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Turnover Intentions and Political Influence Behavior: A Test of “Fight-or-Flight” Responses to Organizational Injustice

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We examined the role of organizational frustration as a linking mechanism between the perception of organizational injustice and fight (political influence behavior)/flight (turnover intentions) responses. The participants were 201 middle-level managers drawn from manufacturing and logistics companies in northern Malaysia. Data were collected by means of a printed questionnaire. Whereas all the three components of injustice—procedural, distributive, and interactional—had significant positive impact on turnover intentions and political influence behavior, only procedural injustice and distributive injustice had such impact on frustration. Interestingly, organizational frustration played a partial mediating role in the relationship of distributive and procedural injustice with turnover intentions and political influence behavior. Implications of the findings for those in managerial roles and directions for future research are suggested.

Keywords: organizational injustice, frustration, turnover intentions, political behavior

The success of an organization depends not only on the strategies used or on its financial strength, but also on employees’ choice of behaviors. The behavioral choice of employees, especially the executive group, may have important implications for organizational capabilities and success in the long run. However, owing to increasingly globalized economy in the new millennium, the success of an organization to encourage the retention of high performers in a tight labor market, particularly the skilled ones, has become more challenging now than ever. Skilled employees are of great importance to an organization but at the same time they are in acute shortage.

Retaining employees with rational behavior is no easy job (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010). Organizational researchers have regularly been reminding managers and policy makers on the use of fairness or justice (see such reviews as those of Adams, 1965; Deutsch, 1975; Folger & Greenberg, 1985; Greenberg, 1990, 1993). The reason is not far to seek for this reminder. When employees have the feeling that they are treated unfairly, they get frustrated. The feeling of frustration in turn leads to a “fight-or-flight” response. The phrase “fight-or-flight”—coined by an American physiologist Walter Cannon in the 1920’s (Dale, 1947)—denotes a response that individuals have to a threatening situation. Two key behaviors—political influence behavior and turnover intentions—in organizational settings illustrate the two poles of the fight-or-flight response, a sequence of internal processes that prepares the aroused individuals for struggle (fight) or escape (flight). It is triggered when we interpret a situation as threatening. The resulting response depends on how the individual has learned to deal with the threat (i.e., injustice), as well as on an innate “fight-or-flight” program built into the brain.

The importance of employee turnover is evidenced by the extensive research done in this area (Allen et al., 2010; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Past research has linked various situational factors or human resources management practices to turnover or withdrawal cognitions (Lee & Heard, 2000). However, under certain circumstances, intent to turnover may not be the choice even with the presence of the factors mentioned earlier. According to the “fight-or-flight” syndrome, a person is able to react immediately to a situation by running away (i.e., flight) from an unjust environment. But, the alternative to developing withdrawal cognition is resorting to using political influence tactics (i.e., fight) to restitute the unfavorable situation. Because of the known destructive power (i.e., consequences) of turnover intentions and political influence behaviors, the present research has been designed to (a) examine the relationship between organizational injustice perceptions and two key work-related behaviors, turnover intentions and political influence behavior, and (b) investigate the potential role of organizational frustration as a mediator in the relationship between organizational injustice and “fight-or-flight” responses, turnover intentions and political influence behavior. Understanding these impacts will allow organizations to highlight the importance of preventing organizational injustice to create a better and more productive workforce. Thus the present research contributes to the existing literature by blending the three (often separate) bodies of literature—organizational injustice,
organizational frustration, and political influence behavior ("fight") and turnover intentions ("flight").

Theoretical Framework and Development of Hypotheses

Fairness or unfairness in the workplace is considered to be a key element that determines the choice of action and work performance of an employee (Liao & Rupp, 2005; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Perceived organizational injustice is a core determinant of workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). Impacts of organizational injustice experienced in the workplace are bound to adversely affect operational efficiency and profitability through negative behavioral responses. When individuals believe that their expectations about the treatment or outcome they receive are not met, an assessment of unfairness occurs.

Organizational justice research often includes three forms of justice: distributive, procedural, and interactional (Bies & Moag, 1986). In Adam's (1965) classic conceptualization of organizational justice, the concept of inequity in distributive situation was introduced. This group of research focused on the fairness of pay or outcomes in work settings, which is commonly referred to as “distributive justice” (Deutsch, 1975). The focus on the fairness of the methods and procedures used in decision-making is referred to as “procedural justice” (Folger & Greenberg, 1985). Individuals put a lot of emphasis on the fairness of procedures. It has been observed that people are more concerned with the interaction process (procedure) than the actual outcome (distributive justice) of the interaction (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Thus was added interactional justice as a third component to the two-factor model of organizational justice. This component of justice was defined as the interpersonal treatment employee received as procedures are enacted (Bies & Moag, 1986). Yet Greenberg (1993) came up with the suggestion of a four-factor structure of organizational justice by splitting interactional justice into two components of justice—informational and interpersonal—that stresses on socially-fair treatment. Informational justice refers to the adequacy of information used to explain how decisions are derived, whereas interpersonal justice is treated as the social interaction among individuals in an organizational setting. Colquitt (2001) empirically supported the four-factor structure with distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal as distinct dimensions.

Turnover Intentions as a “Flight” Response

The topic of separation or employee turnover has been popular among researchers (Allen et al., 2010; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012; Maertz & Campion, 1998; Price, 1977). Turnover intentions have been found to be one of the best predictors of actual quitting (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). In their effort to understand turnover intentions, researchers (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985; Mobley, 1977; Price & Mueller, 1981) have been focusing on factors such as job satisfaction, availability of alternatives, expected utility, cost of switching job, and characteristics of the present job. Other factors that may influence an employee’s decision to search for job and withdraw include age and gender (Steers & Mowday, 1981), job tenure (Taylor, Audia, & Gupta, 1996), reward systems (Dreher, 1982), compensations (Hom & Griffeth, 1993), and perceived alternatives (Gerhart, 1990). Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) found that organizational commitment leads to a reduction in withdrawal cognition. Meaningful work and opportunities for promotion significantly relates to employees’ intentions to leave (Miller & Wheeler, 1992). Lind and Tyler (1988) suggested that employees would be more likely to leave their organizations if they feel that evaluation procedures are unfair. A field study conducted by Masterson and Taylor (1996) reported that procedural justice perceptions significantly predicted intentions to leave the organization.

In support of the findings by Lind and Tyler (1988) and Dailey and Kirk (1992), perceptions of procedural justice are reported to be negatively related to turnover intentions (as a “flight” response). Support for this assertion has been found in the Malaysian context as well (Ansari, Hung, & Aafaqi, 2000). Thus, the following hypothesis was framed:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between the elements of organizational injustice and turnover intentions.

Political Influence Behavior as a “Fight” Response

Political activities (as a “fight” response) are normally resorted to when there are uncertainties or disagreements about choices. Normally, when there are diverse interests, politics surface. Generally, people hold the perception that, in the normal course of events in an organization, one must play politics in order to survive (Miller, Rutherford, & Kolodinsky, 2008; Hochwarter, Ferris, Zinko, Arnett, & James, 2007). Organizational politics—defined as an attempt by employees to enhance their career prospects—involves intentional acts of influence to enhance or protect the self-interest of individuals or groups (DuBrin, 1994; Kipnis, 1974).

Past research has focused on the use of upward influence tactics, defined as the influence attempt directed at someone higher in the hierarchy (Ansari, 1990; Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980; Thacker & Wayne, 1995; Wayne, Liden, Graf, & Ferris, 1997; Yukl, Falbe, & Yoon, 1993). Thus, the study of how lower-group participants influence the higher-group is essential (Likert, 1961). In this case, the agents of influence do not necessarily possess any formal authority over the target of influence. That is why, upward influence tactics are also regarded as a form of informal influence (Chacko, 1990).

There are a few studies available relating organizational injustice to political influence behavior, to which we now turn to. Bacharach and Lawler (1980) found a relationship between injustice perceptions and political influence behavior. It was hypothesized that those individuals who
possess power to bring about changes in organizations may remain in their organization and stay politically active. According to Skarlicki and Folger (1997), when employees feel that injustice has occurred, they are motivated to restore fairness by engaging in retaliatory behaviors. Ambrose and Harland (1995) reported that politicking is associated with decreased perceptions of procedural and interactional fairness. Thus, in view of these findings, political influence behavior as a coping strategy (“fight” response) would be expected to be an alternative to leaving an unfair environment. Hence, the following hypothesis was offered:

_hypothesis 2:_ There is a positive relationship between the elements of organizational injustice and political influence behavior.

**Organization Frustration—A Mechanism of Fight/Flight Response**

Life is full of frustrations. There are always some barriers or obstacles preventing the achievement of desired goals. In small doses, frustration may be considered a helpful emotion, motivating employees to try new methods or to find alternative solutions to problems. In situations where frustrations are associated with one’s job, intense feelings of dissatisfaction with the job may result. At this stage, the individual may dream change and normally take steps to produce a significant change. One option is through political influence behaviors (“fight”) if employees feel that change can be instituted. Otherwise, employees may be thinking of quitting (“flight”) the organization if situations cannot be restored. The classic “frustration-aggression hypothesis” (Dollard, Doob, Millar, Mowrer, & Sears, 1939) treats aggression as a consequence of frustration. A person experiences frustration when an instigated goal-response or predicted behavioral-sequencing is interrupted or interdicted (Fox & Spector, 1999). The individual looks for possible alternative responses for the goal that is blocked; however, if that does not occur, then an individual may respond with certain level of aggression.

Past research has shown that individuals under pressure will either behave aggressively or withdraw from an organization (Dollard et al., 1939; Spector, 1978). Stated differently, when an individual is subjected to psychological threats or stress in the form of frustration, the “fight-or-flight” phenomenon is commonly observed. After experiencing frustration, a person exhibits either an attack response (“fight”) or withdrawal response (“flight”) (Spielberger, Reheiser, & Syderman, 1995). Frustrated events have been found to cause feelings of perceived frustration (Storms & Spector, 1987). These situational constraints block individuals from achieving their goals, thus motivating an employee to find alternative paths to goal achievement that may include withdrawal from efforts to achieve organizational goals (Chen & Spector, 1992), engaging in interpersonal hostility or aggression such as strikes, work slowdown, withholding of output, or theft (Spector, 1978).

Consistent with the aforementioned discussion, we believe that organizational frustration would act as a mechanism of organizational injustice perception to fight-or-flight behaviors. In other words, organizational injustice perceptions will lead to frustration that will in turn lead to “fight” (political behavior) or “flight” (turnover intentions) responses.

Thus, the following hypotheses were in order:

3 There is a positive relationship between organizational frustration and political influence behavior.

4 There is a positive relationship between organizational frustration and turnover intentions.

5 There is a positive relationship between organizational injustice and organizational frustration.

6 Organizational frustration mediates the relationship between the different components of organizational injustice and turnover intentions such that the direct effect of organizational injustice will weaken after organization frustration is considered.

7 Organizational frustration mediates the relationship between the different components of organizational injustice and political influence behavior such that the direct effect of organizational injustice will weaken after organization frustration is considered.

**Method**

**Participants and Procedure**

We distributed a 4-page questionnaire to a total of 315 middle level managers from four manufacturing (three foreign-owned and one locally-owned) and one logistics company located in northern Malaysia. Completed questionnaires were received from 201 managers—a response rate of 63.81%. The participants were 100 male and 101 female. The majority of them (46.3%) were Chinese, followed by Indian (27.9%) and Malays (24.4%). They were in the age range of 23 to 55 years (M = 32.38; SD = 5.99). About 50% of them had earned at least a bachelor’s degree. On average, they had been in their present organization for about 5 years (SD = 4.38).

**Measures**

The questionnaire consisting of measures of organizational frustration, turnover intentions, political influence tactics, organizational injustice, and personal-
demographics. All measures, except for personal-demographics, were anchored on a 7-point agree/disagree (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) or frequency (1 = never; 7 = always) scale. The item scores in each scale were summed and then averaged to arrive at an overall score for the scale. Higher scores represent higher levels of each of the constructs.

**Turnover Intentions**

We employed a 5-item scale of turnover intentions (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). An example of sample item is “I am actively looking for a job outside this organization.”

**Political Influence behavior**

Seven single-statement items were drawn from studies by Ansari (1990), Bhal and Ansari (2000), and Kipnis et al. (1980) to measure political influence behavior. The items were composed of blocking, defiance, and manipulation influence tactics. Sample items are: “I stop the work in between if my demands are not met” and “I engage in a work slow-down until he/she did what I wanted.”

**Organizational of Injustice**

The Colquitt (2001) 20-item scale was adapted to suit organizational injustice. The scale consisted of four dimensions: procedural injustice (7 items), distributive injustice (4 items), interpersonal injustice (4 items), and informational injustice (5 items). Sample items are: “I am not able to express my views and feelings when carrying out work procedures” (procedural injustice); “do not reflect what I have contributed to the organization” (distributive injustice); “My supervisor does not treat me in a polite manner” (interpersonal injustice); “My supervisor does not communicate details at the right time” (informational injustice).

**Organization frustration**

This scale comprised 14 items drawn from the work of Keenan and Newton (1984) and Spector (1978). An example of sample item is “I sometimes feel quite frustrated over things that happen at work.”

**Results**

**Psychometric Properties of the Measures**

Prior to testing the major mediation hypothesis, we performed a series of exploratory (EFA) and confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to examine the psychometric properties (i.e., dimensionality and construct validity) of the measures employed in the study and to gather empirical evidence against common method variance (CMV).

**Evidence of construct validity and dimensionality**

We used four indices to assess the fit of the measurement models: the goodness of fit index (GFI), the incremental fit index (IFI), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) (Bentler, 1990; Browne & Cudeck, 1993). First, the three-factor (procedural injustice, distributive injustice, and interactional injustice) organizational injustice model was compared to the four-factor (interactional injustice broken down into interpersonal and informational) and one-factor organizational injustice models. The analysis showed the three-factor model to have the better fit ($\chi^2 = 101.22, df = 41, p < .01; GFI = .92; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .08$) than the four-factor model ($\chi^2 = 578.70, df = 164, p < .01; GFI = .79; IFI = .92; CFI = .92; RMSEA = .11$) or the one-factor model ($\chi^2 = 1913.18, df = 107, p < .01; GFI = .46; IFI = .68; CFI = .70; RMSEA = .23$).

Second, we conducted CFA for the two work outcomes separately and found that they both had adequate fit indices: political influence behavior ($\chi^2 = 122.82, df = 14, p < .01; IFI = .91; CFI = .91; RMSEA = .20$) and turnover intentions ($\chi^2 = 26.61, df = 5, p < .01; GFI = .95; IFI = .98; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .15$). We then compared the two-factor (turnover intentions and political influence behavior) work outcomes model to the one-factor (two outcomes combined) model. The analysis showed the two-factor model to have much superior fit ($\chi^2 = 235.36, df = 53, p < .01; IFI = .93; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .13$) to the one-factor model ($\chi^2 = 688.60, df = 54, p < .01; IFI = .77; CFI = .77; RMSEA = .24$). Finally, we conducted a CFA for the measure of frustration and found reasonable fit indices ($\chi^2 = 324.21, df = 77, p < .01; IFI = .92; CFI = .92; RMSEA = .13$).

**Evidence against CMV**

Since we included all self-reported measures in this research, the possibility of CMV cannot be ruled out. In order to provide evidence against this bias, we performed two analyses. First, we conducted Harman’s 1-factor test and examined the unrotated factor solution involving all 46 items (20 organizational injustice items, 14 organizational frustration items, 5 turnover intentions items, and 7 political influence behavior items) in an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The analysis constrained to 5 factors, explaining a total of 78.63% of the variance in the matrix. It was evident that no single factor accounted for the majority of the variance in the data. In other words, a single factor did not emerge from an unrotated principal components analysis, and the first factor accounted for just 28.81% of the variance in the matrix, suggesting that common method variance was not a serious issue in this data set (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

Second, we conducted a CFA to provide additional statistical evidence against CMV. We included two items (using item parcel approach) from each of the six major constructs (3 organizational injustice, 1 organizational frustration, 1 political influence behavior, and 1 turnover intentions) together in this analysis. The CFA analysis indicated that the self-rated six-factor model produced adequate fit indices ($\chi^2 = 105.86, df = 39, p < .01; GFI = .92; IFI = .97; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .09$)—an evidence in support of the construct validity of the measures and an evidence against CMV.
Table 1
Descriptive Statistics, Coefficients Alpha, and Zero-order Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Behavior</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustration</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Injustice</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Injustice</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Injustice</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 201; Diagonal entries in bold indicate coefficients alpha. All rs are significant at p < .01.

Means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and coefficients alpha are presented in Table 1. As can be seen, all measures were highly reliable (coefficients alpha ranging between .93 and .98), thus exceeding the recommended level (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). It can also be seen in Table 1 that the constructs were as correlated as one would expect on theoretical grounds. In conclusion, results of the EFA, CFA, Harman’s 1-factor test, reliability analysis, and measurement model analysis indicate that the measures have sound psychometric properties in terms of reliability and construct validity, and that there is no serious threat of common method bias in this research.

Tests of Hypotheses
To examine the mediating impact of organizational frustration on the relationship between organizational injustice and outcome variables (turnover intentions and political influence behavior), we followed the Baron and Kenny (1986) procedure in performing multiple regression analysis. In order to demonstrate that frustration acts as a mediator, the following conditions must be examined: (a) Organizational injustice must significantly predict outcome variables of turnover intentions and political influence behavior (Hypotheses 1 and 2); (b) Frustration must significantly predict outcome variables of turnover intentions and political influence behavior (Hypotheses 3 and 4); (c) Organizational injustice must significantly predict frustration (Hypothesis 5); (d) After controlling for frustration, the power of organizational injustice to predict outcome variables should become significantly smaller (partial mediation) or non-significant (full mediation) (Hypotheses 6 and 7).

Table 2
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses (Test of Mediation)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Organizational Frustration</th>
<th>Work Outcomes</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Political Behavior</td>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steps</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Variables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Injustice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Injustice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Frustration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>181.39**</td>
<td>239.80**</td>
<td>182.05**</td>
<td>116.42**</td>
<td>92.11**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R²</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 201. *p < .05; **p < .01
Thus, we performed two sets of hierarchical multiple regression analysis—one for political influence behavior and one for turnover intentions—to test the hypothesized relationships among the variables. Since past research (Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Taylor et al., 1996) has found organizational tenure significantly associated with outcome variables, we controlled it in each regression analysis. As can be seen in Tables 1 and 2, all the conditions set by Baron and Kenny (1986) are more or less evident in the results—thus substantiating Hypotheses 1 through 5. However, the impact of interactional injustice on mediator (i.e., frustration) was non-significant. We next examined the role of organizational frustration as a mediator in the organizational injustice-work outcomes relationship (Hypotheses 6 and 7). It was found (see Table 2) that these hypotheses received only partial support from the data. Frustration appeared to partially mediate the relationship of distributive injustice and procedural injustice with outcome variables (political influence behavior and turnover intentions)—see Figure 1.

**Figure 1**
The mediating impact of organizational frustration on the relationship of distributive injustice (1a) and procedural injustice (1b) with turnover intentions and political influence behavior. [The numbers below broken arrows represent standardized beta coefficients in Equation 1; numbers above solid arrows show standardized betas in Equation 2; numbers in bold above solid arrows show standardized beta coefficients based on regression equation including the mediator, Equation 3; * *p < .05; * * *p < .01.]

### Discussion

Organizational researchers have often suggested that organizations and managers need to look for ways to reduce organizational injustice in order to avoid negative behavioral responses. The present analysis revealed four important findings in support of this argument.

First, our analysis showed that organizational injustice was a significant predictor of turnover intentions, as hypothesized. This finding indicates that with higher level of perceived injustice, the participants have a greater tendency to leave the organization.

This is quite consistent with previous research that examined the relationship between injustice and the intent to quit (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Lind & Tyler, 1988) the organization. The present research also received support from the earlier findings pertaining to the stronger predictive power of procedural injustice than other forms of injustice to turnover intentions (Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Greenberg, 1990; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Masterson & Taylor, 1996).
Second, with respect to political influence behavior, findings were also found to be consistent with those of the past research (Ambrose & Harland, 1995). It was found that organizational injustice was positively correlated with political influence tactics. That is, the higher the perception of unfair treatment perceived by the employees in the organization, the greater the probability of using political influence tactics to restitute the unfavorable situation. This finding was apparent regardless of the dimensions of organizational injustice studied in the present research: procedural, distributive, or interactional.

Third, the two components of organizational injustice—procedural and distributive—were found to be significantly related to organizational frustration. This shows that employees will feel frustrated if they feel that they are being treated unfairly in terms of outcome allocation process as well as the outcome itself. This feeling of frustration will ultimately affect employees’ decision to quitting the organization or engaging in deviant influence tactics. Previous research (see such works as those of Fox & Spector, 1999) has also reported that work-related frustrated events were associated with negative responses among employees.

Fourth, our analysis showed that distributive injustice and procedural injustice partially caused organizational frustration that in turn caused turnover intentions. The same finding was evident in the case of political influence behavior. In each case, the presence of frustration reduced the impact of injustice on outcome variables.

The present “fight-or-flight” model has some important implications—both theoretical and practical—for human resources management. From the theoretical perspective, perceptions of injustice—distributive as well as procedural—lead to organizational frustration, and this feeling of frustration in turn leads to the intent to leave and triggers the use of political influence tactics such as blocking, defiance, and manipulations.

At the same time, organizations should not neglect the interactional dimension of injustice in the workplace because this dimension was found to be positively correlated with turnover intentions and inclination to political influence tactics. This component of justice addresses issues such as whether an employee is treated with respect and dignity and is given sufficient job-related information in order not to indulge into negative behavioral response. Our results suggest that organizations should look for ways to improving or enhancing interactional justice. If employees see themselves as being unfairly treated, it may jeopardize the overall fairness perceptions toward the organization.

Our analysis pertaining to political influence behaviors indicates that if employees perceive that they are unfairly treated with respect to the three dimensions of justice—procedural, interactional, and distributive—they will be motivated to react through the use of political influence tactics. Yet another finding is that unfairness, especially with regard to distributive and procedural components, will determine whether employees experience frustration in the work place. It will eventually affect either the intent to quit the organization or resort to political influence tactics. If the organization would like to improve its workforce retention rate or reduce the negative behavior of political influence activities, then they need to pay special attention to the issue of fairness outcomes in organizations.

Although this study makes several contributions to the relationship of organizational injustice with work outcomes (turnover intentions and political influence tactics), it is not free from potential limitations. The first limitation is the reliance on self-report measures. Though common method variance was not found to be a serious threat in this research, future research should focus on collecting longitudinal data or at least obtaining two sources of data. Another limitation is that our data came only from the northern State of Malaysia. Thus findings should be viewed with caution. Yet another limitation is that the respondents of this study were predominantly middle management group. Again, the findings may or may not be generalized to other hierarchical levels within the organization. Finally, this study has limited the use of influence tactics to only the devious means of influence. In the actual setting, employees may as well engage in rational and soft types of influence tactics—depending upon the perception on the violations of a particular dimension of organizational justice.

All data limitations aside, this study has some important contributions to the understanding of the antecedents of turnover intentions and political influence behavior. Future research should look at other contributing factors to turnover such as job tenure, gender, and age. Personality traits may be yet another influencing factor when examining political influence behavior and turnover intentions of employees.

It is also important to note that male and female may choose different influence tactics when faced with a similar situation (Arroba & James, 1987). Thus, future research may want to consider adding the variable of gender in the study. Future study should also include larger sample size, including employees at different organizational levels and different sectors, and covering wider geographical areas in order to generalize the findings obtained.

In conclusion, it is important that organizations and managers alike should pay attention to the relationship among organizational justice, frustration, and work outcomes (turnover intentions and political influence behavior). Our findings clearly indicate the role of distributive and procedural injustice in engendering political behavior and intent to quit the organization via organizational frustration.
References


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