% of the sample were female, 44% were male participants, and 2% did not answer the gender question. Table 2 indicates the frequency and percentages of the individual characteristics.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Demographics of the Sample

Variable		Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender	No Answer	1	1.6
	Female	33	54.1
	Male	27	44.3
	Total	61	100.0
Position	Executive	17	27.9
	Director	10	16.4
	Manager	14	23.0
	Supervisor	11	18.0
	Team Leader	4	6.6
	Work Group Leader	3	4.9
	Others	2	3.3
	Total	61	100.0
	Ethnicity	West Indian	1
White		37	60.7
Black		12	19.7
Hispanic		9	14.8
Mixed		2	3.3
Total		61	100.0
Education	Doctoral degree	6	9.8
	Master's degree	20	32.8
	Bachelor's degree	21	34.4
	Associate degree	8	13.1
	High School diploma	5	8.2
	No Answer	1	1.6
	Total	61	100.0

Note. N=61

The descriptive statistics for age and tenure of participants are displayed in Table 3. The ages of the participants range from 29 to 69 years of age with an average age of 48.82 and a standard deviation of 10.06. The tenure of participants ranges from 1 to 38 years with an average of 13.61 years and a standard deviation of 10.05.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Age and Tenure

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age	29	69	48.82	10.06
Tenure	1	38	13.61	10.05

Note. M: mean; SD: standard deviation.

Descriptive statistics for independent and dependent variables. The 20 items from the OJS, ten items from IWB, and eight items from MLQX5 were added together to create a composite of 38 scores. The descriptive statistics of the independent and dependent variables examined before hypothesis testing, the results in Table 4. The level of a variable measured from 1 to 5. The mean of transformational leadership was 4.28. It reveals the level of leadership is more transformational than the norm. Lower scores would reflect less transformational than the norm (Avolio & Bass, 1995). Innovative work behavior mean was 4.17 there is no cut off scores. The high scores indicate high innovative work and reciprocally (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010). For organizational justice with the four constructs scoring system can be interpreted as higher scores reflect the higher perceived amount of the type of fairness and lower scores reflect the lower perceived amount of that type of fairness (Colquitt, 2001).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of Independent and Dependent Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Transformational leadership (TL)	4.28	.47
Innovative work behavior (IWB)	4.17	.58
Procedural justice (PRJ)	3.73	.79
Distributive justice (DIJ)	3.90	.85
Interpersonal justice (IPJ)	4.20	.77
Informational justice (INJ)	3.70	.81

Note. M: mean; SD: standard deviation.

Preliminary Analyses

The preliminary analyses were carried out ensuring the assumptions of the planned analysis of multiple linear regression were met. As were assumptions of: (a) linearity of the relationships between the dependent and predictor variables, (b) The independence of the residual errors, (c) residuals are approximately normally distributed, (d) homoscedasticity or equal variance of the errors across observations, (e) non-significant multicollinearity, and (f) no significant outliers in the data introduce bias in the estimation (Field, 2017; Wilson & Joye, 2017). In assessing the assumption of linearity, scatter plots were used to examine the relationship between the dependent variable and each of the predictors.

Correlations among independent and dependent variables. Pearson correlations were performed to tests the relationships among independent and dependent variables. Pearson correlation analysis showed all five independent variables significantly correlated with transformational leadership ($p < .001$). The correlation among five independent variables and

transformational leadership were positive and medium (r from .38 to .65). The control variables of gender did not significantly correlate with transformational leadership ($p > .05$)

Table 5

Correlations among Independent Variables, Control Variable, and Transformational Leadership

		Gender	IWB	PRJ	DIJ	IPJ	INJ
r	Transformational Leadership	-.05	.65	.60	.38	.58	.53
P		.35	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000

Assumption Testing

Normality test of the dependent variable. Before performing parametric tests, normality check of the dependent variable of transformational leadership was conducted. Both statistical and graphical tests were used. A visual inspection of the histograms for the transformational leadership variable was made to determine if the shape of the distributions were shaped normally. The transformational leadership variable was shaped normally. First, the mean and the 5% trimmed mean of the transformational leadership were compared. The descriptive statistics of the dependent variable, as shown in Table 6, suggested that the mean and the 5% trimmed mean of the transformational leadership variable was slightly different (4.28 and 4.29), indicating that there were no extreme scores. The skewness and kurtosis values of the transformational leadership variable were also within a range from -1 to +1; therefore, the assumption of normality of the transformational leadership variable was not violated. According to Field (2017) direction, the distribution characteristics for the TFL (dependent variable) was acceptable concerning skewness (< 1) and kurtosis (< 2), (Field, 2017).

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Transformational Leadership

		Statistic	Std. Error
Voluntary turnover	<i>M</i>	4.28	.06
	5% Trimmed mean	4.29	
	<i>SD</i>	.46	
	Skewness	-.07	.31
	Kurtosis	-.81	.60

Note. M= mean.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics was also checked. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics is appropriate to analyze the convenience sampling with two or three dimensions (Field, 2017; Wilson & Joye, 2017). Table 7 shows that the significance level value of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was greater than .05, suggesting that the assumption of normality of transformational leadership was not violated. The null hypothesis of the dependent variable of transformational leadership was normally distributed was not rejected.

Table 7

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Transformational Leadership

Variable	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
	Statistic	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
TL	.08	61	.20

Visual analyses were conducted to test linearity and heteroscedasticity assumptions respectively. Scatterplots were created and visually inspected for each independent and dependent variable to test the assumption of linearity of the variables (Field, 2017). Further,

graphical tests were performed to test the normality of the transformational leadership variable. The histograms, normal Q-Q plots, and box plot were displayed in Figures 2 to 4. These graphs showed that there is no extreme case in the sample and suggested that the assumption of normality of the transformational leadership variable was not violated.

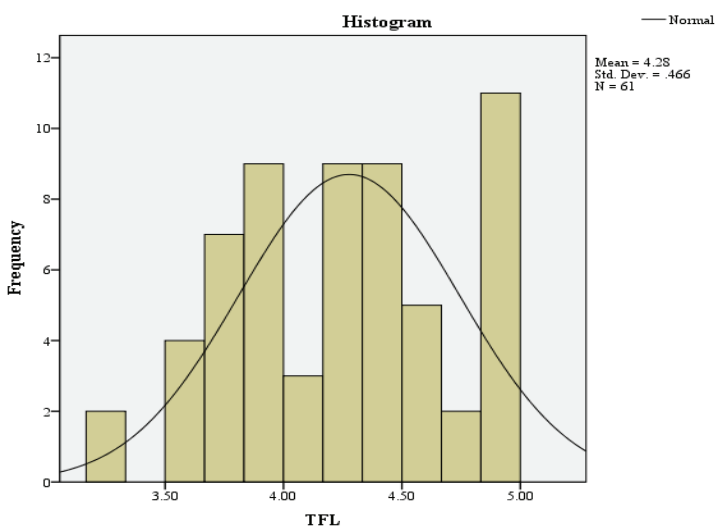


Figure 2. Histogram Bi-Modal of Transformational Leadership

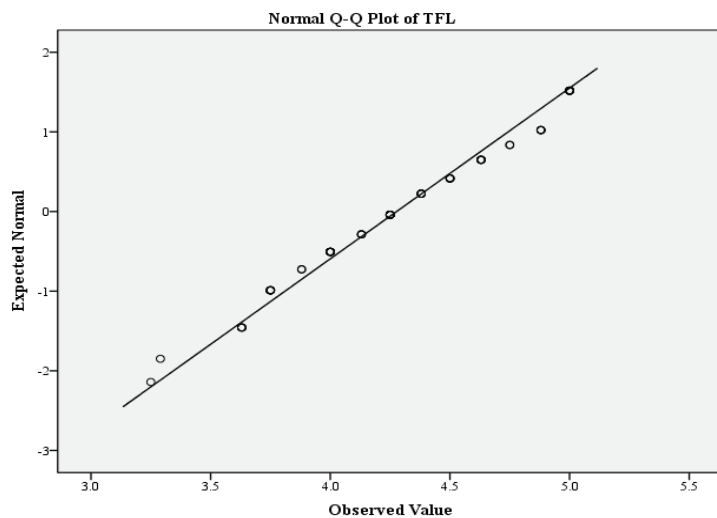


Figure 3. Normal Q-Q Plot of Transformational Leadership Variable.

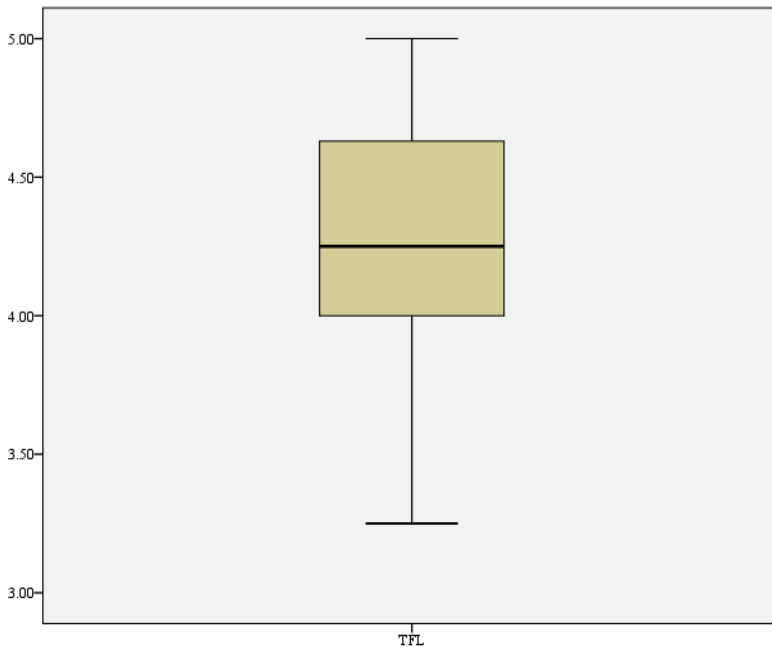


Figure 4. Box Plot of Transformational Leadership Variable.

Assumptions of multiple regression. The assumptions of multiple regression include outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, independence of residuals, and multicollinearity. The normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residual and the scatterplot were used to test outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, independence of residuals. The histogram of regression standardized residual showed that the distribution of residuals was normal (Figure 5). The normal P-P plot showed that the points were in a reasonably straight diagonal line, suggesting that there were no major deviations from normality (Figure 6). In the scatter plot of the standardized residuals presented in (Figure 7), the residuals were roughly rectangularly distributed with most of the scores concentrated in the center, which also supported the normality of residuals. The presence of outliers was checked from the scatter plot with standardized residual values of more than 3.3 or less than -3.3 . No standardized residual was out of the range from -3.3 to $+3.3$ suggesting no outlier existed.

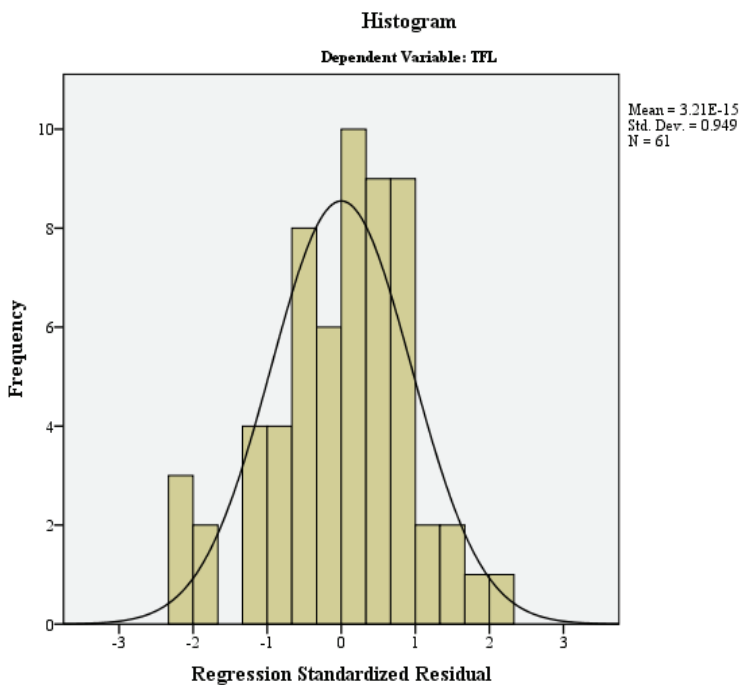


Figure 5. Histogram of the Regression Standardized Residual of Transformational Leadership.

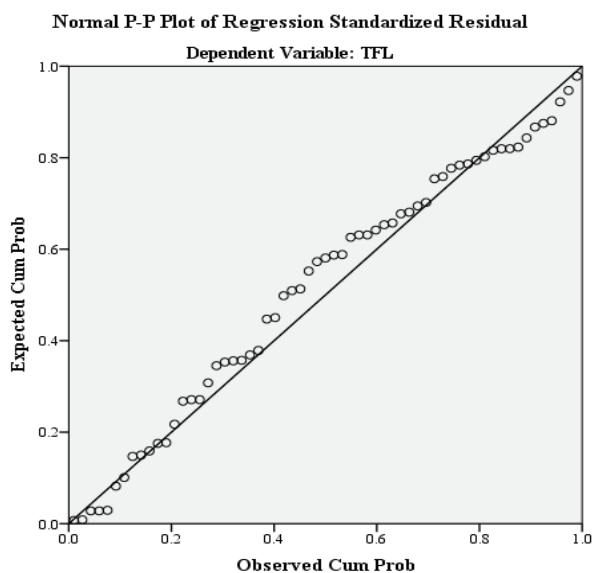


Figure 6. Normal P-P Plot of The Regression Standardized Residual of Transformational Leadership Variable.

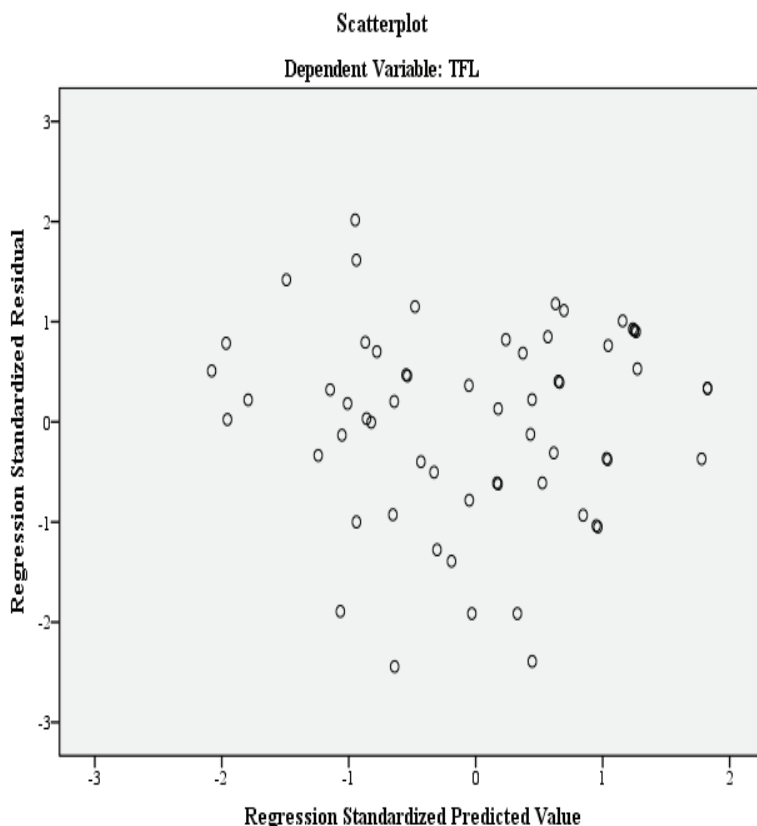


Figure 7. Scatterplot of the Standardized Residuals for Transformational Leadership Variable.

The presence of significant outliers in a data set can create bias in the results of a regression model (Field, 2017). A test for significant outliers was performed using Mahalanobis distance score. The residual statistics for transformational leadership variable was also checked with two values, Mahalanobis distance and Cook's distance to assess for outliers. The critical value of Mahalanobis distance for six predictor variables is 22.46 (Field, 2017; Wilson & Joye, 2017). Table 7 displays the Mahalanobis distance and Cook's distance values. The maximum value of Mahalanobis distance for transformational leadership variable was 20.29 is less than the critical value of 22.46 suggesting no outlier existed. Further, the maximum Cook's distance was .17 that is less than 1 indicating no problem with outlier occurred.

Table 8

Residual Statistics for Transformational Leadership

	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Mahal. Distance	1.29	20.29	5.90	3.69
Cook's distance	.000	.17	.02	.03

Note. *M*: mean; *SD*: standard deviation.

Collinearity diagnostics were also conducted to test the assumption of multicollinearity of the independent variables with two values: tolerance and VIF. If the tolerance value is less than .10, and VIF value is greater than 10, there is a possibility of multicollinearity (Field, 2017). Refer to Table 9 for the results that display the collinearity statistics of the independent variables. The tolerance values are greater than .10, and the VIF values were less than 10. Therefore, the multicollinearity assumption was not violated.

Table 9

Collinearity Statistics of Independent Variables

Independent Variable	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	<i>VIF</i>
Gender	.92	1.09
IWB	.57	1.70
DIJ	.43	2.35
PRJ	.28	3.61
IPJ	.37	2.73
INJ	.40	2.50

Note. *VIF* = variable inflation factor.

Research Question 1 and Hypotheses for this study are as follows:

Q1. After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of distributive justice (DIJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?

H1₀. After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of distributive justice (DIJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

H1_a. After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of distributive justice (DIJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to determine whether perceptions of distributive justice (DIJ), innovative work behavior (IWB) predicted transformational leadership, after controlling for gender. The model summary of the hierarchical multiple regression for transformational leadership is displayed in Table 10.

Table 10

Model Summary of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Gender, IWB, DIJ, and Transformational Leadership

Predictor	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	Adjusted <i>R</i> ²	Std. error of the Estimate
Gender	.05	.003	-.01	.47
Gender, IWB, and DIJ	.68	.46	.44	.35

In the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, gender was entered in step 1. When gender was entered, these two variables explained 0.3% of the variance in transformational leadership scores. Innovative work behavior and distributive justice (DIJ) were entered in step 2.

Table 11

Change Statistics of Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Gender, IWB, DIJ, and Transformational Leadership

Predictor	R^2 change	F change	df1	df2	p F change
Gender	.003	.16	1	59	.69
Gender, IWB, and DIJ	.46	24.62	2	57	.000

When innovative work behavior and distributive justice (DIJ) entered, the total variance explained 46%, $F(3, 57) = 16.51, p < .001$. The combination of innovative work behavior and distributive justice (DIJ) explained an additional 46% of the variance in transformational leadership after controlling for gender, R^2 change = .46, F change (2, 57) = 24.62, $p < .001$. The results suggested that the combination of innovative work behavior and distributive justice (DIJ) significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender.

Table 12

ANOVA Table for Gender, IWB, DIJ, and Transformational Leadership

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
1	Regression	.03	1	.03	.16	.69
	Residual	13.01	59	.22		
	Total	13.05	60			
2	Regression	6.07	3	2.02	16.51	.000
	Residual	6.98	57	.12		
	Total	13.05	60			

In the final model (Table 13), distributive justice (DIJ) significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender ($\beta = .22, t = 2.14, p < .05$). Innovative work behavior significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender (β

= .58, $t = 5.73$, $p < .001$). Therefore, the null hypothesis 1 ($H1_0$) was rejected. After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of distributive justice (DIJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X). The alternative hypothesis 1 ($H1_a$) was accepted. After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of distributive justice (DIJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

Table 13

Coefficient Table for Gender, IWB, DIJ, and Transformational Leadership

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
		B	Std. Error	β		
1	(Constant)	4.34	.17		25.02	.000
	Gender	-.05	.11	-.05	-.40	.69
2	(Constant)	1.95	.36		5.33	.000
	Gender	-.05	.08	-.05	-.56	.58
	IWB	.46	.08	.58	5.73	.000
	DIJ	.12	.06	.22	2.14	.04

The overarching research question is the following:

Q1: After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of organizational justice (OJS), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?

To address the central research question, three research subquestions were generated.

Research subquestion Q1₁ and Hypotheses are as follows:

Q11. After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of procedural justice (PRJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?

H11,0. After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of procedural justice (PRJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

H11,a. After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of procedural justice (PRJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to determine whether perceptions of procedural justice (PRJ), innovative work behavior (IWB) predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender. The model summary of the hierarchical multiple regression for transformational leadership is displayed in Table 14.

Table 14

Model Summary of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Gender, IWB, PRJ, and Transformational Leadership

Predictor	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	Adjusted <i>R</i> ²	Std. error of the Estimate
Gender	.05 ^a	.003	-.01	.47
Gender, IWB, and PRJ	.72 ^b	.52	.49	.33

Note. a=Predictors: (Constant), Gender; b=Predictors: (Constant), Gender, IWB; PRJ; Dependent Variable: TFL

In the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, gender was entered in step 1. When gender was entered, these two variables explained 0.3% of the variance in transformational leadership scores. Innovative work behavior and procedural justice (PRJ) were entered in step 2.

Table 15

Change Statistics of Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Gender, IWB, PRJ, and Transformational Leadership

Predictor	R^2 change	F change	$df1$	$df2$	p F change
Gender	.003	.16	1	59	.69
Gender, IWB, and PRJ	.51	30.23	2	57	.000

When innovative work behavior and procedural justice were entered, the total variance explained 52%, $F(3, 57) = 20.26, p < .001$. The combination of innovative work behavior and procedural justice explained an additional 51% of the variance in transformational leadership after controlling for gender, R^2 change = .51, F change (2, 57) = 30.23, $p < .001$. The results suggested that the combination of innovative work behavior and procedural justice significantly predicted transformational leadership, after controlling for gender.

Table 16

ANOVA Table for Gender, IWB, PRJ, and Transformational Leadership

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
1	Regression	.03	1	.03	.16	.69 ^b
	Residual	13.01	59	.22		
	Total	13.05	60			
2	Regression	6.73	3	2.24	20.26	.000 ^c
	Residual	6.31	57	.11		
	Total	13.05	60			

Note: a=Dependent Variable: TFL; b=Predictors: Gender; c= Predictors: Gender, IWB, PRJ.

In the final model (Table 17), procedural justice significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender ($\beta = .38, t = 3.33, p < .002$). Innovative work behavior significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender ($\beta = .44, t = 3.89, p < .001$). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{1,0}$) was rejected. After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of procedural justice (PRJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X). The alternative hypothesis ($H_{1,a}$) was accepted. After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of procedural justice (PRJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

Table 17

Coefficient Table for Gender, IWB, PRJ, and Transformational Leadership

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	β	T	P
1	(Constant)	4.34	.17		25.02	.000
	Gender	-.05	.11	-.05	-.40	.69
2	(Constant)	2.12	.33		6.35	.000
	Gender	-.09	.08	-.10	-1.06	.29
	PRJ	.22	.07	.38	3.33	.002
	IWB	.35	.09	.44	3.89	.000

Research subquestion Q1₂ and Hypotheses are as follows:

Q1₂. After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of interpersonal justice (IPJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?

H1_{2,0}. After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of interpersonal justice (IPJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

H1_{2,a}. After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of interpersonal justice (IPJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to determine whether perceptions of interpersonal justice (IPJ), innovative work behavior (IWB) predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender. The model summary of the hierarchical multiple regression for transformational leadership is displayed in Table 18.

Table 18

Model Summary of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Gender, IWB, IPJ, and Transformational Leadership

Predictor	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	Adjusted <i>R</i> ²	Std. error of the Estimate
Gender	.05	.003	-.01	.47
Gender, IWB, and IPJ	.71	.51	.48	.33

In the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, gender was entered in step 1. When gender was entered, these two variables explained 0.3% of the variance in transformational leadership scores. Innovative work behavior and interpersonal justice (IPJ) were entered in step 2.

Table 19

Change Statistics of Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Gender, IWB, IPJ, and Transformational Leadership

Predictor	R^2 change	F change	$df1$	$df2$	p F change
Gender	.003	.16	1	59	.69
Gender, IWB, and IPJ	.51	29.57	2	57	.000

When innovative work behavior and interpersonal justice (IPJ) entered, the total variance explained 51%, $F(3, 57) = 19.82, p < .001$. The combination of innovative work behavior and interpersonal justice (IPJ) explained an additional 51% of the variance in transformational leadership after controlling for gender, R^2 change = .51, F change (2, 57) = 29.57, $p < .001$. The results suggested that the combination of innovative work behavior and interpersonal justice (IPJ) significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender.

Table 20

ANOVA Table for Gender, IWB, IPJ, and Transformational Leadership

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
1	Regression	.03	1	.03	.16	.69
	Residual	13.01	59	.22		
	Total	13.05	60			
2	Regression	6.66	3	2.22	19.82	.00
	Residual	6.39	57	.11		
	Total	13.05	60			

In the final model (Table 21), interpersonal justice (IPJ) significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender ($\beta = .36, t = 3.21, p < .05$). Innovative

work behavior significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender ($\beta = .45, t = 4.08, p < .001$). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{12,0}$) was rejected after controlling for gender. There is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of interpersonal justice (IPJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X). The alternative hypothesis ($H_{12,a}$) was accepted. After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of interpersonal justice (IPJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

Table 21

Coefficient Table for Gender, IWB, IPJ, and Transformational Leadership

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	β	T	P
1	(Constant)	4.34	.17		25.02	.000
	Gender	-.05	.11	-.05	-.40	.69
2	(Constant)	1.98	.34		5.83	.000
	Gender	-.09	.08	-.10	-1.03	.31
	IWB	.36	.09	.45	4.08	.000
	IJP	.22	.07	.36	3.21	.002

Research subquestion Q1₃ and Hypotheses are as follows:

- Q1₃.** After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of informational justice (INJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?

H13,0. After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of informational justice (INJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

H13,a. After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of informational justice (INJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to determine whether perceptions of informational justice (INJ), innovative work behavior (IWB) predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender. The model summary of the hierarchical multiple regression for transformational leadership is displayed in Table 22.

Table 22

Model Summary of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Gender, IWB, INJ, and Transformational Leadership

Predictor	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	Adjusted <i>R</i> ²	Std. error of the Estimate
Gender	.05	.003	-.01	.47
Gender, IWB, and INJ	.72	.52	.49	.33

In the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, gender was entered in step 1. When gender was entered, these two variables explained 0.3% of the variance in transformational leadership scores. Innovative work behavior and informational justice (INJ) were entered in step 2.

Table 23

Change Statistics of Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Gender, IWB, INJ, and Transformational Leadership

Predictor	R^2 change	F change	$df1$	$df2$	p F change
Gender	.003	.16	1	59	.69
Gender, IWB, and INJ	.52	30.85	2	57	.000

Note. df =Degree of Freedom

When innovative work behavior and informational justice (INJ) entered, the total variance explained 52%, $F(3, 57) = 20.67, p < .001$. The combination of innovative work behavior and informational justice (INJ) explained an additional 52% of the variance in transformational leadership after controlling for gender, R^2 change = .52, F change (2, 57) = 30.85, $p < .001$. The results suggested that the combination of innovative work behavior and informational justice (INJ) significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender.

Table 24

ANOVA Table for Gender, IWB, INJ, and Transformational Leadership

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
1	Regression	.03	1	.03	.16	.69
	Residual	13.01	59	.22		
	Total	13.05	60			
2	Regression	6.80	3	2.27	20.67	.000
	Residual	6.25	57	.11		
	Total	13.05	60			

In this final model (Table 25), informational justice (INJ) significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender ($\beta = .35, t = 3.43, p < .05$). Innovative work behavior significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender ($\beta = .51, t = 5.08, p < .001$). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{13,0}$) was rejected after controlling for gender there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of informational justice (INJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X). However, the alternative hypothesis ($H_{13,a}$) was accepted. After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of informational justice (INJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

Table 25

Coefficient Table for Gender, IWB, INJ, and Transformational Leadership

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	β	T	P
1	(Constant)	4.34	.17		25.02	.000
	Gender	-.05	.11	-.05	-.40	.69
2	(Constant)	1.96	.34		5.80	.000
	Gender	-.08	.08	-.09	-.97	.34
	IWB	.40	.08	.51	5.08	.000
	INJ	.20	.06	.35	3.43	.001

Evaluation of Findings

The conceptual framework for this study as described in Figure 1, was a combination of gender, organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership theory.

Data were collected online via Survey Monkey on a secured server consisting OJ items from

(Colquitt, 2001), IWB questions (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010), and TFL items from the MLQ-5X (Avolio & Bass, 2004). In the context of this quantitative correlation study, the results are related to the perceptions of the participants that represented the management-level business professional of the study group. In this section, the findings from this quantitative correlation study were evaluated. The survey was sent to 250 qualified participants, with 61 participants completing the survey. For gender, 54% of the sample were female, 44% were male participants, and 2% did not answer the gender question. These test results were presented above for both the dependent variable (transformational leadership style) and outcomes of leadership, and the independent variable (gender, organizational justice, and innovative work behavior).

Organizational justice theory would suggest that employees expect their workplace experiences to be fair and judge their relationships with the organizations they serve using justice as an essential foundation (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1990a, 1990b). The correlation analysis of the five independent variables (distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice, and innovative work behavior), has a significant correlation with transformational leadership ($p < .001$). However, the control variable of gender did not significantly correlate with transformational leadership ($p > .05$). In other words, the correlation between the five independent variables and transformational leadership were positive to a medium correlation (r from .38 to .65). In addition, the findings reveal a remarkable result on the four constructs of organizational justice on transformational leadership. All four variables had significantly predicted transformational leadership. The findings of this study are consistent in part with the findings of Deschamps et al. (2016), who found that procedural and interactional justice were influenced by transformational leadership. Also, the correlations reported with procedural and interactional justice were affected by follower's work motivation. However, distributive justice

was the least influenced by followers' work motivation (Deschamps, et al., 2016). In a similar study, by Akram et al. (2016), the analysis indicated that OJ overall had a strong and positive correlation on EIWB. Also, Momeni et al. (2014) conclusions revealed a strong correlation between distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice with EIWB. As suggested by the results of this study, distributive justice was the weakest value ($r = .38, p < 0.001$), procedural, ($r = .60, p < 0.001$), interpersonal ($r = .58 p < 0.001$), informational $r = .53 p < 0.001$.) and innovative work behavior ($r = .65 p < .001$). The findings of these analyses suggested that all forms of organizational justice are correlated with employee innovative work behavior on transformational leadership.

An employee's innovative work behavior supposes going beyond the choice of basic job requirements and responsibilities (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010). Innovative work behavior was significantly related to transformational leadership. Thus, this is in line with de Jong, and den Hartog (2010) posited that transformational leadership could arouse employee innovative work behavior (Jansen, 2000, 2004). Furthermore, the findings are consistent with Ariyani, and Hidayati (2018) demonstrated that transformational leadership significantly predicted innovative behavior, in which work engagement moderated a relationship with transformational leadership on innovative behavior. By proxy, these studies showed a relationship between transformational leadership and innovative behavior.

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationships between perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior and transformational leadership. Results in this research were considered statistically significant if significance levels were less than .05. The results of Pearson correlation analysis showed that all

five independent variables significantly correlated with transformational leadership ($p < .001$). The correlation between five independent variables and transformational leadership were positive and medium (r from .38 to .65). The control variables of gender did not significantly correlate with transformational leadership ($p > .05$). However, results of the hierarchical analysis also suggested that IWB, DIJ, PRJ, IPJ, and INJ were a predictor of transformational leadership. These findings show that innovative work behavior as a mediating variable will influence transformational leadership. Also, distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice will influence transformational leadership. Thus, it is presumably assumed that it is necessary to apply transformational leadership styles to increase and improve innovative employee behavior. As well as to improve organizational justice in the workplace environment. For management organizational justice plays a key role in the positive link with transformational leadership.

Chapter 5: Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusions

Established in previous research are various outcomes of organizational justice, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention (Czarnota-Bojarska, 2015; Nasurdin et al., 2014). Researchers have revealed the practical, constructive results of organizational justice through work outcomes on attitudes and behaviors. Some of these results, included ethical leadership, organizational behavior, organizational commitment, and job performance have been established in the scholarship of organizational investigation (Cloutier & Benoit, 2015; Johnson et al., 2014; Schminke et al., 2015).

The problem addressed in this study was that little was known about the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership after controlling for gender in management level business professionals in the United States. A quantitative methodology was chosen as the appropriate style for this research and followed other survey-based studies, which were designed to examine these variables (Colquitt, 2001; EdDinAbou-Ela, 2014; Enoksen & Sandal, 2015). This study's objective was to assess whether there is a significant and measurable relationship between six independent variables and one dependent variable on management-level business professionals working in the United States. The research study provides insights on predictor variables of organizational justices with its four schemes (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice) and innovative work behavior, and the criterion variable transformational leadership.

The results of the Pearson correlation analysis showed that all five independent variables significantly correlated with transformational leadership ($p < .001$). Distributive justice was the weakest prediction of transformational leadership ($r = .38, p < .001$), procedural, ($r = .60, p < .001$), interpersonal ($r = .58 p < .001$), informational ($r = .53 p < .001$), and innovative work

behavior ($r = .65$ $p < .001$). On the other hand, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice were found to have a significant prediction on transformational leadership. As a result, innovative work behavior was the highest value predicting transformational leadership.

Therefore, those with high innovative work behavior prefer a transformational leadership style. Momeni et al. (2014) conclusions revealed a strong correlation between distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice with EIWB. Also, the results indicated that gender did not significantly correlate with transformational leadership. In other words, the correlation between the five independent variables and transformational leadership were a positive and medium effect. This chapter includes a discussion of implications, recommendations for the application of this study, along with suggestions for future research and the conclusion.

Implications

The findings of this study have many theoretical implications for researchers and management. This study provided empirical evidence of the relationships between organizational justice scheme, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership on a sample of 61 participants. However, having a small sample size is noted. See (Table 2 and 3) for a complete demographic breakdown of the sample. Data were collected using a combined survey administered by Survey Monkey. A quantitative correlation multiple regression model was used to answer the research questions and associated hypotheses. The regression analyses confirmed that innovative work behavior and distributive justice explained 46% variance in transformational leadership scores and significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender. The results showed that innovative work behavior and procedural justice explained 52% variance in transformation leadership scores and significantly predicted transformational leadership. Also, the findings showed that innovative work behavior and

interpersonal justice accounted for 51% variance in transformational leadership. Additionally, the results showed that innovative work behavior and informational justice had 52% variance on transformational leadership. However, these findings still indicated that a large amount of variance is inexplicable by transformational leadership signifying that other factors such as communication, trust, ethical leadership, may contribute to employees' negative behavior. Conversely, innovation strategy could be a factor in the variance that signifies further investigation on psychological empowerment antecedents between innovative work behavior and transformational leadership is needed.

This result is in alignment with previous research findings that innovative behavior is not determined solely by employees' perceptions of their leader's influence rather is also affected by other organizational variables such as innovative climate (Suliman, 2013). Furthermore, the results from this study contributed to organizational justice four dimensions consistent with Colquitt's (2001) empirical findings in support of the four dimensions of organizational justice. Concerning which leader behaviors influence which justice dimensions and consistent with prior researchers (Colquit et al. 2001; EldinAboul-Ela, 2014; Enoksen & Sandal 2015; Greenberg, 1993; Monemi et al., 2014). Likewise, the results from responses recorded from participants self-reported can lead to validity issues due to common-method bias or variance, such as social desirability. Although attempts were made to mitigate these concerns by protecting subject anonymity, ensuring clear scale items for the predictor and criterion measures.

RQ1. After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?

H1_{1,0}. After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of organizational justice (OJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

H1_{1,a}. After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of organizational justice (OJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

Although distributive justice was the weakest on transformational leadership, these results are consistent with prior empirical researchers such as Akram et al. (2016); while distributive justice only had an indirect effect on IWB. Also, distributive justice was the least influenced by followers' work motivation (Descamps et al., 2016). While Özbek et al. (2016) findings also revealed distributive justice was the weakest on OCB relationships. Furthermore, the results of this study clarify the information that when employees perceive unfairness in the distribution of tasks and outcomes while making organizational decisions, they are less inclined to perform towards the organization goals based on transformational leadership. Employees tend to link the fairness of the distribution to either positive or negative feelings of satisfaction impacting the organization. Negative feelings could decrease the bottom line of the organization, by way of productivity when the employee's performance decreased, and most likely will decrease organizational performance and productivity (Wu et al., 2014), thus making them more likely to leave. Furthermore, employees expect their workplace experiences to be fair and judge their organizational relationships with the transformational leadership using justice as an essential foundation (Loosemore & Lim, 2016; Özbek et al., 2016; Rahman et al., 2016).

Q11. After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of procedural justice (PRJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?

H11,0. After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of procedural justice (PRJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

H11,a. After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of procedural justice (PRJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

Procedural justice significantly predicted transformational leadership ($\beta = .38, t=3.33, p = < .002$). The higher the value of procedural justice, the higher the perceived fairness of procedural justice by employees. This finding would suggest that leadership provides some assurance on organizational procedures and policies (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015). Also, for employee's having the ability to express their views has been shown to increase procedural justice. Having a voice reinforced the inverse relationship between a subjective performance review to some extent to improve the outcome of the decisions (Colquitt, 2001, Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg 1986). However, a strong supervisor/subordinate relationship was found to weaken the relationship. Dissatisfaction with the performance process is linked to less commitment to the organization, and likely amplified emotions to quit (Dusterhoff et al., 2013, Shin et al., 2015; Zhen et al., 2014). Also, Johnson et al. (2014) found that perceptions of procedural injustice predicted the increase chance of irregular and sometimes destructive behavior. This finding is consistent with the well-established principle that unfairness will be felt more when distributed rewards are low because of low evaluation procedure score will trigger

employees' negative incentive (Greenberg 1993). This discovery contradicts the findings of Choi and Sai (2013), their study indicated procedural justice had the strongest measure and predicted higher employee retention rates and loyalty. Also, the result of this study is consistent with Hsu and Wang (2015) who study showed positive correlations with idea generation between distributive, procedural and interactional justice. The findings are consistent with the theoretical framework for this research and provided further evidence to support the theory.

Overall, the results of this study contribute to organizational justice and innovative work behavior theories by understanding which organizational justice dimension influences relationships between transformational leadership. Procedural and interpersonal justice dimension may be more influential than distributive justice dimension for explaining transformational relationships. These findings also expand on and support theoretical constructs in transformational leadership and organizational justice theories. Equally, innovative work behavior had a significant effect on transformational leadership ($\beta = .44, t = 3.89, p < .001$). Suliman (2013) suggested that the presence of a positive perception of justice makes it easier to determine employee behavior and attitudes. While a negative climate or uncondusive work climate with mistrust, injustice, and arguments, in general, will predispose employees' readiness to innovate (Suliman, 2013), and most likely will decrease their performance and productivity (Wu et al., 2014), thus making them more likely to leave.

RQ1₂. After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of interpersonal justice (IPJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?

H12,0. After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of interpersonal justice (IPJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

H12,a. After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of interpersonal justice (IPJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

The results reveal that interpersonal justice (IPJ) significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender. Also, innovative work behavior significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender. Considering employees' perception of interpersonal justice is a criterion used by employees to judge the quality of the relationship with organization leadership such as transformational leader behavior. Thus, a leader who knows how to influence this relationship may need to shift their focus and strategy to new ways of doing business providing dignity, respect, and politeness to when decisions are made.

Interpersonal justice is related to the perception of fairness of human beings. Employees tend to pay more attention to the level of interpersonal relationships provided, than the level of distributed resources. These findings are consistent with Johnson et al. (2014) study, where interpersonal justice behaviors were found to be replenished on the performance of organizational citizenship behavior with justice practice. Also, transformational leadership has been shown to increase employees' innovative productivity and organizational innovation (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). Past research suggested that transformational leaders can enhance individual innovative behavior (Bass, 1990; Janssen 2004). According to Loosemore and Lim (2016), contributors of organizational citizens behavior are guided by the interpretation of interpersonal justice in the business sphere. Moreover, Loosemore and Lim (2016) claimed that

the main form of injustice felt by participants appears to be created by individuals and not management.

RQ13. After controlling for gender, what is the relationship, if any, between perceptions of informational justice (INJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X)?

H13,0. After controlling for gender, there is no statistically significant relationship between perceptions of informational justice (INJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

H13,a. After controlling for gender, there is a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of informational justice (INJ), innovative work behavior (IWB), and transformational leadership (MLQ5X).

The results reveal that informational justice (INJ) significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender. Also, innovative work behavior significantly predicted transformational leadership after controlling for gender. Furthermore, this finding was also congruent with Ariyani and Hidayati (2018), demonstrated that transformational leadership had significantly predicted innovative behavior, in which work engagement had an influence of transformational leadership on innovative behavior. Other studies have shown that transformational leadership is effective in comparison to other leadership styles; leads to better performance and gratification in the office landscape (Atmojo, 2015). Since, IWB is an attitudinal construct that changes corresponding to situation and employees' awareness, if employees feel they are treated unfairly, EIWB expectations most likely will decrease their performance and productivity (Wu et al., 2014). The implications of the results should be cautiously considered when drawing conclusions.

Recommendations for Practice

The current study's results revealed that procedural justice has a stronger relationship with transformational leadership than distributive justice for management-level business professionals. It also supports Adams' (1963); Homans' (1961) equity theory which shows that rewards not just pay are often used by employees for comparison when making judgments about fairness and equity. From this study findings, researchers will learn that organizational justice may prove valuable considering the interaction between the other justice and innovative work behavior on transformational leadership. Although possible in theory, it is difficult to assess the effective balance of today business workplace in developing policies and procedures; management needs to channel the concept of organizational justice to monitor levels of injustice to mitigate turnover intentions.

The results of this study showed that management-level business professionals' judgments are more supportive with fairness procedures, interpersonal relationships, and informational support than the distribution of resources (outcomes). Given this, practitioners should learn that management-level business professionals do not just judge the fairness of the compensation received, rather they judge the procedures used in the distribution of the resources. Also, managers should be cognizant that the fairness of the procedures used in sharing rewards includes the voice afforded to employees through the formal process in compliance with policies and procedures. A positive relationship leads to outcome good for the organization and employees' commitment on an ongoing basis. Employees may feel the sense to assist reciprocally towards the organization objectives (Ghosh et al., 2017). Justice is recognized as a decision that is unspoken based on fairness, equity, law or ethics (Pekurinen et al., 2017). The sources of injustice provide an opportunity to design interventions using the four constructs of

organizational justice. The interventions could be strategic using human resource management as a prevention method in the early stages following a complainant. Management practices can help to reduce employees' dissatisfaction that may arise to perceptions of injustice. Also, training supervisors to understand the benefit of treating employees with respect and dignity during the performance evaluation, most likely will increase productivity (Suliman, 2013). Less turnover intention and improve performance (Wu et al., 2014).

However, there is disagreement between researchers of the veracity of organizational dimensions (Beijersbergen et al., 2015; Biswas et al., 2013; Choi & Sai, 2013; Deschamps et al., 2016; Khoreva & Tenhiälä, 2016; Rubin, 2015). Some researchers agreed about the multi-dimensions of organizational justice. While some studies failed to discriminate between the four types of justice that have a different result in an organizational outcome. These findings were aligned with (Colquitt's, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; EdDinAbou-Ela, 2014; Enoksen & Sandal, 2015; Greenberg, 1983) findings in support of the four dimensions of organizational justice. By excluding one or three dimensions may lead researchers to ignore any significant relationship that could exist if those dimensions omitted, or if included (Beijersbergen et al., 2015; Biswas et al., 2013; Choi & Sai, 2013; Deschamps et al., 2016; Rubin, 2015).

The study findings would suggest that transformational leadership could improve the organizational climate by improving policies and procedures. To that end, practitioners should be aware that employees are more concerned with procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice relationships than with distributive justice. Also, leaders may better serve their organizations by using the policies and procedures put in place with the intent to comply without bias, transparency, and ethicality to give the employee an opportunity to voice their opinion during decision making to some extent (Leventhal, 1980). Collectively, these three features

present impartial decision-making process, when properly communicated to employees, can assist managers in creating a motivational workplace climate. These procedures require consistency with moral and ethical value, may lead to higher level of productivity, satisfaction, and development. Conversely, in addressing workplace injustice, executives and senior management should be capable of supporting all four dimensions with more focus on procedural and interpersonal justice attribute to avoid dissonance.

For management, organizational justice plays a pivotal role on behalf of employees' behaviors with transformational leadership. Thus, leadership should augment the fairness in the distribution of resources to incorporate justice in their practices when dealing with employees, to achieve improved employee performance and yield greater organizational profitability. This is the first research study that confirms the relationship between organizational justice, innovative work behavior in transformational leadership. The study also confirmed the applicability of the organizational justice theory within management-level business professional.

The research expanded the organizational justice theory by suggesting that procedural justice have a stronger relationship with transformational leadership than distributive justice. A high correlation between the justice variables was also confirmed. Finally, this study contributed to the empirical literature on gender from the perspective of human resources, demographic characteristics, perceived organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership.

Recommendations for Future Research

The design and result of this study give room for new researches. For example, no significant relationship was found between gender and transformational leadership. Also, no significant relationship was found on gender differences in innovative work behavior and

organizational justice compared to men; given that this correlation study control for gender. This study is a quantitative correlation, as such, it cannot establish a causal relationship between the variables of the study, and no such inference made. Thus, a study focusing on gender differences would provide more insights and in-depth findings. Also, the directionality of the study hypothesis was reinforced by the interaction between organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership. It is also recommended to examine these relationships using longitudinal data from multiple sources. Although this study employed an online survey, a research design using a qualitative interview questionnaire will probe more responses with detail perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership. For example, Akram et al. (2016) study incorporated spatial and temporal justice with the four-justice dimensions, that predicted relationship with distributive, procedural, and temporal justice, but did not identified a relationship with spatial justice, is an option for future research with innovative work behavior and transformational leadership.

Future research could include business leaders in other geographic locations and specific industries as this study focused on Florida and researchers may infer in the findings of this study to other organizations and culture. Further research should include a larger sample size while the survey response was small, and the survey results are confidential could imply possible non-response bias and social desirability bias. Also, this research effort may serve as a starting point to broaden contemporary understanding and lead to generalizable findings that may fill an existing gap in knowledge and contribute to new knowledge by including employees to investigate their views particularly Millennials, by gathering data from both Millennials and superior utilizing the variables in this study. While this study included several variables at the individual level, future research could incorporate multiple level approach linking the construct

of this study to organization level construct such as organizational structure and employee engagement interactions with organizational justice. Since this study focused on management-level business professionals, future research could investigate the dimensions of justice in a manufacturing setting using front-line managers.

Conclusions

This study presented a unique opportunity to study this phenomenon because no other studies have empirically tested the relationship between organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership. This research adds to the body of knowledge of human resources management practices in areas of gender, leadership, innovation, and organizational justice theory. The findings of this study helped in concluding that all forms of organizational justice and innovative work behavior have impacted transformational leadership. The results implied that different dimension of organizational justice had different significant effects on transformational leadership. Especially, procedural justice had a greater effect on transformational leadership than any of the other organizational justice; followed by innovative work behavior. The major finding of the study showed that organizational justice did directly predict the transformational leadership style. Another interesting finding of this study, the conceptualization of the four constructs had different correlates which aligned with (Colquitt 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1983) findings recommending using the four dimensions of organizational justice.

Furthermore, to improve employees' behaviors towards the organizations, leaders' activities should include adopting internal procedures with the intention to comply with these policies and procedures that benefit both employees and employers and minimize disruptive behavior or confrontational situations. Conversely, to support employees, leaders idealized

influence can foster a justice climate toward innovation for long-term organizational sustainability. Senior leaders have the power to influence justice climate and innovative work behavior. Given the importance of innovation to the organization success, leaders can use their intellectual stimulation to motivate employees to be more creative and provide the resources needed.

Employees are human beings with thoughts, emotions, needs, and desires conflicts with leadership when treated as a commodity. The human activity whereby moral views on human life and human dignity must be respected. When employees are not treated with respect, these *human assets* react in ways that push back. Furthermore, from the justice perspective, the quality of employment and the workplace itself is paramount for individuals, families, and society, hence creating an additional responsibility for employers to treat them with greater dignity and respect. Even when there is no problem as such, there is room for improvement in any working relationship. Despite the fact, leadership has options, possibly even the obligation to help subordinates to improve their productivity, satisfaction, and development ameliorate work relationships. In this study, several models explain the variances in transformational leadership. Although gender did not influence transformational leadership; most of the participants were female, representing 54% of the sample. Finally, the findings suggest that leadership should promote employee perceptions of organizational justice and innovative work behavior that improved business practices and societal changes. The current study provides researchers and practitioners with a better comprehension of how to achieve higher levels of performance given the interaction between organizational justice and transformational leadership. Furthermore, this study suggests that management-level business professional, articulate the overall perception of justice and these perceptions influence behaviors in the workplace.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Copies of Scales



2488 Historic Decatur Road, Suite 100, San Diego, CA 92106 | www.ncu.edu

Organizational Justice Scale

Please select the number that best corresponds with your experience in your organization.

To a very small extent 1	To a small extent 2	To some extent 3	To a large extent 4	To a very large extent 5
-----------------------------	------------------------	---------------------	------------------------	-----------------------------

Procedural justice: The following items refer to the procedures used to arrive at your (outcome). To what extent:					
1. Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Have those procedures been applied consistently?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Have those procedures been free of bias?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Have those procedures been based on accurate information?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
7. Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?	1	2	3	4	5
Distributive justice: The following items refer to your (outcome). To what extent:					
8. Does your (outcome) reflect the effort you have put into your work?	1	2	3	4	5
9. Is your (outcome) appropriate for the work you have completed?	1	2	3	4	5

10. Does your (outcome) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
11. Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?	1	2	3	4	5
Interpersonal justice: The following items refer to (the authority figure who enacted the procedure). To what extent:					
12. Has (he/she) treated you in a polite manner?	1	2	3	4	5
13. Has (he/she) treated you with dignity?	1	2	3	4	5
14. Has (he/she) treated you with respect?	1	2	3	4	5
15. Has (he/she) refrained from improper remarks or comments?	1	2	3	4	5
Informational justice: The following items refer to (the authority figure who enacted the procedure). To what extent:					
16. Has (he/she) been candid in (his/her) communications with you?	1	2	3	4	5
17. Has (he/she) explained the procedures thoroughly?	1	2	3	4	5
18. Were (his/her) explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?	1	2	3	4	5
19. Has (he/she) communicated details in a timely manner?	1	2	3	4	5
20. Has (he/she) seemed to tailor (his/her) communications to individuals' specific needs?	1	2	3	4	5

Innovative Work Behavior Scale

Please rate the extent to which innovative behaviors activities are characteristic of you using the 5-point scale ranging from 1 not at all to 5 frequently

Not at all 1	Slightly 2	Somewhat 3	Moderately 4	Frequently 5
-----------------	---------------	---------------	-----------------	-----------------

Opportunity Exploration: How often do you...?					
1. Wonder how things can be improved?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Generate original solutions to problems	1	2	3	4	5
Idea Generation: How often do you...?					
3. Search out new working methods, techniques or instruments?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Generate original solutions for problems?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Find new approaches to execute tasks?	1	2	3	4	5
Championing: How often do you...?					
6. Make important organizational members enthusiastic for innovative ideas?	1	2	3	4	5
7. Attempt to convince people to support an innovative idea?	1	2	3	4	5
Implementation: How often do you...?					
8. Systematically introduce innovative ideas into work practices?	1	2	3	4	5
9. Contribute to the implementation of new ideas?	1	2	3	4	5
10. Put effort into the development of new things?	1	2	3	4	5

There is no cut off scores. The high scores indicate high innovative work and reciprocally (de Jong and den Hartog, 2010).

For use by Vinola Rada only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on March 21, 2018

MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire™ Leader Form (5x-Short)

My Name: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.**

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

1.	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.....	0	1	2	3	4
2.	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3.	I fail to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4.	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5.	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix B: Permission to Use Scales

Requesting permission to use Organizational Justice Scale

JC

Jason A. Colquitt <colq@uga.edu>

Mon 3/19, 11:18 AM

Vinola Rada

Hi Vinola,

Permission granted. Best of luck with your work,

Jason

On Mar 19, 2018, at 10:34 AM, V.Rada0642@o365.ncu.edu wrote:

Hello, Dr. Colquitt. My name is Vinola I. Rada. I am currently pursuing my doctoral degree at Northcentral University. My proposed topic of study is examining the relationship between organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership, after controlling for gender.

I have researched your Organizational Justice Scale of my research project, and I would like to utilize survey elements in my study. My study will be using the overall justice scale consisting of distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice. I am hoping that you could grant me permission to use it within my research. I do need to provide my institution with a statement of permission.

Please let me know what additional information you may need from me. I can be reached by the following email address at V.Rada0642@email.ncu.edu or phone at 561-704-3157. Dr. Mohamad Hammoud is supervising this research project and can be reached at mhammoud@nc.edu.

Thank you for your assistance. I am sincerely appreciative.

Respectfully submitted,

Vinola Rada
561-704-3157

|||||

Jason A. Colquitt, Ph.D.
William Harry Willson Distinguished Chair
Coordinator, PhD Program in Management
Terry College of Business
University of Georgia
C210 Benson Hall
Athens, GA 30602
Phone: (706) 542-1294
Fax: (706) 542-3743
E-mail: colq@uga.edu



Requesting permission to use Innovative Work Behavior Scale

Hartog, Deanne den <D.N.denHartog@uva.nl>

Tue 3/20, 11:35 AM

Vinola Rada

Hi Vinola,

Of course, you can use the innovative work behavior scale we developed for your research, just refer to the paper that reports its development as per usual in reporting your study.

I wish you success with your research!

Best wishes

Deanne

Deanne N. den Hartog | *Professor of Organizational Behavior* | Director of the ABS research institute | Head of the Leadership and Management Section | Amsterdam Business School | University of Amsterdam | Postbus 15953, 1001 NL Amsterdam | T +31 20 525 5287 | d.n.denhartog@uva.nl | www.uva.nl/profile/d.n.denhartog

Requesting permission to use Innovative Work Behavior Scale

From: Vinola Rada

Sent: Tue 3/20, 11:06 AM

Hello Dr. den Hartog. My name is Vinola I. Rada. I am currently pursuing my doctoral degree at Northcentral University. My proposed topic of study is examining the relationship between organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership, after controlling for gender.

I have researched your Work Behavior Scale of my research project and I would like to utilize survey elements in my proposed study. My study will be using the overall innovative work behavior scale consisting of idea, exploration, idea generation, idea championing and idea implementation. I am hoping that you could grant me permission to use it within my research.

Please let me know what additional information you may need from me. I can be reached through the following email address – V.Rada0642@email.ncu.edu or phone at 561-704-3157. Dr. Mohamad Hammoud is supervising this research project and can be reached at mhammoud@nc.edu.

Thank you for your assistance. I am sincerely appreciative.

Respectfully submitted,

Vinola Rada

561-704-3157

V.Rada0642@email.ncu.edu

For use by Vinola Rada only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on March 21, 2018



www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material for his/her research:

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

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Published by Mind Garden, Inc., www.mindgarden.com

Appendix C: Informed Consent

Examining the relationship between Organizational Justice, Innovative Work Behavior,
and Transformational Leadership, after controlling for Gender

Introduction:

My name is Vinola Rada. I am a doctoral student, at Northcentral University. I am conducting a research study on examining the relationship between perceptions of organizational justice, innovative work behavior, and transformational leadership after controlling for gender in management level business professionals in the United States. I am completing this research as part of my doctoral degree. Your participation is completely voluntary. I am seeking your consent to involve you and your information in this study. Reasons you might **not** want to participate in the study include your interest is on other areas and you do not have experience in a professional position. Reasons you might want to participate in the study you find the research interesting, you provide input on change processes or systems in your organization. Yet, again, you may quit from this study at any time. An alternative is simply not participating. I am here to address your questions or concerns during the informed consent process.

PRIVATE INFORMATION

Certain private information may be collected about you in this study. I will make the following effort to protect your private information. I will not have access to or store your IP address.

I will not ask for or store your personal or business e-mail addresses. Even with this effort, there is a chance that your private information may be accidentally released. The chance is small but does exist. You should consider this when deciding whether to participate.

Activities:

If you participate in this research, you will be asked to:

1. Rate your leadership behaviors, 1 minute
2. Provide thoughts of your perception of organizational justice, 3 minutes
3. Rate your innovative performance, 2 minutes.

Eligibility:

You are eligible to participate in this research if you:

1. Are in a managerial position working in the United States

You are not eligible to participate in this research if you:

1. Are not in a managerial position
2. Do not, or have not, worked in the United States

I hope to include 98 individuals or more in this research.

Risks:

All studies have minimal risks and this study is no exception. You may find that statements in the questionnaire trigger uncomfortableness or bring to light negative feelings toward the organization of which you were previously unaware of. To decrease the impact of these risks, you can skip the question(s) or exit the survey at any time.

Benefits:

If you decide to participate, there are no direct benefits to you. Most studies do not have any direct benefit to participants, and this study is no exception. The potential benefits to others are: may benefit organizations in understanding how organizational justice is necessary for leaders to provide a fairness climate and how innovative work behavior are affected by the fairness perception on leadership style.

Confidentiality:

The information you provide will be kept confidential to the extent allowable by law. Some steps I will take to keep your identity confidential are: I will not ask for your name or collect personally identifiable data.

The people who will have access to your information are: myself, Dr. Mohamad Hammoud, dissertation chair, and SurveyMonkey. The Institutional Review Board may also review my research and view your information.

I will secure your information with these steps: Data will be securely stored on a separate flash drive. Access to the storage device will be password protected to restrict access.

I will keep your data for 7 years. Then, I will delete electronic data and destroy paper data.

Contact Information:

If you have questions for me, you can contact me at: V.Rada0642@email.ncu.edu; or 561-704-3157. My dissertation chair's name is Dr. Mohamad Hammoud. Dr. Hammoud works at Northcentral University and is supervising me on the research. You can contact him at: mhammoud@ncu.edu.

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the Institutional Review Board at: irb@ncu.edu or 1-888-327-2877 ext. 8014.

If you contact us, you will be giving us information like your phone number or email address.

This information will not be linked to your responses if the study is anonymous.

Voluntary Participation:

Your participation is voluntary. If you decide not to participate, or if you stop participation after you start, there will be no penalty to you. You will not lose any benefit to which you are otherwise entitled.

Although this study is anonymous, and it is not the intention of the researcher to collect your name. However, you do have the option to provide your name voluntarily. Please know that if you do, it may be linked to your responses in this study. Any consequences are outside the responsibility of the researcher, faculty supervisor, or Northcentral University. If you do wish to provide your name, a space will be provided. Again, including your name is voluntary, and you can continue in the study if you do not provide your name.

Your name

Please select your choice below.

Click “I Agree” to proceed with the study. This will indicate that you have read the above information and you voluntarily agree to participate.

Click “I Disagree” if you do not want to participate in the study and thank you for your interest.

I Agree

I Disagree

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/TNZQZG3>

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this survey!

Sincerely,

Vinola Rada

Appendix D: Site Permission

Research Assistance

Barnett, Tia <tbarnett@sfwmd.gov

Wed, Jun 13, 8:07
AM

to me

Good Morning Ms. Rada,

Thank you for considering the staff at SFWMD as possible contributors to your upcoming research project.

The SFWMD has a complement of 1350 employees. Our Electronic Bulletin Board (EBB), accessible by most employees, would be an excellent format to post your research survey. The EBB functions almost like the “Classified Ad” pages you can find in printed newspapers. Our employees frequently use this website to find out latest information, buy and sell personal goods, locate agency supplies and market and promote community and local interests.


Please let me know when and how often you’d like your survey posted. I am looking forward to participating!

Sincerely,

Tia Barnett
Director, Governing Board & Executive Services
South Florida Water Management District
3301 Gun Club Road
West Palm Beach, FL 33406
561.682.6262 – Office
561.880.7091 – Cell

Appendix E: IRB Approval

NCU Approved Date Stamp
 July 03, 2018



Northcentral University

2488 Historic Decatur Road, Suite 100, San Diego, CA 92106 | www.ncu.edu

Date: July 03, 2018
PI Name: Vinola Rada
Chair Name (if applicable): Mohamed Hammoud
Application Type: Initial Submission
Review Level: Exempt - Category 2
Study Title: Examining the relationship between Organizational Justice, Innovative Work Behavior, and Transformational Leadership, after controlling for Gender

Approval Date: July 02, 2018
Expiration Date: July 01, 2019

Dear Vinola:

Congratulations! The purpose of this letter is to inform you that your IRB application has been approved. Your responsibilities include the following:

1. Follow the protocol as approved. If you need to make changes, please submit a modification form requesting approval of any proposed changes before you make them.
2. If there is a consent process in your research, you must use the consent form approved with your final application. Please make sure all participants receive a copy of the consent form.
3. Continuing review is required as long as you are in data collection or if data have not been de-identified. Failure to receive approval of the continuing review before the expiration date means the research must stop immediately.
4. If there are any injuries, problems, or complaints from participants, you must notify the IRB at IRB@ncu.edu within 24 hours.
5. IRB audit of procedures may occur. The IRB will notify you if your study will be audited.
6. When data are collected and de-identified, please submit a study closure form to the IRB.
7. You must maintain current CITI certification until you have submitted a study closure form.
8. If you are a student, please be aware that you must be enrolled in an active dissertation course with NCU in order to collect data.

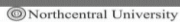
Congratulations from the NCU IRB. Best wishes as you conduct your research!

Respectfully,

Northcentral University Institutional Review Board
 Email: irb@ncu.edu

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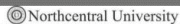
Appendix F: Criteria for Participating in the Study

 <small>2488 Historic Decatur Road, Suite 100, San Diego, CA 92108 www.ncu.edu</small>	Examining the Relationship between Perceptions of Organizational Justice, Innovative Work Behavior, and Transformational Leadership after Controlling for Gender
1. Criteria For Participating In This Study	
<p>Please provide only one response per question/item.</p> <p>1. In your organization is your position considered administrative?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Executive</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Director</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Manager</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Supervisor</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Team Leader</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Work Group Leader</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify)</p> <p><input style="width: 300px; height: 15px;" type="text"/></p> <p>2. Have you worked on change process or systems in your organization?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Yes</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> No</p> <p>3. Do you participate in decision making towards your organizational goals and objectives, including criteria for evaluating performance?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Yes</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> No</p> <p>4. Are you in support of ongoing business and operational management processes for your organization program?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Yes</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> No</p> <p>5. Do you schedule and plan sequence for development of programs and organizational goals and objectives, including criteria for evaluating performance?</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Yes</p>	

If you have answered "No" to any questions, you have not met the requirements for this survey. Thank you for your time and effort in volunteering for this study and please press Exit in the top right corner.

If you meet the above criteria, please press continue and start taking the survey. For those meeting the above criteria, I thank you for your time and effort in helping me completing this survey toward the completion of my dissertation. If you would like a copy of the results once the study is completed, you can email me directly at V.Rada0642@email.ncu.edu or my Dissertation Chair, Dr. Hammoud at mhammoud@ncu.edu

Appendix G: Demographics Questionnaire

 2488 Historic Decatur Road, Suite 100, San Diego, CA 92106 www.ncu.edu	Examining the Relationship between Perceptions of Organizational Justice, Innovative Work Behavior, and Transformational Leadership after Controlling for Gender
2. Demographics Questionnaire	
Please provide only one response per question/item	
1. What is your gender?	
<input type="radio"/> Female	
<input type="radio"/> Male	
<input type="radio"/> Other (specify)	
<input type="text"/>	
2. What is your age?	
<input type="text"/>	
3. What is your ethnicity?	
<input type="radio"/> White	
<input type="radio"/> Black	
<input type="radio"/> Hispanic	
<input type="radio"/> Asian	
<input type="radio"/> Mixed	
<input type="radio"/> Other (please specify)	
<input type="text"/>	
4. What is your level of education?	
<input type="radio"/> Doctoral Degree	
<input type="radio"/> Master's degree	
<input type="radio"/> Bachelor's degree	
<input type="radio"/> Associate degree	
<input type="radio"/> High School Diploma or Equivalent	
5. How many years have you work for this organization?	
<input type="text"/>	

Appendix H: Post Hoc Analyses

F tests - Linear multiple regression: Fixed model, R² deviation from zero

Analysis:	Post hoc: Compute achieved power	
Input:	Effect size f ²	= 0.15
	α err prob	= 0.05
	Total sample size	= 61
	Number of predictors	= 6
Output:	Noncentrality parameter λ	= 9.1500000
	Critical F	= 2.2719887
	Numerator df	= 6
	Denominator df	= 54
	Power (1- β err prob)	= 0.5408334