

Exploring Job Control and Social Support as Moderators of Organizational Justice and Wellbeing Relationship

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Abstract: Previous research has demonstrated that incorporating organizational justice as a predictor of wellbeing is a significant consideration since it has been proved that justice is a new independent aspect of psychosocial researcher environment that need to be given priority in health and wellbeing promotion. The current study tested the moderating effect of job control and social support on the relationships between organizational justice and wellbeing (job satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect). A total of 1125 respondents participated in this study involving employees from manufacturing companies. Hierarchical multiple regression result indicated that organizational justice, job control and social support uniquely predict job satisfaction. Furthermore, there were statistically significant two-way interaction between interactional justice and job control in predicting job satisfaction. Interestingly, employees reported lower levels of job satisfaction when they benefit from a high level of interactional justice and job control reported lower levels of job satisfaction. There was also a significant two-way interaction between distributive justice and job control in predicting employee positive affect in the expected way. However, the moderating effects of social support were not supported by the Malaysian data. The managerial implications of the study findings and limitations concludes the study.

Key words: Justice, job, control, social support, wellbeing, Malaysia

INTRODUCTION

In the workplace, employees are the most valuable asset to the organization that employs them. Employee's dissatisfaction with their jobs or lives will reduce their researcher performance, job commitment and dedication to their job and the family. Numerous studies have linked worker wellbeing with: decreased workplace turnover (Wright and Bonett, 1997) improved physical health (Richman *et al.*, 2005) and high employee performance (Wright and Cropanzano, 2000). As low levels of employee wellbeing can also adversely affect both workers and their organizations, a clear identification of worker wellbeing predictors is required in order to formulate an effective theoretical framework for understanding employee wellbeing in Malaysia.

Malaysia consists of people from several different ethnic and cultural backgrounds, thus, another crucial issue for workers and their organizational wellbeing is the issue of workplace justice. Employees from different cultural backgrounds may have different understanding of the organizational practices and of what constitutes justice. Barak and Levin (2002) noted an important relationship between commitment to an organization and

perceived fairness at researcher as a crucial element in determining worker motivation. The importance of organizational justice in employee wellbeing has been highlighted in Western studies (Findler *et al.*, 2007; McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992; Zohar, 1995). Therefore, this study offers better insights into an understanding of employee wellbeing, especially in the collectivistic culture of Malaysia a multi-ethnic society consisting with different socio-cultural groups. The current study takes the same approach as previous studies (Lawson *et al.*, 2009; Lindfors *et al.*, 2007; Rousseau *et al.*, 2009), by adopting JDC (Karasek, 1979) and JDCS (Johnson and Hall, 1988; Karasek and Theorell, 1990) in an organizational justice study. However, this study contributes to knowledge in the field by investigating moderating effects which were not tested in the researcher of Lawson *et al.* (2009) and Lindfors *et al.* (2007) and expands the scope of social support in Rousseau *et al.* (2009)'s researcher by incorporating both supervisor and co-worker support as a moderator variable along with job control, in the context of Malaysian workers. Contrary to Rousseau who focused on procedural and distributive justice, the focus of the current study is on three types of justice: procedural, distributive and interactional justice.

Guided by the Job Demand-Control (JDC) (Karasek, 1979) and Job Demand-Control-Support (JDCS) (Johnson and Hall, 1988; Karasek and Theorell, 1990) models, the present study investigates organizational justice as predictor of employee wellbeing. These models have rarely been investigated in the context of organizational justice in Eastern societies, particularly in Malaysia.

Literature review: Organizational justice refers to the role of fairness in the workplace and employee's perceptions regarding the treatment they have received in the workplace (Cropanzano *et al.*, 2001; Moorman, 1991). Earlier research has described three types of justice in the workplace, namely distributive (Adams, 1965), procedural (Leventhal, 1980; Lind and Tyler, 1988; Thibaut and Walker, 1975; Tyler and Lind, 1992) and interactional (Bies and Moag, 1986; Moorman, 1991). This section discusses these types of justice in order to provide a basis for the understandings adopted for use in this study.

Distributive justice: Based on the initial research by Adam (1965)'s on the equity theory of distributive justice, distributive justice explored the psychological processes involved in forming fairness judgments. This theory hypothesises that individuals are concerned about whether they receive fair outputs (e.g., pay, promotions and professional development) that are commensurate with inputs (e.g., effort and time) in comparison with the input and outcomes of other people in their workplace. For example, if employees find that they are being given less pay and promotions than their researcher colleagues for the same amount and quality of input, those employees will judge their researcher outcomes as unfair. Even though Adam's theory was regarded as the basis of organizational justice research, it also attracted several criticisms. Leventhal (1980) pointed out that the emphasis on the uni-dimensional or single aspect of fairness, namely distributive justice, focused mainly on final output distribution and over-emphasised the importance of fairness in social relationships.

Procedural justice: Following the introduction of the theory of distributive justice, the focus of justice shifted from the evaluation of final outcomes to the allocation process by which the distribution of the outcomes was done (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut and Walker, 1975). Thibaut and Walker (1975) focused on legal procedures in which disputants perceived procedural fairness as having the opportunity to voice their arguments. Based on these understandings, Lind and Tyler (1988) presented two

models of justice the self interest model where, in exercising voice over researcher procedures, individuals have the opportunity to influence outcomes and the group-value model where individuals have the opportunity to voice their opinions in order to satisfy their desire to be heard.

However, in 1980, Leventhal extended the notion of procedural justice beyond the legal context of Thibaut and Walker (1975), by adopting a set of six rules including: the consistency rule, in which procedures should be consistently applied to all people all the time; the bias suppression rule in which procedures were carried out without personal interest and were free from bias the accuracy rule in which decisions were made based on gathered and accurate information the correctability rule, in which opportunities exist to revise inaccurate decisions; the representativeness rule in which allocation procedures must take into consideration the opinions of all people in the organization who are affected by the implemented rules and the ethicality rule, in which designed procedures must be compatible with accepted moral and ethical values.

Research on procedural justice in organizations has been significantly influenced by Leventhal (1980)'s researcher which employed a multi-conception theory of justice as an alternative to equity theory. However, similar to Adam's (1965) equity theory, procedural justice has not been free from criticism. Bies and Moag (1986) argued that organizational justice research mainly focused on the analysis of outcomes (distributive justice) and procedures (procedural justice) as the basis of justice judgments, however, both these groups of researchers failed to address the role of social interactions in justice judgments.

Interactional justice: As an alternative to distributive and procedural justice frameworks, Bies and Moag (1986) established a third approach to organizational justice that is interactional justice. In this frame researcher, Bies and Moag extended interaction factors such as communication which had not been a focus of previous justice research. Particularly, they argued that communication is significant in ensuring that the implementation of procedures is done properly. For example, interactive communication is important in order to ensure the effectiveness of performance appraisal procedures.

According to Bies and Moag (1986), interactional justice deals with "the quality of interpersonal treatment employees received during the enactment of organizational procedures". In two studies involving MBA job candidates, the results found four

communication criteria or principles used to judge fairness, particularly in the context of the job search process: truthfulness-the candidates expected the recruiter to be honest and avoid deception during the recruiting process; respect in communication, referring to politeness and no rudeness propriety of questions, dealing with proper questions and avoiding discrimination or prejudicial statements and justification, referring to the expectation to receive a letter or statement explaining the reasons for not being recruited or for cancellation of interviews. Among these four principles, truthfulness received the highest priority in judging fairness.

Based on the researcher of Bies and Moag (1986), Moorman (1991) developed the interactional justice items measuring the fairness interactions that accompany an organization's formal procedures, focusing on the interpersonal behaviour of supervisors. For example, in their study involving two companies in the United States, respondents were asked whether the supervisor was considerate and kind, considered employee's rights and dealt with employees in a truthful manner (e.g., "Your supervisor treated you with kindness and consideration" and "Your supervisor took steps to deal with you in a truthful manner").

Criticism of the justice components were not confined to the distributive and procedural frame researcher but also directed at the interactional framework. Interactional justice received a critique as to whether it was an independent component of organizational justice or part of procedural justice (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001; Greenberg, 1993). Later, Bies, (2001) argued that interactional justice is a distinct component of procedural justice and explained that the concept is not confined to interpersonal treatment during the enactment of organizational justice which is consistent with Moorman (1991)'s researcher. In another study, Colquitt *et al.* (2001) expanded the concept of interactional justice into two components: informational justice and interpersonal justice. Fujishiro and Heaney (2007) stated that, although there were contradictory opinions (Bies, 2001; Bies and Moag, 1986; Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001; Greenberg, 1993) on the status of interactional justice as an independent component of justice, it is beneficial to separate it as a third component of justice.

In accordance with the studies by Moorman (1991) and Fujishiro and Heaney (2007) of organizational justice, this study adopts all three components of justice, namely, distributive, procedural and interactional justice in the context of Malaysian organizations to represent overall justice in the workplace. Since, the present study is conducted in a non-Western setting in the manufacturing sector, the overall findings should contribute to further

understanding of the cross-cultural aspect of organizational justice as the reliable predictor of employee wellbeing. Since the interactional justice concept has not been widely studied in Malaysian research, the present study focuses on the overall interactional components rather than distinguishing it as two parts. Reviewing the three components of justice in the literature, the current study adopts the summary of these components formulated by Cropanzano *et al.* (2001) as follows: Judgments regarding the fairness of outcomes or allocations have been termed "distributive justice". Judgments regarding the fairness of process elements are termed "procedural justice" and judgments regarding the fairness of interpersonal interactions are termed "interactional justice".

Justice in the workplace: The experience of justice in the workplace produces positive consequences as reported in previous studies (Colquitt *et al.*, 2001; Fatt *et al.*, 2010; Sutinen *et al.*, 2002; Kivimaki *et al.*, 2004). For example, an earlier study by Moorman involving 225 employees in two companies in the United States found that employees who perceived that they were fairly treated tended to possess positive attitudes towards their jobs, their job outcomes and their supervisors. In terms of organizational justice components Moorman found that interactional justice is the easiest practice through which a supervisor or manager can enhance employee's perception of fairness. On the other hand, both distributive and procedural justice frameworks are difficult to implement in ways that are consistent with those expected by employees. They might also be a constraint that is beyond either employer control or organizational policy.

A meta-analysis by Colquitt *et al.* (2001), involving 183 research articles on organizational justice in the workplace, found that organizational justice is a crucial aspect of managerial functioning which is associated with positive job outcomes including job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. In addition, job satisfaction was found to be highly associated with procedural and distributive justice.

The success of properly administered organizational justice is related to not only work-related wellbeing including job satisfaction but also improved employee health (Elovainio *et al.*, 2002; Kivimaki *et al.*, 2004; Kivimaki *et al.*, 2004) conducted a prospective cohort study involving 10,308 British civil servants and found there was a statistically significant association between perceived justice and health. After receiving improvement in organizational justice, male workers reported improved health compared to the baseline period.

Job satisfaction as a significant researcher outcome associated with organizational justice was evidenced not only in Colquitt *et al.* (2001)'s review of earlier studies from 1975-1999 but has continued to be confirmed in recent studies. For example, surveys such as that conducted by Fujishiro and Heaney (2007), involving 357 employees of a furniture distribution company in the United States, have shown that supervision, management and wage fairness were significantly correlated with employee job satisfaction. Lindfors *et al.* (2007)'s study of 258 Finnish male anaesthesiologists also found that organizational justice was the most important predictor of job satisfaction.

The universality of organizational justice predicting employee wellbeing has been highlighted by previous studies (Findler *et al.*, 2007; McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992; Zohar, 1995). Findler *et al.* (2007) carried out a study involving 250 Israeli employees and found that employees who perceived fair organizational process reported a higher sense of wellbeing. In a recent study of 160 correctional employees in the US, Lambert *et al.* (2010) confirmed that procedural justice has a positive relationship with life satisfaction. They reported few studies being conducted to investigate the relationship between justice and life satisfaction. Thus, the current study is among a few to date that incorporates justice and life satisfaction as dimensions of employee wellbeing. With Xie (1996)'s recommendation for research in a collectivistic society in mind, the current study will investigate organizational justice as one of the predictors of Malaysian worker's wellbeing.

Numerous studies have confirmed the positive consequences of organizational justice on employee wellbeing but as pointed out in Fujishiro and Heaney (2007)'s findings, although perceptions of fairness regarding supervisor and wages were associated with job satisfaction, they were not associated with employee's psychological wellbeing. She claimed that psychological wellbeing was not substantially affected by fairness in the workplace and suggested the need to consider factors outside researcher such as family matters. Thus, this study considers it is worth incorporating both researcher factors (psychosocial researcher environment and organizational justice) and non work issues (work family conflict) to predict employee wellbeing.

Organizational justice and its significance in employee wellbeing have not only been recognised by western scholars but are also of interest in research in Eastern settings. For example, two studies involving Malaysian workers found that reduced employee turnover intentions and job satisfaction were the outcomes of properly administered procedural and distributive justice among employees (Fatt *et al.*, 2010; Hemdi and Nasurdin,

2007). Similarly, Yom (2010)'s study, involving 274 nurses in general hospitals in Korea, found that all three components of justice (procedural, interactional and distributive) were influential in decreasing the intention of nurses to leave their organizations. In another study conducted by Bakshi *et al.* (2009), involving 128 medical college employees in India, results indicated that procedural and distributive justice significantly improve organizational commitment. Thus, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1: Organizational justice (Procedural Justice (PJ), Interactional Justice (IJ) and Distributive Justice (DJ)) will be positively related to employee wellbeing (Job Satisfaction (Js), Positive Affect (PA), Negative Affect (NA)).

Moderators in the organizational justice literature: The literature related to the importance of justice and its impact in the workplace generally focuses on the direct relationship between justice and job-related wellbeing such as job satisfaction, performance and health. Although most of the findings are corroborated in terms of the negative consequences of injustice on employee wellbeing have led to suggestions for eliminating the sources of injustice, some commentators such as Greenberg (2004) observe that it is difficult or even impossible to entertain the interests of all employees working in the same organization. If eliminating all sources of injustice in the workplace is beyond employer and organizational control, Rousseau *et al.* (2009) suggest that it is important to consider factors that might buffer stressors related to perceived low justice and wellbeing. In addition, state that examining the moderating effect on the relationship between organizational justice and health can expand the findings of previous studies which mostly focused on the direct relationship.

The majority of organizational justice studies focus on the main effect of justice on wellbeing and assess perceived low justice or injustice as an occupational stressor (Fujishiro and Heaney, 2007), however, a few investigate the moderating effect (Elovainio *et al.*, 2001; Kausto *et al.*, 2005; Rousseau *et al.*, 2009). For instance, in a study involving 1,443 Finnish workers, found that perceived job insecurity moderated the association between procedural and interactional justice and employee wellbeing. Employees who perceived low justice and job insecurity reported low wellbeing. In another moderating effect study, Elovainio *et al.* (2001) surveyed 688 employees in Finland and tested the moderating effect of justice on job control and strain relationship. They reported that justice did not moderate the association between job control and worker's strain. In a more recent

study, tested job control (researcher autonomy) and co-worker support as moderating variables in the relationship between organizational justice and psychological distress involving 248 prison employees in Canada. Their results supported the hypothesis that co-workers moderated the relationships between both procedural and distributive justice and psychological distress. However, job control only moderated the relationship between procedural justice and psychological distress.

Taking into account the possible buffering effect of moderator variables in the association between perceived low justice and employee wellbeing, the current study investigates two significant environmental factors (job control and social support) as postulated by Johnson and Hall (1988), Karasek (1979) and Karasek and Theorell (1990). The current study applied the JDC and JDCS models in the context of organizational justice. More specifically, the current study contributes to the literature in testing:

Hypothesis 2a: Job control will moderate the relationship between PJ and employee wellbeing (JS, PA, NA). (The positive predictor relationship between procedural justice and employee wellbeing will be stronger for employees with high job control).

Hypothesis 2b: Job control will moderate the relationship between IJ and employee wellbeing (JS, PA, NA). (The positive predictor relationship between interactional justice and employee wellbeing will be stronger for employees with high job control).

Hypothesis 2c: Job control will moderate the relationship between DJ and employee wellbeing (JS, PA, NA). (The positive predictor relationship between distributive justice and employee wellbeing will be stronger for employees with high job control).

Hypothesis 3a: Social support will moderate the relationship between PJ and employee wellbeing (JS, PA, NA). The positive predictor relationship between procedural justice and employee wellbeing will be stronger for employees with high social support).

Hypothesis 3b: Social support will moderate the relationship between IJ and employee wellbeing (JS, PA, NA). (The positive predictor relationship between interactional justice and employee wellbeing will be stronger for employees with high social support).

Hypothesis 3c: Social support will moderate the relationship between DJ and employee wellbeing (JS, PA,

NA). (The positive predictor relationship between distributive justice and employee wellbeing will be stronger for employees with high social support).

Participants and procedure: A sample of 1125 Malaysian workers, consisting of 536 men (47.6%) and 589 women (52.4%) aged from 18-59 years participated in this study. Respondents were selected from a chosen industry, situated on the East and West Coast of Peninsula Malaysia, where more manufacturing companies are located by approaching the top management team members (Chen *et al.*, 2009), managers or employees with whom the researcher has professional connections or personal contacts (Lu *et al.*, 2006). In each organization, the contact person was the Human Resources Manager who helped the researcher in identifying the prospective respondents and distributing and collecting the questionnaires.

Instruments: The instruments used in this study were translated into Malay language using back to back translation.

Organizational justice: Moorman (1991)'s scale contains 18 items with 3 subscales: procedural (7 items), interactional (6 items) and distributive justice (5 items). The first subscale measures the extent to which managerial procedures suppress bias and promote consistency, accuracy, correctability, representativeness and ethicality (sample item: "Procedures are designed to hear the concerns of all those affected by the decision"). The second subscale indicates the quality of interpersonal behaviour of the supervisor, the degree of attention of the supervisor to the employee's rights and the truthfulness and trustfulness of the supervisor in dealing with the employees (sample item: "Your supervisor is able to suppress personal biases"). The final subscale assesses whether rewards are fairly distributed consistent with the employee's responsibilities, experience, effort, researchers and strain (sample item: "Fairly rewarded in view of the amount of experience you have"). Respondents expressed their levels of agreement on a 5 point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree to each statement. Higher scores on this subscale represent higher levels of perceived organizational justice. In the current study, internal consistencies of the subscales were between 0.84 and 0.93 which are consistent with studies by Elovainio *et al.* (2002, 2001) which indicated Cronbach's alphas 0.90 and 0.81, respectively.

Job control and social support: Nine items of job control ("My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my

own”) and eight items of social support (e.g., “People I researcher with are competent in doing their jobs”) measures were derived from the Job Content Questionnaire (JCQ) . In the present study, Cronbach’s alpha was 0.60 for job control and 0.84 for social support.

Job satisfaction: This study measured the composite job satisfaction by using the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). Thirty-six items were used to assess total job satisfaction. Respondents who agree with positively worded items (e.g., “I feel I am being paid amount for the work I do”) and disagree with negatively worded items (e.g., “There is really too little chance for promotion on my job”) will have high scores on JSS, indicating higher levels of job satisfaction. The present study’s Cronbach’s alphas was 0.84 (Cronbach, 1987).

Procedure: Approval from the victoria university human research ethics committee was obtained. Respondents were selected from a chosen industry, situated on the East and West Coast of Peninsula Malaysia where more manufacturing companies are located (Fujishiro and Heaney, 2007) by approaching the top management team members (Elovainio *et al.*, 2005), managers or employees with whom the researcher has professional connections or personal contacts (Lu *et al.*, 2006). In each organization, the contact person was the human resources manager who helped the researcher in identifying the prospective respondents and distributing and collecting the questionnaires. To ensure that the procedure of data collection followed by ethical considerations, the researcher included the information letter explaining the aim of the research, research instructions and confidentiality as well as the consent form.

Statistical analysis: Hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to test the direct and moderating effect hypotheses (Elovainio *et al.*, 2001). This technique has been widely used in researcher stress literature testing the JDC and JDCS models (Macklin *et al.*, 2006; Rousseau *et al.*, 2009). In this study, two-way interaction and three-way interaction were tested. Thus, this study created interaction terms by standardizing the variables before multiplying the variables together as recommended as this technique is able to reduce the risk of multicollinearity (Elovainio *et al.*, 2002). The variables were introduced into the regression models in several successive steps. In the first step, demographic variables were entered into the model as control variables. With regards to direct effect, this study tested the effects of PJ, IJ, DJ, job control and social support in predicting employee wellbeing. Thus, these five variables were

entered into the model in the second step. In the third step, two-way interaction was added into the model (PJ x job control, IJ x job control, DJ x job control, PJ x social support, IJ x social support, DJ x social support). Statistical significance of the term indicates evidence for the moderation effect. The graphical plot further explain the pattern of moderating effect (Aiken *et al.*, 1991).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

All data entry and analyses were conducted using SPSS Version 20. PJ, IJ, DJ, job control and social support were correlated with wellbeing (job satisfaction, positive and negative affects) in the expected direction. A summary of the means, standard deviations and correlations between variables is shown in Table 1.

Table 2 presents the results of regression analysis tested the main and moderating effects hypotheses. Control variables (gender, age, ethnicity and marital status) accounted for a significant increment explaining 1.9, 2.0 and 0.8% of variance in each wellbeing indicators. The variables of organizational justice, job control and social support were entered in the second step of the analyses which was significant for job satisfaction ($F(5, 1115) = 78.58, p < 0.001, \Delta R^2 0.354$), positive affect ($F(5, 1115) = 21.96, p < 0.001, \Delta R^2 0.142$) and negative affect ($F(5, 1115) = 2.23, p < 0.001, \Delta R^2 0.061$). Thus, hypothesis 1 was supported.

The third step of regression analyses revealed that only the two way interaction; IJ x JC ($F(6, 1109) = 33.26, p < 0.001, \Delta R^2 0.025$), DJ x JC ($F(6, 1109) = 15.35, p < 0.001, \Delta R^2 0.029$) gained significance for job satisfaction and positive affect respectively which were consistent with Hypothesis 2b and Hypothesis 2c. However, other hypotheses were not supported (2a, 3a-c).

Figure 1 indicates a positive predictor relationship between interactional justice and job satisfaction for employees who reported high or low job control. Examining the pattern of significance of this two-way interaction ($\alpha = -0.068, SE = 0.017, p < 0.05$), the observed two-way interaction effect explained that when employees perceived high interactional justice, the levels of job satisfaction increased among workers with low job control. In contrast, employees who perceived the interactive effect of high interactional justice and high job control reported lower levels of job satisfaction.

Figure 2 displays a positive relationship between high distributive justice and positive affect. The interactive effect of high distributive justice and high job control ($\alpha = 0.091, SE = 0.019, p < 0.01$) significantly increases employee’s reported experience of positive affect. The current findings partially confirm the two-way

Table 1: Means, standard deviations and correlations between study variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
PJ	24.96	4.30	-	0.4900**	0.3900**	0.1900*	0.38**	0.34**	0.21**	-0.05
IJ	20.90	3.72	0.4900**	-	0.4600**	0.2100*	0.58**	0.43**	0.24**	-0.10**
DJ	15.04	4.33	0.3900**	0.4600**	-	0.1600**	0.35**	0.43**	0.16**	-0.04
JC	37.81	4.74	0.1900**	0.2100**	0.1600**	-	0.26**	0.11**	0.31**	-0.02
SS	23.37	3.33	0.3800**	0.5800**	0.3500**	0.2600**	-	0.43**	0.24**	-0.07*
JS	132.66	19.50	0.3400**	0.4300**	0.4300**	0.1100**	0.43**	-	0.23**	-0.24**
PA	32.63	6.00	0.2100**	0.2400**	0.1600**	0.3100**	0.23**	0.23**	-	0.05
NA	21.80	60.79	-0.0500	-0.1000**	-0.0400	-0.0200	-0.07*	-0.24**	-0.05	-

N =1125. All are significant at *p<0.05; **p<0.01; PJ: Procedural Justice, IJ: Interactional Justice, DJ: Distributive Justice, JC: Job Control, SS: Social Support, JS: Job Satisfaction, PA: Positive Affect, NA: Negative Affect

Table 2: Results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses: standardized coefficient (beta values)

Predictors	Job satisfaction	Positive affect	Negative affect
Gender	-0.039	0.133***	0.019000
Age	0.028	0.025	0.064000*
Ethnic	-0.120***	0.039	0.031000
Marital status	-0.41	-0.047	0.031000
Block 1 R ² and ΔR ²	0.019/.019***	0.020/.020***	0.008/0.08
Procedural Justice (PJ)	0.069*	0.094**	-0.0040000
Interactional Justice (IJ)	0.132***	0.070	-0.0630000
Distributive Justice (DJ)	0.213***	0.045	0.0230000
Job Control (JC)	-0.015	0.228***	0.0060000
Social Support (SS)	0.183***	0.065	0.0170000
Block 2 R ² and ΔR ²	0.373/.354***	0.162/.142***	0.069/0.061
PJ×JC	-0.014	-0.034	0.0490000
PJ×SS	0.043	0.070	0.0060000
IJ×JC	-0.068*	0.012	0.0490000
IJ×SS	-0.049	0.029	0.0050000
DJ×JC	0.049	0.091***	0.0620000
DJ×SS	-0.008	0.004	0.0870000*

The bold columns show the last significant block. *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001, PJ = Procedural Justice; IJ = Interactional Justice; DJ = Distributive Justice; JC = Job Control; SS = Social Support

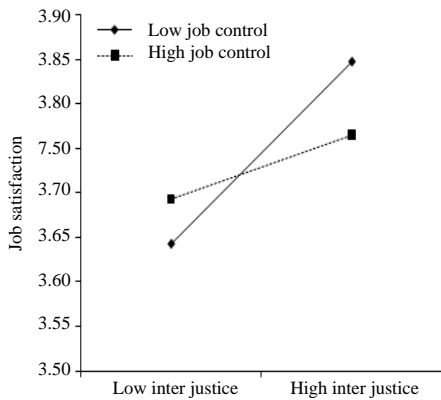


Fig. 1: Job control as moderator between interactional justice and job satisfaction

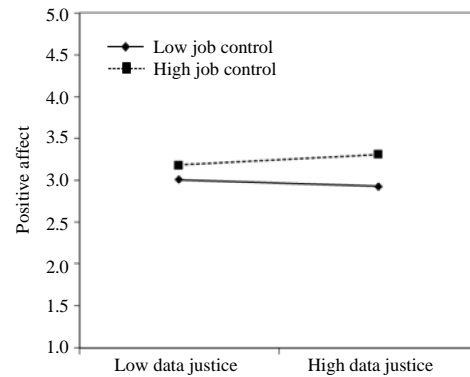


Fig. 2: Job control as moderator between distributive justice and positive affect

interaction effects of organizational justice and job control in predicting job satisfaction and positive affect but this interactive effect was not significant in predicting other wellbeing indicators. The significant moderating effect of job control on job satisfaction might be related to the claim by Warr (1987), that specific job-related mental health factors (like job satisfaction) were likely to have a significantly greater impact compared to context-free mental life factors which deal with general wellbeing. In

terms of positive affect, Langford reported that positive affectivity tended to capture the aspect of the employee’s level of positivity towards their jobs and researcher tasks. Thus, these two-way moderating effects are significant and these two criterion variables (job satisfaction and positive affect) have been perceived as the most dominant dimensions of wellbeing. However, the two-way interaction between job control and interactional justice is contrary to the prediction of the JDC Model. In this

study, Malaysian employees who perceived interactional justice and high job control reported having lower job satisfaction. As discussed earlier, a possible reason for this contradiction with the Western designed JDC model is that the culture in which workers in this collectivistic society operates makes them uncomfortable with situations in which there is a low power distance. Assembly workers and supervisors in this study, who are working in groups, might have no experience in taking personal responsibility in group situations and prefer to be led by team leaders rather than take personal control over their researcher tasks.

Unlike the moderating effect of job control contributing to low job satisfaction, the interaction effect of distributive justice and high job control was found to significantly increase employee's reported experience of positive affect. This finding may be explained by the fact that employees in this study actually benefitted from their perceived high job control which resulted in increased positive affect in their non-job specific daily lives.

Since, only a few studies have investigated this aspect, these findings regarding the role of job control in moderating the relationship between organizational justice and employee wellbeing in Malaysia, contribute to the cross-cultural literature. No study has been found that tested the moderating role of job control on the relationship between distributive justice and employee wellbeing in collective societies, particularly Malaysia. Furthermore, previous research findings into the moderating effect of job control on organizational justice (procedural justice) and its outcomes have been inconsistent and contradictory (Elovainio *et al.*, 2001; Elovainio *et al.*, 2005; Rousseau *et al.*, 2009). It is plausible that the insignificant moderating effect of job control on the relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction could be attributed to the different perceptions of respondents regarding the importance of control and justice. For example, Rousseau *et al.* (2009)'s study was conducted in a prison setting involving correctional officers for whom the effect of perceived justice on work outcomes was more salient than for the current study participants (from a manufacturing setting). For the respondents in sample, having control on the job was synonymous with the nature of their researcher which involves applying sanctions on prisoners.

The current study also tested the moderating effect of social support in the relationship between organizational justice (procedural, interactional and distributive justice) and employee wellbeing. In contrast to earlier findings however, no evidence of the moderating effect of social support on each of the wellbeing indicators could be demonstrated in the current findings.

A possible explanation for the non-significant moderating effect of social support is that, although the validity and reliability of both social support and interactional justice were proved, according to Fujishiro and Heaney (2007), an overlap in the conceptualisation and operationalisation of social support and interactional justice, as perceived by the respondents might occur. The possibility of construct overlapping was argued by Kivimaki *et al.* (2004) when they used social support measures to assess interactional justice. In addition, Elovainio *et al.* (2001) stated that "high interactional justice represents an element in employee's experience of the availability of social support from the organization, the most powerful segment from the organization" (422).

CONCLUSION

Another possible reason for the non-significant effect of social support on the organizational justice relationship (not investigated in the current study) is that other factors may indirectly moderate employee's perception of justice. Lam *et al.* (2002) pointed out that in Hofstede (1991)'s study, dimensions of culture and power distance moderated the relationship between perceived justice and employee researcher wellbeing outcomes including satisfaction, performance and absenteeism. However, the effect of perceived justice on these outcomes in Lam study was stronger among workers scoring lower power distance (United States) than higher power distance (Hong Kong). This, as also evidenced in the contrast between the high power distance culture of Malaysia and the low power distance of Canada revealed by Rousseau *et al.* (2009) explains the contradictory findings. In sum, the current study conducted in a collectivist culture setting provides a little evidence for the buffering effects hypotheses (two-way interaction).

LIMITATIONS

In interpreting the current findings, several concerns on methodology need to be considered. For example, all data derived from self-report which can lead to common source bias. However, it is recommended that future studies should incorporate a triangulation of data collection by including qualitative methods. Noblet (2003) stated that focus groups and in-depth one-to-one interviews provide better understanding of both individual and organisational factors that contribute to the investigated concerns.

Another concern about this study was cross sectional design. For this reason, the ability to draw firm findings and conclusions pertaining to the predictor

variables on employee wellbeing would be further strengthened by a longitudinal study. This approach could generate better understanding of the most reliable predictors of employee wellbeing in Malaysian organizations. Finally, another concern was the unspecified dimension of job control measure used in the study inconsistent with studies by Elovainio *et al.* (2005) and Rousseau *et al.* (2009). Furthermore, the alpha for job control was rather low. Future research could consider using specified job control measure for better findings.

IMPLICATIONS

The finding of this study indicates the importance of organizational justice as a predictor of work related wellbeing. The literature clearly highlights the guidelines for human resource managers of organizational procedural justice including consistency, suppression of bias, accuracy, correctability, representation and ethicality (Leventhal, 1980). This indicates that the implementation of these interventions aimed at improving organizational justice should have a positive impact on employees as well as organizations. However, although it is impossible to take into account the interests and preferences of all employees in the organization (Greenberg, 2004), it is beneficial to organize training programs that enhance manager's awareness about the importance of justice in the workplace (Rousseau *et al.*, 2009). Greenberg also found that training programs can raise the consciousness of managers to understand the impact of every decision and procedure made on the employees. Malaysia has a multi-ethnic workforce, therefore, it is important to promote a just and inclusive organizational working culture which can create a sense of belonging, satisfaction and commitment among employees.

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