Studying the Relationship between Organizational Justice and Employees' Quality of Work Life in Public Organizations: A Case Study of Qom Province

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study is the analysis of the correlation between organizational justice and quality of work life. This study also analyzes the correlation between organizational justice components as encompassed by three specific forms of justice perceptions; distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice with quality of work life. Statistical population consists of all employees in Qom Province public organizations and the sample includes 264 employees. Data collection tool is questionnaire. Collected data were analyzed by Smirnof-Kolmogorov test as well as one-sample t-test and Friedman test and Pearson correlation test by SPSS software. Findings indicated significant positive relationships between organizational justice and quality of work life. Correlation analysis for the three components of organizational justice showed that three components of organizational justice had positive relations with quality of work life.

Keywords:

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Introduction

In recent years, ethics, quality of work life (QWL) and job satisfaction are increasingly being identified as progressive indicators related to the function and sustainability of organizations and have been important topics in human resource (HR) and organizational development (OD) since the beginning of 1960s (Koonmee et al., 2010). Proponents of the theory of quality of work life are seeking new systems to help their employees in order to balance between work life and personal life (Akdere, 2006).

Quality of work life programs attempt to address almost every aspect of an employee's working life, many of that are related to HR policies and strategies. The perceived QWL is often associated with fulfillment of complex psychological needs of the individual to achieve optimal experience and functioning. Sirgy et al.'s study (2001) on the antecedents and consequences of QWL proposed that in order to achieve QWL, four levels of need must be considered: (1) need satisfaction from work environment; (2) need satisfaction from job requirements; (3) need satisfaction from supervisory behavior; and (4) need satisfaction from ancillary programs (Li & Yeo, 2011). Employees perceive the quality when their basic expectations of the work place and jobs are met appropriately. According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, these expectations can be categorized from physiological needs (e.g. work place facilities) to self-actualization (Sirgy et al., 2001). Organizational justice is an important variable in how to meet these expectations and organizational needs. Research shows that perceptions of justice are strongly related to individuals' attitudes. Research demonstrates that distributive justice affects attitudes about specific events (e.g., satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with one's performance appraisal) whereas procedural justice and interactional justice affect attitudes about the system (e.g., organizational commitment, trust in authorities) (Ambrose et al., 2007). The main aim of the present study is to examine the relationship between organizational justice and quality of work life as long as suggesting guidelines to improve QWL of employees. In the current study, researchers sought to examine the statues of perceived organizational justice and QWL and ranking the components of these two variables.

Literature Review

Organizational Justice

Justice is a key issue for understanding organizational behavior (Bos, 2002). During the past twenty five years, the study of fairness has received major research attention from a variety of disciplines, including economics, psychology, law, and organizational science (Dulebohn et al., 2009). Cremer (2005, p. 4) described organizational justice as "a dominating theme in organizational life" (Elanain, 2010, p. 6). Much of this attention to justice is because of the important work-related consequences that have been linked to employees' perceptions of fairness within organizational contexts (Johnson et al., 2006), such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational-citizenship behaviors (Olkkonen & lipponen, 2006). There has also been considerable interest in examining the antecedents of justice perceptions in hopes of promoting fairness in organizations. It is generally agreed that work-related outcomes, the procedures that determine those outcomes, the provision of voice and explanations, and the respect and dignity that is received from others all have a significant impact on the content and magnitude of fairness perceptions (Johnson et al., 2006). Explaining the special significance that the concept of justice has taken in organizations, Greenberg (1996) coined the term organizational justice, which refers to individuals' perceptions of fairness in organizations (Hoy & Tarter, 2004). As indicated by Schminke et al. (1997), the fundamental concept underpinning both ethics and organizational justice is fairness, which influences people's judgment about right and wrong (McCain et al., 2010). Fair treatment is something that employees who invest their time and energies in an organization "expect" (Eberlin & Tatum, 2005).

In fact, organizational justice scholars use the terms fairness and justice interchangeably. For these scholars, fairness is an important yardstick that employees use to assess outcomes distribution, formal procedures, or interpersonal treatment in organizations (Beugre, 2009).

The Components of Organizational Justice

Early studies of justice in organizations were focused on equity

theory and outcome justice. As the study of organizational justice began to expand, the focus shifted from outcome justice (was the end result fair?) to social justice (were the procedures fair and were people treated with respect?). Some studies now suggest that social justice is as important as outcome justice, and there is a relationship between social justice and both managerial performance (Eberlin & Tatum, 2005)

In general, organizational justice can be categorized into two broad areas called "structural justice" and "social justice". Structural justice refers to the structural elements of the organization that allow for employee's involvement in decision making and provide for the fair distribution of outcomes. Social justice, by contrast, refers to the employees' perceptions that the organization openly shares information with them and cares about their well-being. Some readers may be familiar with the distinction between procedural and distributive justice. The structural/social justice categories used in this exercise include both distributive and procedural justice, but also add the important element of interpersonal interaction – how people are treated on an interpersonal level when an organization institutes its policies and procedures (Tatum & Eberlin, 2006).

There have been many classifications offered for organizational justice, but the taxonomy presented by Greenberg (1993) has received strong empirical support (Eberlin & Tatum, 2008). According to Greenberg, organizational justice has generally been postulated to encompass three different components: Distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice (McDowall & Fletcher, 2004)

Greenberg (1993) classified the components of organizational justice under two dimensions. The first dimension is the classical differentiation of justice focusing either on procedures or outcomes. The second dimension refers to the focal determinant (either structural or interpersonal). Greenberg argued that traditionally procedural and distributive justice dealt with structural aspects. The focus is on the environmental context, within which the interaction occurs, that is the procedures used to determine an outcome and the perceived fairness of the final outcome. Interpersonal justice deals with the treatment of individuals, and therefore the emphasis is on social determinants (Hassan & Hashim, 2011).

Organizational justice has developed over the past forty years to include distributive, procedural, and interactional theories. From these theories, researchers have come to accept a four-factor model of organizational justice, which includes distributive justice, procedural justice, and two classes of interactional justice, specifically, informational and interpersonal justice. Research suggests that these factors are distinct constructs that can, and should, be empirically distinguished from one another (Nabatchi et al., 2007).

Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is related to the perceived fairness outcomes (Jafari et al, 2011) such as payment and promotion (Wang, 2010). Distributive justice focuses on the extent to which rewards and punishments are related to job performance (Nirmala & Akhilesh, 2006). Approaches to distributive justice are primarily related to structural determinants. Structural determinants are rules and environmental contexts in the decision making process (Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2006).

Distributive justice stems from equity theory (Elanain, 2010). According to equity theorists, individuals compare a ratio of their perceived inputs to outcomes derived from a relationship with that of a referent other. If the ratios are equal, the individual perceives distributive justice. If the ratios are unequal, the individual will perceive inequity (Jawahar, 2002). Referring to the equity theory, employees will modify the quality or quantity of their work to restore justice. When employees perceive justice in the organization, they are less likely to seek opportunities to balance things out by increasing their own benefits at the company's expense. Additionally, when employees are treated fairly, they are "more willing to subordinate their own short-term individual interests to the interests of a group or organization" (McCain et al., 2010). The logic of distributive justice is straightforward – participant satisfaction is increased when one believes that the resolution of the dispute is fair and favorable (Nabatchi et al., 2007). Tang and Sarsfield-Baldwin (1996) argued that distributive justice leads to organizational effectiveness (Elanain, 2010).

Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is concerned with one's perception of the process that determines fair pay (Till & Karren, 2011). Theory and research has established that procedures are judged as fair if they are implemented consistently, without self-interest, on the basis of accurate information, with opportunities to correct the decision, with the interests of all concerned parties represented, and following moral and ethical standards (Jawahar, 2002). Procedural justice towards employees is a basis for employee commitment. Procedural justice influences individuals' perceptions of fairness in regard with pay raises and promotions as well as organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Jafari et al., 2011).

Distributive justice suggests that satisfaction is a function of outcome (the content of the decision or resolution), whereas procedural justice suggests that satisfaction is a function of process (the steps taken to reach that decision) (Nabatchi et al., 2007).

Operating within a structural framework, Leventhal and his associates (1980) identified six procedural rules against which fairness of procedures may be evaluated. These rules are (a) consistency rule – allocation procedures should be consistent across persons and over time; (b) bias suppression rule – personal self-interest in the allocation process should be prevented; (c) accuracy rule – decisions must be based on accurate information; (d) correctability rule – opportunities must exist to enable decisions to be modified; (e) representativeness rule – the allocation process must represent the concerns of all recipients, and (f) ethicality rule – allocations must be based on prevailing moral and ethical standards.

Procedural justice is, therefore, concerned primarily with the extent to which structural features of decision making (allocation process), facilitating employee voice, appropriateness of criteria, and the accuracy of the information used to arrive at a decisional outcome (Aryee et al., 2004).

A vast amount of research has indeed shown that the direct effect of distributive justice on people's reactions at the workplace is influenced by procedural justice. In fact, there is converging evidence that the effects of procedural justice are most strongly observed when outcomes are unfavorable. Whereas favorable outcomes may generally satisfy people, unfavorable outcomes elicit a greater need for explanation and

thus focus people's attention more strongly on the procedures used to arrive at the outcome. Accordingly, with unfavorable outcomes, procedural justice will have a greater impact on people's responses to the decision (Cremer, 2005)

Interactional Justice

Perceived interactional justice depends on employees' reaction to the manner in which their direct supervisors carry out formal procedures (McCain et al., 2010). Interactional justice is defined as the quality of interaction that an individual receives during the enactment of organizational procedures (Jafari et al., 2011) and concerns the human aspect of organizational practices (Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2006). Greenberg (1993) has argued that interactional justice should be divided into two distinct components, informational justice and interpersonal justice (Till & Karren, 2011). These two subcategories of informational and interpersonal justice overlap considerably; however, research suggests that they should be considered separately, as each has differential effects on justice perceptions.

Informational justice focuses on the enactment and explanation of decision making procedures. Research suggests that explanations about the procedures used to determine outcomes enhance perceptions of informational justice. Explanations provide the information needed to evaluate the structural aspects of the process and how it is enacted; however, for explanations to be perceived as fair they must be recognized as sincere and communicated without ulterior motives, based on sound reasoning with logically relevant information, and determined by legitimate rather than arbitrary factors (Nabatchi et al., 2007).

Interpersonal justice reflects the degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect by authorities. The experience of interpersonal justice can alter reactions to decision outcomes, because sensitivity can make people feel better about an unfavorable outcome. Interpersonal treatment includes interpersonal communication, truthfulness, respect, propriety of questions, and justification, and honesty, courtesy, timely feedback, and respect for rights (Colquitt et al., 2006).

Although related (even highly so in some cases), procedural justice and interactional justice are often viewed as distinct constructs. Whereas

procedural justice involves the fairness of the organization's formal structures and procedures, the enactment of those procedures is covered by interactional justice. Thus, it is conceivable that, although the formal procedures of one's organization are judged as fair, interactional justice is deemed low because an unscrupulous boss is charged with executing them (Johnson et al., 2006).

Quality of Work Life

Quality of work life (QWL) has gained increasing currency since initial discussion supporting the concept began in the USA and Scandinavia in the 1960s and 1970s (Connell & Hannif, 2009). The term ''quality of work life'' (QWL) originated from the concept of open sociotechnical system designed in the 1970s that helps to ensure autonomy in work, interdependence, and self-involvement with the idea of ''best fit'' between technology and social organizations (Adhikari & Gautam, 2010). Although the open sociotechnical system is a traditional concept for practice, it assumes that optimal system performance and the "right" technical organization coincide with those job conditions under which, the social and psychological needs of the workers are satisfied. A better QWL initiative supports to fulfill technical and social requirements of job in our organizations (Mirkamali & Narenji Thani, 2011). Initially, quality of work life was focusing on the effects of employment on the general well-being and the health of the workers. But now its focus has been changed. Every organization need to provide good environment for their workers including all financial and non-financial incentives so that they can retain their employees for the longer period and for the achievement of the organization goals (Kaur, 2010, p. 28). The QWL movement has been concerned with creating work organizations that "more effectively deliver services and products valued by society, while simultaneously being rewarding, stimulating places for employees to work" (Cohen et al., 2007).

QWL has been defined by many researchers in a variety of ways, such as quality of work and employment quality (Korunka et al., 2008). QWL is an umbrella term which includes many concepts (Nasl Saraji & Dargahi, 2006). QWL definitions have developed since 1930 to comprise five entities, named by Venkatachalam and Velayudhan

(1997a) as: variable (from 1969 to 1972); approach (from 1969 to 1975); methods (from 1972 to 1975); movement (from 1975 to 1980); and everything (from 1979 to 1989). According to these authors, QWL as a variable focused primarily on getting employees and employers to work collaboratively to improve employees' work experience. It was also defined as an approach as it became synonymous with certain approaches, which focused on the individual rather than organizational outcomes, but aimed at improving the outcomes of both the individual and the organization. It was defined as a method in terms of specific techniques and approaches used for improving work such as job enrichment, autonomous work groups, labor-management committees, and the relationship between individuals and features of their physical, social and economic work environment. Thus, QWL reflects those on and off the job attitudes and behaviors that society considers being important, hence QWL as a movement emerged. From 1979 to 1989, the term QWL came to mean more than job security, good working conditions, and adequate and fair compensation. More importantly, it was extended to include equal employment opportunities and job enlargement (Hsu & Kernohan, 2006).

According to Hackman and Suttle (1977), concept and practice of QWL have broad and diverse meaning, and many use this phrase according to their own convenience (Adhikari & Gautam, 2010). Hackman and Oldham (1980) further highlight the constructs of QWL in relation to the interaction between work environment and personal needs. The work environment that is able to fulfill employees' personal needs is considered to provide a positive interaction effect, which will lead to an excellent QWL (Shahbazi et al., 2011).

Shamir and Solomon (1985) have defined quality of work life (QWL) as a comprehensive construct that includes an individual's job related well-being and the extent to which work experiences are rewarding, fulfilling, and devoid of stress and other negative personal consequences. (Md-Sidin et al., 2010). QWL, according to Cascio (1998), involves the opportunity to make decisions about their jobs and the design of their workplaces. He argued that employees who work in organizations where QWL exists will like their organizations and feel that their work fulfills their needs. (Koonmee et al., 2010, p. 22). Nadler

and Lawler (1983), in a discerning retrospective study on the development of QWL, considered it as ''... a way of thinking about people, work, and organizations.'' (Martel & Dupuis, 2006).

Davis (1983) defined QWL as "the quality of the relationship between employees and the total working environment, with human dimensions added to the usual technical and economic considerations" (Korunka et al., 2008).

Efraty and Sirgy (1990) conceptualized QWL in terms of "need satisfaction" (Kandasamy & Ancheri, 2009). In their later research, Sirgy et al. (2001) define QWL as "employee satisfaction with a variety of needs through resources, activities, and outcomes stemming from participation in the workplace". They proposed that QWL should be measured in terms of employees' needs (Koonmee et al., 2010). Specifically, seven dimensions of needs were suggested: (a) health and safety needs (protection from ill health and injury at work and outside of work, and enhancement of good health); (b) economic and family needs (pay, job security, and other family needs); (c) social needs (collegiality at work and leisure time off work); (d) esteem needs (recognition and appreciation of work within and outside the organization); (e) actualization needs (realization of one's potential within the organization and as a professional); (f) knowledge needs (learning to enhance job and professional skills); and (h) aesthetic needs (creativity at work as well as personal creativity and general aesthetics) (Marta et al., 2011).

They further explained that QWL differs from job satisfaction whereby job satisfaction is construed as one of many outcomes of QWL. Besides, QWL does not only affect job satisfaction itself but also satisfaction in other life domains such as family life, leisure life, social life, financial life, and so forth. Abo-Znadh and Carty (1999) noted that quality of work life relates not only to how people can do work better, but also to how work may cause people to be better. Moreover, QWL in an organization also concerns the participation of workers in problem solving and decision making. Higher quality of work life would then correlate with lower work-to-family interference (Abdul Aziz et al., 2011, p. 151). Table 1 presents a condensed report of how the various definitions of QWL have evolved from studies in

this area since 1973 (Hsu & Kernohan, 2006).

This review on the definitions of QWL indicates that QWL is a multi-dimensional construct, made up of a number of interrelated factors that need careful consideration to conceptualize and measure. It is associated with job satisfaction, job involvement, motivation, productivity, health, safety and well-being, job security, competence development and balance between work and non-work life as conceptualized by European Foundation for the improvement of living conditions (Shahbazi et al., 2011).

The Components of Quality of Work Life

The literature reveals that different models of QWL have been proposed by various authors and writers. Predicting or studying QWL variables depends on approaches adopted to improve QWL situation at the organizational level. Three different approaches regarding QWL are common in the literature of human resource management. In the era of scientific management, QWL is based on extrinsic traits of jobs: Salaries, safety and hygiene, and other tangible benefits of the workplace. The human relations approach stresses that while extrinsic rewards are important, intrinsic traits of job like autonomy, challenges and task contents are key predictors of productivity and efficiency. The third approach – orientation to work – suggests that a focus on extrinsic or intrinsic reward is contingent on the person. However, the success of QWL initiatives depends on openness and trust, information management, organizational culture, and partnership between management and workers (Adhikari & Gautam, 2010). Following is a brief discussion of a number of these models.

Levering and Moskowitz (1999) rated the best 100 companies to work for in the U.S. on the basis of the following six different criteria:

1) Pay and benefits.

2) Opportunities for growth.

3) Job security.

4) Pride in work and autonomy.

5) Openness and fairness.

6) Camaraderie and friendliness. (Al-Qutop & Harrim, 2011)

Gray and Smeltzer (1989) identified the following eight factors for QWL:

1) Adequacy in compensation.

2) Safe and healthy working conditions.

3) Immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities.

4) Opportunity for continued growth and security.

5) Social integration in the work organization.

6) Constitutionalism.

7) Balance of work and life.

8) Social relevance of work life. (Gray & Smeltzer, 1989)

Walton (1975) proposed eight major conceptual categories relating to QWL as (1) adequate and fair compensation, (2) safe and healthy working conditions, (3) immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities, (4) opportunity for continued growth and security, (5) social integration in the work organization, (6) constitutionalism in the work organization, (7) work and total life space and (8) social relevance of work life. Several published works have environment domains that include role stress, job characteristics, supervisory, structural and sectoral characteristics to directly and indirectly shape academicians' experiences, attitudes and behavior (Shahbazi et al., 2011).

Conceptual Model and Hypothesis

Research has shown that justice play a crucial role in the organization and how people are treated in organizations may greatly affect their beliefs, feelings, attitudes and behavior (Bos, 2001). These beliefs, feelings and attitudes based on studies include job satisfaction, organizational commitment, extra role behaviors, trust (Ambrose et al., 2007), pay levels, promotion and rewards decisions, quality and quantity of workload (McCain et al., 2010), greater work motivation and participation (Cremer, 2005). Therefore, the main and minor hypotheses of the study and conceptual model are proposed as follows:

Main hypothesis

There is a relationship between organizational justice and quality of work life.

Minor hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between distributive justice and quality of work life.

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between procedural justice and quality of work life **.**

Hypothesis 3: There is a relationship between interactional justice and quality of work life.
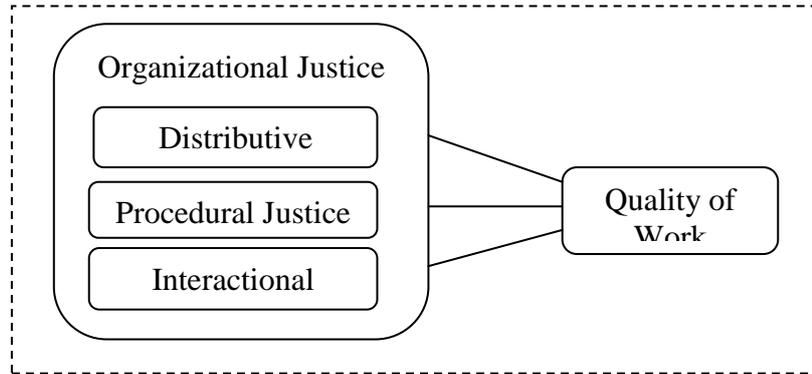

Figure 1: Conceptual model

Methodology

In terms of purpose, this is an applied study and in terms of data gathering method, it is descriptive survey. Statistical population consists of all employees in Qom Province public organizations. The total quantity of employees in statistical population was 29000 of whom 264 were selected by stratified sampling method.

The tool of data gathering is questionnaire. Based on extracted dimensions, a 50-item questionnaire with Likert's continuum was devised that its validity was calculated based on the viewpoints of management professors. Distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice are considered as dimensions of organizational justice. Dimensions of QWL include safe and healthy working conditions, job stress, organizational trust, organizational commitment, organizational participation, job security, organizational conflict, job satisfaction, co-worker and supervisor support, role clarity, adaptability of individual and job, delegation of authority and pay and benefits.

Cronbach's Alpha is used to measure the reliability of questionnaires. It is (0.92) for organizational justice questionnaire and (0.89) for quality of work life questionnaire. Since acquired Cronbach's Alpha ratio is greater than (0.7) for both questionnaires, one can say that the reliability of questionnaires is confirmed.

Collected data were analyzed by Pearson correlation test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test as well as one-sample t-test and Friedman test and Pearson correlation test by SPSS software.

Findings

The results of descriptive statistics show that (86.22%) of respondents were male and (11.86%) were female. Also, (20%) had B.A. and (65%) had M.A. or higher degrees. Moreover, (14.8%) of respondents had managerial position and (84%) had executive jobs.

(1) Studying the relationship between organizational justice and Quality of work life

In the present study, Pearson correlation test is used to test hypotheses. As mentioned in the research conceptual model, research findings are set in one major and three minor hypotheses. H_0 test and contrary test are used as following:

$$\begin{cases} H_0 : \rho = 0 \\ H_1 : \rho \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

Below, the findings of testing major and minor hypotheses are provided:

Main hypothesis test

$\begin{cases} H_0: \text{There is no relationship between organizational justice and QWL.} \\ H_1: \text{There is a relationship between organizational justice and QWL.} \end{cases}$

Since obtained significance level (0.000) is less than considered significance level (0.01), H_0 is refused and H_1 is supported. Put it differently, by (99%) confidence level one can say that research major hypothesis is supported and there is a relationship between organizational justice and QWL. For both variables, Pearson correlation ratio is (0.891) (See Table 1).

Minor hypotheses test

1st minor hypothesis

H_0: There is no relationship between distributive justice and QWL.

H_1: There is a relationship between distributive justice and QWL.

As seen in Table 1, significance level in the first hypothesis is less than (0.01), so one can say that with (99%) confidence level, there is a relationship between distributive justice and QWL. Obtained correlation ratio is (0.663).

2nd minor hypothesis

H_0: There is no relationship between procedural justice and QWL.

H_1: There is a relationship between procedural justice and QWL.

The results of testing the 2nd hypothesis in Table 1 show that H_0 is refused and H_1 is supported. Therefore, with (99%) confidence level, one can say that there is a relationship between procedural justice and QWL. Obtained correlation ratio is (0.745).

3rd minor hypothesis

H_0: There is no relationship between interactional justice and QWL.

H_1: There is a relationship between interactional justice and QWL.

Concerning SPSS outputs, the obtained significance figure is (0.000) which is less than standard significance level (0.01). Therefore, with (99%) confidence level, H_0 is refused and H_1 is supported. It means that there is a relationship between interactional justice and QWL.

Table 1: Pearson correlations analysis between organizational justice with and Quality of work and their components

		Organizational justice	Distributive justice	Procedural justice	Interactional justice
Quality of work life	Pearson correlation	0.891	0.222	0.251	0.156
	Sig	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	264	264	264	264

(2) Evaluating the status of organizational justice and quality of work life

The pre-condition of using one-sample t-test is the normality of variables that is examined by Kolmogorov- Smirnov test. Where the significant figure is greater than significance level (0.05), H_0 is supported

(normality of variables). According to results, all research variables are normal. Since all research variables are normal, one-sample t-test is used to evaluate variables. The test results for the organizational justice and quality of work are shown in Tables 3 and 4.

2-1) Evaluating the status of organizational justice

H_0 :Organizational justice is in desirable status. $\begin{cases} H_0 : \mu \geq 3 \\ H_1 : \mu < 3 \end{cases}$

H_1 :Organizational justice is in undesirable status.

If the t-value (T) is greater than significance level of one-sample t-test (T_α), thus H_0 is supported and H_1 is refused; in the other words:

Table2: The test statistic T

	$H_0 : \mu \geq 3$	$H_1 : \mu < 3$	Desirability
$T < T_\alpha$	refuse	support	undesirable
$T > T_\alpha$	support	refuse	desirable

Table3: One-sample test of organizational justice

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	T_α	result
Distributive justice	264	2.04476	.61669	-26.19577	263	-1.960	undesirable
Procedural justice	264	2.10657	.61078	-24.86713	263	-1.960	undesirable
interactional justice	264	2.47597	.69175	-12.87828	263	-1.960	undesirable
organizational justice	264	2.20851	.52846	-24.51858	263	-1.960	undesirable

Since the t-value (T) of all components of organizational justice is greater than significance level of one-sample t-test (T_α), H_0 is refused and it can be said that all components are in undesirable status. Therefore, it can be calculated that organizational justice in public organizations of Qom Province has an undesirable status.

2-2) Evaluating the status of quality of work life

H_0 :QWL is in desirable status.

H_1 :QWL is in undesirable status.

$$\begin{cases} H_0 : \mu \geq 3 \\ H_1 : \mu < 3 \end{cases}$$

Table4: One-Sample Test of QWL

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	T_α	result
Team communication	264	2.2859	.60046	-20.42683	263	-1.960	undesirable
Safe and healthy working conditions	264	2.9748	.65664	-0.66164	263	-1.960	desirable
Job stress	264	2.7144	.64352	-7.62247	263	-1.960	undesirable
Organizational trust	264	0.2319	.70771	-18.76742	263	-1.960	undesirable
Organizational commitment	264	2.6667	0.66674	-8.52844	263	-1.960	undesirable
Organizational participation	264	2.3355	0.74187	-15.53893	263	-1.960	undesirable
Job security	264	2.3240	0.64528	-17.7465	263	-1.960	undesirable
Organizational conflict	264	2.8628	0.83241	-2.82587	263	-1.960	undesirable
Job satisfaction	264	2.1832	0.57868	-23.86977	263	-1.960	undesirable
Supervisor support	264	2.7169	0.60606	-8.02152	263	-1.960	undesirable
Co-worker support	264	2.5303	0.69296	-11.52338	263	-1.960	undesirable
Role clarity	264	2.6444	0.63617	-9.61626	263	-1.960	undesirable
Delegation of authority	264	2.5403	0.69997	-11.33794	263	-1.960	undesirable
Pay and benefits	264	2.0685	0.68966	-23.08041	263	-1.960	undesirable
Adaptability of individual and job	264	205398	0.5271	-14.91019	263	-1.960	undesirable

Since the t-value (T) of all components of QWL except safe and healthy working conditions is greater than significance level of one-sample t-test (T_α), H_0 is refused and it can be said that all components except safe and healthy working conditions are in undesirable status. Therefore, it can be calculated that QWL in public organizations of Qom Province has an undesirable status.

(3) Ranking the dimensions of organizational justice and quality of work life

Friedman test is used to rank the components of organizational justice and quality of work. The results are shown in Tables 6 and 8.

3-1) Organizational justice

H_0: There is no significant difference among status quo of organizational justice components.

H_1: There is a significant difference among status quo of organizational justice components.

Table 5: Friedman test significance of organizational justice

Statistical indicators	Computed sums
N	264
Chi-Square	91.697
df	2
Sig	0.000

The results of the test indicate that significance rate is less than (0.05), thus, H_0 is refused and H_1 is supported. So, one can say that there is a significant difference among components of organizational justice. Relevant constituents are outlined in Table 6.

Table 6: Ranks of organizational justice components

The components of organizational justice	Mean Rank	Aspects priority
Interactional justice	2.46	1
Procedural justice	1.82	2
Distributive justice	1.72	3

3-2) Quality of work life

H_0: There is no significant difference among status quo of QWL components.

H_1: There is a significant difference among status quo of QWL components.

Table 7: Friedman test significance of Quality of work life components

Statistical indicators	Computed sums
N	264
Chi-Square	561.041
df	14
Sig	0.000

The results of testing show that obtained significance level is less than (0.05), so, H_0 is refused and H_1 is supported. Therefore, one can say that there is a significant difference in status quo of QWL components. Relevant constituents are outlined in Table 8.

Table 8: Ranks of QWL components.

The components of quality of work	Mean Rank	Aspects priority
Safe and healthy working conditions	11.26	1
Organizational conflict	10.74	2
Supervisor support	9.76	3
Organizational commitment	9.39	4
Job stress	9.35	5
Role clarity	8.86	6
Co-worker support	8.19	7
Delegation of authority	8.02	8
Adaptability of individual and job	7.85	9
Job security	6.87	10
Organizational participation	6.74	11
Team communication	6.38	12
Organizational trust	5.79	13
Job satisfaction	5.52	14
Pay and benefits	5.28	15

(4) Measuring research conceptual model fitness

In the present study, LISREL software is used to measure research conceptual model fitness. In Figure 2, research conceptual model is shown in standard mood. The indicators of research conceptual model fitness are outlined in Table 9.
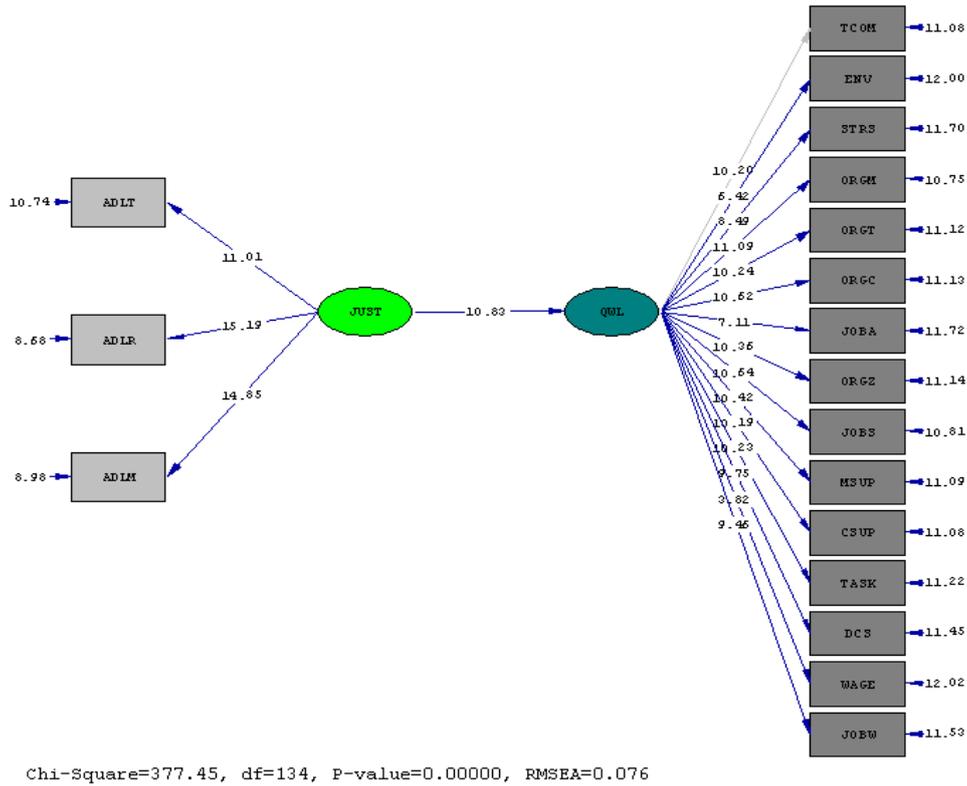
Chi-Square=377.45, df=134, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.076

Figure 2: Research conceptual model in standard state

Table 9: The indicators of research conceptual model fitness

Indicators	RMSEA	P-Value	df	Chi-Square	NNFI	NFI
Indicators rates	0.076	0.00000	134	377.45	0.94	0.90

Chi-Square rate over freedom degree is ($\frac{377.45}{134} = 2.81$) and RMSEA is (0.076). NFI and NNFI are greater than 90 which show that the model is in proper status in terms of fitness.

Conclusion

Committed, knowledgeable, loyal and satisfied employees are the most important success factor for any organization. So the main priority

should be to attract and retain qualified staffs. Failure to achieve this goal means loss of efficiency, growth and decline of organization position. People spend much of their life time in social institutions such as schools and offices. To play an effective role in social institutions, cooperation and sense of belonging in interpersonal relationships must be created and each member of the institution should expend the certain cost in terms of time, effort and heavy pressure. In exchange, social institutions offer varied benefits to their members, that the researchers classified them into two groups: Economical and emotional/social. How to distribute these benefits is so important for employees. The perceived balance between the inputs that an employee brings to organization and the outcomes that they receive is the content of social research in the field of justice. The members evaluate the way of distribution of benefits and the nature of distributed benefits to perceive fair or unfair in organization. Generally, fairness in distribution of good and bad aspect of social life brings more committed people willing to devote in society. It is vice versa when people perceive unfairness.

The present study aims at investigating the relationship between organizational justice and employees' quality of work life in public organizations of Qom Province. Concerning achieved results, it became obvious that there is a significant relationship between organizational justice and employees' quality of work life. In the meantime, there is a relationship between distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice and quality of work life. Findings of the present study are almost compatible with findings of the previous researches. Meta-analytic reviews have yielded a moderately strong positive relationship between procedural justice, the perceived fairness of decision-making processes and task performance. That relationship suggests that taking steps to make decision-making more fair may actually improve individuals' fulfillment of task duties (Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009). If procedures are perceived as fair, employees will feel respected and valued by the organization and the enacting authority, and consequently will trust the authority and their long-term relationship with him. In addition, such signal of the authority's benevolence and trustworthiness will result in a greater work motivation in favor of the organization. As such, if they notice that fair procedures are used, they will reason that the authority

can be trusted in his/her decision-making procedures and as a result will be motivated to show commitment toward the organization and engage in cooperation (Cremer, 2005). Research demonstrates that distributive justice affects attitudes about specific events (e.g., satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with one's performance appraisal) whereas procedural justice and interactional justice affect attitudes about the system (e.g., organizational commitment, trust in authorities) (Ambrose et al., 2007).

To improve distributive justice, administrators should be fairer in the application of rules at organizations and in distribution of work, tasks, rewards and promotions. Also, in order to improve procedural justice, decision-making processes should adhere to a number of specific rules. For example, procedures should utilize accurate information, be consistent across persons and time, be unbiased, offer mechanisms for correction, represent key groups' concerns, and adhere to prevailing ethical standards. Interpersonal justice is fostered when authorities adhere to specific rules of fair interpersonal communication – rules that were derived from studies of communication during recruitment efforts. Specifically, Bies and Moag (1986) argued that authorities should treat others with respect and should refrain from making improper statements. If one experiences a violation of the respect and propriety rules, then it is clear that ethical standards for the enactment of decision-making procedures were not followed. In the language of fairness theory, this type of violation suggests that the authority should have acted differently.

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